APPLIED ETHICS · STUDY GUIDE

Exam 1 Study Guide

This guide covers the first two chapters. You will learn what ethics studies and what it is often confused with, the map of moral theory and the words that make moral talk precise. Then you will learn to take an argument apart, find its hidden premise and test it. Work one chapter at a time. Read the "what to know" paragraphs, copy the tables out by hand, then try each worked case with the steps covered. Finish each chapter with its self-test.

WHAT THIS GUIDE COVERS

- Chapter 1 · the four branches, morality versus ethics, Hume's law and Moore, six things ethics is not, Euthyphro, the theory families, deontic categories, prima facie duties, Rest's components, Tuskegee and Challenger, moral distress.
- Chapter 2 · standard form, enthymemes, Toulmin's six parts, kinds of inference, the is-ought gap and its cousins, validity and soundness, informal fallacies, counterexamples, analogies, universalizability, reflective equilibrium and reasoning under pressure.

CHAPTER 1

What Ethics Is, and What It Is Not

Read it in full: **Chapter 1 in the textbook**. Practice it in the lab: **The Is-Ought Bridge** and **The Deontic Sorter**.

What to know

Ethics is the systematic study of how we ought to act and what kind of people we ought to become. Physics and accounting describe what is. Ethics deals with what ought to be. Socrates framed the whole subject in Plato's Republic as the question of how a person ought to live.

Most disagreements at work are ought disagreements in disguise. Two nurses can agree on every lab value and still disagree about what to do. No extra fact settles that. Ethics gives you tools to reason about the ought itself. It does not promise certainty.

Morality and ethics come from near identical roots (Latin mores, Greek ethos). A useful convention, not a deep discovery: **morality** is the set of norms a person or group actually lives by, and **ethics** is critical reflection on those norms.

There are four branches. **Descriptive ethics** is empirical and reports what people believe and do, like a poll on aid in dying. **Normative ethics** asks what makes acts right or wrong. **Metaethics** asks what moral claims are and whether they can be true. **Applied ethics** brings the tools to a concrete case, such as ICU bed rationing. Many arguments fail because two people are answering questions from different branches.

Hume's law (1740, A Treatise of Human Nature, Book III) says no set of purely factual premises yields an ought without at least one value premise. G. E. Moore (1903, Principia Ethica) named the **naturalistic fallacy**: defining good as a natural property like pleasure. His open question test: "this is pleasant, but is it good?" is still a real question. Hume's law does not make facts irrelevant. Facts are necessary but never sufficient.

Ethics is not law, compliance, religion, feeling, custom or etiquette. The Fugitive Slave Act of 1850 and the Nuremberg Laws of 1935 were law and wrong. Rosa Parks broke a valid ordinance in 1955. Enron's board waived its own 64 page code in 1999. The Euthyphro dilemma asks whether the holy is loved by the gods because it is holy, or holy because they love it. It shows that appeal to authority alone cannot finish a moral argument. It does not refute religious ethics, and theologians have serious replies.

Feelings are data, like a smoke detector, but the detector also goes off for toast. Haidt (2001) found people "morally dumbfounded": sure an act is wrong but unable to say why. Disgust has been aimed at interracial marriage and people with HIV. Reasoning audits the intuition.

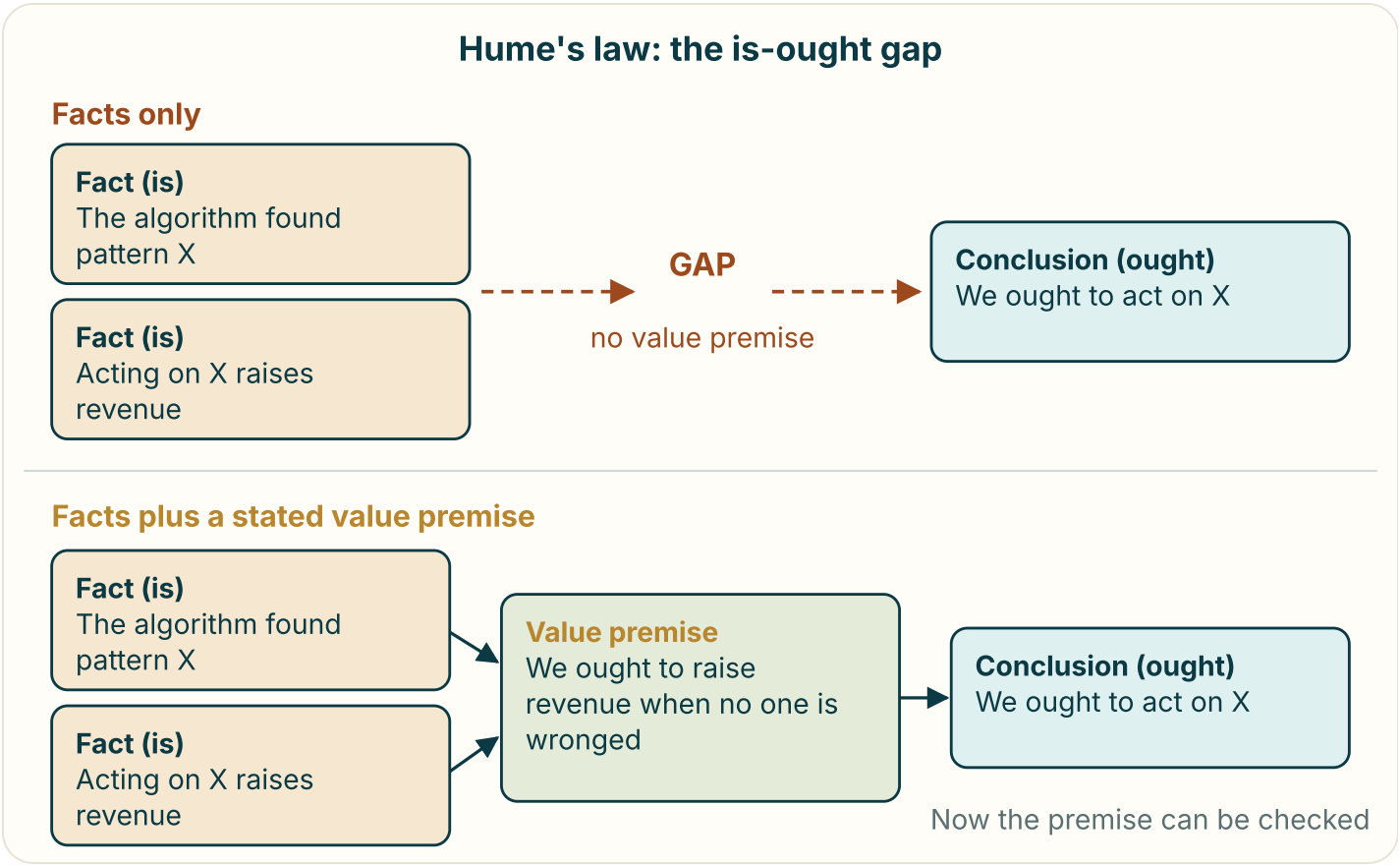
Three families of theory ask three questions. **Consequentialism** (Bentham 1789, Mill 1861) asks what outcome an act produces. **Deontology** (Kant 1785) asks what duty binds me. **Virtue ethics** (Aristotle, c. 340 BCE) asks what a good person would do. **Care ethics** (Gilligan 1982, Noddings 1984) asks what a relationship requires. Use them as lenses. When they agree, act with confidence. When they split, the split shows you what is hard. The trolley cases (Foot 1967, Thomson 1976 and 1985) show the split: most divert, most refuse to push.

Vocabulary matters. A **value** is what you care about; a **norm** is a standing expectation; a **principle** is broad (respect autonomy); a **rule** is specific (written consent before this procedure). When a rule misfits, go back to the principle it serves. Acts are **obligatory**, **forbidden**, **permissible** or **supererogatory** (praiseworthy beyond duty). A **prima facie duty** (Ross, 1930) is real but can be outweighed, and it leaves **moral residue**: you still owe the apology.

Knowing is not doing. Rest's four components are sensitivity, judgment, motivation and character, and each can fail on its own. Milgram (1961 to 1963): 26 of 40 went to 450 volts in the best known variation, though the work is now contested. Tuskegee ran from 1932 to 1972 with 600 men (399 with latent syphilis, 201 controls); penicillin was standard by 1947 and withheld. It ended after Buxtun went to the press in 1972. Challenger broke apart 73 seconds after launch on 28 January 1986 after managers overruled engineers. **Moral distress** (Jameton, 1984) is knowing the right act but being blocked. Codes are floors, not ceilings.

LOCK THESE IN

- Four branches: descriptive (what people do), normative (what is right), metaethics (what moral claims are), applied (this case).
- Hume's law: no ought from is alone. Facts are necessary, never sufficient. Find the hidden value premise.
- Ethics is not law, compliance, religion, feeling, custom or etiquette; each can be, and has been, wrong.
- Euthyphro shows authority alone cannot end a moral argument. It does not refute religious ethics.
- Consequences, duties, character and care are lenses. Agreement gives confidence; a split locates the hard part.
- Supererogatory means praiseworthy beyond duty: praise if done, no blame if not.
- A prima facie duty can be outweighed but leaves moral residue.
- Distress is being blocked, uncertainty is not knowing, a dilemma is two duties that cannot both be met, injury is lasting damage from a deep violation.



Find the bridge. Facts alone leave a gap before any ought. Add a stated value premise and the argument becomes valid, and now that premise can be tested.

The four branches of ethics

Branch	The question it asks	Sample question
Descriptive	What do people actually believe and do?	What share of nurses report falsifying a chart?
Normative	What ought we to do, and why?	Is it ever right to deceive a patient for their good?
Metaethics	What are moral claims, and can they be true?	Is "cruelty is wrong" a fact or a feeling?
Applied	How do the standards resolve this case?	Should this hospital ration ICU beds by predicted survival?

Key terms and comparisons

Term	Meaning	Example or test
Ethics vs law	Law can be unjust and is silent on much of life	Fugitive Slave Act 1850; Nuremberg Laws 1935
Ethics vs compliance	Policies can be waived by those who wrote them	Enron waived its code, 1999
Ethics vs religion	Euthyphro; plural societies need shared reasons	Plato, Euthyphro, c. 399 BCE
Obligatory	Required; blame if you do not	Reporting a needle-stick exposure
Forbidden	Required not to do; blame if you do	Falsifying a medication record
Permissible	Neither required nor forbidden	Choosing between two equal dressings
Supererogatory	Beyond duty; praise if done, no blame if not	A month in a cholera outbreak
Prima facie duty	Real duty that can be outweighed	Truth-telling overridden to prevent harm
Moral distress	Know the right act, blocked from it	Unsafe discharge after two escalations
Moral injury	Lasting damage from a deep violation	Shame and loss of trust after taking part

Worked cases

WORKED CASE 1 · SORTING QUESTIONS INTO BRANCHES

A hospital ethics committee hears four questions. Sort each one into its branch: (a) What share of our staff think families should be told first? (b) Should we tell this patient her diagnosis tonight? (c) Is it ever right to withhold a diagnosis? (d) Is "lying is wrong" true, or just a feeling we share?

STEP 1 · LOOK FOR A SURVEY OR REPORT

Question (a) asks what people think. That is **descriptive ethics**. It reports beliefs and settles nothing about what is right.

STEP 2 · LOOK FOR A GENERAL STANDARD

Question (c) asks about withholding in general. That is **normative ethics**.

STEP 3 · LOOK FOR A QUESTION ABOUT MORAL CLAIMS THEMSELVES

Question (d) asks whether moral claims can be true. That is **metaethics**.

STEP 4 · LOOK FOR A CONCRETE CASE

Question (b) is about one patient tonight. That is **applied ethics**.

WHY IT MATTERS

If one member answers (a) with a survey while another is asking (b), they will talk past each other. Naming the branch is the first fix.

WORKED CASE 2 · FINDING THE HIDDEN VALUE PREMISE

A manager says: "Every unit on this floor double-books the procedure room. So it is fine for us to do it too." Repair the argument and then test it.

STEP 1 · SPLIT FACTS FROM THE CONCLUSION

Fact: every unit double-books. Conclusion: it is fine for us to do it. The conclusion is an ought; the premise is an is.

STEP 2 · NAME THE GAP

By **Hume's law**, the step is invalid as it stands. A value premise is missing.

STEP 3 · WRITE THE MISSING PREMISE

"Whatever every unit does is acceptable." Now the argument is valid.

STEP 4 · TEST THE PREMISE

Is it true? Customs have endorsed slavery and child labor, so "whatever is customary is right" fails. The argument is valid but unsound.

THE LESSON

Stating the value premise is not a trick. It is how you make an argument someone else can check.

WORKED CASE 3 · CLASSIFYING AN ACT WITH THE DEONTIC CATEGORIES

Ana, a nurse, finishes her shift on time. Ben stays two unpaid hours to sit with a frightened patient. Cal skips the required needle-stick report after an exposure. Classify each.

STEP 1 · ASK ABOUT BLAME IF OMITTED

Is anyone to blame for not doing the act? Cal is: reporting an exposure is **obligatory**, so skipping it is wrong.

STEP 2 · ASK ABOUT PRAISE

Ben does something admirable that no one could demand. That is **supererogatory**: praise if done, no blame if not.

STEP 3 · CHECK WHAT IS LEFT

Leaving on time is **permissible**. Ana has done nothing wrong.

WHY IT MATTERS

If Ben's extra hours were treated as a duty, Ana would look like a failure. Confusing the supererogatory with the obligatory is a route to burnout.

WORKED CASE 4 · NAMING THE EXPERIENCE

Dev knows a patient's discharge is unsafe. He escalates twice and is overruled because of a bed shortage. Is this a dilemma, uncertainty, distress or injury, and what helps?

STEP 1 · DOES HE KNOW THE RIGHT COURSE?

Yes. So it is not **moral uncertainty**.

STEP 2 · ARE TWO DUTIES IN IRREDUCIBLE CONFLICT?

No. He knows what is right, so it is not a true **dilemma**.

STEP 3 · IS HE BLOCKED BY THE INSTITUTION?

Yes. That is **moral distress** (Jameton, 1984).

STEP 4 · PICK THE REMEDY

Distress is powerlessness, not confusion. More analysis will not help. Structural change will: escalation paths, ethics consultation, staffing standards. Left unaddressed it can become **moral injury**.

TRAPS PEOPLE FALL INTO

- **Reading Hume's law as "facts do not matter."** It says facts are necessary but never enough. You must add a value premise.
- **Calling a poll result an answer.** A survey is descriptive ethics. It says nothing about what is right.
- **"It was legal, so it was fine."** The Fugitive Slave Act and Nuremberg Laws were law.
- **Treating Euthyphro as a refutation of religion.** It shows only that authority alone cannot end a moral argument.
- **Calling every hard choice a dilemma.** A dilemma needs two duties you cannot both meet. Most hard cases are costly, not dilemmas.

- **Thinking an outweighed duty disappears.** It leaves moral residue, so you still owe an apology or explanation.
- **Treating extra effort as a duty.** That turns the supererogatory into an obligation and fuels burnout.
- **Treating the code as the ceiling.** Enron, Wells Fargo and Volkswagen all had codes. A code is a floor.

Chapter 1 self-test · ten items

1. A poll reports that most adults support aid in dying for terminally ill patients. Which branch of ethics does this belong to?

A. Normative ethics, because it states a standard
B. Applied ethics, because it concerns a clinical issue
C. Descriptive ethics, because it reports beliefs
D. Metaethics, because it shows what morality is

C. Descriptive ethics, because it reports beliefs A survey reports what people believe. That is descriptive. It does not show that aid in dying is permissible.

2. Which statement best captures Hume's law?

A. Facts have no real role to play anywhere in moral reasoning
B. No ought follows from facts alone without a value premise
C. Values can always be reduced to facts we can observe directly
D. Any widely shared belief counts as a moral fact

B. No ought follows from facts alone without a value premise Facts are necessary but never sufficient. An evaluative premise is needed to reach an evaluative conclusion.

3. Moore's open question argument targets which mistake?

A. Inferring a sweeping general rule from one single case
B. Treating local custom as if it were binding written law
C. Assuming the majority view must be correct
D. Defining good as a natural property such as pleasure

D. Defining good as a natural property such as pleasure If good just meant pleasant, "it is pleasant, but is it good?" would be empty. It is not, so the two are not identical.

4. What does the Euthyphro dilemma establish, according to the chapter?

A. Appeal to authority alone cannot complete a moral justification
B. Religious ethics has now been refuted by moral philosophers
C. Divine commands can never be a genuine source of any duty
D. Moral truths are just the customs of a city

A. Appeal to authority alone cannot complete a moral justification The dilemma targets a shortcut, not religion. Theologians reply that God's commands flow from a good nature.

5. Enron's board waived its own ethics code in 1999. This case best illustrates the gap between ethics and what?

A. Religious authority
B. Etiquette and manners
C. Compliance with policy
D. Personal feeling

C. Compliance with policy A code you can suspend when inconvenient is paperwork. Following policy is not the same as acting ethically.

6. Which family of theory asks "what would a good person do?"

A. Consequentialism
B. Virtue ethics
C. Deontology
D. Descriptive ethics

B. Virtue ethics Virtue ethics, from Aristotle, centers character and practical wisdom aimed at flourishing.

7. A nurse stays after her shift, unpaid, to comfort a scared patient. No policy requires it. How is the act best classified?

A. Supererogatory
B. Obligatory
C. Forbidden
D. A prima facie duty

A. Supererogatory It is praiseworthy and beyond what duty demands. No one would blame her for going home.

8. You break a lunch promise to help at a crash scene. On Ross's view, what remains?

A. Nothing, since the duty of fidelity has simply vanished
B. A duty to repeat the crash help next week
C. Blame for having chosen wrongly in the first place, nothing more
D. Moral residue: you still owe an apology and explanation

D. Moral residue: you still owe an apology and explanation The duty of fidelity was outweighed, not erased. The leftover obligation is moral residue.

9. A clinician knows the right course but staffing rules block it. What is the experience, and what helps most?

A. Moral distress; structural change such as escalation paths
B. Moral uncertainty; gather more facts and do further analysis
C. A true dilemma; choose and accept the residue
D. Moral injury; specialist clinical support and restitution

A. Moral distress; structural change such as escalation paths Distress is powerlessness, not confusion, so the remedy is structural.

10. Why does the chapter call professional codes floors rather than ceilings?

A. They are written only for new staff members
B. They forbid acts that are above the legal minimum
C. They are binding only when the law adopts them
D. They set minimums and cannot foresee every case

D. They set minimums and cannot foresee every case Every failure case in the chapter had a code. A code states enforceable minimums written in advance.

CHAPTER 2

Moral Reasoning and Argument

Read it in full: **Chapter 2 in the textbook**. Practice it in the lab: **The Argument Dissector** and **The Counterexample Workshop**.

What to know

In ethics an **argument** is not a quarrel. It is a set of premises offered as reasons for a conclusion. A strong opinion, an anecdote or a link is not an argument; it is a position. Writing an argument in **standard form** (numbered premises, a line, the conclusion) makes hidden assumptions visible.

An argument with a premise left out is an **enthymeme**. Nearly every moral argument "in the wild" is one, and the missing premise is usually the moral principle. "We can't tell the daughter; the patient asked us not to" hides the premise that a competent patient's confidentiality request should be honored even when family are upset. That is the contestable part.

Stephen Toulmin (The Uses of Argument, 1958) split everyday arguments into six parts: **claim**, **grounds**, **warrant**, **backing**, **qualifier** and **rebuttal**. The warrant is the rule that licenses the move from facts to claim. Ask for it and the real disagreement appears. Same facts with different warrants is a values dispute; same warrant with different facts is a factual one.

Three shapes of reasoning: **deductive** (true premises guarantee the conclusion), **inductive** (premises make it probable) and **abductive** (inference to the best explanation). Moral arguments mix them. Aim criticism at the right layer: do not demand certainty from an empirical premise.

Hume's is-ought gap (Treatise, 1739 to 40) is a point about entailment. Moore's **naturalistic fallacy** (1903) is a point about defining good. The **appeal to nature** treats natural as good. It needs a bridge premise that cholera and drought refute, and "natural" has at least four senses (without human intervention, typical, functionally proper, uncorrupted). Searle (1964) argued promising gets an ought from an is; the debate is live, but the practical lesson holds: look for the bridge.

The **standard moral syllogism** has a moral principle, a factual premise and a conclusion. Singer (1972): if we can prevent something very bad without sacrificing anything of comparable importance, we ought to; donating prevents suffering at that cost; so we ought to donate. The drowning child illustrates premise one. Critics attack the principle, the facts, or the strength of the conclusion: three different conversations.

Valid means the conclusion must be true if the premises are. **Sound** means valid with true premises. To reject a deductive argument you must deny a premise or show it invalid. Valid forms: **modus ponens** and **modus tollens**. Invalid look-alikes: **affirming the consequent** and **denying the antecedent**.

Informal fallacies recur: ad hominem, straw man, false dilemma, equivocation, begging the question, hasty generalization, appeal to nature, weak slippery slope, tu quoque, appeal to

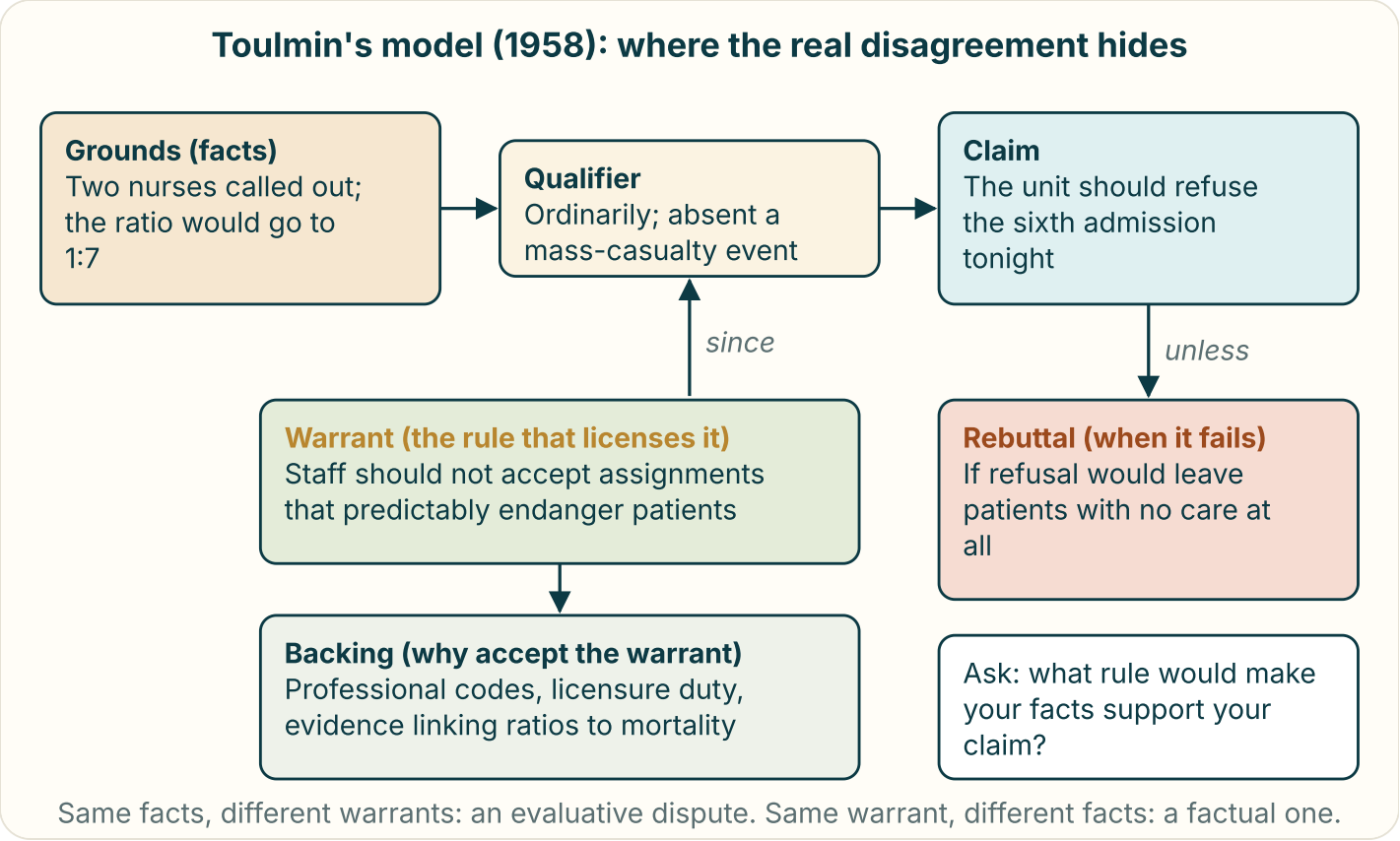
consequences, weak appeal to authority. A slippery slope is fallacious only when the causal chain is merely asserted. Deferring to experts is fine unless they are outside their field, the field lacks consensus, they have an undisclosed interest, or the appeal replaces reasons. Beware **persuasive definitions** that build the conclusion into a word.

Principles are tested by **counterexample** (Socrates and the borrowed weapon), isolating **thought experiments** (Foot's tram, 1967), **analogy** (Thomson's violinist, 1971; Rachels's Smith and Jones, 1975), Hare's **universalizability** (1963) and Rawls's **reflective equilibrium** (1971), where principle and judgment are adjusted until they cohere. Daniels added wide equilibrium. Singer warns it can systematize prejudice. A good counterexample is possible, clear and targeted.

Haidt (2001): intuition first, reasoning after, and **moral dumbfounding**. Lord, Ross and Lepper (1979): both sides rated the study that agreed with them as better designed. Sort disagreements into layers (factual, conceptual, evaluative, applicational, motivational), find the **crux**, and **steelman** the view you reject. The working procedure: state the decision, mark uncertain facts, list stakeholders, write the best case for the option you dislike, name principles, test, decide and record what would make you reconsider.

LOCK THESE IN

- An argument is premises offered for a conclusion; a bare opinion is a position.
- The suppressed premise in an enthymeme is usually the moral principle, and it is the contestable part.
- Toulmin's warrant is the rule from grounds to claim. Ask for it.
- Valid concerns shape; sound means valid plus true premises.
- Modus ponens and modus tollens are valid; affirming the consequent and denying the antecedent are not.
- A slippery slope is legitimate only when the chain is backed by mechanism or evidence.
- Good counterexamples are possible, clear and targeted.
- Reflective equilibrium revises whichever is weaker, the principle or the judgment.



Ask for the warrant. Grounds reach a claim only through a warrant, which needs backing and can fail under a rebuttal. Most hidden disagreement lives in the warrant.

Valid and invalid conditional forms

Form	Pattern	Verdict
Modus ponens	If P then Q; P; so Q	Valid
Modus tollens	If P then Q; not Q; so not P	Valid
Affirming the consequent	If P then Q; Q; so P	Invalid
Denying the antecedent	If P then Q; not P; so not Q	Invalid

Key terms and comparisons

Item	What it is	Watch for
Ad hominem	Attacks the arguer, not the argument	"She only says that because she is an administrator"
Straw man	Refutes a distorted version	"So you want patients left to die at home"
False dilemma	Two options when more exist	"Full disclosure or lying to the family"
Equivocation	A key term shifts meaning	"Life" sliding from biology to personhood
Begging the question	The conclusion is in a premise	"Wrong because it kills an innocent person"
Tu quoque	Deflects by alleging hypocrisy	"You eat meat, so you cannot criticize"
Appeal to consequences	False because believing it would be bad	"Then nobody could be blamed, so it is false"
Universalizability	Same verdict in all relevantly similar cases	Hare, 1963; role reversal
Reflective equilibrium	Adjust principles and judgments until they fit	Rawls, 1971; risk of entrenched bias
Crux	The claim that would flip your conclusion	Ask "what would change your mind?"

Worked cases

WORKED CASE 1 · PUTTING AN ARGUMENT IN STANDARD FORM

A colleague says: "Staff flu shots should be mandatory. The vaccine cuts transmission to patients." Write it in standard form and find where critics will push.

STEP 1 · FIND THE CONCLUSION

Staff flu vaccination should be mandatory.

STEP 2 · FIND THE STATED PREMISE

Vaccination measurably reduces transmission to patients. That is a factual premise.

STEP 3 · SUPPLY THE MISSING MORAL PREMISE

Professionals must not impose avoidable risk on vulnerable patients. This is the warrant the speaker left out.

STEP 4 · LAY IT OUT

P1 (moral): professionals must not impose avoidable risk on vulnerable patients. P2 (fact): vaccination cuts transmission. C: vaccination should be mandatory.

STEP 5 · AIM THE CRITICISM

Critics can ask how big the transmission effect is (a factual layer) or how far an employer's authority reaches (an evaluative layer). Each is a different conversation.

WORKED CASE 2 · CHECKING VALIDITY

"If a treatment is futile, we may withhold it. This treatment is not futile. So we may not withhold it." Is it valid?

STEP 1 · WRITE THE FORM

If P then Q. Not P. Therefore not Q.

STEP 2 · NAME IT

That is **denying the antecedent**, an invalid form.

STEP 3 · BUILD A COUNTER-MODEL

Futility is one reason to withhold, not the only one. A competent patient's refusal is another. So the premises can be true while the conclusion is false.

THE LESSON

A valid form would be modus tollens: if futile then we may withhold; we may not withhold; so it is not futile.

WORKED CASE 3 · DIAGNOSING A SLIPPERY SLOPE

A speaker says: "Allow one exception to the consent rule and consent will collapse entirely." Is this a fallacy?

STEP 1 · FIND THE CHAIN

First step: one exception. Feared end: no consent at all.

STEP 2 · LOOK FOR SUPPORT

No mechanism or evidence is given for each link. The chain is only asserted.

STEP 3 · VERDICT

As stated, it is the **weak (fallacious) form**.

STEP 4 · HOW IT COULD BE REPAIRED

Show the links: data on how similar exceptions spread, or why the rule cannot hold its line. With evidence, a slope argument can be legitimate, as the Dutch data debate shows.

WORKED CASE 4 · LOCATING THE CRUX OF A DISPUTE

Two council members disagree about a supervised consumption site. One says it saves lives; the other says it enables drug use. Sort the layers and find the crux.

STEP 1 · FACTUAL LAYER

Does the site reduce overdose deaths without raising use? The Lancet study (2011) reported a fall near Insite; others question the comparison.

STEP 2 · EVALUATIVE LAYER

Does preventing death outweigh symbolic disapproval?

STEP 3 · ASK EACH "WHAT WOULD CHANGE YOUR MIND?"

If the second member would accept the site given solid evidence of no rise in use, the crux is factual.

STEP 4 · RESULT

The argument becomes a research question. Each side now knows what evidence would move it.

TRAPS PEOPLE FALL INTO

- **Calling any opinion an argument.** Without premises offered in support, there is only a position.
- **Thinking valid means true.** "All physicians are immortal" yields a valid but unsound argument.
- **Confusing the is-ought gap with Moore.** Hume's is about entailment; Moore's is about defining good.
- **Calling every slippery slope a fallacy.** It is fallacious only when the chain is merely asserted.
- **Calling every appeal to experts a fallacy.** Only outside their field, without consensus, with hidden interest, or in place of reasons.
- **Dismissing thought experiments as unrealistic.** Artificiality isolates one variable, like a laboratory.
- **Saving a principle with endless exceptions.** A principle that fits every case predicts nothing.
- **Treating "that's just your opinion" as the end.** It starts the real question: what supports it?

Chapter 2 self-test · ten items

1. In Toulmin's model, which part is the general rule that licenses moving from facts to the claim?

A. The grounds
B. The warrant
C. The qualifier
D. The rebuttal

B. The warrant The warrant connects grounds to claim. Asking for it surfaces the underlying principle.

2. An argument with one premise left unstated is called what?

A. A syllogism in full form
B. A reductio argument
C. An enthymeme
D. A straw man

C. An enthymeme Most real moral arguments are enthymemes, and the missing premise is usually the moral one.

3. "If P then Q; Q; therefore P." What is this form?

A. Modus ponens, which is a valid form
B. Affirming the consequent, which is invalid
C. Modus tollens, which is a valid form
D. Denying the antecedent, which is valid

B. Affirming the consequent, which is invalid Q could be true for other reasons, so P does not follow.

4. Which statement about validity is correct?

A. A valid argument must have true premises
B. A sound argument can have a false premise
C. A valid argument can have a false conclusion
D. An invalid argument cannot have a true conclusion

C. A valid argument can have a false conclusion Validity is about form. With a false premise, a valid argument can reach a false conclusion.

5. "Pain in childbirth is natural, so pain relief is a distortion." Which fallacy is this?

A. Tu quoque
B. Hasty generalization
C. Ad hominem
D. Appeal to nature

D. Appeal to nature It treats natural as good without arguing for the link.

6. "Life begins at conception" slides between biological life and personhood. Which fallacy?

A. Equivocation
B. Begging the question
C. False dilemma
D. Straw man

A. Equivocation A key term shifts meaning partway through the argument.

7. What was Foot's 1967 tram case designed to do?

A. Isolate intended harm versus foreseen harm, numbers fixed
B. Predict how real tram drivers will act in a sudden crisis
C. Prove that consequences are all that count
D. Show that killing is always and everywhere worse than letting die

A. Isolate intended harm versus foreseen harm, numbers fixed Holding the numbers constant isolates one variable, as a lab does.

8. Critics of Thomson's violinist point to prior voluntary action and a parental relationship. What are they offering?

A. Counterexamples that refute Hume's law
B. Disanalogies that may be morally relevant
C. Evidence of the critics' motivated reasoning
D. Examples of persuasive definitions

B. Disanalogies that may be morally relevant An analogy works only if the shared features are the morally relevant ones.

9. What is the main objection to reflective equilibrium?

A. It never allows any principle to change
B. It ignores our considered moral judgments altogether
C. It can systematize inherited prejudice as coherence
D. It demands full certainty from every empirical premise

C. It can systematize inherited prejudice as coherence Singer argues that coherence with biased intuitions may just organize the bias.

10. Lord, Ross and Lepper (1979) found what about mixed evidence on capital punishment?

A. Both sides moved steadily toward a shared middle position
B. Neither side noticed any flaws in how the studies were designed
C. Only one side showed biased evaluation
D. Each side rated the study backing its view as better

D. Each side rated the study backing its view as better Biased evaluation replicated well. The safeguard is to write the opposing case and invite dissent.

ONE PAGE

Cram sheet

Everything from chapters 1 and 2 in one place. Cover the right column and see if you can rebuild each row.

Thinkers and dates

Who	When	Idea
Plato (Socrates)	c. 399 to 375 BCE	Euthyphro dilemma; how one ought to live; the borrowed weapon
Aristotle	c. 340 BCE	Virtue ethics, practical wisdom, eudaimonia
Hume	1739 to 40	No ought from is alone
Kant	1785	Categorical imperative; never merely as a means
Bentham; Mill	1789; 1861	Utilitarianism: greatest happiness, each counted equally
Moore	1903	Naturalistic fallacy; open question argument
Ross	1930	Prima facie duties; moral residue
Toulmin	1958	Claim, grounds, warrant, backing, qualifier, rebuttal
Hare	1963	Universalizability
Foot; Thomson	1967; 1971, 1976, 1985	Tram case; violinist; footbridge
Rawls	1971	Reflective equilibrium
Singer	1972	Famine relief syllogism; drowning child
Rachels	1975	Smith and Jones: killing versus letting die
Jameton	1984	Moral distress
Haidt	2001	Intuition first; moral dumbfounding

Comparisons

Pair	The difference
Morality vs ethics	Norms lived by vs critical reflection on them
Value, norm, principle, rule	What you care about; an expectation; a broad standard; a specific instruction
Valid vs sound	Form holds vs form holds and premises are true
Hume vs Moore vs appeal to nature	Entailment vs definition of good vs natural as good
Uncertainty, dilemma, distress, injury	Not knowing; two duties clash; blocked; lasting damage
Obligatory vs supererogatory	Blame if omitted vs praise if done, no blame if not

Rules of thumb

Topic	The rule
Hidden premise	Write the argument in standard form; the missing line is usually the moral one.
Warrant	Ask what rule would make the facts support the claim.
Rejecting an argument	Deny a premise or show the form is invalid.
Slippery slope	Fallacious only if the chain is merely asserted.
Counterexample	Possible, clear and targeted.
Stuck debate	Is it about what is true, what a word means, or what matters?
Codes	Floors, not ceilings.

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