

All-Inclusive LSAT Study Guide

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PART 1: INTRODUCTION & STUDY APPROACH

1. Introduction: The LSAT is a Skills Test

The LSAT is a test of **skills, not knowledge**. Unlike content-based exams, the LSAT measures your ability to read critically, analyze arguments, and think logically. Mastery of these skills takes time and deliberate practice. This guide provides a comprehensive framework for your LSAT preparation, covering study strategies, question types, logical concepts, and test-taking techniques.

“Whether you think you can or think you can’t, either way you’re right.” — Henry Ford

2. LSAT Structure

The LSAT consists of four 35-minute sections with a 10-minute break between sections 2 and 3. The sections can appear in any order.

Section	Questions	Time	Notes
Logical Reasoning (LR)	24-26	35 min	Appears twice
Reading Comprehension (RC)	26-28	35 min	One section
Experimental	24-28	35 min	Unscored; can be LR or RC

Important: One of the LR or RC sections is experimental and does not count toward your score. However, you will not know which section is experimental during the test, so you must treat every section as if it counts.

3. How to Study: The Learn-Practice-Review Cycle

Effective LSAT preparation involves three core activities that you will cycle through continuously:

1. **Learn:** This is the foundational stage where you will acquire the fundamental concepts and strategies needed to tackle LSAT questions through videos, books, and expert guidance.
2. **Practice:** This is where you apply what you have learned. There are three distinct phases of practice, each with a specific purpose.
3. **Review:** This is arguably the most important part of your study process. A thorough review of your mistakes is where you will make the most significant gains.



ESSENTIAL STUDY RESOURCES

These two spreadsheets are **critical tools** for your LSAT preparation. Use them consistently throughout your study process.

Resource	Purpose	Link
Progress Tracker Spreadsheet	Track your overall progress through your study plan. Monitor your scores over time, identify trends, and stay accountable to your goals.	Open Progress Tracker
Wrong Answer Journal Spreadsheet	Track your wrong answers and answer the Four Review Questions (see Section 4) for each mistake. This is where the real learning happens.	Open Wrong Answer Journal

***Pro Tip:** Make a copy of each spreadsheet to your own Google Drive and use them every single study session. Students who consistently track their progress and review their mistakes improve faster than those who don't.*

4. The Four-Step Review Process

For every wrong answer, ask yourself:

1. **Why did I pick the wrong answer?**
2. **Why did I eliminate the right answer?**
3. **What makes the wrong answer wrong?** (Note specific unsupported words)
4. **What makes the right answer right?** (Note specific words that make it 100% supported)

5. The Three-Stage Study Plan

Your LSAT preparation should progress through three distinct stages. Only move to the next stage once your accuracy has reached or exceeded the level required for your goal score.

Stage	Focus	Practice Method	Review
1. Refining	Accuracy and understanding	No Count: Work slowly, one question at a time, with instant feedback.	Review every wrong question immediately.
2. Racing	Speed development	Count Up: Push your pace and track how fast you can complete questions without sacrificing accuracy.	Review blind, going through any question you were unsure of.
3. Rehearsing	Stamina and time management	Count Down: Complete full timed sections and practice tests under test-day conditions.	Review blind, going through any question you were unsure of.

6. Common Pitfalls to Avoid

Pitfall	Why It's a Problem	Solution
Grinding	Doing questions without thorough review yields minimal improvement	Quality over quantity; review every mistake
Rushing	Attempting more questions than you can get right leads to careless errors	Do only as many questions as you can get right
Expecting Linear Progress	Score improvements come in waves after plateaus, not steadily	Be patient; trust the process

7. Pro Tips for Success

- **Slow Down:** When refining, the clock doesn't matter. Take as long as you need to truly understand a question.
- **Have Fun:** The best LSAT scorers enjoy the test and treat it like a game. Change your mindset—you love the LSAT.
- **Make Predictions:** Have a clear idea of the answer before looking at choices. Don't get distracted by non-matching answers.
- **Stop Rationalizing:** One answer is 100% right; four are 100% wrong. Stop arguing with the test.

8. Getting Faster

Speed on the LSAT comes from mastery, not from rushing. Here are the keys to improving your pace:

- **Get Better:** The best way to get faster is to get better. Speed issues are usually fundamental understanding issues.
- **Slow Down Up Front:** Speed comes from understanding the text well. Rushing causes debate, rereading, and second-guessing.
- **Have Confident Predictions:** Know exactly what you're looking for before reading answers. Be ruthless with non-matching answers.
- **Spend Time Strategically:** Not all questions are equal. Push pace on easier questions. Save the hardest for the end. Don't waste time on questions you might get wrong anyway.


PART 2: LOGICAL REASONING OVERVIEW

9. The Three LR Tasks

Every Logical Reasoning question falls into one of three categories:

Category	Description	Question Types
Understand an Argument	Identify and comprehend the components of an argument.	Main Conclusion, Role, Reasoning, Complete the Argument, Response, Parallel Reasoning
Dissect an Argument	Identify the flaws, assumptions, or problem in an argument.	Flaw, Necessary Assumption, Sufficient Assumption, Strengthen, Weaken, Principle Justify, Evaluate, Parallel Flaw
Analyze a Set of Facts	Draw conclusions from a set of information when no argument is being made.	Inference, Disagree, Resolve, Principle Match

10. Complete Question Type Reference Table

 **Study Resource:** [Question Types Quizlet](#) — Use this to memorize all question types and their functions!

Understanding Arguments

Approach: 1. Find the Conclusion → 2. Find the Evidence → 3. Predict The Answer (if you can)

Question Type	Question Stem	Answer
Main Conclusion	Which one of the following most accurately expresses the conclusion drawn in the argument?	Restates the author's conclusion (what they are trying to prove); there must be evidence for this.
Role	Which one of the following most accurately describes the role/function played in the argument by the statement "..."?	How a specific statement functions in the overall argument.
Reasoning	Which one of the following most accurately describes the techniques of reasoning employed by the argument? / The argument proceeds by...	Describes the overall structure of the argument's reasoning.
Complete the Argument	Which one of the following most logically completes the argument?	Conclusion that most directly follows from the premises given.
Response	Speaker X responds to Speaker Y by...	Describes how a second speaker responds to another speaker's argument (usually a criticism).
Parallel Reasoning	Which of the following is most similar/parallels/exhibits the same patterns in reasoning to the argument above?	Gives another argument with the same structure of reasoning (not necessarily in the same order).

Dissecting Arguments

Approach: 1. Find the Conclusion → 2. Find the Evidence → 3. Find the Flaw (this is the prediction)

Question Type	Question Stem	Answer
Flaw	The argument's reasoning is flawed/vulnerable/questionable because the argument...	Directly states the problem with the argument (why the premises do not lead to the conclusion).
Necessary Assumption	Which one of the following is an assumption required by the argument? / The argument depends on which one of the following assumptions ?	Needs to be true for the conclusion to hold (weaker language).
Sufficient Assumption	Which one of the following, if assumed, allows the conclusion to be properly drawn ?	Proves the argument's conclusion (stronger language).
Strengthen	Which one of the following, if true, most strengthens/supports/justifies the argument?	Helps the argument's conclusion (stronger language).
Weaken	Which one of the following, if true, most weakens/undermines/casts doubt on the argument?	Hurts the argument's conclusion (stronger language).
Principle Justify	Which one of the following principles, if valid, most helps to justify the argument?	General rule that helps, and sometimes proves (like a sufficient assumption), the conclusion. (Just treat these like strengthen questions).
Evaluate	Which one of the following would be most useful to know in order to evaluate the argument?	Question that, if answered, would allow you to determine the validity of the argument.
Parallel Flaw	Which of the following arguments most closely resembles/parallels/exhibits the same pattern of flawed/questionable reasoning in the argument above?	Gives another argument with the same flaw (not necessarily the same reasoning structure).

Analyzing Facts

Approach: 1. Understand the Text → 2. Predict the Answer (if you can)

Question Type	Question Stem	Answer
Inference	If the statements above are true, which one of the following... must be true / is most strongly supported / logically follows	MUST BE TRUE (weaker language)
	must be false	MUST BE FALSE (stronger language)
	could be true	COULD BE TRUE (weaker language)
	could be false	COULD BE FALSE (stronger language)
Disagree	The two speakers disagree over which one of the following? / The point at issue between the two speakers is which one of the following?	Point of contention between two speakers.
Resolve	Which one of the following, if true, most helps to resolve/explain/reconcile the apparent discrepancy/paradox/conflict/contradiction above?	Explains why two seemingly contradictory statements can coexist.
Principle Match	Which one of the following judgements conforms to/best illustrates the principle above? / Which of the following principles conform to/is best illustrated by the situation above?	Matches a general rule to a particular application or vice versa.

PART 3: UNDERSTANDING ARGUMENTS

11. What is an Argument?

An argument is the use of reasoning to prove a claim. It consists of **Premises** (evidence) and a **Conclusion** (the claim being proven). Identifying the conclusion is the first and most crucial step.

12. Structural Clues

Look for these words to identify the different parts of an argument.

Type	Words
Conclusion	thus, therefore, so, hence, consequently, clearly
Evidence	because, since, for, after all
Concession	while, although, even though, despite, but

***Common Mistake:** “After all” is an **EVIDENCE** word, not a conclusion word! The statement that follows “after all” is a premise supporting the conclusion, not the conclusion itself.*

13. Common Argument Structures

- Evidence. [**Thus/Therefore/So**], conclusion.
- Conclusion [**because/since**] evidence.
- [**Because/Since**] evidence, conclusion.
- Conclusion, [**for**] evidence.
- Conclusion. [**After all**], evidence.
- [**Although/Even though/Despite**] concession, remainder of argument.

14. Intermediate & Implicit Conclusions

An **intermediate conclusion** is a statement that acts as both a premise and a conclusion. It is supported by evidence AND supports the main conclusion.

An **implicit conclusion** is a conclusion that is not explicitly stated but is heavily implied by the premises.

15. The Understanding Arguments Approach

This is the core approach for all Understanding Arguments questions. It has three steps:

Step 1: Find the Conclusion

The conclusion is the main point the author is trying to prove. It's an evidence-based opinion. Ask yourself: "What is the author trying to convince me of?"

Key Characteristics:

- **Evidence-Based:** There must be at least one piece of evidence in the text to support it.
- **Opinionated:** It's the author's interpretation or judgment, not a simple fact.

Types of Conclusions:

Type	Description	Example Keywords
Recommendation	How things "should" or "ought to" be	should, ought to, must
Prediction	How things "will" be in the future	will, is likely to, probably
Causation	One thing causes another	causes, leads to, increases, decreases
Disagreement	Another claim is wrong	mistaken, absurd, but that's not true
Judgment	A subjective evaluation	good, bad, effective, inefficient

Step 2: Find the Evidence

Once you've found the conclusion, ask "Why?" Why does the author believe this conclusion? The answer is the evidence.

Key Techniques:

- **Point to the Text:** Find the specific word or phrase that most directly supports the conclusion.
- **Explain the Reasoning:** In your own words, explain how the evidence leads to the conclusion. If you can't, you may not fully understand the argument.
- **Give the Author the Benefit of the Doubt:** Assume the evidence is relevant and supports the conclusion, even if the logic seems weak.

Step 3: Predict the Answer

Before looking at the answer choices, predict what the answer should be based on the question's task.

Question Type	Prediction Strategy
Main Conclusion	You already found it in Step 1. Find the answer choice that restates it.
Reasoning	You already analyzed the reasoning in Step 2. Describe how the argument is structured.
Role	Go to the specific part of the text mentioned in the question and describe its function (e.g., evidence, conclusion, concession).
Complete the Argument	The argument is missing its conclusion. Predict the conclusion that logically follows from the evidence.
Response	The second speaker is usually criticizing the first. Predict how they are criticizing the argument.
Parallel Reasoning	You are predicting the reasoning structure. This is discussed in the next section.

16. Parallel Reasoning Strategy

Goal: Match the reasoning **STRUCTURE**, not the content.

1. **Focus on the Conclusion:** Match the conclusion's **type** (normative, causal, factual) and **strength** (strong vs. weak).
2. **Pay Attention to Quantity Words:** Words like "all," "some," and "most" are integral to the reasoning and must parallel across arguments.

3. **Abstract the Reasoning:** Use variables (A, B, C) to diagram the logical structure (e.g., “If A, then B. A is present. Therefore B.”).
 4. **Match Ideas 1-to-1:** Ensure each relevant idea in the original argument has a parallel in the answer choice. The structure should map exactly.
-

PART 4: DISSECTING ARGUMENTS (THE CORE SKILL)

The ability to dissect arguments—to find the flaw—is **THE most important skill on the LSAT**. Master this, and you can answer the majority of Logical Reasoning questions.

17. Most LSAT Arguments are Flawed

A perfect argument has premises that fully support the conclusion. However, most LSAT arguments are **flawed**—the evidence does not logically guarantee the conclusion.

18. What is a Flaw?

A flaw is the **difference** between what the evidence proves and what the conclusion says. To identify a flaw, ask:

- What language is different between the evidence and the conclusion?
- What new idea shows up in the conclusion that the evidence does not discuss?

General Framework for Defining Any Flaw:

The author is assuming [insert evidence] leads to [insert conclusion]. But just because [insert evidence] doesn't mean [insert conclusion]. Maybe [insert conclusion] is not true even though [insert evidence] is true because... [insert weakeners].

19. What is an Assumption?

An assumption is a **missing piece** from an argument—an unstated premise that bridges the gap between the evidence and the conclusion.

20. The “New Language” Method

The “**New Language**” Method is one of the most effective ways to identify the flaw in an argument.

1. **Find New Language:** Look for terms or concepts in the **CONCLUSION** that were **NOT** in the premises. This is the “new language.”
2. **Go Through the Reasoning:** Ask yourself, “How do the premises connect to this new language? Why does the author think the evidence proves this new idea in the conclusion?”
3. **Identify What You Added:** What connection did YOU have to make mentally that was **NOT SAID** in the argument? This unstated connection is the **ASSUMPTION**. The assumption fills the gap, and the gap itself is the **FLAW**.

21. Dissecting Arguments: One Skill, Different Questions

Once you’ve identified the flaw, you can answer any “Dissecting Arguments” question. All these question types are just asking about the **SAME FLAW** in different ways.

Question Type	Strategy Note
FLAW	Describe the flaw you identified.
SUFFICIENT ASSUMPTION	Pick the idea that COMPLETELY FILLS the flaw/gap.
NECESSARY ASSUMPTION	Pick the idea that is NEEDED for the gap to be filled.
STRENGTHEN	Help the flaw , even just a bit. Don't be afraid of new information; stronger answers are better.
WEAKEN	Exploit the flaw and show why it's present. Don't be afraid of new information; stronger answers are better.
EVALUATE	Pick the QUESTION whose answer will make or break the argument. If yes/no, the argument is valid/flawed.
PRINCIPLE (STRENGTHEN)	Pick a GENERAL RULE that helps fill the flaw (often completely, like a Sufficient Assumption).
PARALLEL FLAW	Predict the flaw and match it to the argument in the answer choice. Avoid focusing on sentence order.

22. Sufficient vs Necessary Assumptions

Characteristic	Sufficient Assumptions	Necessary Assumptions
Question Stem	"Which of the following, if assumed, enables the conclusion to be properly drawn?"	"The argument depends/relies on which one of the following assumptions?"
Relation to Argument	Proves or guarantees the conclusion	Needs to be true for the conclusion to be true
Strength of Language	Stronger or more absolute language	Weaker or more qualified language

Key Insight for Necessary Assumptions: Without the necessary assumption, the argument **fails**. You can use the **Negation Test**: Negate the answer choice. If the argument falls apart when the answer is negated, that answer is the necessary assumption.

23. Flaw Questions: Three Ways to Frame the Answer

The same flaw can be expressed in three different ways. Recognizing these framings is key to finding the correct answer.

Way 1: Describe the Flaw	Way 2: Necessary Assumption Framing	Way 3: Weakener Framing
Direct description of the reasoning error.	States what the author wrongly assumes .	Points out what the author failed to consider .
Trigger Words: “confuses correlation for causation,” “relies on ambiguous terminology,” “attacks the person...”	Trigger Words: “presumes,” “assumes,” “takes for granted,” “treats as established”	Trigger Words: “overlooks the possibility that,” “ignores the fact that,” “fails to consider”
Example: “The argument confuses correlation for causation.”	Example: “The author presumes that no other factor could have caused the change.”	Example: “The argument overlooks the possibility that other factors could have caused the change.”
Often uses common flaw patterns.	Uses WEAKER language - what’s needed but missing.	Exploits the flaw with EXTERNAL INFORMATION that directly attacks the conclusion.

24. Common Flaw Patterns Table

 **Study Resource:** [Flaw Patterns Quizlet](#) — Use this to memorize all common flaw patterns!

Flaw Pattern	Description	Examples
Causal	Concludes causality between two factors without a proper experiment (often uses correlational evidence).	Shark attacks tend to increase as people buy and eat more ice cream. Sharks are likely attacking individuals because they are attracted to the smell of ice cream.
Confusing Necessary For Sufficient	Mixes up the if (sufficient condition) and then (necessary condition) parts of a conditional statement.	If someone is a great piano player, they must have a great sense of rhythm. Therefore, since my friend Greg has a great sense of rhythm, he would definitely be a great piano player.
Faulty Comparison	Bases a conclusion on the similarity of two things that are different in relevant ways. Includes Part to Whole Flaw (making a conclusion about the whole based on a characteristic of its part) and Whole to Part Flaw (making a conclusion about the part based on a characteristic of its whole).	Both dogs and cats are domestic pets, so they must require the same level of care and attention. Part to Whole: The team has all the best players. Therefore, it must be the best team. Whole to Part: Company A has the most money. Therefore, each of its shareholders must individually have the most money.
Unrepresentative Sample	Drawing a generalization about a population from a sample with different characteristics. (Note: this concerns characteristics, not size; we are not statisticians, so answers that say sample sizes are too small are always wrong)	A political science teacher at Tufts University polled his students and found that 70% of them were interested in a career in law. From this, he concluded that 70% of students at Tufts University were interested in a career in law.
Absence of Evidence	Concluding something is true by showing that it has not been proven false or vice versa.	There's no evidence disproving the existence of aliens, so aliens must exist. / There's no evidence proving the existence of aliens, so aliens must not exist.
Confusing Percentages and	Assuming a change in a percentage of something	Initially, 50% of the people in the room are men. After an hour, only

Flaw Pattern	Description	Examples
Quantities	indicates a corresponding change in the quantity of that thing or vice versa (usually without accounting for changes in the total population or sample size).	30% are men, so there must be fewer men in the room than there were an hour ago.
Attack or Appeal to Authority	Attacks or appeals to the source of an argument rather than discussing the logical merits of the argument itself.	Attack: Professor Smith argues that we should implement stricter gun control laws, but we can't trust his judgment because he has a messy personal life and has been divorced twice. Therefore, his proposal for stricter gun control laws must be flawed. Appeal: An MIT professor claims that time travel is theoretically possible. Therefore, we should accept that time travel is indeed feasible.
Ambiguous Terms	Using the same term in two different ways.	A feather is light. Therefore, a feather cannot be dark.
Circular Reasoning	Evidence for a conclusion is simply a restatement of the conclusion itself. (extremely rare and commonly shows up as a wrong answer!)	Smoking is harmful to your health because it can cause serious health problems.

PART 5: CAUSAL ARGUMENTS

25. The Perfect Experiment

To prove causation, you need a **control group** and an **experimental group** that are identical in every way except for **one factor**. If the results differ between the groups, that one factor is the cause.

26. Correlation vs. Causation

This is one of the most common flaws on the LSAT.

- **Correlation (Not Enough):** Just because two things happen together does not mean one causes the other. Example: Ice cream sales and shark attacks both rise in the summer, but one doesn't cause the other.
- **Causation (Proper Experiment):** To prove causation, you need a **control group** and an **experimental group** that are identical in every way except for **one factor**. If the results differ between the groups, that one factor is the cause.

27. Strengthening & Weakening Causal Arguments

To Weaken a Causal Argument	To Strengthen a Causal Argument
1. Give an Alternative Cause: Suggest another factor that could have caused the effect.	1. Eliminate Alternative Causes: Show that other potential causes are not the reason for the effect.
2. Give an Alternative Explanation: Suggest a different relationship between the cause and effect (e.g., reverse causation, or a third factor causing both).	2. Eliminate Alternative Explanations: Rule out reverse causation or a third common cause.

PART 6: CONDITIONAL LOGIC

28. What is a Conditional Statement?

A conditional statement is an “if...then” statement that establishes a relationship between two conditions. It tells you that if one condition (the **sufficient** condition) is met, then another condition (the **necessary** condition) must also be met.

29. Conditional Words

Certain words signal which part of the statement is sufficient and which is necessary.

Sufficient Condition Words	Necessary Condition Words
If	Only if
All / None	Must
Always / Never	Require / Need
Whenever	Only
Every / Each	Without

30. Diagramming Conditional Statements

We use an arrow (\rightarrow) to represent the relationship. The sufficient condition always goes on the left, and the necessary condition on the right.

Format: Sufficient \rightarrow Necessary

Example: “If you are in Boston, then you are in Massachusetts.”

- **Sufficient:** Being in Boston (B)
- **Necessary:** Being in Massachusetts (M)
- **Diagram:** $B \rightarrow M$

Ways to Express the Same Conditional (Running \rightarrow Moving):

All of the following statements mean the same thing:

- **If** a person is running, then they are moving.
- **All** people who are running are moving.
- **No one** is running and not moving.
- A person **cannot** run without moving.
- People who are running are **always** moving.
- A person is **never** running and not moving.
- **Whenever** a person is running, they are moving.
- **Each** person who is running is moving.
- **Every** person who is running is moving.

- A person is running **only if** they are moving.
- A person who is running **must** be moving.
- A person who is running **needs** to be moving.
- A person is not running **unless** they are moving.

31. The Contrapositive: The Only Valid Inference

For any conditional statement, there is only one logically equivalent statement you can make: the **contrapositive**. To form the contrapositive, you **flip** the terms and **negate** both of them.

- **Original Statement:** $A \rightarrow B$
- **Contrapositive (Valid):** $\sim B \rightarrow \sim A$ (read as “Not B implies Not A”)

Example:

- **Original:** If you are in Boston, then you are in Massachusetts. ($B \rightarrow M$)
- **Contrapositive:** If you are not in Massachusetts, then you are not in Boston. ($\sim M \rightarrow \sim B$)

32. Invalid Inferences (Common Flaws)

Two common errors in conditional reasoning are the Mistaken Reversal and the Mistaken Negation. These are **invalid** inferences.

Invalid Inference	Form	Example
Mistaken Reversal	$B \rightarrow A$	“If you are in Massachusetts, then you are in Boston.” (False!)
Mistaken Negation	$\sim A \rightarrow \sim B$	“If you are not in Boston, then you are not in Massachusetts.” (False!)

From the statement $Boston \rightarrow Massachusetts$:

- **We know:** Being in Boston is **SUFFICIENT** for being in Massachusetts.
- **We know:** Being in Massachusetts is **NECESSARY** for being in Boston.

- **We DON'T know:** Being in Massachusetts means you're in Boston. (Mistaken Reversal)
- **We DON'T know:** NOT being in Boston means you're NOT in Massachusetts. (Mistaken Negation)

33. The “Unless” Rule

“Unless” means “if not.” To diagram a sentence with “unless,” replace “unless” with “if not” and diagram as usual.

Example: “Unless it gets watered, the plant will not grow.”

1. **Replace:** “**If not** it gets watered, the plant will not grow.”
2. **Rearrange:** “If it does **not** get watered, the plant will not grow.”
3. **Diagram:** $\sim \text{Watered} \rightarrow \sim \text{Grow}$

34. Chaining Conditionals

If the necessary condition of one statement is the sufficient condition of another, you can link them together.

- If $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$, then you can infer $A \rightarrow C$.

PART 7: ANALYZING FACTS

35. Inference Questions

Inference questions ask what **must be true** or is **most strongly supported** by the text. Treat these two question stems exactly the same. The correct answer must be virtually guaranteed by the text.

36. Right vs Wrong Answers

This framework is essential for Inference questions. It also applies to Reading Comprehension questions because RC questions are fundamentally asking the same thing: what must be true based on the text.

Characteristic	Right Answers	Wrong Answers
Textual Support	Every single word has clear textual support.	Some words are textually unsupported.
Certainty	Must be true.	Can be true, Might be true, or Probably is true (not enough!).
Specificity	So general that it is probably right (easier to prove).	So specific that it's wrong (harder to prove).
Defensibility	Will hold up to criticism from the national debate champion.	Will fold under pressure when it meets criticism.
Strength of Language	Weak: some, sometimes, at least, could, can.	Strong: all, always, most, only, must.

37. Don't Confuse: Inference vs Strengthen

Inference Questions	Strengthen Questions
The text supports the answer .	The answer supports the text .
Support flows DOWN (Text → Answer)	Support flows UP (Answer → Text)

38. Disagree Questions Strategy

Most Efficient Method: PREDICT

1. Read both speakers carefully
2. The second speaker usually states where they disagree with the first
3. **Predict the point of disagreement** before looking at answers
4. Find the answer that matches your prediction

If You're Unsure: USE THE TABLE METHOD

Make a table to track each speaker's position on each answer choice:

Answer Choice	Speaker 1	Speaker 2	Result
A	✓ (agrees)	✗ (disagrees)	POINT OF DISAGREEMENT ✓
B	✓ (agrees)	✓ (agrees)	Both agree - ELIMINATE
C	✗ (disagrees)	✗ (disagrees)	Both disagree - ELIMINATE
D	? (unclear)	✓ (agrees)	Position unclear - ELIMINATE
E	✓ (agrees)	? (unclear)	Position unclear - ELIMINATE

What You're Looking For:

- ✓ (Speaker 1) + ✗ (Speaker 2) = **POINT OF DISAGREEMENT**
- ✗ (Speaker 1) + ✓ (Speaker 2) = **POINT OF DISAGREEMENT**

ELIMINATE if:

- Both speakers agree (both ✓ or both ✗)
- **Either speaker's position is unclear (?)** - This is critical! If we don't know what a speaker thinks about a statement, they can't disagree on it. The question mark is an automatic elimination.

39. Resolve/Explain Questions

Goal: Explain why two seemingly contradictory facts can both be true.

Strategy:

1. **Identify the two things that seemingly contradict.** Read the stimulus and pinpoint the apparent paradox or discrepancy.
2. **Go straight to the answers.** Once you've identified both parts of the contradiction, look for the answer that explains why BOTH can be simultaneously true.

Common Trap: Wrong answers often only address ONE part of the paradox. The correct answer must account for BOTH contradictory facts coexisting.

40. Principle Match

Goal: Match a general rule to a specific application, or vice versa.

Strategy: Stay as close to the principle as possible. Do not make any assumptions and do not deviate from the exact wording of the principle.

PART 8: EXCEPT QUESTIONS

41. How to Approach EXCEPT Questions

The Goal: Find the one answer that **DOES NOT** accomplish the task.

The Mistake to Avoid: Task Switching. Do not eliminate 3-4 answers and then switch to picking the one that *does* accomplish the task. Stick to elimination.

42. Track with Checks & X's Method

1. Write A, B, C, D, E on your scratch paper.
2. For each answer, ask: "Does it accomplish the task?" (e.g., "Does this strengthen the argument?")
3. If **YES**, mark it with a ✓.
4. If **NO**, mark it with an ✗.
5. After checking all five, you should have four ✓ and one ✗. The correct answer is the one with the ✗.

43. Strengthen EXCEPT & Weaken EXCEPT

Question Type	4 Wrong Answers (✓)	1 Right Answer (✗)
Strengthen EXCEPT	Strengthen the argument	Does NOT Strengthen (could weaken or be irrelevant)
Weaken EXCEPT	Weaken the argument	Does NOT Weaken (could strengthen or be irrelevant)

44. EXCEPT Question Patterns Table

Note: The right answer is the **exact opposite** of the 4 wrong answers (e.g., Could Be True → Must Be False).

Question Type	4 Wrong Answers	1 Right Answer (Exact Opposite)
Must Be True EXCEPT	MUST BE TRUE	COULD BE FALSE
Could Be False EXCEPT	COULD BE FALSE	MUST BE TRUE
Could Be True EXCEPT	COULD BE TRUE	MUST BE FALSE
Must Be False EXCEPT	MUST BE FALSE	COULD BE TRUE

PART 9: QUANTITY WORDS

45. ALL, NONE, MOST, SOME Definitions

Word	Meaning
ALL	100%
NONE	0%
MOST	More than 50%
SOME	At least one (>0%)

46. Reversing Statements

There is no contrapositive for “most” and “some” statements. However, all, most, and some statements can be reversed into a “some” statement:

Original	Reversed
ALL people are living things	So SOME living things are people
MOST buildings in NYC are skyscrapers	So SOME skyscrapers are in NYC
SOME fruits are apples	So SOME apples are fruits

47. Most-Most Inference

THE MOST + MOST = SOME INFERENCE

Two “most” statements about the **SAME group** guarantee overlap.

The Pattern:

Component	The Pattern	Example
Premise 1	Most of Group X have characteristic A	Most students play sports
Premise 2	Most of Group X have characteristic B	Most students play an instrument
Conclusion	SOME of Group X have BOTH A and B	SOME students do BOTH

Ways to Express the Conclusion:

- Some A are B
- Some B are A

Applied to Example:

- Some sports players play an instrument
- Some instrument players play sports

WHY THIS WORKS:

If more than 50% have A and more than 50% have B, they **MUST** overlap. Even if each is just 51%, that’s 102% total—the extra 2% must be the overlap.

PART 10: READING COMPREHENSION

48. RC is Objective

RC is all about practice and removing the part of your brain that says “this is subjective.”

You have to understand that RC is just as objective as LR—just as objective as math. There is always **1 right answer and 4 wrong answers**. Don’t argue with the test. One of these answers is provable by the text, so **never guess**. Slow down and practice figuring it out.

You’ll realize RC is not complex—it is simple. That doesn’t mean it’s not hard. But the strategies are straightforward: **Pick the answer that MUST BE TRUE.**

49. Tips for Reading LSAT Passages

1. **Read for Structure, Not Details:** Focus on how the passage is organized and how each part contributes to the overall argument. Don’t get bogged down in technical details—understand their function in the argument instead.
2. **Highlight Strategically:** Only highlight main points and structural signposts. Resist the urge to highlight everything.
3. **Simplify Complex Sentences:** Break down convoluted sentences into clearer, simpler phrases.
4. **Connect Everything to the Main Point:** Constantly ask: “Why is this sentence here? How does it support the author’s argument?”

50. The Three Approaches

For Reading Comprehension, don’t worry about memorizing question type names. Instead, when you read a question, ask yourself: **Is this a Big Picture question or a Detail question?** And if it’s about a detail: **Is it asking about something specific I can go back to and predict, or is it asking generally what’s in the text?** This will determine whether you predict or eliminate.

Approach	When to Use	Strategy
Big Picture Prediction	Questions about the main point, primary purpose, or overall organization.	Go in with a prediction based on your thorough reading. You should already know this from understanding the passage's overall structure and main ideas.
Detail Prediction	Questions about a specific detail you can locate in the text (vocabulary, author's view on something specific, purpose of a particular paragraph).	Find the specific location in the text. Make a prediction based on what the text says. You must be able to point directly to textual support.
Detail Eliminate	Questions asking what's generally supported by the text or what can be inferred.	Eliminate answer choices based on what you remember from the passage. The right answer will still have direct textual support you can point to for verification.

51. Right vs Wrong Answers for RC

RC questions are fundamentally **inference questions**—they're asking what must be true based on the passage. The same framework applies:

Characteristic	Right Answers	Wrong Answers
Textual Support	Every single word has clear textual support.	Some words are textually unsupported.
Certainty	Must be true.	Can be true, Might be true, or Probably is true (not enough!).
Specificity	So general that it is probably right (easier to prove).	So specific that it's wrong (harder to prove).
Defensibility	Will hold up to criticism from the national debate champion.	Will fold under pressure when it meets criticism.
Strength of Language	Weak: some, sometimes, at least, could, can.	Strong: all, always, most, only, must.