Philosophy of Language (PHIL-UA 9085) 2022
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Practical introduction to argumentation and assessment
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Contents

1 Motivation

This is a short course with contents which are argumentatively rich, sometimes challenging. To get a good understanding of the topics and materials, it is good to become aware of how argumentative text and academic writing work. Furthermore, the homework sets for the course will require you to write answers, arguments, definitions, explanations, short and long essays. Academic writing is, as it were, a recursive process. First you need to write good sentences. Then good arguments. Then good paragraphs. Then good essays. Then good papers. The tools used at each step are more or less the same but the extension and subtlety increases at a weekly pace.

In the course syllabus you have an overview of the assessment components: the homework sets and the final paper for the course. The specific instructions for each task will be available on the course website.

You will notice that the goal of each of these tasks, besides giving you the occasion of presenting your current understanding of the specific contents of the course, is to lead you through the process of learning how to write an argumentative text, from paragraph to essay.

In section 2 we explain in a short and practical way which are the basic tools you need to employ every time you hand in a piece. In general, the expectation in this course is not so much that you make the right claims but rather that you are able to provide arguments for what you claim.

To assess your learning and achievements, we have in mind the criteria spelled out in section 3. A basic element of assessment is called TASK ACHIEVEMENT. You should at least proceed as required.

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2 Argumentative text and academic writing

Writing is a skill, that is, you need to train in order to learn. A general feature of argumentative writing for academic purposes is that you should be mindful of the AUDIENCE, TONE and PURPOSE that are specific to these genre.

Who is your audience? You may think that your audience are your teachers, for they are those who will in fact read the text. This is partly true and partly not: if you were to take that assumption too far, you could run the risk of understating concepts and ideas in your text, by thinking that those who write the homework sets should surely know what an answer will say. In fact, you should have a target audience of an imaginary student to whom you are explaining what you think. You want this colleague to be *persuaded*, and persuasion is the goal of argumentation. Your colleague will be persuaded only if he understands what the problem is and what your arguments show. So you need to be mindful of putting all the pieces in the puzzle so that your colleague gets convinced.

What is the appropriate tone? Academic writing is formal in tone. If you you would try to convince a friend to go to a pub with you by texting him on the phone, using slang and abbreviations is the way to go. That is *not* the way to go in academic writing. A formal tone allows you and the reader to focus on the subject matter of the text. An informal tone tells more about you than about your knowledge of a subject matter, and academic writing is not the arena where to show your personal wit.

The purpose of the text depends on the task at hand. This may be to motivate, explain, define, argue, attack or defend, compare and contrast, etc. The purpose of a text — a short paragraph, an essay, or a paper — determines its structure. At every stage in writing, we urge you to be explicitly aware of the structure you choose for your text.

2.1 Writing paragraphs

We consider how to write different sorts of PARAGRAPHS. In all cases, the following basic steps apply: outline claim and support, develop, add transition signals, revise, and proofread.

2.1.1 Structure: claim + support

The claim is the core message of the paragraph. It is given in the TOPIC SENTENCE, which typically opens a paragraph. We then provide support the claim, or we explain it further by breaking it down into subclaims. A concluding sentence simply recapitulates what has been said in a brief way and it possibly announces what comes in the following paragraph. Here is a scheme:

- Topic sentence
- Sentences A, B, C providing support or explanation of the topic sentence.
- Concluding sentence

For instance, consider these two paragraphs:

> PARAGRAPH 1: A major problem in Amsterdam is the overabundance of bikes. Abandoned bikes block sidewalks and emergency doors, which leads to nuisance and to dangerous situations in case of emergency. Short term but also sustainable solutions are needed.

This paragraph introduces a problem. The first sentence says what the problem is. The second one explains why it is a problem. The third one suggests what the following paragraph(s) will be dealing with.

> PARAGRAPH 2: A major problem in Amsterdam is the overabundance of bikes and the Gemeente Amsterdam has opened a call for short-term solutions to deal with it. In this essay, we will provide two strategies solutions: the creation of the "recycling patrol" and the enforcement of bike tagging. We conclude that if combined, these solutions have a chance of impact in 3-6 months.

This paragraph is the introduction to an essay. The first sentence identifies the subject of the essay. The rest analyses the structure of the essay.

You have to make sure that every sentence in the paragraph is clearly related with other sentences in the paragraph, and that every sentence in the paragraph is really needed to support the point that the paragraph intends to make.

2.1.2 Outlining and developing

The way to proceed to write a paragraph is to first have a clear idea of what is the task to be achieved, and to OUTLINE your ideas on that basis. An outline is a plan for a paragraph where you write down the claim its warrant or subclaims in the order in which you plan to write them. You may think that an outline is a waste of time because it's just like writing a paragraph. Well, if you write the outline, indeed you are almost done with writing a paragraph. So start there! For example, this is an outline for paragraph 1:

- Problem: overabundance of bikes in Amsterdam.
- Why: nuisance and dangers of congested sidewalks and blocked emergency doors
- What's next: short term and sustainable solutions

Then you can go on and fill in the details to convert this into paragraph 1.

2.1.3 Transition signals

A key to writing a good paragraph is to give it a clear structure and then use transition signals in order to enhance its coherence and readability. Connectors and other transition words are the oil for the mechanism. Here's just one list (from Oshima & Hogue 1991), you can find zillions of them in academic writing books or sites.

- To indicate sequence or to order information: first, second etc., followed by, at this point, next, last, finally, previously, subsequently, after that, initially, and then, next, before, after, concurrently, simultaneously, meanwhile.
- To introduce an example: in this case, for example, for instance, on this occasion, to illustrate, to demonstrate, this can be seen, when/where..., take the case of,
- To indicate time: immediately, thereafter, formerly, finally, prior to, previously, then, soon, during, at that time, before, after, at this point.
- To divide an idea: first, next, finally; firstly, secondly, thirdly, initially, subsequently, ultimately;
- To compare and/ or contrast: similarly, by comparison, similar to, like, just like; whereas, balanced against. In contrast, on the other hand, balanced against, however, on the contrary, unlike, differing from, a different view is, despite,
- To introduce an opposite idea or show exception: however, on the other hand, whereas, instead, while, yet, but, despite, in spite of, nevertheless, even though, in contrast, it could also be said that
- To introduce additional ideas/ information: in addition, also, finally, moreover, furthermore, one can also say, and then, further, another,
- To indicate a result/ cause of something: therefore, thus, consequently, as a consequence, as a result, hence.

2.1.4 Revising

In academic writing there is no fast track. To do it well, you need to re-read what you write. This can sometimes be painfully annoying but it is a basic and unavoidable stage of the process. When you revise, you check for:

- Task achievement. Have you done what you were asked to do?
- Clarity of structure. Is it easy to see what you want to say and why?
- Coherence and cohesion. Have you properly articulated your claim and its support?
- Level of detail. Have you said enough? Too much?
- Appropriateness of transition signals.

- Adequate conclusion (does not add anything new but does not repeat previous sentences).

Revising requires that you take distance from your own writing. This may be a daring task, especially when you have little time left before a submission deadline. So make sure you always spare some time for revision before submitting your homework sets.

2.1.5 Proofreading

You are expected to proofread before you submit any homework set. Effective proofreading is done with a pencil (analogical or digital, if you have a tablet) because that way you can add, change, move, and cross out on a given basis. If you just make changes instead of printing out on paper or on a PDF what you write, you may gain a bit of time but the result is usually worse than when you have the text as you once wrote it in front of you and you are faced with it. You have to do this no matter which language you write in! You have to check for:

- Completeness and correctness of sentences.
- Precision in vocabulary.
- Punctuation, spelling, capitalisation, typos, etc.

2.2 Sorts of paragraphs

With this general overview on how to write a paragraph, we now move to some specific sorts of paragraphs you will be required to write in the homework sets.

2.2.1 Motivated answers

What is the difference between an answer and a motivated one? You could say that the former is a sentence while the latter is a paragraph. When you answer a question, you make a claim. When you provide motivation, you explain your claim and you argue for it.

For example, if the question were: "what's the best way to get from Science Park to Amsterdam Centraal?", you could answer "Take the train." This kind of short answer is quite inappropriate in academic writing. Even if you think it's redundant, you would be expected to write your answer as a self-standing claim (i.e., one that a reader can understand even if she did not read the original question), so an acceptable answer could be: "The best way to get from Science Park to Amsterdam Centraal is to take a train at the stop which is right next to the campus."

Still, here we are just giving an answer and no motivation (you, for instance, may think that actually taking a train is not the best way to get to Centraal). For this, we need to say why we consider it the best way. This additional sentences could help: "There is a direct train every 10 minutes, the train ride to Centraal only takes 10 minutes, and the ticket just costs 2,10 EUR."

You could maybe be unsatisfied because none of those reasons suffices to establish that taking a train is the *best* way. Maybe one needs to be more careful and qualify the claim in the topic sentence, to explain in what sense we think our answer is the offers the best solution. For instance:

> The best way to get from Science Park to Amsterdam Centraal, when thinking of least time and effort, is to take a train at the stop which is right next to the campus. There is a direct train every 10 minutes, the train ride to Centraal only takes 10 minutes, and the ticket just costs 2,10 EUR.

This is a clear and motivated answer. You may still disagree but you can see why think my claim should be accepted.

Of course, when you try to justify, for instance, why a certain statement lacks a truth value, explanations and reasons are harder to give. Here we are giving you a recipe, not an answer-generator.

2.2.2 Providing definitions

When you are asked to provide a definition, you may not just transcribe the relevant passage from the book or text you are reading. Paraphrasing is a very useful tool here. In a paraphrase, you provide your own rendition or understanding of the concepts at hand, which requires you to grasp the meaning of the original definition. You should be careful in properly documenting the source(s) you rely on when constructing your paraphrase. Unreferenced paraphrase is in the fringes of plagiarism! (See more on plagiarism in section 3.

Here is a simple recipe to paraphrase:

- Read and re-read the definition in the context in which it appears.
- Write down on a piece of paper the main technical terms appearing in the *definiendum* (what is being defined) and in the *definiens* (the cluster of notions by which the *definiendum* is defined).
- Add arrows to turn it into a directed graph and/or link the terms with transition signals (simple logical functors can help but usually it's better to use natural language ones to specify cause, effect, oppositions, alternatives, etc.)
- Prepare an outline in which you distinguish definiendum and definiens.
- Write the paraphrase in a paragraph.

2.2.3 Give arguments

When you are asked to establish, support, or reject a position, you are expected to give arguments. What are arguments? You have read and heard already that one can classify arguments into different classes: deductive, inductive, transcendental, etc. There are of course many other kinds of argument: by analogy, from charity, etc. Here we consider the issue more generally: what do these and possibly other kinds of argument have in common? They all share this general conditional structure: a claim is established by providing true premises and a reasoning method to pass from premises to conclusion:

- There is a conclusion, a claim one wants to put forth, something that others should come to agree with.
- There are premises, data, evidence, or reasons in support for the claim.

- There is a reasoning or warrant that allows us infer the conclusions from the premises.

Because an argument is a set of claims, an argument cannot be true or false: claims are true or false. An argument is valid if the reasoning guarantees that from true premises you get to a true conclusion. The argument is sound if, besides being valid, it is also the case that its premises are actually true.

In your homework sets, you should construct arguments without thinking too much about the type of argument you are constructing (unless explicitly indicated). That is, do not try to decide first what kind of argument you will use. Focus on giving a clear formulation to the claim you want to make, to see which premises and reasoning would take you there.

Here is a simple recipe to structure an argumentative paragraph:

- Formulate the conclusion as a topic sentence.
- Work out what is assumed by these claims, i.e., what's the data that you need to accept to believe that.
- Make the reasoning from assumptions to conclusions explicit: does the conclusion hold as a special case of the premises? does it follow by analogy? is the conclusion the best explanation for the premises? etc.
- Anticipate possible objections — what could your rival say to undermine your argument? — and counterargue them.

Writing an argument which includes the anticipation of counterarguments may take more than one paragraph. The basics described at the beginning of section 2.1 (outline claim and support, develop, add transition signals, revise, proofread) all apply to the new paragaphs you may need.

You have to realise that to attack an argument, just claiming that the conclusion is false is insufficient. Here are a few ideas on how to attack an argument:

- Attack validity. Argue against the reasoning method that takes from premises to conclusion.
- Attack soundness. Argue against the truth of the premises.
- Reductio. Show that a contradiction follows if one accepts the conclusion.

To defend an argument (your own or somebody else's), here are a few ideas:

- Defend validity. Argue for the correctness of the reasoning method that takes from premises to conclusion.
- Defend soundness. Show that if one considers that one or more premises are not true, then a contradiction follows.
- Reductio. Show that a contradiction follows if one accepts the negation of the conclusion.

2.2.4 Compare and contrast

When you compare and contrast two positions or ideas, you need to be clear about what of those positions you are interested in, define aspects with respect to which you will compare and contrast, and formulate a thesis that summarises your observations.

Here is a recipe for comparing and contrasting:

- Summarise the key features of the two ideas you have to relate.
- Define aspects in which you will relate them (in e.g., a Venn diagram or a table) and fill in how each position stands with respect to each aspect you defined.
- Write a topic sentence in which you summarise your observations. The rest of the paragraph should develop the comparison and contrast by developing in text what you have in your scheme or table.

2.3 Essays and papers

Now that you are familiar with writing paragraphs of different sorts, we move one level up. An ESSAY is a structured set of paragraphs. Like a paragraph, it is written about one topic, but the topic's development requires paragraphs rather than just a few sentences: it is longer, a bit deeper, a bit more complex. However, the organisation of the essay is essentially the same as the paragraph's, so if you can write a paragraph as we have analysed it above, you can write an essay. Here is a reminder of the structure of a paragraph:

- Topic sentence
- Support A
- Support B
- Support C
- Concluding sentence

A PAPER is like an essay, but longer. So when you write an essay, it is optional to explicitly signal where your introduction, body, and conclusion start, but this is needed when you write a paper. Furthermore, each module in the body of a paper should be made into a new section identified with a heading. It is salutary to construct each of the body sections as a mini-essay, i.e., to start with an introductory paragraph where you explain what you're going to do in that section and why. Then you get to do it. Finally, you conclude it by wrapping it up and announcing what comes next in following section.

The basics for writing a paragraph described at the beginning of section 2.1 (outline, develop, add transition signals, revise, proofread) all apply when you write an essay or paper. Here are a few additional indications.

2.3.1 Outlining an essay or paper

An OUTLINE is essential when you write an essay or paper. This is how you succeed in writing a clearly structured, coherent and cohesive piece. Like when you write a paragraph outline, an essay or paper outline is a scheme in which you decide the order in which you introduce claims and support for them, the organisation of the piece in paragraphs (for the essay) and in sections (for a long essay and a paper). Work on your outline until you get a smooth structure in order to give support to your thesis, and to plan the body of the piece so that its parts are well-articulated and balanced in terms of depth/extension.

The general structure of an outline for an essay or a paper is as follows:

1. **Introduction:**
   - State the topic of the paper in one sentence.
   - Give background information. Define terminology that is strictly needed to understand the topic and question.
   - Declare the goal of your paper: what is the research question you want to address?
   - Thesis statement: state the hypothesis that the essay/paper investigates.
   - Methodological overview: a short summary of the arguments by which you plan to establish the thesis (in the case of a paper, add references to where these steps appear in the paper's sections).
2. **Body:** for sections I, II, III, etc., detail what you will do in each:
   - Thesis statement: in **one sentence**, formulate the point that you want to make in this section.
   - Support: sketch the argument(s) that establish the section thesis, list examples and possible objections.
   - Conclusion of the section: take stock of what you have done so that the reader sees that you have actually established the main point you intended to show.
3. **Conclusion:**
   - Restatement of the paper's thesis.
   - Summary of the conclusions made in each of the sections.
   - Consequences of your investigation. What if someone is still not persuaded?
   - Highlight the value of the thesis you have established.
   - Open questions for future research.
4. **References:** They have to be **complete** and the citation format should be consistent!

A good outline is detailed. You do not actually write the paper when you write the outline, but you do get a clear sense of what you will have to write when you write the paper.

As a preliminary plan, the outline need not be followed exactly when you actually write the paper. Sometimes you realise, once you start with writing, that some things need to be added, deleted, or relocated with respect to the plan you made in the outline, and this is fine. Still, when you have an outline before you start writing the prose, you have a clear idea of how things change in the paper, which makes it easier to judge whether a change is reasonable. Having an outline also helps you judge whether you will have enough time to write your essay/paper, and to move on when you get stuck in the writing. (Quite often, you get stuck because either you are not sure about what you want to say, or because you are not sure that you are saying something at the right place.)

2.3.2 Narrowing down a research question

The goal of an academic essay or paper is to answer a well-crafted RESEARCH QUESTION. To ask a good question, you do not need to have the answer — this is what research is about! — but you need to think whether an answer can be found within the limits of time and space you have. You therefore have to *narrow down* the initial question in order for it to be tractable in an essay, whatever it's lenght. Here is a list of criteria that will help you cut down your questions.

1. **Breadth and depth:** How broad should you remain, how deep can you get? A good research question keeps some harmony between the proportions, where the main constrains are given by time and word limit. When the topic and question are too broad, the arguments and discussion will probably remain rather shallow. When the topic and question are too deep, an essay or short paper will most probably not suffice to deal with them properly, or they may demand too much reading, or they may lie beyond your expertise.

2. **Sort of question:** When you narrow down, you have to consider the sort of question you want to ask. Is a yes/no question suitable for a philosophical paper? Or should one rather consider an open question, one starting with a question word like *what, where, when, which, who, whose, how, why*? There is nothing written in stone, but something you should remember is that an argumentative paper always takes care of the WHY issue, whatever sort of question you decide to ask.

3. **Presuppositions and subquestions:** A question's presuppositions are theses that one should accept to even consider the question. If these are not too polemic, your question will get through. If the presuppositions are controversial, then the reader will not accept your question and will think: "well, you'd better argue for those presuppositions!"

4. **Clarity of the question:** You should be precise when you formulate your research question. Every word counts, but some words are tricker than others. Some terms can be broad, imprecise, vague, theory-laden, they can lead to anachronisms, etc.

5. **Originality of the question:** One can think of originality in different terms. Perhaps the first idea that comes to mind is that a question is original if no one has asked it before you ask it. A more fruitful way to think of originality is to see it as a matter of independent thinking. An essay or short paper are limited and modest, but they should show that you have thoughts of your own and, more importantly, that you are able to argue for these thoughts.

2.3.3 Formulating a hypothesis

To narrow down a topic and a research question, you have to do something which seems impossible at first: you have to think of the answer while you think of the question. In real life, questions are usually asked when one does not know the answer. When you do research, you try to answer questions for which you have an idea of what the answer could be, and for which you can devise a plan of how to go about trying to find an answer to.

A HYPOTHESIS (pl. 'hypotheses', be careful about this) is a possible answer to the research question, a leading idea which may be modified, given up, or criticised as you go on with your research. You are not bound to confirm your hypothesis but you need a hypothesis to get started with.

How do you formulate a hypothesis? This is an art and you learn by trying, but here are a few comments that may be helpful:

- First you have to first fully understand your own question, and then contemplate how someone could answer it.
- Maybe you are convinced that one answer must be the right one but to do research, you have to be prepared to "kill your darlings" and consider the opposite of what you think or hope or imagine is true.
- Think broadly. For instance, think whether a hypothesis would be *a priori* coherent with the rest of e.g., an author's work or the paradigm she belongs to. Think whether in the existing literature people would disagree, and why (disagreement is not bad *per se*, the problem comes when the one who disagrees with you is right). Think whether you can relate to the hypothesis, whether you would hold that yourself or not, and why.
- Think of the value of the hypothesis. What would its implications be? Would it shed light on other related issues? Why?

What you certainly *should not do* is assume that you can only get an answer after you have thoroughly read all relevant literature, and after having written your paper. First, because an argumentative paper cannot be written without having a leading idea of what is being argued for. Second, because you cannot pick relevant literature if you do not have a hypothesis.

2.3.4 Annotated bibliography

When you answer questions in a homework set, the bibliographic sources are normally those defined in the homework set itself. When you write a longer piece like an essay or paper, you sometimes need to make a bibliographic search: to find and select literature that is pertinent in the search for an answer to the

narrowed down question. A bibliographic search has to be *strongly selective*. There is a lot written out there; a paper which relies on irrelevant sources or on too many sources is almost always a bad paper. Narrowing down your question properly is crucial in order to delimit the boundaries of your bibliography. In the context of this course, essays will have a pre-defined bibliography of at most two sources, and you will be expected to construct an annotated bibliography of at most 3-4 sources.

Suppose you find a text on the internet[1] or in the library. How do you judge whether it should be part of your bibliography? Think of the items below but, more crucially, remind yourself time and again of your own topic and research question. They constitute the main filter.

- Obviously, you first look at the title of the text. Tip: this should give you a clue of how important it is to give the right title to your own papers.
- Read the abstract, read it well, it will only take a couple of minutes and it will already give you an indication of the contents of the text. Tip: this should give you a clue of how important it is to write good abstracts for your own papers.
- What kind of text is it? A journal article? A conference paper? An unpublished manuscript? A book chapter? A book? An encyclopedia entry?
- When was it published? Is it old bread? In philosophy, some old bread is good, of course, but not all of it.
- Who is the publisher? Is it a peer-reviewed journal? Who are the journal editors? Is it a well-known academic publisher? Is there a publisher at all? If it appears in conference proceedings, did it go throug a peer-review process?
- Who is the author? Is it someone who is well known in the field? If it is someone who is alive, check her webpage. Beware! Unknown does not mean bad, and well-known does not mean good. But identities matter in academia.
- Who cites the piece? Someone respectable? No one? Citation indices say something about who has read what you are reading. Do not get too seduced by this criterion: quantity does not mean quality (something may be widely cited because lots of people argue that the piece is bad), but it gives some clues.
- Read the piece 'diagonally', that is, read the introduction, check out how it is structured (sections are often quite telling), look at the conclusion.
- Look at piece's bibliography. Very often, an uninteresting piece may be full of interesting sources for your own purposes.
- Can you select a paper whose full text is not available to you, on paper or digitally? **Obviously not!** You cannot write a paper based on sources you have not read yourself.

[1] Using Google Search or Google Scholar is of course recommended. But remember that this is just a first step. Check philosophy portals, philosopher's webpages, journals, etc.

An ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY is an alphabetically ordered list of sources in which you not only properly record the bibliographic references (more on this below), but you also include one or two sentences that summarise what a source is about and why it is relevant for your question. Suppose you now have a couple of texts which look interesting for your paper. The annotation should cover the following points:

1. Restate the piece's main argument, methodology, and conclusion. (You can find all of this in the text's abstract, introduction, and conclusion.)
2. In view of what you say in 1, assess the relevance of the piece with respect to your topic and research question. Say explicitly what it would contribute to your research.
   (a) Is it a primary or a secondary source?
   (b) What aspect of your own research question would it help to address?
   (c) How does it relate to your hypothesis?
   (d) Where would it fit in your sketched methodology?

So you have to dig into the pieces you select, but be smart not to spend too much time reading. The challenge as well is that you will have to condense the annotation of each entry to 50-150 words. This means you have to choose your words carefully. Of course, you will be able to consult your peers and your teachers about your choices, but the annotation will force you to train yourself in selecting, keeping, and discarding.

2.3.5 References and correct citation

Academic work always stacks on top of previous research, that's just how it works:

> "If I have seen further it is by standing on the shoulders of Giants."
> (Newton to Hooke, 5 Feb. 1676; Corres I, 416)

Whenever your work depends directly or indirectly on other's work, you need to introduce a REFERENCE. Failure to do so, intendedly or unintendedly, is **always** taken to be an attempt to pass the work of others off as your own. This is called PLAGIARISM. In the Netherlands, two recent scandals (Stapel and Nijkamp) have put everyone in high alert. In the course syllabus you can find the university's policy on the issue.

When do you insert a reference? After a QUOTATION or a paraphrase. We have already discussed paraphrasing. You quote when you take a fragment of somebody's work and you incorporate it in your text by using quotation marks. When you quote, you need to include exact details such as the page or chapter from which the fragment comes. For instance,

> In his report *Intelligent machinery*, Turing investigated "the question of whether or not it is possible for machinery to show intelligent behaviour". (Turing 1948, p. 418)

A similar indication would be needed in a paraphrase. "Cf." (an abbreviation for the Latin word confer) is used to indicate that a source is relevant but that you are not directly quoting it:

> In his report *Intelligent machinery*, Turing considered options in favour and against the possibility that machines may show intelligent behaviour. (Cf. Turing 1948, p. 418)

In the *References* section of the essay or paper, an entry such as this one should be included:

> Turing, Alan (1948), "Machine Intelligence", in Copeland, B. Jack, *The Essential Turing: The ideas that gave birth to the computer age*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2004.

There exist different conventions or referencing systems. For instance, after the quotation or paraphrase, we could have used "[1], p. 418" if the bibliographical references are numbered and there Turing appears in place number 1. Likewise, the complete blibliographical details in the *References* section may look slightly different (e.g., A. Turing 1948, Machine Intelligence, in J. B. Copeland 2004, The Essential Turing: The ideas that gave birth to the computer age, Oxford University Press, Oxford). Likewise, one may choose to put all references for quotes and paraphrases in footnotes rather than in parenthetical additions. Some widely use systems are:

- The Harvard System (http://www.uefap.com/writing/referenc/harvard.pdf)
- Chicago System (http://www.chicagomanualofstyle.org/tools_citationguide.html)
- American Psychological Association (APA) (http://www.apastyle.org/)

It doesn't matter to us which system you choose. What matters is that you are *consistent* and always use the same format in your essay or paper.

3 Evaluation

In this section we make explicit the evaluation criteria for the course, concerning participation and homework sets.

3.1 Participation in class

Students are expected to come to all lectures. Students are expected to read in advance so that they can meaningfully participate in the discussions in class. Students are expected to actively participate in class.

If it is apparent that a student hasn't read the required materials for a session, the student will be asked to leave the class and go to read in the library.

Homework assignments should be submitted by email as a PDF by the deadline indicated in the syllabus.

3.2 Anything you write for this course

These are the criteria underlying the evaluation of whatever you write for this course.

1. Content:
    - Task achievement.
    - Relevant information.
    - Content cohesion.
    - Conclusion.
2. Structure:
    - Construction.
    - Flow.
3. Form:
    - Language.
    - Edition and proofreading.
4. Formal:
    - Aspect.
    - References.

4 References

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