INTRODUCTION

Hook
Thesis/Claim

Hooks can include:
- Relate a dramatic anecdote.
- Expose a commonly held belief.
- Present surprising facts and statistics.
- Use a fitting quotation.
- Tell a vivid personal story.
- Define a key term.
- Present an interesting observation.

Thesis Statements: see Thesis handout!

Counter-argument
Address the opposing side’s arguments.

Rebuttal
Essay returns to arguing your own thesis, which is strengthened because you have taken the opposition into account.

CONCLUSION

What I can do?

There are no set number of body paragraphs. You may have 3 or you may have 8: it is up to you.

An argument is a reasoned, logical way of demonstrating that your position, belief, or conclusion is valid. One purpose of argument is to persuade reasonable people to agree with your position. Another is simply to defend your position, to establish its soundness even if others cannot be persuaded to agree.

Each paragraph has a TOPIC SENTENCE: a sentence that tells EXACTLY what your paragraph is about.

Each paragraph has a CONCLUDING SENTENCE that gives the paragraph closure, drives the point home or leads/transitions to the next point.

Don’t forget to include transitions, too.

You may include personal experiences. You may also use first person pronouns (I, you, we).

End with what you, personally, are going to do.
What can you do to affect possible changes or improve the injustice you have described? What specific actions will you take? What actions can you propose your readers to take?

End with fervor. Strategies for getting the reader’s attention in introductions can also be used to end your essay uniquely and memorably (e.g. stating an apt quotation, a dramatic anecdote, and/or some startling facts about the subject).

End where you began. Sometimes called ‘echoing’ or ‘framing’, this type of ending picks up an idea/image suggested in the introduction and echoes it in the conclusion. For example, you can refer back to the anecdote/example you have mentioned previously and show how it is still relevant or how it could have been different.
Does evidence speak for itself?

Absolutely not. After you introduce evidence into your writing, you must say why and how this evidence supports your argument. In other words, you have to explain the significance of the evidence and its function in your paper. What turns a fact or piece of information into evidence is the connection it has with a larger claim or argument: evidence is always evidence for or against something, and you have to make that link clear.

As writers, we sometimes assume that our readers already know what we are talking about; we may be wary of elaborating too much because we think the point is obvious. But readers can’t read our minds: although they may be familiar with many of the ideas we are discussing, they don’t know what we are trying to do with those ideas unless we indicate it through explanations, organization, transitions, and so forth. Try to spell out the connections that you were making in your mind when you chose your evidence, decided where to place it in your paper, and drew conclusions based on it. Remember, you can always cut prose from your paper later if you decide that you are stating the obvious.

Here are some questions you can ask yourself about a particular bit of evidence. Answering them may help you explain how your evidence is related to your overall argument:

1. O.k., I’ve just stated this point, but so what? Why is it interesting? Why should anyone care?
2. What does this information imply?
3. What are the consequences of thinking this way or looking at a problem this way?
4. I’ve just described what something is like or how I see it, but why is it like that?
5. I’ve just said that something happens—so how does it happen? How does it come to be the way it is?
6. Why is this information important? Why does it matter?
7. How is this idea related to my thesis? What connections exist between them? Does it support my thesis? If so, how does it do that?
8. Can I give an example to illustrate this point?

HOW CAN I INCORPORATE EVIDENCE INTO MY PAPER?

QUOTATIONS
When you quote, you are reproducing another writer’s words exactly as they appear on the page. Here are some tips to help you decide when to use quotations:

IDEAS & CONTENT: EXCEEDS
Thesis/Claim: Insightful, complex
Topic Sentences/Reasons: Focused, original, skillfully supports thesis
Evidence:
• Relevant, convincing, carefully selected details
• Skillful use of sources/facts/quotations
Analysis/Interpretation:
• Skillfully explains significance and relevance of evidence
• Convincingly supports topic sentence and thesis/claim
• Makes insightful/in-depth connections and shares new insights
Counter argument: alternate or opposing claims are clearly addressed
Concluding Sentences:
Original, interesting thought that provides a sense of resolution

REQUIREMENTS:
• Double-spaced
• 2-3 pages
• At least 3 credible sources
• Counterclaim (with source)
• Proper Citations
• Works Cited Page
• Turn in to turnitin.com
INJUSTICE ARGUMENT ESSAY

1. Quote if you can’t say it any better and the author’s words are particularly brilliant, witty, edgy, distinctive, a good illustration of a point you’re making, or otherwise interesting.
2. Quote if you are using a particularly authoritative source and you need the author’s expertise to back up your point.
3. Quote if you are analyzing diction, tone, or a writer’s use of a specific word or phrase.
4. Quote if you are taking a position that relies on the reader’s understanding exactly what another writer says about the topic.

Be sure to introduce each quotation you use, and always cite your sources. See our handout on quotations for more details on when to quote and how to format quotations.

Like all pieces of evidence, a quotation can’t speak for itself. If you end a paragraph with a quotation, that may be a sign that you have neglected to discuss the importance of the quotation in terms of your argument. It’s important to avoid “plop quotations,” that is, quotations that are just dropped into your paper without any introduction, discussion, or follow-up.

PARAPHRASE

When you paraphrase, you take a specific section of a text and put it into your own words. Putting it into your own words doesn’t mean just changing or rearranging a few of the author’s words: to paraphrase well and avoid plagiarism, try setting your source aside and restating the sentence or paragraph you have just read, as though you were describing it to another person. Paraphrasing is different than summary because a paraphrase focuses on a particular, fairly short bit of text (like a phrase, sentence, or paragraph). You’ll need to indicate when you are paraphrasing someone else’s text by citing your source correctly, just as you would with a quotation.

When might you want to paraphrase?

1. Paraphrase when you want to introduce a writer’s position, but his or her original words aren’t special enough to quote.
2. Paraphrase when you are supporting a particular point and need to draw on a certain place in a text that supports your point—for example, when one paragraph in a source is especially relevant.
3. Paraphrase when you want to present a writer’s view on a topic that differs from your position or that of another writer; you can then refute writer’s specific points in your own words after you paraphrase.
4. Paraphrase when you want to comment on a particular example that another writer uses.
5. Paraphrase when you need to present information that’s unlikely to be questioned.
(COUNTER-ARGUMENT)

You MUST choose one side or the other when you write an argument paper!

Don’t be afraid to tell others exactly how you think things should go because that’s what we expect from an argument paper. You’re in charge now- what do YOU think?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do...</th>
<th>Don’t...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>…use passionate language</td>
<td>…use weak qualifiers like “I believe,” “I feel,” or “I think”—just tell us!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…cite experts who agree with you</td>
<td>…claim to be an expert if you’re not one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…provide facts, evidence, and statistics to support your position</td>
<td>…use strictly moral or religious claims as support for your argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…provide reasons to support your claim</td>
<td>…assume the audience will agree with you about any aspect of your argument</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>…address the opposing side’s argument and refute their claims</td>
<td>…attempt to make others look bad (i.e. Mr. Smith is ignorant—don’t listen to him!)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Why do I need to address the opposing side’s argument?

There is an old kung-fu saying which states, “The hand that strikes also blocks”, meaning that when you argue it is to your advantage to anticipate your opposition and strike down their arguments within the body of your own paper. This sentiment is echoed in the popular saying, “The best defense is a good offense”.

By addressing the opposition, you achieve the following goals:

- illustrate a well-rounded understanding of the topic
- demonstrate a lack of bias
- enhance the level of trust that the reader has for both you and your opinion
- give yourself the opportunity to refute any arguments the opposition may have
- strengthen your argument by diminishing your opposition’s argument

Think about yourself as a child, asking your parents for permission to do something that they would normally say no to. You were far more likely to get them to say yes if you anticipated and addressed all of their concerns before they expressed them. You did not want to belittle those concerns, or make them feel dumb, because this only put them on the defensive, and lead to a conclusion that went against your wishes.

The same is true in your writing

© Roane State Community College [http://www.roanestate.edu/owl/argument.html](http://www.roanestate.edu/owl/argument.html)
Where does the counter-argument go?

The short answer is a counter-argument can go anywhere except the conclusion. This is because there has to be a rebuttal paragraph after the counter-argument, so if the counter-argument is in the conclusion, something has been left out.

Here are two outlines showing the most common placement of the counterargument. The first is probably the most common.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I. Introduction</th>
<th>I. Counter-argument, which also serves as introduction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>II. Supporting point #1</td>
<td>II. Rebuttal, which would usually include the thesis statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Supporting point #2</td>
<td>III. Supporting point #1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Supporting point #3</td>
<td>IV. Supporting point #2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Supporting point #4</td>
<td>V. Supporting point #3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[there can be any number of supporting points]</td>
<td>VI. Supporting point #4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI. Counter-argument</td>
<td>[there can be any number of supporting points]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII. Rebuttal</td>
<td>VII. Conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII. Conclusion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
How should the rebuttal be introduced?

If the counter-argument requires careful signaling, so does the rebuttal. The essay has just done a 180° turn away from its thesis, and now it is about to do another 180° turn to complete the circle. The reader needs warnings and guidance or they will fall off or get whiplash—you’ll lose them, in other words, because the essay will seem incoherent or contradictory.

In all cases, the job of this transitional language is to show the reader that the opposing view is now being answered. The essay has returned to arguing its own thesis, strengthened by having taken the opposition into account. Here are some typical strategies. These are generic examples; they work best when tailored to suit the specifics of the individual topic.

- **What this argument [overlooks/fails to consider/does not take into account] is ...**
- **This view [seems/looks/sounds/etc.] [convincing/plausible/persuasive/etc.] at first, but ...**
- **While this position is popular, it is [not supported by the facts/not logical/impractical/etc.]**
- **Although the core of this claim is valid, it suffers from a flaw in its [reasoning/application/etc.]**

![Counter-Argument Sample](http://www.shoreline.edu/doldham/101/html/what.htm)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Critics-Argument Sample</th>
<th>Rebuttal Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Critics argue that the reason why some terminally ill patients wish to commit suicide is nothing more than melancholia. Patients suffering terminal illness might tend to be negative, hopeless, and depressed. In &quot;When Patients Request Assistance with Suicide,&quot; Dr. Michael Maskin, an associate professor of clinical psychiatry at Columbia-Presbyterian Medical Center in New York, argues that in many cases, dying patients' thinking is simply occupied by negative reactions to their critical condition (1999). In other words, most of the reasons why terminally ill patients request doctors to assist them in committing suicide might be caused by certain problems related to their illness. For example, they may be experiencing problems such as hopelessness because there is no effective treatment, anxiety over doctors' very expensive fees, and regret for their family's burden of taking care of them (Maskin 1999). For this reason, opponents argue that the terminally ill patient needs psychotherapy. Therefore, people who oppose doctor-assisted suicide believe that these patients are much too depressed to make a logical decision.</td>
<td>It may be true that all such requests, in which dying patients ask doctors to help them to kill themselves, come from depression as some psychologists have claimed and that some patients will change their minds if they participate in psychotherapy. However, all of those terminally ill patients who after psychotherapy finally choose to hasten their deaths are very determined. In &quot;Opposing Views on Assisted Suicide,&quot; Faye Girsh points out that many dying patients want to know about how to get help from a doctor to achieve a peaceful death even if ultimately they do not choose suicide (1999). In other words, terminally ill patients who voluntarily choose to ask doctors to help them commit suicide are those who decide carefully to take advantage of the doctor-assisted suicide law. For example, Girsh states that patients who consider assisted suicide are aware of their exact medical condition through a mutual exchange of information with their doctors; these patients understand their medical treatment along with risk, benefits and other options, and they must talk with a psychologist to determine if they are psychologically able to make such a decision (1999). These are not patients who want to end their lives simply because they are depressed. In short, terminally ill patients who finally choose to ask doctors to help them commit suicide are mentally competent and very determined about what they want to choose.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adapted from student handout, Sourcework, Heinle & Heinle, 2006.