

Reasoning and Formal Modelling for Forensic Science Lecture 8

Prof. Dr. Benedikt Löwe

2nd Semester 2010/11

Argumentation Schemes.

Premiss 1. ...

Premiss 2. ...

Conclusion. ...

Critical Questions: ...

Argument from Position to Know.

Premise 1. Source a is in a position to know about things in a certain subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. a asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

CQ1 Is a in a position to know whether A is true?

CQ2 Is a an honest, trustworthy, reliable source?

CQ3 Did a assert that A is true?

Example: Argument from Position to Know

Example: Argument from Position to Know

Oak Lawn Police Report, 9 Feb 2011. A witness told police that while at 9424 S. Pulaski Road, she observed a brown wallet on the ground in the main walkway. The witness said that as she went to pick up the wallet, Williams walked up and took possession of it. Police said that the wallet belonged to a friend of the witness. Williams refused to give the witness the wallet. When the witness told Williams that she was going to call the police, he fled through the parking lot, according to reports. Evergreen Park police said that they found Williams at a bus stop in possession of the wallet. The wallet contained a drivers license belonging to the victim, according to police.

Example: Argument from Position to Know

Oak Lawn Police Report, 9 Feb 2011. A witness told police that while at 9424 S. Pulaski Road, she observed a brown wallet on the ground in the main walkway. The witness said that as she went to pick up the wallet, Williams walked up and took possession of it. Police said that the wallet belonged to a friend of the witness. Williams refused to give the witness the wallet. When the witness told Williams that she was going to call the police, he fled through the parking lot, according to reports. Evergreen Park police said that they found Williams at a bus stop in possession of the wallet. The wallet contained a drivers license belonging to the victim, according to police.

Premise 1. Source a is in a position to know about things in a certain subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. a asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1** Is a in a position to know whether A is true?
- CQ2** Is a an honest, trustworthy, reliable source?
- CQ3** Did a assert that A is true?

Example: Argument from Position to Know

Oak Lawn Police Report, 9 Feb 2011. A witness told police that while at 9424 S. Pulaski Road, she observed a brown wallet on the ground in the main walkway. The witness said that as she went to pick up the wallet, Williams walked up and took possession of it. Police said that the wallet belonged to a friend of the witness. Williams refused to give the witness the wallet. When the witness told Williams that she was going to call the police, he fled through the parking lot, according to reports. Evergreen Park police said that they found Williams at a bus stop in possession of the wallet. The wallet contained a drivers license belonging to the victim, according to police.

Premise 1. Source a is in a position to know about things in a certain subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. a asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 Is a in a position to know whether A is true?
- CQ2 Is a an honest, trustworthy, reliable source?
- CQ3 Did a assert that A is true?

- ▶ The witness was present, so she is in a position to know things about the events.

Example: Argument from Position to Know

Oak Lawn Police Report, 9 Feb 2011. A witness told police that while at 9424 S. Pulaski Road, she observed a brown wallet on the ground in the main walkway. The witness said that as she went to pick up the wallet, Williams walked up and took possession of it. Police said that the wallet belonged to a friend of the witness. Williams refused to give the witness the wallet. When the witness told Williams that she was going to call the police, he fled through the parking lot, according to reports. Evergreen Park police said that they found Williams at a bus stop in possession of the wallet. The wallet contained a drivers license belonging to the victim, according to police.

Premise 1. Source a is in a position to know about things in a certain subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. a asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 Is a in a position to know whether A is true?
- CQ2 Is a an honest, trustworthy, reliable source?
- CQ3 Did a assert that A is true?

- ▶ The witness was present, so she is in a position to know things about the events.
- ▶ The witness asserts that Williams stole the wallet.

Example: Argument from Position to Know

Oak Lawn Police Report, 9 Feb 2011. A witness told police that while at 9424 S. Pulaski Road, she observed a brown wallet on the ground in the main walkway. The witness said that as she went to pick up the wallet, Williams walked up and took possession of it. Police said that the wallet belonged to a friend of the witness. Williams refused to give the witness the wallet. When the witness told Williams that she was going to call the police, he fled through the parking lot, according to reports. Evergreen Park police said that they found Williams at a bus stop in possession of the wallet. The wallet contained a drivers license belonging to the victim, according to police.

Premise 1. Source a is in a position to know about things in a certain subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. a asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 Is a in a position to know whether A is true?
- CQ2 Is a an honest, trustworthy, reliable source?
- CQ3 Did a assert that A is true?

- ▶ The witness was present, so she is in a position to know things about the events.
- ▶ The witness asserts that Williams stole the wallet.
- ▶ Therefore, Williams stole the wallet.

Example: Argument from Position to Know

Oak Lawn Police Report, 9 Feb 2011. A witness told police that while at 9424 S. Pulaski Road, she observed a brown wallet on the ground in the main walkway. The witness said that as she went to pick up the wallet, Williams walked up and took possession of it. Police said that the wallet belonged to a friend of the witness. Williams refused to give the witness the wallet. When the witness told Williams that she was going to call the police, he fled through the parking lot, according to reports. Evergreen Park police said that they found Williams at a bus stop in possession of the wallet. The wallet contained a drivers license belonging to the victim, according to police.

Premise 1. Source a is in a position to know about things in a certain subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. a asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 Is a in a position to know whether A is true?
- CQ2 Is a an honest, trustworthy, reliable source?
- CQ3 Did a assert that A is true?

- ▶ The witness was present, so she is in a position to know things about the events.
- ▶ The witness asserts that Williams stole the wallet.
- ▶ **Therefore, Williams stole the wallet.**
- ▶ CQ1. Is the witness in a position to know whether this is true?
- ▶ CQ2. Is the witness a trustworthy source?
- ▶ CQ3. Did the witness assert that Williams stole the wallet?

Argument from Expert Opinion.

Premise 1. Source E is an expert in subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. E asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

CQ1 How credible is E as an expert source?

CQ2 Is E an expert in the field that A is in?

CQ3 What did E assert that implies A ?

CQ4 Is E personally reliable as a source?

CQ5 Is A consistent with what other experts say?

CQ6 Is E 's assertion based on evidence?

Example: Argument from Expert Opinion (1).

Example: Argument from Expert Opinion (1).

The victim of a George Town murder (27 Oct 2009) died from a “combination of multiple severe injuries” according to the state’s forensic pathologist, Dr Donald Ritchie. The two accused are alleged to have killed the victim after a day spent drinking bourbon. Dr Ritchie took the jury through a series of graphic post-mortem photographs and told the court that the victim’s body showed (among other injuries) a large tear in his skin overlaying a severe fracture to his jaw, which the expert witness said was extremely hard to break and therefore the injury inflicted must have involved a significant degree of force. Dr Ritchie said the injuries were so numerous and severe that it was likely the “constellation of injuries caused his death”.

Example: Argument from Expert Opinion (1).

The victim of a George Town murder (27 Oct 2009) died from a “combination of multiple severe injuries” according to the state’s forensic pathologist, Dr Donald Ritchie. The two accused are alleged to have killed the victim after a day spent drinking bourbon. Dr Ritchie took the jury through a series of graphic post-mortem photographs and told the court that the victim’s body showed (among other injuries) a large tear in his skin overlaying a severe fracture to his jaw, which the expert witness said was extremely hard to break and therefore the injury inflicted must have involved a significant degree of force. Dr Ritchie said the injuries were so numerous and severe that it was likely the “constellation of injuries caused his death”.

Premise 1. Source E is an expert in subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. E asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 How credible is E as an expert source?
- CQ2 Is E an expert in the field that A is in?
- CQ3 What did E assert that implies A ?
- CQ4 Is E personally reliable as a source?
- CQ5 Is A consistent with what other experts say?
- CQ6 Is E 's assertion based on evidence?

Example: Argument from Expert Opinion (2).

Premise 1. Source E is an expert in subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. E asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 How credible is E as an expert source?
- CQ2 Is E an expert in the field that A is in?
- CQ3 What did E assert that implies A ?
- CQ4 Is E personally reliable as a source?
- CQ5 Is A consistent with what other experts say?
- CQ6 Is E 's assertion based on evidence?

Example: Argument from Expert Opinion (2).

Premise 1. Source E is an expert in subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. E asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 How credible is E as an expert source?
- CQ2 Is E an expert in the field that A is in?
- CQ3 What did E assert that implies A ?
- CQ4 Is E personally reliable as a source?
- CQ5 Is A consistent with what other experts say?
- CQ6 Is E 's assertion based on evidence?

- ▶ Dr Ritchie is an expert in pathology, an area involving determining the cause of injuries.

Example: Argument from Expert Opinion (2).

Premise 1. Source E is an expert in subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. E asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 How credible is E as an expert source?
- CQ2 Is E an expert in the field that A is in?
- CQ3 What did E assert that implies A ?
- CQ4 Is E personally reliable as a source?
- CQ5 Is A consistent with what other experts say?
- CQ6 Is E 's assertion based on evidence?

- ▶ Dr Ritchie is an expert in pathology, an area involving determining the cause of injuries.
- ▶ Dr Ritchie claims that the attack involved a significant degree of force.

Example: Argument from Expert Opinion (2).

Premise 1. Source E is an expert in subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. E asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 How credible is E as an expert source?
- CQ2 Is E an expert in the field that A is in?
- CQ3 What did E assert that implies A ?
- CQ4 Is E personally reliable as a source?
- CQ5 Is A consistent with what other experts say?
- CQ6 Is E 's assertion based on evidence?

- ▶ Dr Ritchie is an expert in pathology, an area involving determining the cause of injuries.
- ▶ Dr Ritchie claims that the attack involved a significant degree of force.
- ▶ Therefore, the attack involved a significant degree of force.

Example: Argument from Expert Opinion (2).

Premise 1. Source E is an expert in subject domain S containing proposition A .

Premise 2. E asserts that A is true.

Conclusion. A is true.

- CQ1 How credible is E as an expert source?
- CQ2 Is E an expert in the field that A is in?
- CQ3 What did E assert that implies A ?
- CQ4 Is E personally reliable as a source?
- CQ5 Is A consistent with what other experts say?
- CQ6 Is E 's assertion based on evidence?

- ▶ Dr Ritchie is an expert in pathology, an area involving determining the cause of injuries.
- ▶ Dr Ritchie claims that the attack involved a significant degree of force.
- ▶ Therefore, the attack involved a significant degree of force.

- CQ1 How credible is Dr Ritchie as an expert source?
- CQ2 Is Dr Ritchie an expert in the field of determining whether an attack used a significant degree of force?
- CQ3 What did Dr Ritchie assert that implies that the attack involved a significant degree of force?
- CQ4 Is Dr Ritchie personally reliable as a source?
- CQ5 Is Dr Ritchie's statement consistent with what other experts say?
- CQ6 Is Dr Ritchie's assertion based on evidence?

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Reasoning and
Formal Modelling
for Forensic
Science
Lecture 8

Prof. Dr. Benedikt
Löwe

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Upon evaluating a critical question, there are four possible outcomes:

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Upon evaluating a critical question, there are four possible outcomes:

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue.

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Upon evaluating a critical question, there are four possible outcomes:

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue. (Dr Ritchie **is** in fact an expert on pathology.)

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Upon evaluating a critical question, there are four possible outcomes:

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue. (Dr Ritchie **is** in fact an expert on pathology.)
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened.

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Upon evaluating a critical question, there are four possible outcomes:

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue. (Dr Ritchie **is** in fact an expert on pathology.)
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened. (We do not know whether Dr Ritchie made the conclusion about the amount of force himself.)

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Upon evaluating a critical question, there are four possible outcomes:

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue. (Dr Ritchie **is** in fact an expert on pathology.)
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened. (We do not know whether Dr Ritchie made the conclusion about the amount of force himself.)
3. The situation does not answer a question, and more clarification is needed.

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Upon evaluating a critical question, there are four possible outcomes:

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue. (Dr Ritchie **is** in fact an expert on pathology.)
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened. (We do not know whether Dr Ritchie made the conclusion about the amount of force himself.)
3. The situation does not answer a question, and more clarification is needed. (Dr Ritchie is the only expert witness, so we do not know whether his opinion is consistent with that of others.)

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Upon evaluating a critical question, there are four possible outcomes:

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue. (Dr Ritchie **is** in fact an expert on pathology.)
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened. (We do not know whether Dr Ritchie made the conclusion about the amount of force himself.)
3. The situation does not answer a question, and more clarification is needed. (Dr Ritchie is the only expert witness, so we do not know whether his opinion is consistent with that of others.)
4. The situation confirms that there is a problem with the argument.

What do we learn from our critical questions? (1)

Upon evaluating a critical question, there are four possible outcomes:

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue. (Dr Ritchie **is** in fact an expert on pathology.)
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened. (We do not know whether Dr Ritchie made the conclusion about the amount of force himself.)
3. The situation does not answer a question, and more clarification is needed. (Dr Ritchie is the only expert witness, so we do not know whether his opinion is consistent with that of others.)
4. The situation confirms that there is a problem with the argument. (None in this example.)

What do we learn from our critical questions? (2)

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue.
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened.
3. The situation does not answer a question, and more clarification is needed.
4. The situation confirms that there is a problem with the argument.

What do we learn from our critical questions? (2)

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue.
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened.
3. The situation does not answer a question, and more clarification is needed.
4. The situation confirms that there is a problem with the argument.

In cases 1. and 4., Argumentation Theory has served its purpose. We either have a corroboration or a refutation of the argument.

What do we learn from our critical questions? (2)

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue.
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened.
3. The situation does not answer a question, and more clarification is needed.
4. The situation confirms that there is a problem with the argument.

In cases 1. and 4., Argumentation Theory has served its purpose. We either have a corroboration or a refutation of the argument.

Case 3. requires further investigation. The information we have at hand is not enough to answer the critical question.

What do we learn from our critical questions? (2)

1. The situation confirms that the critical question doesn't raise a relevant issue.
2. The situation raises an issue with our representation of the argument or reconstruction of what actually happened.
3. The situation does not answer a question, and more clarification is needed.
4. The situation confirms that there is a problem with the argument.

In cases 1. and 4., Argumentation Theory has served its purpose. We either have a corroboration or a refutation of the argument.

Case 3. requires further investigation. The information we have at hand is not enough to answer the critical question.

The interesting case is Case 2. in which we need to go back to our formal representation of the situation.

Schemes and Enthymemes (1).

Schemes and Enthymemes (1).

Chapter 6 of the Walton/Reed/Macagno book:

One problem with enthymemes is that reasonable people can have differences of opinion on what the implicit assumptions are supposed to be. Filling in the missing parts of an enthymeme may depend on interpreting the natural language text in which the argument was put forward, to try to fairly judge what the speaker meant to say. The danger of attributing such missing assumptions to an argument is that of unwittingly committing the straw man fallacy. This fallacy is committed when an arguer misrepresents her opponent's position to make it look more extreme or unreasonable than it really is, in order to attack it more easily.

Schemes and Enthymemes (1).

Chapter 6 of the Walton/Reed/Macagno book:

One problem with enthymemes is that reasonable people can have differences of opinion on what the implicit assumptions are supposed to be. Filling in the missing parts of an enthymeme may depend on interpreting the natural language text in which the argument was put forward, to try to fairly judge what the speaker meant to say. The danger of attributing such missing assumptions to an argument is that of unwittingly committing the straw man fallacy. This fallacy is committed when an arguer misrepresents her opponent's position to make it look more extreme or unreasonable than it really is, in order to attack it more easily.

From Sherlock Holmes, *The Adventure of Silver Blaze*: “A dog was kept in the stable, and yet, though someone had been in and fetched out a horse, he had not barked enough to rouse the two lads in the loft. Obviously, the midnight visitor was someone whom the dog knew well.”

Schemes and Enthymemes (1).

Chapter 6 of the Walton/Reed/Macagno book:

One problem with enthymemes is that reasonable people can have differences of opinion on what the implicit assumptions are supposed to be. Filling in the missing parts of an enthymeme may depend on interpreting the natural language text in which the argument was put forward, to try to fairly judge what the speaker meant to say. The danger of attributing such missing assumptions to an argument is that of unwittingly committing the straw man fallacy. This fallacy is committed when an arguer misrepresents her opponent's position to make it look more extreme or unreasonable than it really is, in order to attack it more easily.

From Sherlock Holmes, *The Adventure of Silver Blaze*: “A dog was kept in the stable, and yet, though someone had been in and fetched out a horse, he had not barked enough to rouse the two lads in the loft. Obviously, the midnight visitor was someone whom the dog knew well.”

Missing premise: “Dogs generally bark when a person enters an area unless the dog knows the person well.”

Schemes and Enthymemes (2).

Schemes and Enthymemes (2).

Reconstruction.

- ▶ (Dogs generally bark when a person enters an area unless the dog knows the person well.)
- ▶ Someone entered the stable and there was a dog.
- ▶ The dog didn't bark.

Schemes and Enthymemes (2).

Reconstruction.

- ▶ (Dogs generally bark when a person enters an area unless the dog knows the person well.)
- ▶ Someone entered the stable and there was a dog.
- ▶ The dog didn't bark.
- ▶ Therefore, the person who entered was known to the dog.

Schemes and Enthymemes (2).

Reconstruction.

- ▶ (Dogs generally bark when a person enters an area unless the dog knows the person well.)
- ▶ Someone entered the stable and there was a dog.
- ▶ The dog didn't bark.
- ▶ Therefore, the person who entered was known to the dog.

Possible exceptions: “Some dogs will bark at any person who enters”; “Some dogs won't bark at any person”; “Some dogs are unpredictable”; “the dog could have been drugged”.

Schemes and Enthymemes (2).

Reconstruction.

- ▶ (Dogs generally bark when a person enters an area unless the dog knows the person well.)
- ▶ Someone entered the stable and there was a dog.
- ▶ The dog didn't bark.
- ▶ Therefore, the person who entered was known to the dog.

Possible exceptions: “Some dogs will bark at any person who enters”; “Some dogs won't bark at any person”; “Some dogs are unpredictable”; “the dog could have been drugged”.

Note that it was **our** decision to represent the missing assumption. It could have been “Dogs generally bark when a person enters an area unless the dog knows the person well or the dog is drugged; and furthermore I have evidence that the dog wasn't drugged.”

Using schemes as a reconstruction tool.

Using schemes as a reconstruction tool.

Use the list of argumentation schemes with their critical questions as a guideline:

Using schemes as a reconstruction tool.

Use the list of argumentation schemes with their critical questions as a guideline:

1. Identify all possible argumentation schemes.

Using schemes as a reconstruction tool.

Use the list of argumentation schemes with their critical questions as a guideline:

1. Identify all possible argumentation schemes.
2. Use linguistic data (and possibly extra-linguistic data) as indicators which critical questions were considered relevant.

Using schemes as a reconstruction tool.

Use the list of argumentation schemes with their critical questions as a guideline:

1. Identify all possible argumentation schemes.
2. Use linguistic data (and possibly extra-linguistic data) as indicators which critical questions were considered relevant.
3. Determine which scheme was most likely the one that the original arguer intended.

Annotations & Formalizations (1).

Reasoning and
Formal Modelling
for Forensic
Science
Lecture 8

Prof. Dr. Benedikt
Löwe

Annotations & Formalizations (1).

In computational linguistics, the process of transforming a natural language text into a formal system is typically called **annotation**.

Annotations & Formalizations (1).

In computational linguistics, the process of transforming a natural language text into a formal system is typically called **annotation**. If you give the same text to two *annotators*, you do not always get the same annotation.

Annotations & Formalizations (1).

In computational linguistics, the process of transforming a natural language text into a formal system is typically called **annotation**. If you give the same text to two *annotators*, you do not always get the same annotation.

Possible reasons for this:

Annotations & Formalizations (1).

In computational linguistics, the process of transforming a natural language text into a formal system is typically called **annotation**. If you give the same text to two *annotators*, you do not always get the same annotation.

Possible reasons for this:

- ▶ Relevant ambiguity.

Annotations & Formalizations (1).

In computational linguistics, the process of transforming a natural language text into a formal system is typically called **annotation**. If you give the same text to two *annotators*, you do not always get the same annotation.

Possible reasons for this:

- ▶ Relevant ambiguity.
- ▶ Irrelevant ambiguity.

Annotations & Formalizations (1).

In computational linguistics, the process of transforming a natural language text into a formal system is typically called **annotation**. If you give the same text to two *annotators*, you do not always get the same annotation.

Possible reasons for this:

- ▶ Relevant ambiguity.
- ▶ Irrelevant ambiguity.
- ▶ Error of the annotator.

Annotations & Formalizations (1).

In computational linguistics, the process of transforming a natural language text into a formal system is typically called **annotation**. If you give the same text to two *annotators*, you do not always get the same annotation.

Possible reasons for this:

- ▶ Relevant ambiguity.
- ▶ Irrelevant ambiguity.
- ▶ Error of the annotator.

R. Artstein, M. Poesio. Inter-coder agreement for computational linguistics. *Computational Linguistics* 34(4): 555–596, 2008.

Annotations & Formalizations (2).

Reasoning and
Formal Modelling
for Forensic
Science
Lecture 8

Prof. Dr. Benedikt
Löwe

Annotations & Formalizations (2).

C. Lynch, K. Ashley, N. Pinkwart, V. Aleven, Toward Assessing Law Students Argument Diagrams, In: Proceedings of the Twelfth International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Law. pp. 222-3. Barcelona, 2009.

Annotations & Formalizations (2).

C. Lynch, K. Ashley, N. Pinkwart, V. Aleven, Toward Assessing Law Students Argument Diagrams, In: Proceedings of the Twelfth International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Law. pp. 222-3. Barcelona, 2009.

- ▶ Study of *Argument Diagrams* in a formal language called LARGO.
- ▶ 198 students.
- ▶ Three Supreme Court cases.
- ▶ Development of systems how to assess the three possibilities of disagreement.

Argument from Popular Opinion.

Reasoning and
Formal Modelling
for Forensic
Science
Lecture 8

Prof. Dr. Benedikt
Löwe

Argument from Popular Opinion.

Premise 1. A is generally accepted as true.

Premise 2. If A is generally accepted as true, this gives a reason in favour of A .

Conclusion. There is a reason in favour of A .

Argument from Popular Opinion.

Premise 1. A is generally accepted as true.

Premise 2. If A is generally accepted as true, this gives a reason in favour of A .

Conclusion. There is a reason in favour of A .

CQ1 What evidence like a poll or an appeal to common knowledge, supports the claim that A is generally accepted to be true?

Argument from Popular Opinion.

Premise 1. A is generally accepted as true.

Premise 2. If A is generally accepted as true, this gives a reason in favour of A .

Conclusion. There is a reason in favour of A .

- CQ1 What evidence like a poll or an appeal to common knowledge, supports the claim that A is generally accepted to be true?
- CQ2 Even if A is generally accepted to be true, are there any good reasons for doubting that it is true.

Argument from Popular Opinion.

Premise 1. A is generally accepted as true.

Premise 2. If A is generally accepted as true, this gives a reason in favour of A .

Conclusion. There is a reason in favour of A .

CQ1 What evidence like a poll or an appeal to common knowledge, supports the claim that A is generally accepted to be true?

CQ2 Even if A is generally accepted to be true, are there any good reasons for doubting that it is true.

(Walton / Reed / Macagno list a number of subschemes: various *ad populum* arguments; deliberation, snob appeal, appeal to vanity, rhetoric of belonging.)

Argument from Popular Practice.

Reasoning and
Formal Modelling
for Forensic
Science
Lecture 8

Prof. Dr. Benedikt
Löwe

Argument from Popular Practice.

Premise 1. A is popular practice among those who are familiar with what is acceptable or not in regard to A .

Premise 2. If A is popular practice, that gives reason to think that A is acceptable.

Conclusion. Therefore, A is acceptable.

Argument from Popular Practice.

Premise 1. A is popular practice among those who are familiar with what is acceptable or not in regard to A .

Premise 2. If A is popular practice, that gives reason to think that A is acceptable.

Conclusion. Therefore, A is acceptable.

CQ1 What actions or other indications show that a large majority accepts A ?

Argument from Popular Practice.

Premise 1. A is popular practice among those who are familiar with what is acceptable or not in regard to A .

Premise 2. If A is popular practice, that gives reason to think that A is acceptable.

Conclusion. Therefore, A is acceptable.

CQ1 What actions or other indications show that a large majority accepts A ?

CQ2 Even if a large majority accepts A what ground might here be there for thinking that they are justified in accepting A ?

Argument from Example.

Argument from Example.

Premise. In this particular case, the individual a has property F and property G .

Conclusion. Therefore, generally, if x has property F , then it has property G .

Argument from Example.

Premise. In this particular case, the individual a has property F and property G .

Conclusion. Therefore, generally, if x has property F , then it has property G .

This argument scheme is different from the others we have seen so far. The others sounded plausible, even if defeasible. This one sounds positively dangerous. In general, this argument will be invalid.

Argument from Example.

Premise. In this particular case, the individual a has property F and property G .

Conclusion. Therefore, generally, if x has property F , then it has property G .

This argument scheme is different from the others we have seen so far. The others sounded plausible, even if defeasible. This one sounds positively dangerous. In general, this argument will be invalid.

CQ1 Is the premise true?

Argument from Example.

Premise. In this particular case, the individual a has property F and property G .

Conclusion. Therefore, generally, if x has property F , then it has property G .

This argument scheme is different from the others we have seen so far. The others sounded plausible, even if defeasible. This one sounds positively dangerous. In general, this argument will be invalid.

CQ1 Is the premise true?

CQ2 Does the example cited support the generalization it is supposed to be an instance of?

Argument from Example.

Premise. In this particular case, the individual a has property F and property G .

Conclusion. Therefore, generally, if x has property F , then it has property G .

This argument scheme is different from the others we have seen so far. The others sounded plausible, even if defeasible. This one sounds positively dangerous. In general, this argument will be invalid.

CQ1 Is the premise true?

CQ2 Does the example cited support the generalization it is supposed to be an instance of?

CQ3 Is the example typical of the kinds of cases the generalization covers?

Argument from Example.

Premise. In this particular case, the individual a has property F and property G .

Conclusion. Therefore, generally, if x has property F , then it has property G .

This argument scheme is different from the others we have seen so far. The others sounded plausible, even if defeasible. This one sounds positively dangerous. In general, this argument will be invalid.

CQ1 Is the premise true?

CQ2 Does the example cited support the generalization it is supposed to be an instance of?

CQ3 Is the example typical of the kinds of cases the generalization covers?

CQ4 How strong is the generalization?

Argument from Example.

Premise. In this particular case, the individual a has property F and property G .

Conclusion. Therefore, generally, if x has property F , then it has property G .

This argument scheme is different from the others we have seen so far. The others sounded plausible, even if defeasible. This one sounds positively dangerous. In general, this argument will be invalid.

CQ1 Is the premise true?

CQ2 Does the example cited support the generalization it is supposed to be an instance of?

CQ3 Is the example typical of the kinds of cases the generalization covers?

CQ4 How strong is the generalization?

CQ5 Do special circumstances of the example impair its generalizability?

Note of caution

Note of caution

We should keep in mind that argumentation schemes represent human argumentation patterns. Not all of them are *good argumentation practice*.

Note of caution

We should keep in mind that argumentation schemes represent human argumentation patterns. Not all of them are *good argumentation practice*.

For instance, take the scheme [Argument from Threat](#):

Note of caution

We should keep in mind that argumentation schemes represent human argumentation patterns. Not all of them are *good argumentation practice*.

For instance, take the scheme **Argument from Threat**:

Premise 1. I can make bad things happen to you.

Premise 2. If you don't do *A*, I will make bad things happen to you.

Conclusion. You better do *A*.

Argument from Example in mathematics.

Argument from Example in mathematics.

Rule. If you know the value of a square number, say, N^2 , then you can calculate the next square number by adding $2N + 1$.

Argument from Example in mathematics.

Rule. If you know the value of a square number, say, N^2 , then you can calculate the next square number by adding $2N + 1$.

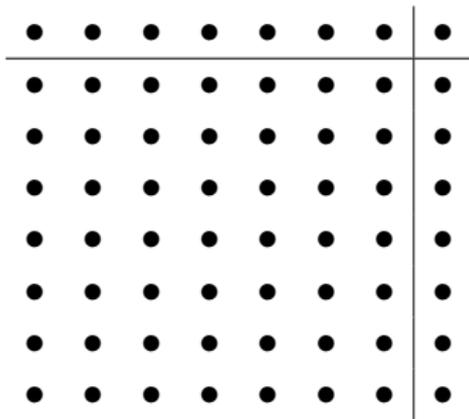
Proof. By the binomial formula, $(N + 1)^2 = N^2 + 2N + 1$.

Argument from Example in mathematics.

Rule. If you know the value of a square number, say, N^2 , then you can calculate the next square number by adding $2N + 1$.

Proof. By the binomial formula, $(N + 1)^2 = N^2 + 2N + 1$.

Argument by example.



Types of reasoning.

Types of reasoning.



Charles Sanders Peirce
1839–1914

Types of reasoning.



Charles Sanders Peirce
1839–1914

- ▶ **Deductive reasoning.** Reasoning from premisses to conclusions in the style of formal logic.

Types of reasoning.



Charles Sanders Peirce
1839–1914

- ▶ **Deductive reasoning.** Reasoning from premisses to conclusions in the style of formal logic.
- ▶ **Inductive reasoning.** Reasoning from individual instances to general claims. **Argument by Example.**

Types of reasoning.



Charles Sanders Peirce
1839–1914

- ▶ **Deductive reasoning.** Reasoning from premisses to conclusions in the style of formal logic.
- ▶ **Inductive reasoning.** Reasoning from individual instances to general claims. **Argument by Example.**
- ▶ **Abductive reasoning.** Reasoning from observations to causes.

The problem of induction.

Reasoning and
Formal Modelling
for Forensic
Science
Lecture 8

Prof. Dr. Benedikt
Löwe

The problem of induction.

When they propose to establish the universal from the particulars by means of induction, they will effect this by a review of either all or some of the particulars. But if they review some, the induction will be insecure, since some of the particulars omitted in the induction may contravene the universal; while if they are to review all, they will be toiling at the impossible, since the particulars are infinite and indefinite. (Sextus Empiricus)

The problem of induction.

When they propose to establish the universal from the particulars by means of induction, they will effect this by a review of either all or some of the particulars. But if they review some, the induction will be insecure, since some of the particulars omitted in the induction may contravene the universal; while if they are to review all, they will be toiling at the impossible, since the particulars are infinite and indefinite. (Sextus Empiricus)

Three (psychological) biases of induction.

The problem of induction.

When they propose to establish the universal from the particulars by means of induction, they will effect this by a review of either all or some of the particulars. But if they review some, the induction will be insecure, since some of the particulars omitted in the induction may contravene the universal; while if they are to review all, they will be toiling at the impossible, since the particulars are infinite and indefinite. (Sextus Empiricus)

Three (psychological) biases of induction.

- ▶ *Availability Bias.*

The problem of induction.

When they propose to establish the universal from the particulars by means of induction, they will effect this by a review of either all or some of the particulars. But if they review some, the induction will be insecure, since some of the particulars omitted in the induction may contravene the universal; while if they are to review all, they will be toiling at the impossible, since the particulars are infinite and indefinite. (Sextus Empiricus)

Three (psychological) biases of induction.

- ▶ *Availability Bias.* We are arguing for “all swans are white” on the basis of the data available: Swans in Amsterdam.

The problem of induction.

When they propose to establish the universal from the particulars by means of induction, they will effect this by a review of either all or some of the particulars. But if they review some, the induction will be insecure, since some of the particulars omitted in the induction may contravene the universal; while if they are to review all, they will be toiling at the impossible, since the particulars are infinite and indefinite. (Sextus Empiricus)

Three (psychological) biases of induction.

- ▶ *Availability Bias.* We are arguing for “all swans are white” on the basis of the data available: Swans in Amsterdam.
- ▶ *Confirmation Bias.*

The problem of induction.

When they propose to establish the universal from the particulars by means of induction, they will effect this by a review of either all or some of the particulars. But if they review some, the induction will be insecure, since some of the particulars omitted in the induction may contravene the universal; while if they are to review all, they will be toiling at the impossible, since the particulars are infinite and indefinite. (Sextus Empiricus)

Three (psychological) biases of induction.

- ▶ *Availability Bias.* We are arguing for “all swans are white” on the basis of the data available: Swans in Amsterdam.
- ▶ *Confirmation Bias.* If working under a hypothesis, I am more likely to see confirming evidence than non-confirming evidence.

The problem of induction.

When they propose to establish the universal from the particulars by means of induction, they will effect this by a review of either all or some of the particulars. But if they review some, the induction will be insecure, since some of the particulars omitted in the induction may contravene the universal; while if they are to review all, they will be toiling at the impossible, since the particulars are infinite and indefinite. (Sextus Empiricus)

Three (psychological) biases of induction.

- ▶ *Availability Bias.* We are arguing for “all swans are white” on the basis of the data available: Swans in Amsterdam.
- ▶ *Confirmation Bias.* If working under a hypothesis, I am more likely to see confirming evidence than non-confirming evidence.
- ▶ *Predictable World Bias.*

The problem of induction.

When they propose to establish the universal from the particulars by means of induction, they will effect this by a review of either all or some of the particulars. But if they review some, the induction will be insecure, since some of the particulars omitted in the induction may contravene the universal; while if they are to review all, they will be toiling at the impossible, since the particulars are infinite and indefinite. (Sextus Empiricus)

Three (psychological) biases of induction.

- ▶ *Availability Bias.* We are arguing for “all swans are white” on the basis of the data available: Swans in Amsterdam.
- ▶ *Confirmation Bias.* If working under a hypothesis, I am more likely to see confirming evidence than non-confirming evidence.
- ▶ *Predictable World Bias.* We are more likely to expect uniformity than non-uniformity.

Argument from Cause to Effect.

Reasoning and
Formal Modelling
for Forensic
Science
Lecture 8

Prof. Dr. Benedikt
Löwe

Argument from Cause to Effect.

Premise 1. Generally, if A occurs, then B will occur.

Premise 2. A occurred.

Conclusion. Therefore, B will occur.

Argument from Cause to Effect.

Premise 1. Generally, if A occurs, then B will occur.

Premise 2. A occurred.

Conclusion. Therefore, B will occur.

CQ1 How strong is the caused generalization?

Argument from Cause to Effect.

Premise 1. Generally, if A occurs, then B will occur.

Premise 2. A occurred.

Conclusion. Therefore, B will occur.

CQ1 How strong is the caused generalization?

CQ2 Is the evidence cited strong enough to warrant the causal generalization?

Argument from Cause to Effect.

Premise 1. Generally, if A occurs, then B will occur.

Premise 2. A occurred.

Conclusion. Therefore, B will occur.

CQ1 How strong is the caused generalization?

CQ2 Is the evidence cited strong enough to warrant the causal generalization?

CQ3 Are there other causal factors that could interfere with the production of the effect?

Argument from Abduction.

Reasoning and
Formal Modelling
for Forensic
Science
Lecture 8

Prof. Dr. Benedikt
Löwe

Argument from Abduction.

Premise 1. D is a set of facts.

Premise 2. There are some accounts that are successful in explaining D , and A is the most successful of them.

Conclusion. Therefore, A is the most plausible hypothesis.

Argument from Abduction.

Premise 1. D is a set of facts.

Premise 2. There are some accounts that are successful in explaining D , and A is the most successful of them.

Conclusion. Therefore, A is the most plausible hypothesis.

CQ1 How satisfactory is A as an explanation of D ?

Argument from Abduction.

Premise 1. D is a set of facts.

Premise 2. There are some accounts that are successful in explaining D , and A is the most successful of them.

Conclusion. Therefore, A is the most plausible hypothesis.

CQ1 How satisfactory is A as an explanation of D ?

CQ2 How much better is A as an explanation than the alternative explanations?

Argument from Abduction.

Premise 1. D is a set of facts.

Premise 2. There are some accounts that are successful in explaining D , and A is the most successful of them.

Conclusion. Therefore, A is the most plausible hypothesis.

CQ1 How satisfactory is A as an explanation of D ?

CQ2 How much better is A as an explanation than the alternative explanations?

CQ3 How complete is our list of possible explanations?

Argument from Abduction.

Premise 1. D is a set of facts.

Premise 2. There are some accounts that are successful in explaining D , and A is the most successful of them.

Conclusion. Therefore, A is the most plausible hypothesis.

CQ1 How satisfactory is A as an explanation of D ?

CQ2 How much better is A as an explanation than the alternative explanations?

CQ3 How complete is our list of possible explanations?

CQ4 Could further evidence change our assessment of what the possible explanations are or of which of them is the most successful explanation?