1. If a claim conflicts with other claims we have good reason to accept, we have good grounds for…

 a. Believing it

 b. Rejecting it

 c. Accepting it

 d. Doubting it

2. If a claim conflicts with our background information, we have good reason to…

 a. Accept it

b. Doubt it

 c. Reject it

 d. Replace it

3. When a claim is neither worthy of outright rejection nor deserving of complete acceptance, we should…

 a. Proportion our belief to the evidence

 b. Proportion our belief to background information

 c. Tentatively accept it

 d. Tentatively reject it

4. We are often justified in believing a claim because…

 a. Most people believe it

 b. Experts disagree about it

 c. Experts have not accepted it

 d. It comes from experts

5. When experts disagree about a claim, we have good reason to…

 a. Reject it

 b. Believe it

 c. Doubt it

 d. Dismiss it

6. The two most revealing indicators of an expert’s reliability are…

 a. Education and experience in making reliable judgments

 b. Education and lack of conflicts of interest

 c. Reputation and training

 d. Reputation among peers and professional accomplishments

7. Experts are more likely to be right because they have access to more information on the subject than we do and because. . .

 a. They are better at judging the information than we are.

 b. The information has been checked

 c. They are experts

 d. They have credentials

8. Personal experience, although generally reliable, is. . .

 a. Infallible

 b. Difficult to quantify

 c. Not trustworthy

 d. Not infallible

9. Our perception and memory are constructive, which means that what we perceive and remember is to some degree. . .

 a. Omnipresent

 b. Stressful

 c. Disturbing

 d. Fabricated by our minds

10. The probability of any particular event occurring might be extremely low, but that same event, given enough opportunities to occur, might be. . .

 a. Impossible

 b. Highly probable over the long haul

 c. Highly improbable over the long haul

 d. Miraculous

11. The “Joe the Plumber” fallacy is. . . .

 a. An appeal to tradition

 b. A slippery slope argument

 c. An appeal to ignorance

 d. A fallacious appeal to authority

12. The term we use to denote both a state of affairs and a true statement is. . .

 a. Opinion

 b. Fact

 c. Belief

 d. Argument

13. Eyewitness testimony is. . .

 a. Unorthodox

 b. Authoritative

 c. Reliable

 d. Unreliable

14. Other things being equal, the more background information a claim conflicts with, the more reason we have to. . .

 a. Revise our background information

 b. Believe it

 c. Doubt it

 d. Try to prove it

15. Ultimately the credibility of a source comes down to the credibility of. . .

 a. Those who vouch for the source

 b. Its claims

 c. The Internet

 d. The publisher

16. We fall into a fallacious appeal to authority when we. . .

 a. Judge the authority’s credentials to be good

 b. Respect science and its methods

c. Think that just because someone is an expert in one field, he or she is necessarily an expert in another

 d. Doubt the results of a scientific study

17. Chief among possible reasons for doubting an expert (aside from conflicting expert opinion) is. . .

 a. Handwriting

 b. Bias

 c. Grammatical errors

 d. Professional ambition

18. The error of thinking that previous events can affect the probabilities in the random event at hand is known as. . .

 a. The gambler’s fallacy

 b. The availability error

 c. The bias fallacy

 d. The appeal to ignorance

19. When a political activist refuses to consider evidence that conflicts with his party’s principles, or when a scientist is so committed to her theory that she refuses to take seriously any data that undermine it, we might rightly suspect that the persons involved are guilty of. . .

 a. Misjudging probabilities

 b. Expectation error

 c. Resisting contrary evidence

 d. The availability error

20. When we seek out and use only evidence that confirms our views, we are guilty of. . .

 a. Resisting contrary evidence

 b. Confirmation bias

 c. Fallacious appeals to authority

 d. Probability errors

21. When we rely on evidence not because it is trustworthy but because it is memorable or striking, we are guilty of. . .

 a. The availability error

 b. Confirmation bias

 c. Resisting contrary evidence

 d. The gambler’s fallacy

22. Usually the most reasonable response to advertising is. . .

 a. Acceptance of the claims

 b. A degree of suspicion.

 c. Rejecting all claims

 d. Brand loyalty

23. Words that water down a claim just enough to ensure that it is technically true but superficially misleading are known as. . .

 a. Weasel words

 b. Lies

 c. Misleading comparisons

 d. Slogans

24. What is the availability error? How does it affect our thinking?

25. According to the text, why is eyewitness testimony often suspect? What factors can undermine the reliability of eyewitness testimony?

26. From samples seen in class, describe one difference between television news reporting 40 years ago and today and how it affects the quality of the information.

27. Provide an example that illustrates how the availability bias is utilized in advertising.

28. The genetic fallacy is arguing that a claim is true or false solely because of its…

 a. Premises

 b. Origin

 c. Analogies

 d. Form

29. The fallacy of arguing that what is true of the parts must be true of the whole is called…

 a. Division

\* b. Composition

 c. Equivocation

 d. Faulty analogy

30. The fallacy of rejecting a claim by criticizing the person who makes it rather than the claim itself is known as…

 a. Appeal to the person

 b. Appeal to emotion

 c. Appeal to the masses

 d. Appeal to tradition

31. The fallacy of arguing that a claim must be true merely because a substantial number of people believe it is known as…

 a. Appeal to emotion

 b. Appeal to ignorance

 c. Appeal to tradition

 d. Appeal to the masses

32. The fallacy of deliberately raising an irrelevant issue during an argument is called a(n)…

 a. Red herring

 b. Appeal to ignorance

 c. Straw man

 d. Composition

33. The fallacy sometimes referred to as arguing in a circle is the fallacy of …

 a. False dilemma

 b. Slippery slope

 c. Begging the question

 d. Hasty generalization

34. Slippery slope is a fallacy of…

 a. Irrelevant premises

 b. Unacceptable premises

 c. Unacceptable dilemmas

 d. Irrelevant conclusions

35. Whether someone is hypocritical regarding his or her claims is. . .

 a. Irrelevant to his or her character

 b. Evidence that the claims are false

 c. Irrelevant to the truth of the claims

 d. Relevant only in court

36. Automatically rejecting a claim just because it is part of a tradition is. . .

 a. Not reasonable

 b. An appeal to tradition

 c. An appeal to the masses

 d. Reasonable

37. A slippery-slope pattern of argument is fallacious because. . .

 a. It is hypothetical

b. There is good reason to think that doing one action will inevitably lead to another undesirable action.

 c. There are only two possible results.

d. There is no good reason to think that doing one action will inevitably lead to another undesirable action.

38. A hasty generalization is a fallacy of. . .

 a. Acceptable premises

 b. Unacceptable premises

 c. Deduction

 d. Acceptable but untrue premises

39. In a faulty analogy, the things being compared are. . .

 a. Sufficiently similar

 b. Sufficiently similar in irrelevant ways

 c. Complete opposites

 d. Not sufficiently similar in relevant ways

40. The distorting, weakening, or oversimplifying of someone’s position so it can be more easily attacked is the fallacy of. . .

 a. Red herring

 b. Straw man

 c. Begging the question

 d. Appeal to the person

41. The use of derision, sarcasm, laughter, or mockery to disparage a person or idea is known as. . .

 a. Innuendo

 b. Euphemism

 c. Disanalogy

 d. Ridicule

42. Words used to convey positive or neutral attitudes or emotions in place of more negative ones are called. . .

 a. Dysphemisms

 b. Euphemisms

 c. Ridicule

 d. Red herring

43. An unwarranted conclusion about an entire group of people is known as a(n). . .

 a. Innuendo

b. Red herring

 c. Equivocation

 d. Stereotype

44. An argument of this form—*P*. Therefore, *p*—is called. . .

 a. Appeal to the person

 b. Argument from ignorance

 c. Begging the question

 d. Equivocation

45. The use of a word in two different senses in an argument is called. . .

 a. Red herring

b. Equivocation

 c. Poisoning the well

 d. Dysphemism

46. This argument—“We must either make a big wall and ban all immigrants of every kind, or else just let them in and deal with it!”—is an example of. . .

 a. False dilemma

 b. Begging the question

 c. Equivocation

 d. Innuendo

47. The argument—“Science has not provided any reason to doubt the power of Pyramids, so pyramids have power.”—is an example of. . .

 a. Begging the question

 b. Slippery slope

 c. Appeal to ignorance

 d. Hasty generalization

48. The use of nonargumentative, emotive words and phrases to persuade or influence an audience is known as. . .

 a. Slippery slope

 b. Rhetoric

 c. Composition

 d. Appeal to popularity

49. The Argument “Everybody knows that *Shane* is the best western ever made. Millions of *Shane* fans can’t be wrong.” is an example of:

a. Slippery slope

 b. Rhetoric

 c. Composition

 d. Appeal to popularity

50. The argument “Iran is rapidly developing nuclear weapons. When the Iranians finally possess these weapons, they will—either overtly or implicitly—threaten the world with them. A nuclear catastrophe will be inevitable. There seems to be no way short of military action to prevent it. The United States therefore has only two choices: It can sit back and allow this terrifying state of affairs to happen, or it can attack Iran and destroy the weapons. Allowing nuclear holocaust to happen is not an option. Thus, the United States must attack Iran.” is an example of:

a. Slippery slope

b. Begging the question

c. False dilemma

d. Hasty generalization

51. According to the text, what are the two main categories of fallacies?

52. What is the fallacy of equivocation and how can it be used to persuade an audience that a conclusion is true?

53. What is the basic pattern of a straw-man argument? How are straw-man arguments sometimes used in political speech?

54. Why is a slippery slope argument always a fallacy?