**Rhetoric Notes:**

Introduction

Whenever you write a persuasive essay, talking points for a debate, or an argumentative essay, you use rhetoric. Rhetoric is the language you use to communicate your writing’s core message. Rhetoric can appear in just about any kind of writing—but the type of rhetoric you use depends on the kind of writing you are doing and the message you are communicating.

What is Rhetoric

Rhetoric is language that is carefully constructed to persuade, motivate, or inform the reader or listener about the speaker or writer’s position. You might have heard the term used in discussions about politicians and political goals. That is because politicians, alongside people in other roles that involve public speaking, employ rhetoric regularly. In fact, the word “rhetoric” comes from the Greek “rhetorikos,” which means “oratory.”

You are probably familiar with the concept of a rhetorical question. A rhetorical question is a question that is often asked to a broad audience in an effort to get the audience thinking seriously about the question and its implications. The speaker or writer does not typically expect answers to the question; their goal is to facilitate a discussion. Here are a few examples of rhetorical questions:

* Are we doing the right thing?
* What is this, a joke?
* Can you imagine that?

However, in academic writing, rhetorical questions are prohibited; they are used in informal writing mostly.

Why is Rhetoric Important

Rhetoric is important because it provides a framework for critical thinking. It demonstrates your thought processes as a writer and speaker. By doing this, it illustrates your arguments’ strengths.

To understand rhetoric, you need to understand the concept of heuristics. A heuristic is a practical approach to problem-solving or self-discovery. When you make an educated guess about something or use trial and error to reach a conclusion, you have used a heuristic. With heuristics, you do not necessarily have to reach a precise answer; the goal is to reach an approximate or otherwise “good enough” solution.

Examples of heuristics:

* Drawing a diagram to work out a logistical or mathematical problem
* Working out a solution to an obstacle by assuming you already have a solution, then working backward through the theoretical steps you would have taken to reach that solution
* Using a concrete example to illustrate an abstract challenge

Heuristics play a key role in rhetoric because speakers and writers often use them to illustrate the points they are making. You might write a persuasive essay about the value an overnight campus shuttle service would provide by calculating its approximate cost and discussing the benefits it would provide in contrast to the percentage of the campus’ operating budget it would require. In this example, your rough monetary calculations and their value compared to the shuttle’s intangible benefits are heuristics.

The Rhetorical Triangle: Ethos, Pathos, and Logos

In his writing on rhetoric, Aristotle defined the three distinct modes of persuasion that we still recognize and use:

* Logos
* Ethos
* Pathos

Logos is language crafted to appeal to logic and reasoning. When you appeal to logos in an argument, you support your position with facts and data. Here is an example of an argument that appeals to logos:

None of the kids were home when the cookie jar was raided, so the cookie thief could not have been one of them.

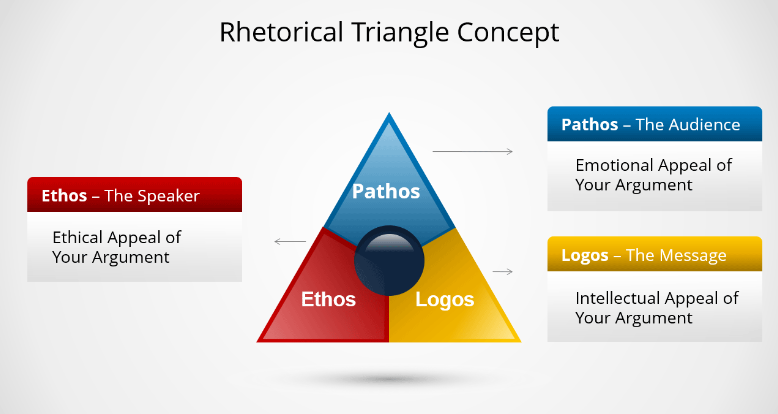
Ethos is language whose credibility comes from its speaker’s reputation or authority. This authority can come from their credentials, like a doctor discussing the most effective means of preventing pathogen transmission, or from their position within a narrative or situation, like a car accident witness describing the collision they saw. In your writing, you might appeal to ethos like this:

I started exercising twice per week because my doctor said it would help alleviate my pain.

Pathos is language that creates an emotional connection with the reader or listener. Pathos attempts to persuade, motivate, or inform the audience by making them empathize with the speaker. Here is an example of pathos:

Please donate to the animal shelter. We are desperately in need of funding to help our animals, and every dollar counts.

The rhetorical triangle is the graphical representation of the three modes of discourse as an equilateral triangle. By showing all three concepts as equally spaced-apart points, it demonstrates their equal importance to effective communication. This does not mean every piece of effective communication uses all three—pathos has no place in a lab report, for example—but that all three are equally effective when used appropriately.



Rhetorical devices

Rhetoric in types of writing like narrative writing and poetry often relies on linguistic tools like figurative language and well-known figures of speech. These tools are known as rhetorical devices. Through a rhetorical device, you can make your argument feel more pressing, make it stick in listeners’ and/or readers’ minds, enable them to empathize with you or your characters, and drive them to think differently about the issue you are presenting.

There are lots of different rhetorical devices you can employ in your writing. Here are a few common ones:

Hyperbole: is an extreme exaggeration meant to highlight the issue presented:

“I deal with thousands of angry customers every day.”

With hyperbole, both the speaker and the listener know it is an exaggeration. The goal is to demonstrate how an issue compares to the norm or to other issues by positioning it as wildly outside the norm.

Meiosis: The reverse of hyperbole, meiosis emphasizes how far outside the norm an issue is through extreme understatement:

“Compared to others in the area, our school was empty.”

Epistrophe: is the repetition of a word through successive phrases, clauses, or sentences for the purpose of emphasizing it as a concept. Typically, [parallelism](https://www.grammarly.com/blog/parallelism/) is employed to underscore this repetition and give the speech a poetic quality. Abraham Lincoln used epistrophe in this famous excerpt from the Gettysburg Address:

“. . . government of the people, by the people, for the people, shall not perish from the earth.”

Metaphor: is a type of figurative language that compares two topics by claiming that one literally is the other:

“My mother’s cooking is heaven on earth.”

Chiasmus: is the repetition of a sentence with the word order switched around. Perhaps the most famous example of chiasmus comes from President John F. Kennedy:

“Ask not what your country can do for you—ask what you can do for your country.”

The liberal arts denote the seven branches of knowledge that initiate the young into a life of learning.

1. Logic- art of thinking
2. Grammar- art of inventing and combining symbols
3. Rhetoric- art of communication
4. Arithmetic- theory of number
5. Music- application of the theory of number
6. Geometry- theory of space
7. Astronomy- application of the theory of space

The “Trivium” comprises the logic, grammar, and rhetoric part.

The “Quadrivium” is made up of the arithmetic, music, geometry, and astronomy parts.

These arts of reading, writing, and reckoning have formed the traditional basis of liberal education, each constituting both a field of knowledge and the technique to acquire that knowledge.

A mastery of the liberal arts is widely recognized as the best preparation for work in professional schools, such as those of medicine, law, engineering, or theology.

Utilitarian arts- in academics- are considered things like carpentry, masonry, plumbing, salesmanship, printing, editing, banking, law, medicine, or the ‘care of souls.’

The seven ‘fine arts’- in academics- are considered things like architecture, instrumental music, sculpture, painting, literature, drama, and dance.

Modality in rhetoric refers to the degree of certainty, obligation, or necessity expressed in a statement.

Learning in the liberal arts is focused on personal growth rather than earning money. The learner, or "agent," initiates and benefits from this process, improving themselves through their studies. Unlike vocational fields where the work might lead to payment, in liberal arts, the student often pays for instruction, investing in their own development rather than working for external rewards.

There are three classifications of goods:

1. Valuable-these goods are both wanted by the consumer, and help increase the consumer’s intrinsic value
2. Useful-these goods are wanted because they enable the consumer to use it in acquiring other goods
3. Pleasurable- these good are desired only to be had- they give satisfaction to the consumer and nothing more

The liberal arts teach one how to live; they train the faculties and bring them to perfection; they enable a person to rise above his material environment to live an intellectual, a rational, and therefore a free life in gaining truth.

Each of the liberal arts is both a science and an art in the sense that in the province of each there is something to know (science) and something to do (art).

The trivium is the organon, or instrument, of all education at all levels because the arts of logic, grammar, and rhetoric are the arts of communication itself in that they govern the means of communication—namely, reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Grammar is knowledge of the usage of language and consists of:

1. Trained reading
2. Exposition
3. Making complex topics easier to understand
4. Understand the origins and historical development of words
5. Describing or identifying the similarities and relationships between different concepts, objects, or experiences
6. Analyzing and evaluating poetry

If the reader or listener receives the same ideas and emotions that the writer or speaker wished to convey, he understands (although he may disagree); if he receives no ideas, he does not understand; if different ideas, he misunderstands.

The accrual of facts is mere information and is not worthy to be called education since it burdens the mind and dulls it instead of developing, enlightening, and refining. Even if one forgets many of the facts once learned and related, the mind retains the vigor and precision gained by its exercise upon them. It can do this, however, only by grappling with facts and ideas. Moreover, it is much easier to remember related ideas than dissimilar ideas.

The purpose of the trivium is the training of the mind for the study of substance and essence, which together constitute the totality of reality.

Metaphysics or ontology, the science of being, is concerned with reality, with the thing-as-it-exists.

As they relate to reality: logic is concerned with the thing-as-it-is-known, grammar is concerned with the thing-as-it-is-symbolized, and rhetoric is concerned with the thing-as-it-is-communicated.

Rhetoric is the master art of the trivium, for it presumes and makes use of grammar and logic; it is the art of communicating- through symbols- ideas about reality.

Where grammar concerns combining words for correct sentence formation, spelling concerns the arrangement of letters for correct word formation, and phonetics is concerned with combining sounds correctly for the formation of spoken words.

Rhetoric is responsible for the combining of sentences into paragraphs and whole compositions by encouraging the author to use unity, coherence, emphasis, and clarity in construction.

Logic means combining concepts into judgments and patterns of reasoning to reach truthful conclusions.

The adaptation of language to circumstance, which is a function of rhetoric, requires the choice of a certain style and diction in speaking to adults, of a different style in presenting scientific ideas to the general public, and of another in presenting them to a group of scientists.

Because the arts of language are normative, they are practical studies as contrasted with speculative. A speculative study is one that merely seeks to know—for example, astronomy. We can merely know about the heavenly bodies. We cannot influence their movements.

Correctness is the norm of phonetics, spelling, and grammar.

Effectiveness is the norm of rhetoric.

Truth is the norm of logic. Correctness in thinking is the normal means to reach truth, which is the conformity of thought with things as they are—with reality.

The function of language is to communicate thought, volition, and emotion.

All animals- including man- can communicate through some sort of vocalization. Only with humans can these vocalizations be crafted into sentences.

Two possible modes of communication through physical material or medium:

1. Imitation: an artificial likeness used to communicate
2. Symbols: an arbitrary sign with a meaning connected to something experienced by the senses

Symbols may derive meaning from nature or convention and can be temporary or permanent.

Special symbols are designed by experts to express with precision ideas in a special field of knowledge, for example: mathematics, chemistry, music. Such special languages are international and do not require translation, for their symbols are understood by people of all nationalities in their own language.

Every dead language, such as Latin, was at one time a living common language. It may be serviceable for special uses, such as liturgy or doctrine,6 from the very fact that it is a dead language and, therefore, not subject to changes or to a variety of interpretations as a living language is. A dead language is more likely to be understood in exactly the same way in all times and places.

Matter is defined as the first fundamental and purely probable belief of a physical essence; as such, it cannot actually exist without form, for it is not a body but a principle of a body, basically constituting it. Form is the first intrinsic and actual principle of a corporeal essence.

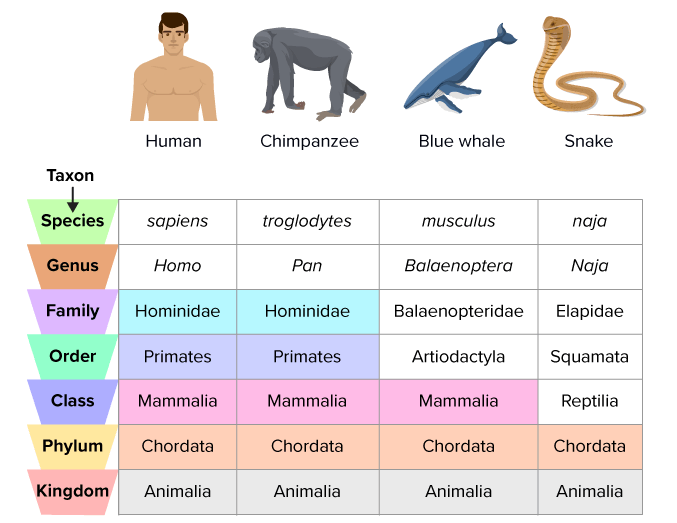
The matter of words in spoken language is the sound. This aspect of language is treated in phonetics. The matter of words in written language is the mark or notation. It is treated in orthography or spelling. The form of words is their meaning, and it is treated in semantics.

In metaphysics or ontology, the science of being, one can distinguish the individual and the essence. The individual is any physical being that exists. Only the individual exists in the sense that every material being that exists or has existed is an individual, is itself and not another, and is, therefore, in its individuality unique.

Essence is that in an individual which makes it like others in its class.

Inasmuch as every individual belongs to a class, which in turn belongs to a wider class, we distinguish these classes as species and genus. A species is a class made up of individuals that have in common the same specific essence or nature.

A genus is a wider class made up of two or more different species that have in common the same generic essence or nature.



An aggregate or group of individuals must be clearly distinguished from a species or a genus. An aggregate is merely a particular group of individuals, such as the trees in Central Park, the inhabitants of California, the Philadelphia Orchestra, the items on a desk, the furniture in a house.

Language can symbolize an individual or an aggregate by either a proper name or a particular or empirical description.

A common name or a general description should capture the fundamental characteristics or nature of a category, even if what it describes doesn't necessarily exist in reality.

How might someone infer ideas from reality and how could they classify them? Generating a universal idea or concept involves several steps, a process more fully treated in the study of psychology.

The external senses, which include sight, hearing, touch, smell, and taste, function by interacting with an object that is directly in front of us, creating a perception of it. On the other hand, the internal senses, mainly imagination, generate a mental representation or image of the specific object we have sensed. This mental image is stored in our memory and can be recalled voluntarily, even when the actual object is not present.

A percept is the mental result or representation of perceiving something through the senses. It's essentially how the brain interprets sensory information to form an understanding or awareness of the environment.

The imagination serves as the intersection where sensory experiences and intellectual understanding come together. Within the imagination, from the mental images or phantasms it creates, the intellect extracts the common and essential qualities shared by phantasms of alike objects (such as trees or chairs). These extracted qualities define the essence of each object, determining what fundamentally constitutes a tree as a tree or a chair as a chair.

A general concept is a broad idea that exists solely within the mind, yet its basis is rooted in the external essence of individuals, which defines their nature or type. This essence, existing outside the mind, is what makes each thing uniquely what it is.

Only humans possess the ability for intellectual abstraction, meaning only humans can develop general or universal ideas. While animals also have external and internal senses, often sharper than humans', they lack rational capabilities such as intellect, intellectual memory, and free will. As a result, animals cannot achieve progress or culture.

Once the human intellect creates symbols from reality, those symbols or words can be manipulated and catalogued to increase our understanding of reality.

Aristotle's ten categories are a framework for classifying everything that can be spoken about.

1. Substance- anything that “exits unto itself”
2. Quantity- when a thing gives itself parts distinct from other parts
3. Quality- when a thing determines its nature or form
4. Relation- references how one thing connects to another
5. Action- the exercise of a thing to produce some effect
6. Passion- how one thing reacts to an effect produced by something else
7. When- the position of a thing relating to events outside itself
8. Where- the position of a thing related to things around it
9. Posture- the relative position of a thing’s parts from its other parts
10. Habiliment- consists of clothing, ornamentation, or other manner of external expression

Those ten categories can be fit into another 3 subcategories based on what they predicate about the subject:

1. Substance: This remains its own category due to its fundamental nature. It refers to what a thing is, encompassing individual entities (primary substances) that exist in their own right and the species or genera (secondary substances) to which these entities belong. Substance is the most basic and essential category, serving as the subject to which other categories can be applied.
2. Quantity and Quality: These two categories often go hand-in-hand because they both describe properties or attributes of substances. Quantity refers to the measurable aspects of a substance (how much, how many), while Quality describes the characteristics that distinguish a substance and determine its nature (what kind, which traits). Together, these categories help to describe what a substance is like in more detail, addressing its attributes and dimensions.
3. Relation, Place, Time, Position, State, Action, and Affection: These categories can be grouped together because they all relate to the ways in which substances interact with each other and with the world. Relation covers how substances are in reference to one another. Place and Time specify the 'where' and 'when' of substances. Position and State describe the condition or arrangement of substances. Finally, Action and Affection are about the dynamics of change, detailing what a substance does (Action) and what happens to it (Affection).

Seven important definitions exist in consideration of language and reality:

1. The essence of something is what makes it itself, and without it, it wouldn't be what it is.
2. Nature is seen as the essence that drives activity.
3. An individual consists of a common essence that links it to its group, counted matter that makes it unique, and coincidences like shape or color that differentiate it from others in the group. While all members of a species share the same essence, it's their unique matter and distinguishing features that make each individual distinct, even among seemingly identical items.
4. A percept is how we sense and understand something real when it's directly in front of us.
5. A phantasm is the mental picture we have of something real when it's not present.
6. A general concept is our understanding of what something essentially is.
7. An empirical concept is how we understand specific things indirectly through mental images, since we can't grasp them directly with our intellect due to their material nature. The exception is our own mind, which can understand itself directly.

In a natural object the following are similar but distinct: substance, essence, nature, form, species.

A construct may be analyzed into its components by showing in what categories its essential meanings lie.

Language has logical and psychological meanings. A word like “house” will elicit a more formal, less emotional, mental image. The word “home” will elicit a more emotional and psychological connection.

The logical or intellectual dimension of a word is its thought content, which may be expressed in its definition, given in the dictionary. In rhetoric this is called the denotation of the word.

Pedantic or pompous styles of writing are often psychologically displeasing. Mostly, this can be due to the fact that it takes far more processing to decipher this type of language over simplified meaning. Think something like Shakespeare in terms of an example of this type of writing.

Idiomatic language refers to expressions, words, or phrases that have a meaning which is not predictable from the usual meanings of its constituent elements or from the general grammatical rules of a language. In other words, an idiom's figurative meaning is separate from the literal meaning.

An allusion is a passing reference to phrases or longer passages which the writer takes for granted will be familiar to the reader. The language of allusion often provides a sort of shorthand which links and communicates in a few words experiences shared by people facing similar situations in all periods of human history.

The ambiguity of a word may arise from: (1) the various meanings imposed on it in the course of time, constituting the history of the word; (2) the nature of a symbol, from which arise the three obligations of a word and the two meanings of a term; (3) the nature of the phantasm for which the word is originally a substitute.

First imposition: a term used to describe the initial thesis or main argument that a rhetor (speaker or writer) presents before developing and supporting it further.

Zero imposition: when someone talks or writes in a way that makes their request or statement seem less demanding.

Second imposition: Using a word to talk about the word itself, focusing on both its sound and meaning, is specific to grammar. Without knowing a word's meaning, we can't organize it grammatically. So, grammar studies how words are used and understood in this special way.

First intention: refers to the direct, initial meaning or purpose of a statement or argument, focusing on the primary, straightforward interpretation without delving into deeper, more abstract, or second-order meanings.

Second intention: in rhetoric and philosophy refers to the more abstract, secondary, or indirect meanings and interpretations of words or concepts, beyond their immediate, literal sense ("first intention"). It involves understanding how terms are used to refer to ideas or categories rather than to direct, tangible objects or actions. This can include the way we categorize or conceptualize things in our minds, as opposed to how we directly perceive or talk about them.

The primary purpose of a proper name is to designate a particular individual or aggregate; yet a proper name is sometimes ambiguous in designation because the same name has been given to more than one individual or aggregate within the same species.

Irony is the use of words to convey a meaning just the contrary of the one normally conveyed by the words.

Metaphor is the use of a word or a phrase to evoke simultaneously two images, one literal and the other figurative. (It is deliberate ambiguity of images.)

A dead metaphor is a metaphor that has been used so often and has become so common that it has lost its original metaphorical meaning and is now taken literally. It's a figure of speech which has become so familiar through repeated use that its original sense of comparison is no longer vivid.

Pun: the use of a word that has two or more meanings.

Logic is concerned only with operations of the intellect, with rational cognition, not with choice nor with the emotions.

Grammar gives expression to all states of mind or soul—cognitive, volitive, emotional—in sentences that are statements, questions, wishes, prayers, commands, exclamations.

Rhetoric judges which one of a number of equivalent grammatical symbols for one idea is best for communication in the given circumstance.

Being refers either to the whole individual or the essence which is common to the individuals of either a species or genus.

General grammar focuses on how words connect to ideas and realities, while specific grammars, like those for English, Latin, French, or Spanish, primarily deal with how words relate to each other. General grammar is more philosophical because it is more directly related to logic and to metaphysics or ontology.

Categorematic words are those that have an independent meaning and can stand alone as meaningful expressions. These words possess semantic content and contribute to the overall meaning of a sentence. Nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are prime examples of categorematic words.

Syncategorematic words are an expression that forms a meaningful unit only when used in conjunction with another denotative expression, such as a content word. These words lack independent meaning but contribute to the overall meaning of a larger expression. Logical operators and function words are examples that fit in this category. Definitive and connectives are two classes.

Substantives- a term used to refer to any word, phrase, or clause that functions as a noun or noun equivalent. substantives are the "substance" of the sentence that can act as the subject, object, or complement, carrying the main nominal meaning within a sentence or clause. The role of substantives is foundational in sentence structure because they can perform the core functions that are typically associated with nouns.

Attributives- are words or phrases that modify or describe nouns, providing more information about the noun's qualities, quantities, or characteristics. They essentially attribute certain properties to nouns. Attributives can be adjectives, noun adjuncts (nouns that modify other nouns), or even phrases that serve a similar descriptive function.

Interjections are included as a “part of speech” even though they don’t truly fit because:

1. They cannot be assimilated into the structure of a sentence
2. They express emotion, not thought, and so have no logical significance

Noun: refers to a word that names a person, place, thing, or idea. Nouns can serve as the subject or object of a sentence, and they can be classified in several ways, including proper nouns (which name specific individuals, places, or organizations and are usually capitalized, like "London" or "Nike") and common nouns (which refer to general items or concepts, like "city" or "shoe"). Nouns can also be categorized based on their ability to count (countable nouns like "apple" can have a plural form, whereas uncountable nouns like "music" cannot be counted and don’t typically have a plural form).

Pronoun: a word used to replace a noun or a noun phrase, helping to avoid repetition and make sentences smoother. Pronouns can refer to individuals, groups of people, objects, or concepts and vary in form to reflect number (singular or plural), person (first, second, or third), gender (in some languages), and case (subjective, objective, or possessive).

In rhetoric, abstraction refers to the process or result of generalizing ideas or concepts away from specific instances or concrete examples to consider broader, less detailed aspects. It involves discussing ideas, qualities, or characteristics without grounding them in specific, tangible examples. Abstractions allow speakers or writers to discuss complex or broad topics in a way that can be universally applicable or understood, but it may also make the material more challenging for some audiences to grasp fully due to the lack of concrete details or examples.

The human power to abstract and to study a selected aspect of reality is the measure of intellectual progress which contrasts strikingly with the utter absence of such progress among irrational animals despite their wonderful instincts, which are often superior to the instincts of man.

A substantive naming a species or a genus has number; that is, it may be either singular or plural because it may designate either one or more than one of the individuals that constitute the species or the genus. Such a substantive is either a common name or a general description.

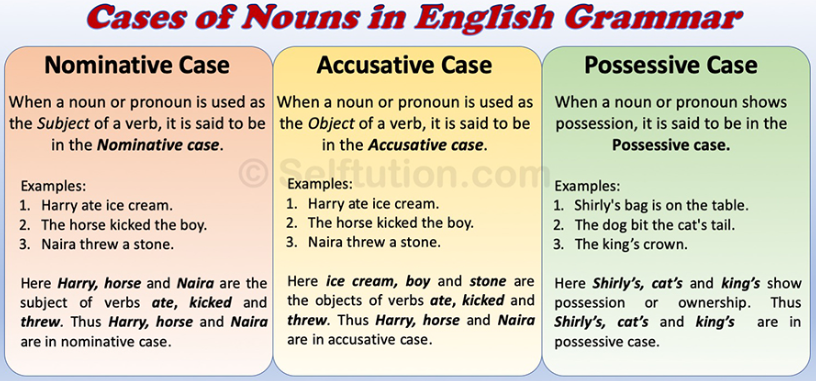
A substantive may be masculine, feminine, neuter, or common.

Person This is a characteristic much more important to pronouns than to nouns. It has its natural origin in conversation, for first person is the speaker; second person is the one spoken to; and third person, the one spoken of.

The relative pronoun simultaneously performs three functions: (1) It stands for a noun. (2) It connects clauses. (3) It subordinates one clause to another. Example: The book **that** I borrowed from the library is overdue.

Case shows the relationship of a noun or a pronoun to other words in the sentence. Four cases of substantives are distinguished in general grammar, for these are the relationships necessary in every language, although not in every sentence.

Modern English grammar distinguishes only *three* cases: nominative, genitive (aka possessive), and accusative.



Substantives can act as subject, subjective complement, direct object of a verb or verbal, indirect object of a verb or verbal, objective complement, object of a preposition, possessive modifier, nominative absolute, nominative of direct address, or an appositive of any of these.

Attributives are words which express the accidents that exist in substance. Primary attributives include verbs, verbals, and adjectives.

Verbs: express an attribute with a notion of time (some kind of change taking place), tense (the relation between the time of the act spoken of and the time of speaking of it), mode (indicative- with certainty, or potential- possibly) or mood, and it also asserts (expresses a complete thought).

The three grammatical forms:

* Indicative: expresses relations that are matter of fact
* Subjunctive: can express potential, interrogative, or eager relations
* Imperative: expresses a command

Transitive verbs: expresses actions that begin with an agent and goes across to an object. Example: The leaves **fell** gently to the ground as autumn arrived.

A transitive verb always requires a complement, that is, a word which completes the meaning of the predicate. Example: He bought a **new car** with the latest technology features.

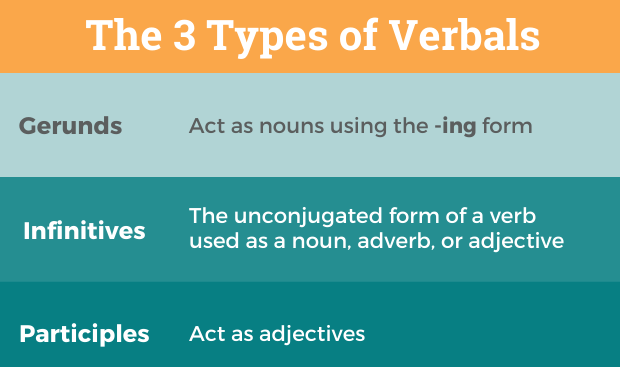
Intransitive verb: when a verb's action doesn't "transfer" from the doer to a receiver. Intransitive verbs often describe actions that can't physically affect something else, or they simply indicate a state of being, presence, or occurrence. Example: The sun **rises** in the east.

Copula: a word or phrase that links the subject of a sentence to a subject complement. Example: The sky **is** blue.

A copulative verb, also known as a linking verb, is a type of verb that connects the subject of a sentence to a subject complement. The subject complement can be a noun, pronoun, or adjective that describes or identifies the subject. The purpose of a copulative verb is not to indicate action but rather to link the subject with further information about the subject. Example: She **seems** very happy with the surprise party we organized for her.

Pseudocopula: refers to a word or phrase that functions similarly to a copula or linking verb but doesn't fit the traditional definition of a copula. Pseudocopulas link the subject of a sentence to a complement or an adjective, much like copulas do, but they often imply a more dynamic or specific relationship than the static being or existence implied by true copulas such as "is" or "are." Example: The milk **has gone** sour in the refrigerator overnight.

Verbal: words derived from verbs that function in a sentence as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs, rather than as verbs. They come in three forms: gerunds, participles, and infinitives.



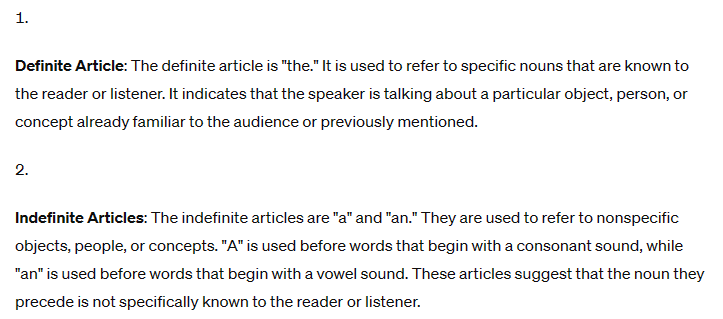
Adjectives: adjectives are words that modify, or describe, nouns. Example: They live in a **beautiful** house.

Adverb: a word that modifies or describes a verb, an adjective, another adverb, or even a whole sentence. Adverbs often end in “-ly”, but some look exactly the same as their adjective counterparts. Example: The race finished **too** quickly.

A definitive is a word which, when associated to a common name, is capable of singling out an individual or a group of individuals from the whole class designated by the common name.

In grammar, a determiner is a word or a group of words that introduces a noun, indicating reference to something specific or nonspecific. Determiners are used before nouns to clarify what the noun refers to. They provide context to the noun, often in terms of definiteness, quantity, possession, or another relationship.

Article: a type of determiner that precedes a noun to indicate the specificity of the noun's referent. Articles are part of the broader category of determiners, which also includes numbers, possessive pronouns, and other words that specify or quantify nouns. There are two types:



Pronomial: resembling a pronoun in identifying or specifying without describing. Example: **This** dog is his.

If a modifier describes in order to point out, it is a definitive. If the individual is already designated by a proper name, the modifier, no longer needed to point out the individual, becomes attributive.

Connectives are like glue in a sentence. They include words like prepositions (such as "in" and "on"), conjunctions (like "and" and "but"), and a basic linking verb known as the pure copula (often "is" or "are"). These words help stick the main parts of a sentence together so that it expresses a complete idea clearly.

A preposition is a word used to express the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other words in a sentence. It can indicate location ("in," "at," "on"), direction ("to," "from"), time ("before," "after"), and many other relationships. Prepositions are essential for constructing sentences that make sense because they provide context that clarifies how different parts of a sentence are connected. For example, in the sentence "The book is on the table," "on" is the preposition that tells us where the book is in relation to the table.

The term "genitive" refers to a grammatical case that primarily expresses possession or ownership, but it can also denote various other relationships between words in a sentence. In English, the genitive case is often indicated by adding an apostrophe and an "s" to the end of a noun (for example, "the cat's whiskers" means the whiskers belonging to the cat) or by using the word "of" (as in "the sound of the music").

The dative is a grammatical case used in some languages to indicate the indirect object of a verb. The indirect object is typically the recipient or beneficiary of the action. In English, we don't have a distinct dative case in the form of specific word endings, but we do use word order and prepositions like "to" and "for" to express the same idea. For example, in the sentence "I gave the book to Mary," "to Mary" is the indirect object, showing who received the book.

Prepositions are often used to express the genitive (of the children) and dative (to the children) relationships of nouns.

A conjunction is a word that joins together words, phrases, or clauses in a sentence. Conjunctions are essential for creating complex sentences and expressing relationships between ideas.

Coordinating Conjunctions link elements of equal grammatical importance in a sentence. The most common ones are "and," "but," "or," "nor," "for," "so," and "yet." For example, in the sentence "I wanted to go for a walk, but it started raining," "but" is a coordinating conjunction connecting two independent clauses.

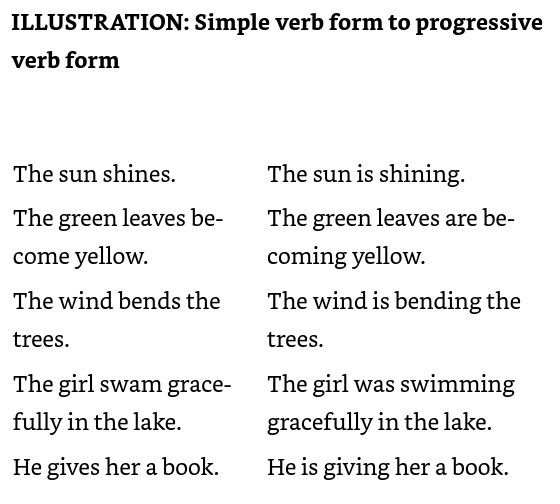
Subordinating Conjunctions introduce a dependent (or subordinate) clause, indicating its relationship to the main clause. Examples include "because," "although," "since," "unless," and "while." In the sentence "I stayed home because it was raining," "because" introduces the reason for staying home, linking it to the main clause.

Correlative Conjunctions work in pairs to join together parts of a sentence, such as "either...or," "neither...nor," "not only...but also." An example would be "You can either have ice cream or cake," where "either...or" connects the two options.

Use a semicolon or a period between clauses or sentences conjoined by a conjunctive adverb, for example: It rained; therefore, we postponed the picnic.

Use either a comma or no punctuation where a dependent clause is subjoined to an independent clause by an adverbial conjunction, for example: Because it rained, we postponed the picnic.

Simple and progressive (also known as continuous) verb forms represent different aspects of verbs in English, highlighting how actions relate to time. Understanding these forms helps convey the nature of actions—whether they are habitual, completed, or ongoing.



The progressive form shows that when the basic linking verb "is" changes form, it does three important things in grammar: (1) it makes a statement, (2) it shows how the speaker feels about the action, and (3) it tells us when the action happens.

A basic syntactical analysis of a declarative sentence might go like this:

"The quick brown fox, surprisingly agile, jumps over the lazy dog in the garden."

* A simple subject- “The quick brown fox” is the subject and the simple subject is “fox”
* A simple predicate- “jumps”
* A clause- “over the lazy dog in the garden”
* A modifier of a modifier- “surprisingly” is the adverb modifying “agile”, which modifies “fox”
* A connective to join the parts together- “over” links the action to the parts it relates to

The fundamental function of grammar is to establish laws for relating symbols so as to express thought. A sentence expresses a thought, a relation of ideas, in a declaration, a question, a command, a wish, a prayer, or an exclamation.

A form word is a small word that helps a sentence work properly but doesn't have much meaning by itself. These words include "and," "the," "is," and "she." They help connect the bigger, more meaningful words together in a sentence.

An inflection is when you change a word slightly to show different meanings, like making a word plural ("cat" to "cats") or showing action happened in the past ("jump" to "jumped"). It's like adding a little twist to a word to tell more about it.

The rules for relating symbols govern three grammatical operations: substituting equivalent symbols, combining symbols, and separating symbols.

For substituting using expansion:

* Proper names can be converted to empirical description
* Common names can be converted to a general description
* A word can be expanded into a phrase
* A phrase can be expanded into a sentence or group of sentences

For substituting using contraction:

* Theoretically it is possible to convert empirical descriptions to proper names
* Theoretically it is possible to convert a general description to a common name
* A sentence may be contracted to a phrase
* A phrase can be contracted to a word

For combining

* Use a form word
* Use an inflection
* Use word order
* Use stress
* Use intonation

Marks of punctuation do for written language what phrasing, stress, and some forms of intonation, such as raising the voice for a question, do for spoken language.

While words across languages can be equivalent in their basic meanings or functions, they often carry different weights, colors, and textures in the minds of their speakers. This distinction is crucial for translators, writers, and communicators who navigate across cultures, reminding us that language is not just a tool for conveying information but also a rich tapestry of human experience and cultural identity.

An "empirical term" is one that relates to observable reality, referring directly to things that can be experienced through the senses. It contrasts with abstract terms, which may refer to concepts or qualities not directly tied to physical or observable entities.

Proper names and empirical descriptions serve as bridges between the abstract symbols of language and the concrete entities of the physical world. They allow us to communicate about specific things in our environment, ensuring our discussions are grounded in shared reality. This understanding is foundational in both everyday communication and in more structured domains like logic, science, and philosophy, where clarity about what we're referring to is essential.

When we talk about words being contradictory, it means one word says something is there, and the other says it's not there. A "positive" word tells us about something that exists or is happening. A "negative" word tells us about something that doesn't exist or isn't happening.

A "privative term" is a special kind of word that tells us something is missing. It's used when something naturally should have a feature, but that feature is not there. For example, if we say "blind" about a person, we're using a privative term because being able to see is a natural feature for people, but in this case, it's missing.

An "abstract term" is a word that stands for an idea or concept taken from real-life things but thought about separately from them. It's like when we think about the idea of "beauty" or "strength" on their own, without connecting them to a specific person or object. These terms help us focus on certain qualities or ideas as if they were things we can talk about all by themselves.

A collective term is one that can be applied only to a group as a group but not to the members of the group taken singly.

A distributive term is one that can be applied to individual members of a group taken singly. For example, man is applicable both to every individual man and to the species man.

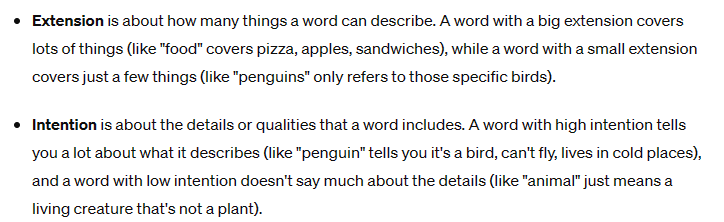
The ten categories of being, also known as Aristotle's categories, are a foundational concept in classical philosophy, outlining different ways that a thing can be said to be. These categories are meant to describe how objects and subjects can exist and be understood. Here they are:

1. Substance (Substantia): This refers to what a thing is. Substance is the essence or the nature of beings, making them what they uniquely are. For example, a specific person or a specific tree.
2. Quantity (Quantitas): This pertains to the measurable aspects of a being, such as length, volume, and number. It answers questions like "How much?" or "How many?"
3. Quality (Qualitas): This category describes the characteristics or attributes that a being possesses, such as color, shape, or any other trait that describes how a being is.
4. Relation (Relatio): This is about how one being may be related to another. Relations can include concepts like "bigger than," "father of," or "belonging to."
5. Place (Ubi): This answers the question of where a being is located. It refers to the physical location or position in space of a being.
6. Time (Quando): This category refers to when something occurs or exists. It's concerned with the temporal aspects of being, such as age or time of day.
7. Position (Situs): This pertains to the posture or arrangement in space of a being, like sitting, standing, or lying down.
8. State (Habitus): This describes the condition or status of a being, especially in relation to its external circumstances or attire, such as being dressed in a certain way or being armed.
9. Action (Actio): This is about what a being does or can do. It involves activities or processes that a being initiates or performs.
10. Affection (Passio): Also known as "being acted upon" or "passion," it refers to what happens to a being or how it is affected by an action.

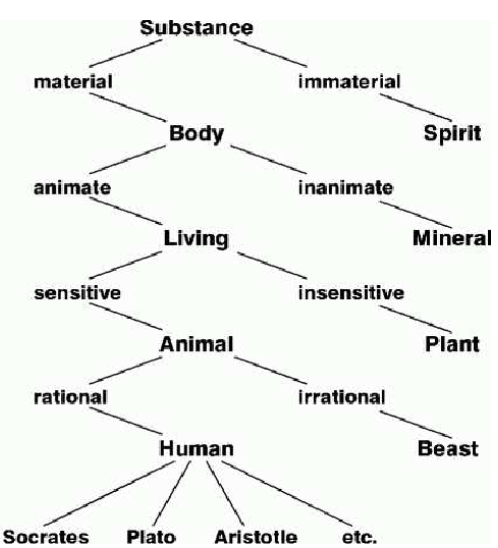
The basis of the difference among Aristotle's ten categories of being lies in the various aspects or dimensions of reality that they each capture, essentially categorizing all possible ways in which we can talk about the existence of things. These categories are designed to reflect the fundamental ways in which objects and their attributes manifest in the world, as well as how they relate to human perception and understanding. Here's a closer look at the distinctions:

1. Substance is the most fundamental category, concerning what things are in their essence. It's about identifying entities in their most basic form, separate from their qualities or quantities.
2. Quantity and Quality represent two fundamentally different aspects of being. Quantity refers to the measurable properties of entities, such as size or number, while Quality refers to the descriptive characteristics that differentiate things, like color or texture.
3. Relation introduces the concept of how entities can be understood in connection with one another, which is distinct from the intrinsic properties captured by Quantity and Quality.
4. Place and Time address the spatial and temporal dimensions of existence, respectively, highlighting the importance of when and where in understanding the being of objects.
5. Position and State describe conditions of entities but from different angles. Position is about the physical arrangement or posture of something, while State refers to a broader condition or situation of a being, often relating to its external circumstances.
6. Action and Affection (or being acted upon) focus on the dynamic aspects of being, distinguishing between the activities or operations that beings can initiate (Action) and the experiences or changes that they undergo as a result of external forces (Affection).

The concepts of extension and intention (or comprehension) relate to how we understand and classify terms, playing a crucial role in logic and philosophy.



The Tree of Porphyry: a fundamental tool in medieval scholastic philosophy, serving as an educational tool for understanding and teaching the concepts of substance and accidents (the essential and non-essential attributes of a thing), as well as the hierarchical organization of reality, from the most general to the most specific.



Some of the concepts in the illustration are:

**Substance (the most general category)**: At the top of the tree, you have the most general category called "Substance," which represents everything that exists in the broadest sense. It's divided into two main subcategories:

* Material Substance: Things that have a physical form, like animals, plants, and inanimate objects.
* Immaterial Substance: Things that exist but don't have a physical form, like the soul or mind (in philosophical contexts).

**Material Substance:** This category is further divided into living and non-living entities. Living entities (or beings) include plants, animals, and humans, while non-living entities include things like water, rocks, and air.

**Living Beings:** Living beings are categorized into plants, animals, and humans based on their ability to sense and move, and their level of intelligence or rationality.

* Plants: Defined by their ability to grow and reproduce but lack sensation and movement.
* Animals: Capable of sensation and movement but lack rationality.
* Humans: Possess growth, reproduction, sensation, movement, and rationality.

**Further Subdivisions:** Each of these categories can be further subdivided. For example, animals can be divided into different species based on specific characteristics, like the ability to fly or live underwater. Similarly, plants can be categorized into trees, shrubs, and herbs based on their size and structure.

Definition usually means a general description and comes in two types:

1. Logical definition: when you define something logically, you explain what group it belongs to and what makes it different from other members of that group.
2. Distinctive definition: explaining something by describing a unique feature or characteristic it has, even if that feature isn't the main thing that defines it.

Some other definitions are:

* A causal definition explains something by telling you why or how it came to be.
* A descriptive definition simply lists the features that help you identify something.
* Defining by example means showing specific instances or examples instead of directly explaining what something is.
* A grammatical or rhetorical definition focuses on clarifying which word or phrase is being talked about, rather than explaining what that word or phrase means.
* A definition by etymology explains a word by tracing its origins or history.
* A definition by synonyms uses words with similar meanings to explain a term.
* An arbitrary definition involves words that don't have a universally agreed-upon meaning. These are significant words that people understand in various ways, and even a dictionary might not provide a clear, practical definition.

Definitions should: be able to convert to the subject, species, or term, be positive, be clear, does not use the same root word as the word being defined, doesn’t mix types of grammatical structure.

The concept of "logical division" refers to the process of breaking down a broad or general category (a genus) into its more specific subcategories (species). The purpose of logical division is to organize knowledge and understanding in a structured, hierarchical manner. By breaking down a broad category into its more specific components, we can better comprehend the relationships and distinctions between the different elements within a larger system or classification. This process of logical division is commonly used in various fields, such as biology, taxonomy, philosophy, and even in the organization of information and knowledge more broadly.

While logical division involves breaking down a genus into its constituent species based on qualitative, essential characteristics, quantitative division refers to the division of a whole into parts based on quantitative, numerical values.

Physical division refers to the actual, physical separation or partitioning of a whole into distinct parts or components. Physical division is often associated with practical, hands-on activities and the production of tangible, usable parts or components from a larger whole.

Virtual or functional division is a conceptual form of division that does not involve the physical separation of a whole, but rather the division of a whole into distinct functional or operational parts. Virtual or functional division is often used in the design, organization, and management of complex systems, where the focus is on the efficient division of labor, the coordination of interdependent components, and the optimization of overall system performance.

Metaphysical division refers to the conceptual division or classification of reality, existence, or the nature of being itself, based on philosophical and metaphysical principles. Metaphysical division is concerned with the most fundamental questions about the nature of existence, knowledge, and reality, and it often involves complex and speculative philosophical debates.

Metaphysical division is concerned with the most fundamental questions about the nature of existence, knowledge, and reality, and it often involves complex and speculative philosophical debates. Verbal division is an essential tool in various fields, including philosophy, science, education, and everyday communication, as it allows for the clear articulation and shared understanding of concepts, ideas, and knowledge.

Logical division is the division of a genus (a broader category) into its constituent species (more specific subcategories). It can further be broken down into logical whole, the basis of division, and dividing members.

Dichotomy is defined as division according to contradiction.

In the context of rhetoric, positive division refers to a rhetorical technique where the speaker or writer divides a topic or concept into its positive or affirmative aspects.

Subdivision is a more granular level of division that builds on a preceding broader division, and it aims to maintain a consistent, well-structured categorization of the overall topic or concept.

In co-division, you take the same overarching topic and divide it up in multiple ways, using different criteria or principles for each division. The divisions are independent of each other, but they all apply to the same core subject.

A proposition asserts a relationship between the subject, the copula (linking verb), and the predicate. It's a way of making a statement that can be evaluated as true or false.

A modal proposition is a type of proposition that expresses the mode or manner in which something is true, rather than just asserting that it is true.

The key aspects of a modal proposition are:

* Modality - This refers to the "mode" or way in which the proposition is presented. Common modal terms include:
* Necessary - "It must be the case that..."
* Possible - "It may be the case that..."
* Contingent - "It could be the case that..."
* Impossible - "It cannot be the case that..."
* Subject and Predicate - Like a regular proposition, a modal proposition still has a subject and a predicate.
* Evaluation - Modal propositions are evaluated based on the modal qualifier, rather than just being true or false. The proposition is assessed in terms of whether it is necessary, possible, contingent, or impossible.

Physical necessity rests on the laws of nature.

Moral necessity is a normative necessity referring to a free agent. Because of free will, humans can act counter to these laws.

A contingent proposition is one where the relationship between the subject and predicate is possible, but not necessarily required or impossible.

In other words, a contingent proposition describes a situation that:

* Is not absolutely necessary to be true.
* Is not absolutely impossible to be true.
* May depend on future events, actions, or our current knowledge.

A categorical proposition asserts the relation of its terms as they are actually related, without expressing the mode of their relation.

A simple proposition is one that asserts the relation of two terms and only two.

A compound proposition is one that relates at least three terms. A compound proposition may be either hypothetical or disjunctive. A hypothetical proposition asserts the dependence of one proposition on another. A disjunctive proposition asserts that of two or more suppositions, one is true.

A general proposition is one whose subject is a general term, referring to an essence, symbolized by a common name or a general description.

An empirical proposition is one whose subject is an empirical term, referring to an individual or an aggregate, symbolized by a proper name or an empirical description.

A proposition is total if its subject is a term used in its full extension.

A general proposition does not have quantity in the concrete sense because its subject is essence, a class nature.

A categorical proposition is a statement that makes a claim about all members of a category. The subject of the proposition is used in its full or complete meaning, so the quantity being referred to is the entire set or group.

Quantity is only truly applicable to empirical propositions with plural subjects.

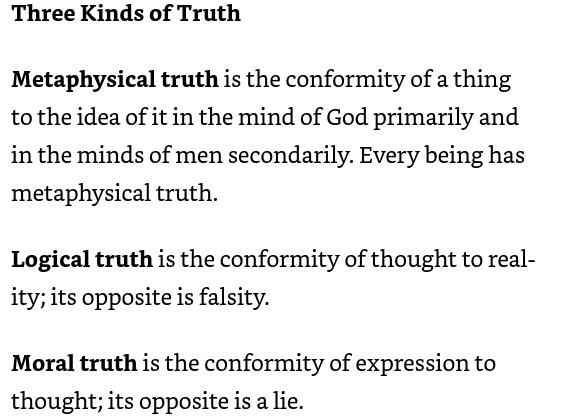
A plural empirical proposition is "total" in quantity when the subject encompasses the entire group, not just a portion of it.

The key points are that "partial" means not the full or complete meaning, and limiting words signal when the subject is only a portion of the whole group or category being discussed.

An affirmative proposition asserts that the subject (fully or partially) is part of the predicate.

A negative proposition asserts that the predicate is excluded from or does not apply to the subject.

Empirical statements require examining real-world facts and data, rather than being based solely on abstract reasoning or logical deduction. Their truth value is determined synthetically by observing and putting together the relevant evidence.



The concept of distribution:

1. Distributed Term: This happens when the term refers to every single element or instance it can possibly include. For example, in the statement "All dogs are mammals," the term "dogs" is distributed because it refers to all dogs, not just some.
2. Undistributed Term: This occurs when the term does not refer to all possible instances, but only a subset of them. For example, in the statement "Some dogs are black," the term "dogs" is undistributed because it only refers to some dogs, not all.

In logic, the predicables are a way to classify predicates based on how they relate to subjects in a proposition. For example, a predicate can tell us whether a subject belongs to a general category (genus), has special characteristics that distinguish it from others in that category (differentia), or has additional descriptive qualities (property or accident). This classification is similar to how in grammar, we analyze the structure of a sentence to understand the roles and relationships of words and phrases (like subjects, verbs, and objects).

In logic, categories are used to classify terms based on different kinds of being or existence, such as substance, quantity, quality, etc. This system of categorization is similar to how in grammar, words are classified into parts of speech like nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc., based on their function in a sentence.

while the predicables provide a useful framework for understanding how predicates can describe subjects, there are instances where this framework falls short, particularly when dealing with predicates that relate to broader or more distant categories than the subject directly belongs to. This limitation means that the predicables do not provide a completely exhaustive analysis of all possible types of predication.

Praedicamenta: When a predicate falls into the same category as the subject, it describes the subject either broadly or specifically. If it defines the subject as part of a genus, it's a broader description. If it specifies a species, the description is more specific.

If we use a sentence to represent a logical idea (a proposition), that sentence needs to be declarative, meaning it states something. Sentences that are commands, wishes, questions, or exclamations don't work for this because they aren't about stating facts that can be true or false. Instead, these types of sentences express desires or actions and don't fit into logical analysis, even though they are perfectly valid in grammar.

An empirical categorical proposition must be symbolized by a sentence whose subject is a proper name or an empirical description.

A sentence that represents an idea might be unclear. However, the idea itself cannot be unclear because the meaning or opinion that we intend to convey must be clear and singular.

The goal of translation is to convey the ideas represented by one language's symbols using the symbols of another language. If the ideas expressed in a scientific document available in four different languages weren't clear and the same across all languages, we would have four different documents, not just one.

Differences in style when expressing the same logical idea in the same language are caused by choosing different symbols. While these symbols may be logically similar, they differ in their emotional impact, rhythm, and structure—essentially, the words, phrases, and clauses chosen vary in how they feel and sound.

A simple declarative sentence may symbolize one simple proposition, two or more simple propositions, or a disjunctive proposition.

A complex statement can represent a single straightforward idea, multiple simple ideas, a conditional idea, or a logical argument.

Grammatical changes in a sentence, unless they involve definitives like articles or specific descriptors, imply an underlying logical statement. If a modifier doesn't play a definitive role, meaning it isn't crucial for identifying the subject, it suggests an additional idea or proposition about the subject. Conversely, if the modifier is definitive, it integrates fully with the subject and does not indicate a separate proposition.

A syllogism is a form of logical reasoning where a conclusion is drawn from two given or assumed propositions (premises). Each premise contains a term that is also in the conclusion, along with a third term not in the conclusion which links the premises. This form of reasoning is fundamental in deductive logic and was extensively developed by the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle.

Here’s a basic example of a syllogism:

• All mammals are animals. (Major premise)

• All dogs are mammals. (Minor premise)

• Therefore, all dogs are animals. (Conclusion)

In this syllogism, the conclusion (that all dogs are animals) logically follows from the premises: the first stating a general rule about mammals and the second linking dogs specifically to mammals.

A disjunctive proposition is a type of logical statement that presents two or more options, where at least one must be true, but not necessarily all. It uses the connector "or" to link the different parts. The basic form of a disjunctive proposition is "A or B". This means either A is true, B is true, or both A and B are true. The emphasis is on the availability of multiple possibilities, without committing to just one unless further information is provided.

A compound sentence can represent either multiple simple ideas or a choice between options.

A declarative sentence that is grammatically correct but breaks the rules about using common or proper names and descriptions does not convey any clear idea because it lacks at least two logical terms needed to form a proposition.

In rhetoric, the term “invention” is the art of finding material for reasoning and discourse. “Disposition” means properly relating or putting some kind of order to that material.

The four types of relationships between propositions:

1. Conjunction: This is when you combine two statements using "and". Both statements must be true for the whole combined statement to be true. For example, if you say, "It is raining and it is cold outside," both "It is raining" and "It is cold outside" must be true.
2. Opposition: This describes different ways statements can contrast or conflict:

* Contradiction: This is when one statement completely opposes another, like saying "It is raining" and then saying "It is not raining."
* Contrariety: This is when two statements can't both be true at the same time, but they could both be false, such as "All birds are eagles" and "No birds are eagles."
* Subcontrariety: This is when two statements can both be true but can't both be false at the same time, like saying "Some birds are eagles" and "Some birds are not eagles."
* Subalternation: This happens when a general statement (like "All birds are animals") makes a specific statement (like "Some birds are animals") automatically true.

1. Eduction: This is about making new statements based on what you already know, through logical steps:

* Immediate Inference: Making a new statement directly from an existing one by slightly changing its form but keeping its meaning, such as turning "All birds are animals" into "No birds are non-animals."
* Obversion: Changing a statement into a different form by negating the quality and changing the predicate, like turning "All A are B" into "No A are non-B."

1. Syllogism: This involves drawing a conclusion from two related statements. It's like a mini-story where the end (the conclusion) logically follows from the beginning (the premises). For example:

* Major premise: "All mammals are warm-blooded."
* Minor premise: "All dogs are mammals."
* Conclusion: "Therefore, all dogs are warm-blooded."

The rules of conjunction deal with these three values.

Rule 1: A combination of statements is true only if every single statement in the combination is true. So, if all the statements are true individually, then when you combine them, that combined statement is also true.

Rule 2: A combination of statements is false if even one of the statements in the combination is false. This means that if any single statement is false, the whole combined statement becomes false.

Rule 3: A combination of statements is considered probable if at least one of the statements is probable (but not confirmed as true) and none of the statements are false. Therefore, if one statement is probable and all others are not false, then the entire combination is also probable.

The seven eductive forms in rhetoric are:

1. Definition - Explaining the meaning or essential nature of a term or concept.
2. Division - Breaking a whole into its parts or components.
3. Classification - Grouping things into categories based on shared characteristics.
4. Comparison - Examining the similarities and differences between two or more things.
5. Cause and Effect - Analyzing the reasons for or the consequences of something.
6. Analogy - Drawing a comparison between two things that share some similarities.
7. Exemplification - Using specific examples to illustrate or clarify a general statement or principle.

These eductive forms represent different ways of developing and supporting arguments or explanations in rhetoric and persuasive writing. They help the speaker or writer organize their ideas and present them in a logical, structured manner.

In rhetoric, the contrapositive is a logical argument or inference that draws a conclusion by negating both the antecedent and the consequent of a conditional statement.

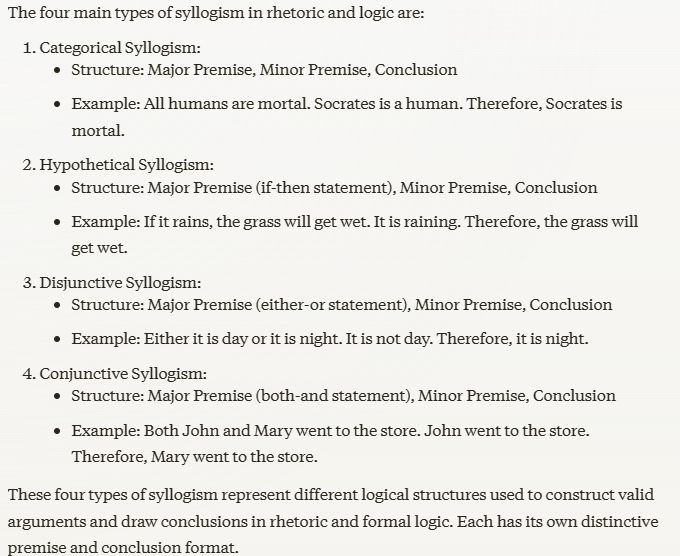
The basic structure of a contrapositive argument is:

If A, then B. Therefore, if not B, then not A.

In rhetoric, the inverse is a logical argument that draws a conclusion by negating both the antecedent and the consequent of a conditional statement.

The basic structure of an inverse argument is:

If A, then B. Therefore, if not A, then not B.



A syllogism is a logical argument that has two premises (starting statements) and a conclusion.

The two premises share a common term, and from those two premises, a new conclusion necessarily follows.

The four main types of syllogisms are:

* Categorical - The premises and conclusion are categorical statements about groups or classes of things.
* Hypothetical - One premise is an "if-then" statement, and the conclusion follows from that.
* Disjunctive - One premise presents an "either-or" choice, and the conclusion follows from eliminating one of the options.
* Conjunctive - One premise states that two things are both true, and the conclusion follows from that.

In each case, the shared term between the two premises allows the speaker to draw a new, logically valid conclusion from the original statements. This is the core structure of a syllogistic argument in rhetoric.

The syllogism itself is neither true nor false; it is valid or invalid. In a valid syllogism the truth or falsity of its propositions is interdependent and can be ascertained from the formula. An invalid syllogism is one whose conclusion does not follow from its premises.

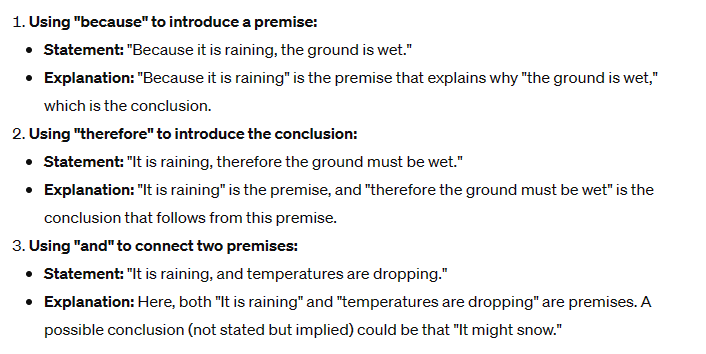
These are the general rules for syllogisms:

1. A syllogism should have exactly three different terms.
2. A syllogism should have exactly three statements.
3. The middle term (the common link in the first two statements) must be used in a complete way in at least one of the initial statements.
4. A term cannot be more general in the conclusion than it was in its original statement.
5. You cannot derive a conclusion if both initial statements are negative.
6. If one of the initial statements is negative, then the conclusion must also be negative. To establish a negative conclusion, one of the statements must be negative.
7. You cannot derive a conclusion from two statements that are both uncertain or limited.
8. If one statement is limited, the conclusion must also be limited.
9. If one statement is uncertain, the conclusion must also be uncertain. For a definitive conclusion, both statements must be definitive.
10. If one or both statements are based on observation or experience, the conclusion will be based on observation or experience too.

An enthymeme is a shortened form of a syllogism where one part—either the major premise, the minor premise, or the conclusion—is left out. It still includes three terms and can be expanded back into a complete syllogism.

Rules for determining the validity of an enthymeme:

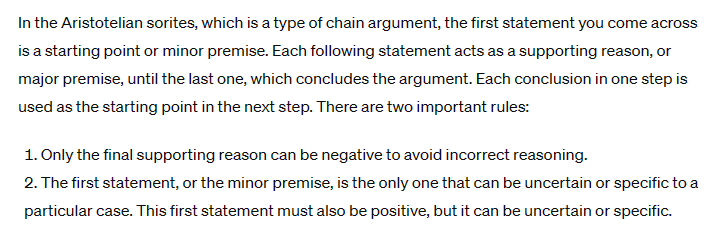
* Words like "because," "for," or "since" start a premise, which is a reason that leads to a conclusion. The other statement you see will be that conclusion.
* Words like "therefore," "consequently," or "accordingly" signal the conclusion itself.
* Words like "and" or "but" link two premises together, and suggest that the conclusion is missing and needs to be inferred.

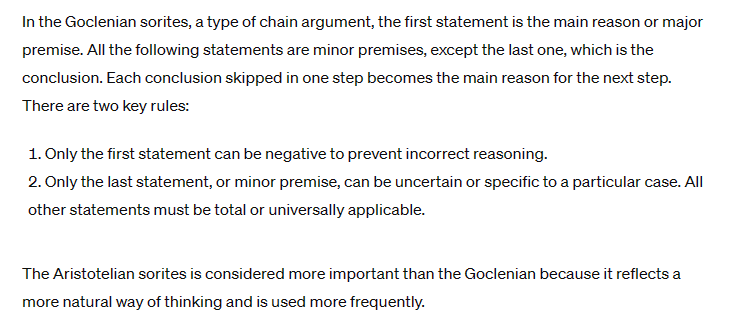


The enthymeme is the form of reasoning which we constantly employ in our thinking, conversation, and writing, and that which we should notice in our reading and listening.

The outline for a debate is like a chain of shortened arguments called enthymemes. Each main point presents a conclusion, and the supporting points, which start with "for," are the reasons backing it up. Once all the main points are made and summarized, the discussion progresses to the final conclusion.

A sorite is a form of argument where a series of statements are chained together. Each statement leads logically to the next, with the conclusion of one statement serving as the premise for the next. It builds up step by step until it reaches a final conclusion at the end. This kind of argument is sometimes also referred to as a "chain argument" because of how the statements are linked together like links in a chain.





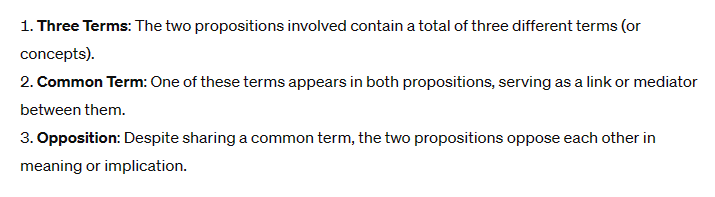
An epicheirema is a type of argument in which each premise is supported by its own additional reason or justification. Basically, it's like a regular argument but with extra steps that provide evidence or explanations for why each main point is true. This makes the overall argument stronger because each part is thoroughly backed up with more detailed information.

When we use analogy, we argue that because two things are alike in certain respects, they are likely to be similar in other ways as well.

Here's a breakdown of the key points:

1. Nature of Analogical Inference: Analogical inference produces conclusions that are probable, not certain. This means that while analogical reasoning can suggest likely outcomes or truths based on similarities, these conclusions aren't guaranteed to be correct.
2. Certainty and Analogy: If a conclusion derived from an analogy becomes certain, it's no longer considered an analogical argument. This happens when the similarities used in the analogy are so strong or conclusive that they prove a point definitively, moving beyond mere probability.
3. Usage in Various Fields: Analogies are widely used across different genres and fields, from poetry to scientific and literary prose. They help to explain complex ideas by relating them to familiar concepts.
4. Examples of Analogies: The text mentions "the ship of state" and "the body politic" as common analogies. These metaphors compare the governance of a state to steering a ship and running a government to managing a human body, respectively, helping to illustrate political theories through more tangible concepts.
5. Role in Scientific Discovery: In science, analogies have often guided researchers toward new discoveries. By comparing unknown phenomena with known entities, scientists can form hypotheses and explore new ideas.

The concept of "mediated opposition" in logic refers to a relationship between two propositions that indirectly oppose each other through a shared term.

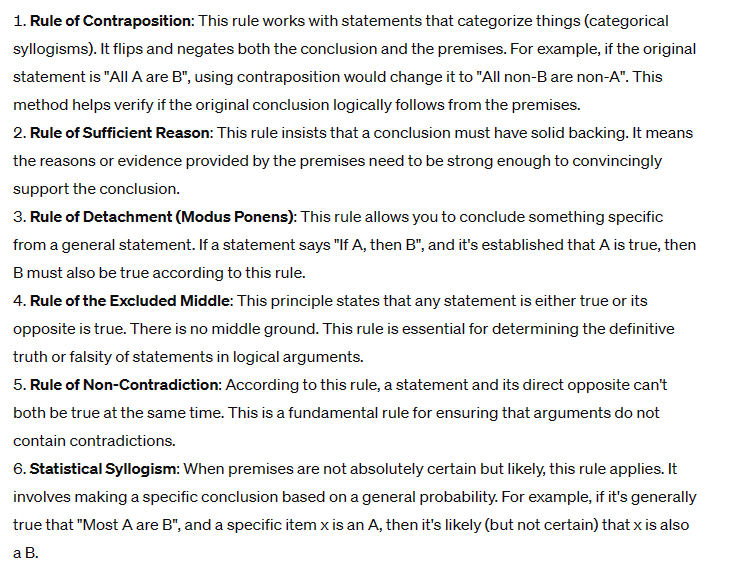


Empiricists suggests that in some syllogisms, you must know the conclusion beforehand to state the major premise, especially when the premise is just a list of observations. However, this isn't always the case, particularly when the major premise is a general statement. The truth of a general statement is understood through analyzing how its terms relate to each other, not by simply counting specific examples. Therefore, its validity doesn't rely on examining each individual instance but rather on understanding the deeper relationship between the concepts it involves. This kind of understanding is about the essence or nature of things (intension), not just about counting or measuring them (extension).

A valid syllogism is essentially a set of rules for reasoning. It tells you how to derive a conclusion based on the truth of certain premises or statements. Here’s how it works if the syllogism is valid:

1. Rule 1: If both premises (the statements you start with) are true, then the conclusion (the statement you end up with) must also be true.
2. Rule 2: If the conclusion turns out to be false, then at least one of the premises must be false. This is because a true premise must lead to a true conclusion in a valid syllogism.
3. Rule 3: If one or both of the premises are false, we can't determine the truth of the conclusion just from this information. The conclusion could be either true or false.
4. Rule 4: If the conclusion is true, it doesn't guarantee that the premises are also true. This means we cannot determine the truth of the premises just because the conclusion is true.
5. Rule 5: If one or both premises are only likely true (probable), then the conclusion derived from them will also only be probable. This means the conclusion can't be definitively stated as true or false.
6. Rule 6: If the conclusion itself is only probable, then the truth of the premises is uncertain. For instance, there could be cases where the conclusion turns out to be true even though one of the premises is false. In valid syllogisms, both the conclusion and all premises must be true. Thus, if the conclusion is only probable, you can't ascertain the truth of the premises based solely on the structure of the argument; instead, you need to examine the actual content or substance of the premises.

Special Rules Include:



A hypothetical proposition is one that asserts the dependence of one proposition on another. These typically come in two categories:

1. Conditional Statements: These are the "if-then" statements that establish a condition and a consequence. For example, "If it rains, then the ground will be wet." Here, the truth of the ground being wet is contingent upon the occurrence of rain.
2. Biconditional Statements: These statements assert a two-way conditionality, often phrased as "if and only if". For example, "You can borrow the car if and only if you fill up the gas tank." This means that borrowing the car is dependent on filling up the gas tank, and filling up the gas tank means you can borrow the car. Both conditions are strictly linked to each other.

A hypothetical proposition is true when the nexus holds in the real order and false when it does not.

A disjunctive proposition is a statement that gives two or more options, and at least one of the options must be true. It's like saying, "Either this will happen, or that will happen." For example, "Either you'll win or you'll lose."

Imagine you have a choice between two things, and you can only pick one. A disjunctive proposition just presents these two choices. For example, "It's either raining or it's not."

If there are more than two choices in a disjunctive proposition, you can still turn it into a hypothetical statement. However, the outcome in this statement will also involve a choice between options. For example, consider the statement, "If a triangle isn't equilateral, then it must be either isosceles or scalene." This shows that when you rule out one option (equilateral), you still have to choose between the other two (isosceles or scalene).

The strict purpose of the disjunctive proposition of every type is so to limit the choice of alternatives that if one is true, any other must be false.

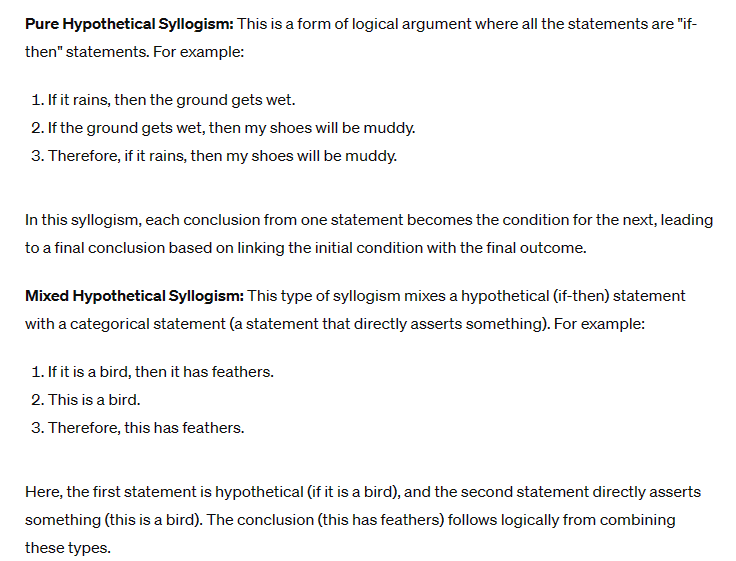
In everyday conversation, people sometimes use disjunctive propositions (choices between options) in a loose way, not strictly sticking to the format of choosing between clear alternatives. However, even if the strict choice between options isn’t directly mentioned in what they say, it is often implied by the context of the conversation.

A disjunctive proposition is always positive because it presents a set of possibilities, essentially saying that at least one of the given options must be true. When you deny a disjunctive proposition, you aren’t creating a new disjunctive proposition; instead, you're negating the original proposition's assertion that one of the options is true. Although this denial isn't itself disjunctive, it changes the quality of the discussion, which is necessary to oppose and further analyze the original disjunctive proposition.

Even though hypothetical and disjunctive propositions are made up of simpler propositions linked together, they can still be combined with each other. This combination can be just a straightforward joining (bare conjunction) or it can involve more significant logical connections (material conjunction).

In rhetoric, "sine qua non" is a Latin phrase that means "without which not." It refers to something absolutely essential or indispensable. In simpler terms, it's used to describe something that is a must-have or a necessary condition for something else to happen. For example, trust might be the sine qua non for a successful friendship; without trust, the friendship can't exist or succeed.

A strict disjunctive proposition is a choice between clearly defined options that cover all possibilities. For example, saying "The light is either on or off" includes every possible state of the light. When this type of proposition comes from a clear logical division (like dividing all types of light states), it's straightforward and leaves no room for other options. This can be compared to a sine qua non hypothetical proposition (which we talked about as something essential or indispensable) and a definition, which clearly states what something is or isn't. All of these can be straightforwardly flipped around while still making sense. For instance, if you say, "A bachelor is an unmarried man," you can also say, "An unmarried man is a bachelor" without changing the meaning—this is what's meant by being "convertible simply."



A disjunctive syllogism is a type of logical argument that works with an "either/or" scenario. So, in a disjunctive syllogism, you start with two possibilities, rule out one, and conclude that the other must be the case.

A dilemma is a type of logical argument that starts with a choice between two options (this is the minor premise). It also uses a statement that connects conditions and outcomes (this is the major premise). The conclusion drawn from these premises can either be a straightforward statement or another choice between options. When put together correctly, a dilemma is a valid and effective way to reason things out.

A trilemma is like a dilemma but instead of two options, it involves three. It presents a situation where you are faced with three choices or possibilities, and you need to decide among them. Often, all three options come with their own set of challenges or implications, making the decision complex. This concept is often used to describe a situation where no choice is ideal, and each one involves a compromise or a trade-off.