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**ИСКУССТВО РЕЧИ НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ
ЯЗЫКЕ**

ЮНИТА 2

**ПУБЛИЧНОЕ ВЫСТУПЛЕНИЕ КАК ФОРМА
КОММУНИКАЦИИ**

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ИСКУССТВО РЕЧИ НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Юнита 1. Написание эссе.

Юнита 2. Публичное выступление как форма коммуникации.

Юнита 3. Составление сообщения.

ЮНИТА 2

Рассматриваются различные аспекты подготовки и аргументации публичного выступления на английском языке.

Для студентов факультета лингвистики СГУ

Юнита соответствует профессиональной образовательной программе №1

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* Глоссарий расположен в середине учебного пособия и предназначен для самостоятельного заучивания новых понятий.

ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ПЛАН

Communication. The four aspects of a message. The role of the recipient. Visual techniques.

Argumentation. Recognised argumentation. Forms of argumentation. Analysis of argumentation. Non-argumentative elements. Assessing quality of speech.

ЛИТЕРАТУРА

Базовый учебник

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9. Toulmin, S., *The Uses of Argument*. Cambridge University Press, 1969.

Примечание. Знаком (*) отмечены работы, на основе которых составлен научный обзор.

ПЕРЕЧЕНЬ УМЕНИЙ

№	Умение	Содержание
1	Применение теста for/so для анализа предложений	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Прочитайте предложение.2. Определите, из каких двух частей (предложений) состоит данное сложное предложение.3. Определите, что for или so можно вставить между этими двумя частями.4. Если возможно вставить for, то первое предложение является мнением, а второе - аргументом. Если возможно вставить so, то первое предложение является аргументом, а второе - мнением.
2	Составление сложной формы аргументации (сложного предложения) из двух простых.	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1. Прочитайте предложения.2. Определите, какое из предложений выражает мнение.3. Определите, какое из предложений выражает аргумент.4. Составьте одно сложное предложение, имеющее следующую структуру: мнение, союз because, аргумент. Осуществите все необходимые изменения.

ПРИМЕРЫ ВЫПОЛНЕНИЯ УПРАЖНЕНИЙ НА УМЕНИЯ

1. *Примените тест for/so для анализа предложения: I quit, I have done enough for one day.*

1. I quit, I have done enough for one day.
2. I quit и I have done enough for one day.
3. Возможно вставить for.
4. I quit - мнение, I have done enough for one day - аргумент.

2. *Составьте сложную форму аргументации из предложений: I never eat Japanese food! You know it disagrees me!*

1. I never eat Japanese food! You know it disagrees me!
2. I never eat Japanese food - мнение; You know it disagrees me - аргумент.
3. I never eat Japanese food because it disagrees me.

ТЕМАТИЧЕСКИЙ ОБЗОР

1. COMMUNICATION MODEL

1.1. Introduction

The purpose of this unit is to increase your knowledge of communication. We will offer you a simple communication model, which you can apply to both written and oral communication. Besides it facilitates discussions about communication.

Why is it necessary to talk about communication?

- * It makes it easier to criticise faulty messages **in a more specific way**, e.g. letters, reports, presentations.
- * **A more effective improvement** of the message becomes possible, because we know exactly what is wrong.

You can judge whether a message is faulty by answering the following questions:

- * Does the writer give enough information?
- * Does the writer make the desired impression on the reader/listener?
- * Is the style of the message aimed at the reader/listener?
- * Is the message convincing?

Messages can have flaws in all four areas, or in one or two.

In the next section we will give you some general information about these four questions, the four aspects of the message, furthermore we will explain the importance of the reader/listener. After that we will go into the details of the four aspects. We will deal with feedback, an important notion in communication. Finally we will present a set of questions that you can use as a writer.

1.2. The Four Aspects of a Message

Our starting point is: there is *communication* when someone lets someone else know something, in other words, when a sender gives a recipient a message. Schematically this looks as follows:

Sender → *Message* → *Recipient*

Besides *sender*, *message* and *recipient* there are other important factors, such as the *channel* (the means that sender and recipient use to communicate) and noise. We will not deal with them, as this would lead us too far afield.

Every message contains four different types of information (corresponding to the four questions mentioned above). We will give you an example, and describe the four aspects that we can distinguish.

Example (four aspects)

A husband and wife are having breakfast. The man says: "The kettle is boiling,"

Schematically this is what happens:

Husband → "The kettle is boiling" → *wife*

Referential Aspect

First of all the message contains actual information. In this case the sender describes the fact that the water in the kettle is boiling. This aspect corresponds to the first question mentioned above.

Expressive Aspect

By means of this message the sender gives information about himself. In this case: he speaks English, he is not deaf, he may be in a hurry or longing for a cup of tea. If you interpret his words as a request to his wife to make tea, then you may even consider him lazy. This aspect corresponds to the second question mentioned above.

Relational Aspect

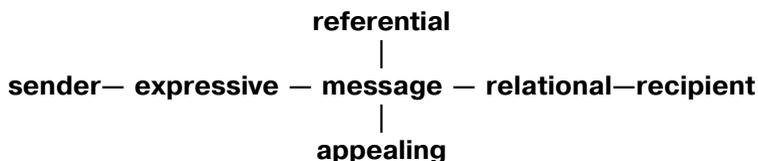
A message also expresses the sender's attitude towards the recipient, and his opinion on their relationship. You may draw the conclusion that in the example the husband wants his wife to make tea, especially when his tone of voice is irritated, or bored. You may even defend the interpretation that, according to the husband, his wife should carry out all household chores and that he thinks he can order her about. This aspect corresponds to the third question.

The expressive and relational aspect of a message are usually not expressed in the words that are actually used. This information is not explicit, but implicit (hidden), but the recipient can understand them by interpreting the choice of words, non-verbal signals (e.g. intonation, facial expression, posture, outward appearance of texts, e.g. a letter or report).

Appealing Aspect

Almost every message wants to influence its recipient, so that he will (not) do something. This aspect can be either implicit or explicit. Perhaps the appeal in the example is “Go and make a cup of tea”. This aspect corresponds to the fourth question mentioned previously.

The four aspects of the message have their own place in the communication model:



These four aspects are present in every message, but they are not always equally important. Usually one of the four aspects is stressed, and the other three are secondary.

- * In informative texts, like scientific articles, or a news broadcast the **referential** aspect dominates.
- * The **expressive** aspect is very important in personal letters, diaries, etc. The sender’s feelings, ideas and thoughts come first. *Cursing* is a form of communication with little more than an expressive purpose, and hardly any actual information.
- * In quarrels the **relational** aspect is often dominant. The mutual exchange of information (referential aspect) is not really what the quarrel is about. The relationship between the two parties is at stake.
- * The **appealing** aspect is stressed in almost all forms of advertising. Their purpose is to make a prospective buyer buy a product.

If one aspect is stressed, this does not mean that the others are absent; they always play a part in the communication process.

1.3. The Role of the Recipient

So far we have approached the four aspects from the point of view of the sender. It is also possible to do so from the point of view of the recipient. How does he/she respond to the four different types of information that he receives?

- * The recipient will try to understand the referential aspect.
- * He/she will pay attention to the expressive aspect when he asks himself: What kind of person is the sender? or: What is the matter with him at the moment?
- * The relational aspect personally affects the recipient. He/She may wonder: What is the sender's attitude towards me? or: How is he/she treating me?
- * The recipient pays attention to the appealing aspect if he/she notices what it is that the sender wants him to do, or not do.

The ideal recipient pays attention to all four aspects. As we explained in the previous section, the sender will probably have stressed one of the four by means of his tone of voice, posture, habits (which the recipient may know), etc. It is up to the recipient to find out which of the four.

The husband in the example transmitted four types of information. The recipient may interpret the message in four different ways. This may give rise to breakdowns in communication. If a recipient responds to an aspect that was not the principal aspect in the sender's opinion, then the sender will think that the recipient misunderstood the message, or he will realise that he has not been clear enough himself. It is also possible that the recipient knowingly ignores the most important aspect.

In the example the recipient, the wife, may respond to any of the four aspects.

Example (responses to 4 aspects)

<i>"Already?"</i>	(responding to referential aspect)
<i>"What is the hurry?"</i>	(responding to expressive aspect)
<i>"You know how to make tea as well, don't you?"</i>	(responding to relational aspect)
she gets up to make tea	(responding to appealing aspect)

The wife may be well aware of her husband's purpose (he wants her to make tea) and nevertheless respond by saying "Already?". In that case there is only an apparent breakdown of communication.

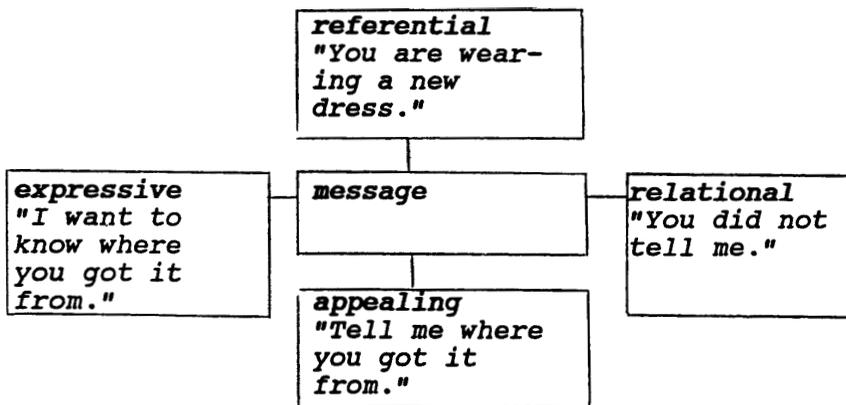
We will now give you an example of a breakdown of communication.

Example (communication breakdown)

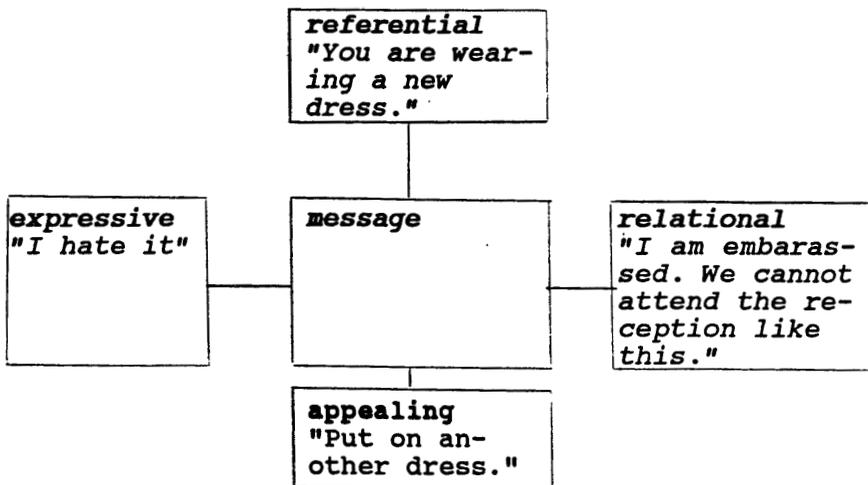
A man and a woman are about to go to an important reception. The man is ready to go and he is waiting downstairs. His wife has bought a new, rather daring dress. When she comes downstairs, he says: "What are you wearing?" And she says: "Well if you don't like it, then go without me."

Schematically the situation may look as follows:

Message sent



Message received



In this case the man stresses the referential aspect. He wants information. The woman, however, responds to the -misinterpreted- relational aspect. In this example there is a breakdown of communication, because the recipient stresses another aspect than the sender and interprets three aspects out of four in a different way from what the sender intended.

There is always the risk that someone interprets a message in a different way than the sender intended. But in some cases the risk is bigger than usual. If people who do not know each other, or who have different culture backgrounds communicate, the odds are that their message do not come across. This is because their frames of reference differ.

We are all familiar with this phenomenon. It happens, in a somewhat different context at school: if a student who has cut a class asks you to take notes, then your notes will not be the same as when you are asked to tell an outsider about the same subject. A fellow student already knows a lot. An outsider would need extra explanations.

The communicative contexts of the different (communication) situations are not the same. In order to make communication successful, you must take that communicative context into account.

The main characteristic of **successful** communication is that the recipient interprets the message in the same way as the sender. This does not make communication **effective**. The breakfast example can show what we mean. If the husband wants his wife to make tea, and she interprets it as such, but says to him: "Do it yourself", then we consider the communication successful (both sender and recipient interpret the message in the same way). But the message is not effective unless the woman indeed gets up and makes tea.

1.4. Referential Aspect

Everyone who has spent an evening "trying to read a difficult or uninteresting text knows that communication on the informative level is not always without problems. There are several reasons:

- * First of all the sender of an informative text must realise in advance what **needs** the recipient has. The **information** provided by the sender, must meet the recipient's needs.

For example: *after buying a video recorder you have a look at the instructions to find out how to make the apparatus work. A description of the*

various switches on the operating panel is very useful, but you will be less interested in a technical description of the different internal parts and materials that were used to build the video recorder. Therefore, the writer of the instructions must check what information is useful or interesting for the reader, and what is not.

In many cases senders are much more involved with their own purposes (they think about what they want to tell), than with the recipient's needs (they do not wonder what the reader wants to hear).

Not until purposes tally with needs, is communication successful. This means that in the case of a discrepancy the writer must adapt his purposes, as it is impossible to change the reader's needs.

Below you will find the main sender purposes and the matching recipient needs.

sender purposes

to inform

to comment

to instruct

to evoke emotions

to maintain a relation

recipient needs

to be informed

to receive opinion/confirmation

to receive instructions

to have emotions

to have a good relation

- * Secondly the information must be understandable. A computer programmer will be bored to read a book about the basics of computing, but a prospective buyer with little background knowledge cannot make head or tail of a professional periodical for computer programmers. The result is the same: the message is put aside and the information does not reach the recipient, in fact, communication has failed. The sender must ask himself in advance what **background knowledge** the reader has, and **at what level** the information must be given.
- * Finally the visual presentation of the text is essential. A messy, badly structured text that forces the recipient to look for various pieces of information himself, is rather discouraging. In such a case communication is certainly not efficient. The same holds good for information that is given in a circumlocutory style.

1.5. Expressive Aspect

A teacher examining a student asks him/her for information. But he does not ask these questions because he really wants to know the answers. He knows the answers before he asks the questions. In fact, he is not interested in the referential aspect, but in the expressive aspect of the student's answers: the student's knowledge and insight.

In many messages the expressive aspect is of secondary importance compared with the other aspects. In a scientific article or a business letter the sender tries to stay in the background as much as possible. Nevertheless, he presents himself, whether he is aware of it or not. If a letter looks messy or has an aggressive tone, the recipient can draw conclusions from it regarding the sender as a person. Sometimes a sender deliberately gives a distorted picture of himself. Everyone tends to stress his strong points and cover up his weak points. This is called *impression* and *facade behaviour* respectively.

Impression Techniques

In our society we consider it immodest if someone stresses or embroiders on his own qualities. It is more subtle to express one's own qualities implicitly. This can be done by so-called upper-class language (*I belong to the upper crust*) or jargon (*I am an expert in this field*). Another possibility is to state positive remarks about yourself as an aside: "*Do not attach too much value to intelligence quotients. Mine for example is 131, but I can be such a silly-billy!*"

Facade Techniques

Furthermore, we never give ourselves away. We cover up our weaknesses. Incompetence is often concealed by complex phrases. For example: "*One of the possible causes of X might also be the fact that Y might show a certain causative relation to X.*" All these words are just meant to say that X might be caused by Y.

Everyone takes these techniques into account. And in some situations they are very useful. For example if you do not use them during an oral exam or an interview for a job, you may be cutting your own throat.

When handling the expressive aspect of a message, the sender must wonder what impression he wants to make on the recipient, and think about how he can achieve this.

1.6. Relational Aspect

Strictly speaking the relational aspect is part of the expressive aspect. We deal with it separately because the recipient is directly involved. This makes him/her very sensitive to the relational aspect.

Below you will find an example of a text which shows that the writer has not handled the relational aspect successfully.

Example (bad handling of relational aspect)

In a “Practical Guide for Enterprising Women” the reader is addressed in the following way: ‘I will tell you a secret. What, you will ask. If you think that you will get a promotion because you are such a nice girl, or because they like the way you look, then you are a goose.’

An enterprising woman who does not feel belittled by these words and continues her reading will be very hard to find!

In the above example the patronizing attitude is quite clear. But it may be less obvious. If a teacher deals with a subject you are already familiar with, you will feel underestimated and may even stop listening. No matter how informative and friendly his tone and phrasing are, the choice of his subject reveals his misjudgment of (part of) his audience.

Now compare the handling of the relational aspects in the notes below:

Examples (handling of relational aspect)

Dear Sir,

Yours truly, who has been your employee for six (6) years and has been working, much to his own satisfaction, as a deputy with your company, kindly requests you for an interview. If it suits you, he would like to discuss the possibility of promotion within your company, in the event of a position being available. Yours truly is hoping that you will kindly take his request into consideration, and remains.

*Yours faithfully,
Your obedient servant,*

J.P.L. Quentin

Dear Sir,

I have been a deputy in the International Department for six years and there has never been any complaint about me. I think it is about time that I get a promotion.

Quentin

Dear Mr Dibbs,

As I have been a deputy in the International Department for six years now, I would appreciate an interview to discuss a possible promotion. Will you let me know what time is convenient for you?

Yours sincerely,

J.P.L. Quentin

The first note shows the recipient that the sender looks up to him. Even to such an extent, that the recipient may decide not to take the sender seriously. The second note reveals the opposite. It shows no respect at all. Both letters will probably fail to reach their goal, because the relational aspect has been badly handled.

We can distinguish three dimensions of the relational aspects:

pressure	the extent to which the sender guides the recipient, tries to make the recipient do what he/she wants;
distance	the degree of intimacy between sender and recipient;
appreciation	the extent to which the sender considers the recipient equal, worthy of respect and pleasant.

The relational aspect in Quentin's first note can be schematised by means of the following scales:

Example (relational aspect schematised in scales)

Pressure
exerting leaving
pressure free

(apparent from e.g. "If it suits you" and "in the event of a position being available")

Distance

formal..... | informal
(apparent from e.g. “kindly requests you for an interview”, “remains”)

Appreciation

looking up..... |... looking
to recipient down at
recipient
(apparent from e.g. yours truly, and “Your obedient Servant”)

You cannot say that a certain point at these scales is a guarantee for the best result. Every communication situation requires different levels of pressure, distance and appreciation.

As both sender and recipient are personally involved in this aspect and as it is seldom explicitly phrased, this aspect causes much breakdown of communication. These breakdowns are often expressed in the referential aspect. For example, if Mr A wants to show his superiority to Mr B, he may do so by torpedoing all Mr B’s proposals, even if he thinks they are good. It is very difficult to remedy this, because the real cause of the conflict, the bad relationship between the two, is usually not discussed.

In negotiations the relational aspect may get in the way of reaching an agreement. E.g. if one of the parties feels that he is not taken seriously by the other party, he may react in a very aggressive way. Again cultural differences may be an extra barrier. Unfortunately the relational aspect is still considered secondary in business communication. This is strange, as we all set great store by the way we are treated by other people.

1.7. Appealing Aspect

Not only in advertising, propaganda, explicit orders and requests is the appealing aspect stressed. Also in messages that are mainly taken to be expressive, the purpose can be an appeal. For example: *when someone says ‘ow’, or swears when something does not work, he may be making an implicit appeal, for example: comfort me, pay attention to me, help me.*

Especially in political and business communication the sender has certain interests when he speaks. The example below illustrates this.

Example (implicit personal interests)

*A contractor is doing a small job for a client who tells him in passing that he has big plans for reconstructions.
The client will probably reach his implicit goal: the contractor will meet his every wish.*

The example demonstrates that you must always be aware of implicit appeals and of the content of that appeal.

There are various reasons why people may dislike carrying out an appeal. Perhaps the recipient thinks he does not benefit from it. But there are other reasons as well, connected with the **relational aspect**. If the recipient interprets an appeal as: *'I know what is best for you'* or *'I have power over you'*, then he is very likely to feel humiliated or irritated. He will probably ignore the appeal.

The effectiveness of the message also depends on its **clarity**. The sender may know exactly what he wants, but if he does not **express** his appeal, the message may have an entirely different effect.

This does not mean that you should always make your appeal explicit. In advertising it is often more effective to stress the referential aspect, so that the consumer is less aware of the fact that he is being influenced. Another reason for stressing the referential aspect may be that the sender merely wants to confirm the recipient's good behaviour, e.g. *"It was so wise of you to buy Shell oil"* (instead of *"Shell oil contains ASD"*, or *"Buy Shell oil"*),

In fact the effectiveness of a text depends on the way all four aspects are handled. The appealing aspect can never be successfully handled if one of the other three shows flaws.

Here are some ways to make your appeal more effective:

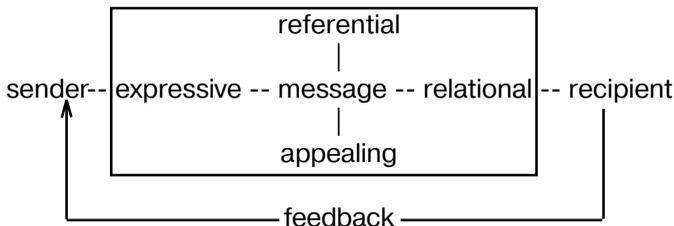
- * **Be as clear as possible.** As we stated above, it is not always wise to make the appeal explicit. But your purpose must be clear. If you put the appeal at the beginning of your text, it can do no harm to repeat it at the end.
- * **Pay a lot of attention to the relational aspect.** Of course it depends on the situation how you can do this. Sometimes it is necessary to exert a lot of pressure; at other moments this could have a negative effect. In

general we advise you not to press the recipient to much. Respect his feelings.

- * **Stress the positive effects** for the recipient if he carries out the appeal, instead of stressing your own advantages. “All new members, get three pounds deduction” works much better than “The more new members, the higher our profit”.
- * **Appeal to generally accepted values and standards.** Many people are sensitive to them.
- * **Give the impression that the recipient will belong to an appreciated group** if he carries out the appeal.
- * **Mention the negative consequences for the recipient** if he does not carry out the appeal. It is usually not wise to start with this. The positive approach is best, unless you expect the recipient to have a negative attitude towards the appeal, or if he continues rejecting it.

1.8. Feedback

We have seen that in communication there are many possibilities for misunderstanding. The sender can judge from the recipient’s response whether there has been a misunderstanding. This **part of the response from which the sender can infer how his message has been received is called feedback.** It fits into the communication model in the following way:



(The moment the recipient gives feedback, he of course becomes a sender himself, and the sender becomes the recipient.)

On the basis of feedback the sender may restore possible misunderstanding. But it is often difficult -as in the case of any message- to interpret feedback, especially because it is usually indirect. That is to say the recipient does not say how he interpreted the message. It may be inferred from his own words, his tone of voice or behaviour. Non-verbal signals may give some indication: a questioning glance, a frown, a distracted attitude. Questions about the content of the sender’s message is a sign for the sender

that he has not handled the referential aspect properly. If the recipient does not do what the sender wants him to, e.g. get up and open a window, then the sender knows that his message has failed regarding the appealing aspect.

As it is in itself a message, feedback has four aspects. Therefore it may cause a new breakdown of communication. For example, *when a student is staring at the ceiling in class, the teacher may interpret this as a sign of disinterest, and make a cynical remark about the student's attitude. Whereas staring at the ceiling may have been a sign of deep concentration.*

Feedback is very important to make communication successful, but it can easily turn into impression behaviour (*See how good I am at spotting your mistakes*) and facade behaviour (*justifying one's own mistakes*).

The possibilities for feedback vary:

- * In a face-to-face conversation there are many possibilities for feedback. Both verbal and non-verbal communication are possible. The recipient can give feedback immediately, and the sender can respond to it at once.
- * In a telephone conversation it is also possible to react immediately, but the sender cannot see the non-verbal signals. This may be a cause of new breakdowns of communication. If you hear an odd noise, it may sometimes be difficult to judge whether the other person is screaming with laughter or crying his eyes out.
- * Written communication offers little opportunity for feedback, and is therefore the most difficult form of communication. The sender must prevent possible misunderstanding. Many writers of texts that will get no or hardly any response, e.g. (business) journalists, must be very good at placing themselves in the reader's shoes and realising what might be a cause of miscommunication.

Finally, knowledge of communication theory is essential to increase your understanding of communication problems. But you can acquire the ability to communicate only by **putting it into practice**.

2. VISUAL TECHNIQUES

2.1. Guidelines for Visual Aids

Many informative techniques are visual. It would be difficult to overemphasise the value of using visual aids. Using many senses to support ideas can increase clarity, amplify and emphasise ideas, and improve recall.

This is especially true with data and statistics, but it is not limited to use of figures.

Whenever you want listeners to remember something, use as many senses as possible for them to receive it. If you both say and show something, it is nearly six times more likely to be understood and remembered than if you only say it. According to Robert Craig, chief of the United States Public Health Service Audio Visual Facility, when people are taught with both visual and oral tools, they have better recall (both immediate and delayed) than when oral tools alone are used. In his research, when people were merely told, immediate recall was 70 percent, recall three days later was 10 percent. When people were taught with both visual and oral means, immediate recall was 85 percent, three days later it was still 65 percent.¹

Visual aids include *diagrams* that explain, *graphs* or *charts* that repeat data, *cartoons* or *models*, *pictures* that clarify or emphasize, *flip charts* or *demonstrations* that reveal outlines or processes. Films, slides, overhead projectors, and chalkboards can present materials visually. All can reinforce what you say verbally. Or you may actually bring in objects. One of the most vivid speeches we ever heard was made by a young woman who brought her pet alligator to class.

People, including the speaker, can also be visual aids. Speakers' actions clarify ideas, amplify them, or prove points. In criminal trials, a reenactment often shows a jury how a crime was committed. Talking about poverty-stricken children is much more effective if pictures of them are also shown. Visual reinforcement of verbal messages is important to all communicators, including public speakers.

Visual aids are helpful. But if not used effectively, they can detract from what you say. The following guidelines can help.

VISUALS ARE ONLY AIDS Remember the visual is an aid, it should not be the entire speech. Even when you have been invited to the local school to talk about your trip to South America, the slides you bring are aids. They help you tell about the people you met and places you learned about. Visuals should complement, supplement, clarify. They make your words easier to understand, believe, or remember. Don't let them substitute for or replace the speaking part of the speech.

VISUAL AIDS SHOULD BE APPROPRIATE Anything you use should be relevant and fitting. Gimmicks not related to the ideas you're talking about can detract. Make sure your models, displays, or demonstrations don't take listeners' attention away from what you want them to hear or think about. Be sure the visuals fit the situation, the speech, and the audience.

¹ Speech by Craig quoted in the Kansas City Times, April 19, 1967.

A highway patrol officer who comes to a school to talk about driving safety might use pictures of accidents and accident victims. But full-colour pictures taken at the scene of an accident might be so gruesome that many listeners won't look at them. How much will the visual add? Better to show the wrecked car after victims are removed, along with shots of hospitalized and bandaged victims — or coffins. These pictures will be looked at and probably remembered.

VISUAL AIDS SHOULD BE CLEAR Simplicity is usually required. Leave out anything that is not absolutely necessary. Take out all irrelevant details. Avoid clutter: design charts, diagrams, and graphs to emphasise the important points. Use contrast in colour, size, or arrangement of figures to highlight major ideas.

Visual aids should be visible! Make them large enough to be seen. Put them where the whole audience can see them. If you are using objects or pictures so small the audience cannot see them from where you are, move closer to the listeners or magnify them.

VISUAL AIDS SHOULD NOT INTERFERE When you use visuals, be sure they do not interfere with the speech. *Visual aids should focus on the message and not on the visual or the speaker.* For example, suppose you want your audience to see some pictures or objects that are too small to display for all to see at once. Don't pass them around while you talk; wait until the speech is over. Passing things around is distracting in itself. Even worse, audience members will not be listening while they are looking at the objects or pictures.

How you use visuals is also important. When a visual is displayed, the speaker should talk to the audience, not to the visual. How often have you seen a speaker talking to the chalkboard instead of the audience? Too often, probably. Similarly, don't place yourself between your audience and the visual. If some members of the audience can't see the visual, it has little value for them. Usually flip charts are superior to chalkboards in this respect. You can easily stand beside a chart but almost always must stand in front of a chalkboard. Having material on the chalkboard before listeners arrive does help. Still, you will often turn your back on at least some members of the audience as you discuss what is on the board. For this time, you lose eye contact. Overhead projectors are superior to a chalkboard for the same reasons.

Charts or diagrams should not be put up until you use them. Then cover them up or put them down when you're through. If you leave them in front of listeners during the speech, especially if you have used statistics, figures, or a complex diagram, listeners' attention may drift back to the visual when you are talking about something else. In contrast, if your visual consists

of a key word listing of main points, it will probably reinforce your ideas to keep it in front of listeners. Using a flip chart, chalkboard, or overhead projector is good in this situation. They let you add one point at a time to help audience members focus on the ideas as you talk about them.

VISUAL SHOULD BE PREPARED AHEAD OF TIME If you plan to use a chalkboard rather than a prepared graph or chart, be aware of how long it will take to write or draw what you want on the board. Will it take so long that your audience will get bored while you write? Remember, you can talk more rapidly than you can write, and they can listen more rapidly than you can talk. So writing on a chalkboard has value only in limited cases. Single words or line drawings can be put on a board while you talk. A chalkboard can be used to show how words are spelled or to help reinforce important words. You can use simple drawings to show ideas as they emerge. But prepare more complicated visuals in advance. They will be neater, more likely to accomplish your purpose, and avoid the pitfalls discussed before.

Use a flip chart or overhead projector when possible. When you use a flip chart, you have all the advantages of chalkboards and none of the disadvantages. You can show development of ideas by having them prewritten on various pages of a flip chart. By turning pages as each new element is added, you let the idea emerge just as it would on a chalkboard. Moreover, you have the advantages of saving time, words written neatly instead of hastily, and easier eye contact with listeners.

In addition, when your visual is prepared in advance, you can test its clarity. You can show it to friends (or strangers) and have them give you feedback. You can find out if it communicates the ideas and effects you want.

The overhead projector is especially valuable. It allows you to use printed visuals and to face your audience while you talk about the visual. The overhead projector has many other advantages. You can be assured the visual can be large enough for all listeners to see. The same transparency, small enough to carry in a brief case, can be used in a ballroom with audiences of hundreds or a conference room with only five or six listeners. If you are fortunate in your class situation, you'll have access to both transparency and opaque projectors. Ask your instructor for assistance in learning how to operate these two kinds of equipment.

2.2. Use Action and Appearance

Dress Appropriately Recall how important personal appearance is in interpersonal perception. In your daily life it might not matter too much how you dress, but in public speaking, appearance makes a big difference. If you are speaking to people who care how you look, dress and groom yourself accordingly. You don't necessarily have to conform to the dress of your

audience, but you should not offend them. If you are speaking, for instance, to a group known to be conservative and your hair is long, comb it neatly. You don't have to dress as the Lions do if you are speaking to a local Lions Club, but ragged blue jeans or cut-offs aren't likely to be appropriate.

The way you dress and look is important to credibility. Appearance tells listeners things about you, how you feel about them and the occasion. You show respect or disrespect for them by your appearance. Listeners draw conclusions about your personality and authority from the way you look.

Have Good Posture One of the biggest problems for most public speakers, both beginning and experienced, is posture. This is because most of us have bad personal habits, and the speaking situation requires us to stand in front of an audience. This focuses on those bad habits at a time when we are likely to be more nervous than usual. It seems trite to give advice about improving posture, but many speakers may need to work on changing their habits. Work on how you stand at all times, not just when speaking. Certainly the solution is not to hide behind a large podium. Too many speaking situations will not provide that crutch. Solve the problem; don't try to hide it.

Speakers should stand straight, with weight on both feet. Most of us have legs of slightly different lengths, so standing with feet side by side is uncomfortable. If we do that without adopting the soldier's "parade rest" posture, we look and feel uncomfortable. The solution is to place one foot slightly in front of the other and balance the weight on the balls rather than the heels of the feet.

Few things give a total impression that is more negative than poor posture, including constantly shifting weight from one hip to another in a slouch. Since a speaker's goal is to appear poised, confident, and in control, poor posture is a serious nonverbal contradiction.

Use Your Hands Effectively A sizable problem for beginning speakers is what to do with their hands. Our response goes back to that guiding principle: Do what is natural for you in animated conversation. Think back to the functions of nonverbal communication. Then, watch people in any conversation. You will notice that when they are comfortable and involved in a conversation, they gesture in ways that reinforce their ideas and occasionally substitute gestures for words and to regulate interactions. The effective public speaker does the same.

Of course, again the problem is transferring the comfort and animation of conversation into the public speaking situation. As a result, most of the prescriptions given about effective use of hands in public speaking wind up being "don'ts." They are notations of mannerisms to avoid because they are distracting. They are things you don't do in conversation or things you do do

when nervous about or bored with that conversation. Since speakers seldom want to convey either impression to an audience, these are mannerisms a speaker wants to avoid.

As we list these things, you won't find any surprises, you've seen them all many times. The key is to remember them and work to avoid them while you speak. It will take practice and the suggestions of your teacher and classmates to indicate which are the biggest problems for you and therefore to point out which you need to work on most.

1. Don't grasp the podium as if it were about to run away.
2. Don't shove both hands in trouser/skirt pockets so they can't possibly get out to gesture. One hand in a pocket will often free the other one to gesture normally, but don't keep the hand in the pocket all the time while you speak. Remember: Variety of action as well as content is a key to maintaining listeners' attention.
3. Don't put even one hand in a pocket if that pocket contains keys and coins. To put this another way, take coins and keys out of the pocket in which you expect to put your hand during the speech.
4. Don't clasp hands behind you or in front of you. Generally it's wise to keep the hands separated while you speak, though occasionally the "steeping" gesture might be appropriate.
5. Do hold note cards in one hand so you can comfortably move away from the podium but don't fidget with or fold the cards. In short, keep your hands apart.

As we noted at the beginning of this section, if you are sincere, well-prepared, and natural, you can probably speak effectively even with the bad habits just outlined or any of a number of others we haven't mentioned. But as long as your goal is to do the best speaking you can, these are important "do's" and "don'ts."

Use the Podium Effectively Earlier we said, don't try to hide poor posture behind a podium and don't clasp it with your hands as if it were about to escape. In many speaking situations, you are more effective if you leave the podium. That may allow you to move closer to a small audience seated in the back of a large auditorium or help in a situation where the podium elevates you above and far away from listeners. Ignoring the podium is often the very best way to use it effectively.

Sometimes you must use a podium because you have a microphone. At other times you use it for other good reasons. For example, if you are using a flip chart to present information visually, you may not have an easel for the chart. Then the podium can serve as the easel and provide a way for the

pages to be turned one at a time. In these situations, you must learn to use the podium well.

Probably the worst habit speakers have in using a podium is similar to the “gripping it for support” problem. Many speakers don’t grip the podium, but they do let their hands hold on to it, and as a result their hand gestures are restricted. Haven’t you occasionally seen a person whose hands were resting on the podium and the resulting gesture of emphasis was to wave a finger or two? The easiest solution to this problem is to get away from the podium. Don’t use it at all; don’t let it become a crutch as you practice speaking. If you are going to speak where a microphone will be used, you need to practice using the podium. As you practice, don’t allow yourself to hold on to the podium. Learn to keep your hands off it, or at best rest them lightly on it; then when your body wants to gesture, your hands will be free to follow the impulse.

2.3. Use Your Face and Eyes

Maintain Eye Contact Perhaps the single most important behavior for a speaker is to maintain good eye contact with listeners. That means to make eye contact with individual members of the audience, not just to look out in the direction of the audience.

You know from experience the many negative impressions formed if a person does not look at you while talking to you. Similarly, you know the positive impressions received when you are in a classroom, for example, and the teacher looks directly at you a number of times during the class. You feel involved, personally important, you can sense the confidence of the person speaking, you can recognise the speaker’s feelings about the subject of the discussion. We have mentioned the other direct benefit of eye contact before: Without audience feedback, you won’t know if any of your contingency plans are necessary to accomplish your goal.

Smile In most situations, you want to establish a friendly sense of interaction with the listeners. A smile will help you do that. Even when discussing the most serious topics, you usually want to have the audience like you, and perceive you as a sociable person. Keeping a “friendly face,” best done by talking directly to listeners and smiling, is an important nonverbal cue that helps you achieve that goal.

At times, smiling is inappropriate, especially if it isn’t sincere. At other times, even a sincere smile may convey the wrong impression about the speaker. Smiling can be a submissive, approval-seeking behavior displayed by a person of low power. Rarely does a speaker want to make such an impression. Smiles, like all behaviours, should be appropriate to the situation and to the speaker’s goals.

2.4. Coping with Speech Anxiety

The final thing about speaking that most of us have to deal with is nervousness. Nervousness about speaking is called speech anxiety, though it is often mislabeled stage fright. Speech anxiety is a very common feeling. Let's examine how a speaker can deal with it.

2.5. Sources of Anxiety

If you know why you get nervous before speaking, it is easier to deal with the anxiety. Knowing its cause is the first step in coping. It will help you understand the phenomenon of speech anxiety.

Anxiety is a natural response to any risk situation, and for most of us, a speech is a risk situation. When we give a speech, we risk not doing as well as we want. If people aren't anxious before a speech, most likely they don't care about the outcome or they don't understand the situation. Public speakers, of course, should care about the outcome. So being anxious before a speech is natural and normal. Indeed, not to be nervous might be a problem!

But it is important not to be scared to death. Nervousness, properly used, can help speakers do a better job. They can use the anxiety to get "up" for the situation. The following ideas can help you use speech anxiety to your advantage.

2.6. Preparation

Being thoroughly prepared is the best way to cope with speech anxiety. Preparing well can develop self-confidence, which in turn reduces anxiety. You won't approach the speech afraid of not being ready. Remember, self-confidence is neither the absence of fear nor the elimination of anxiety. Self-confidence is being sure you can cope with whatever situation is causing the fear or anxiety. Knowing that you are ready, you can say to yourself, "I'm sure I can cope". Good preparation is the best way to control speech anxiety.

Practice Part of preparation is practice. Practicing will help you know you are prepared. Of course, some ways to practice may actually reduce your effectiveness. The following ideas can make your practice useful.

DO NOT WRITE THE SPEECH Reading a written speech is called giving a manuscript speech. This is probably the most difficult type of public speaking. To speak well from a manuscript requires great skill. Beginning students shouldn't try it.

Perhaps a president must read a written speech—a wrong word can cause an international crisis. Fortunately, students needn't worry that their words might cause the dollar to weaken.

DON'T MEMORISE If you haven't written a speech, you probably can't memorise it—and you shouldn't do either. Memorisation creates barriers between speaker and audience. It causes speakers to worry more about words than about listeners and ideas. It creates more anxiety than extemporaneous speaking. Fear of forgetting is stronger for most of us than fear of speaking.

DO PRACTICE VARIOUS PHRASINGS As you practice, try to express your thoughts in different ways. No one way to express an idea is greatly superior to any other. So practice saying your ideas in several different ways. Then, when you give the speech, you'll be able to choose from several different expressions. Having these options can itself help give you confidence. You won't worry so about forgetting if you have several choices. During the speech, if feedback shows someone doesn't understand what you're saying, you may need to restate. If you said the same ideas several different ways in practice, you'll be prepared to restate when it's necessary.

2.7. Using Nervous Energy

One way to control speech anxiety is to use up the energy it creates. Nervousness is actually a physical reaction, and it causes several others. Whenever we face a challenge, our body generates the energy to help cope with it. This energy needs to be used. Although most of us can't run around the block before we give a speech, we can do some other things!

Isometrics One alternative is to do some simple isometric exercises just before speaking. Clench the fists, hold them tight a few seconds, and then relax. Repeat this two or three times. Or push down on the arms of a chair for several seconds, then relax. Repeat this or other simple isometrics two or three times right before it's time to speak. The principle is that when we tighten and hold muscles tense a little while, we use energy. The tighten and relax cycle also helps relax other muscles in the body.

Actions during Introduction Doing something during the introduction that requires you to move around also will use up excess energy. Use a visual aid, show some chart. Carry out some specific actions; perhaps demonstrate something. Physical movement uses energy.

Perhaps the most important behaviour comes when you reach the speaker's stand. Pause, look directly at the listeners, take a deep breath, and

smile. Do that before saying a word. Remember good public speaking is an enlarged conversation. It needs a friendly relationship between you and your listeners. The best way to get that is to smile at them. The number of people who will smile back will probably surprise you. A friendly smile is the best way to relax and start your speech off right.

In cases of extreme nervousness, it may be helpful to acknowledge the tension. Just mentioning it helps establish rapport with listeners. After all, most listeners have shared your feelings. They can empathise with you, and that empathy will show in their reactions. Furthermore, in acknowledging your reactions, you perform a kind of catharsis. You get them out of your system.

We recall a speaker who used this technique. After being introduced, he said: "I don't know what I'm doing here. I agreed to be a part of this program because I believed I had several ideas that should be shared. Now that I'm here, I'll be darned if I can remember what they were." We laughed with him, we all empathised; and he relaxed and gave a fine speech.

3. ARGUMENTATION

3.1. Introduction

Perhaps argumentation is not a subject you had expected to be taught in this school. Nevertheless, it is a very important one. Each of you will find yourself in situations in which some knowledge of argumentation is essential.

- * Both at school and later when you have a job, you will be given assignments to read and write texts, deliver presentations, or take part in debates in which you will **try to convince others** that your point of view is correct, or in which you will have to **criticise another person's argumentation**. Many students find this very difficult. That is why we will teach you how to set up or criticise an argumentation. To achieve this, we will use an indirect method: we will **show** you how argumentations work. If you see how they work, you will also be able to set up an argumentation yourself.

- * Your knowledge of argumentation techniques will also help you to **solve disputes**. There are many different types of disputes. Of course there is a dispute when two people exchange opposite opinions. But even when one person makes a statement, and another person expresses doubt whether the statement is true, we consider this to be a dispute. So, a dispute is a difference of opinion, a disagreement in the broadest sense of the word.

Basically there are two ways to end disputes:
settlement
solution

Settling a dispute has always been a very popular way to end a dispute, and it is still popular in many parts of the world. There are various ways to settle a dispute: war, violence, blackmail, bribery, letting fate decide, or by voting. Another common way is to take the matter to court.

Solving a dispute means that both parties try to convince each other that they are right. They do so by giving **arguments** supporting their opinions. In many companies management does not take decisions by taking a vote, but by exchanging opinions and arguments until **consensus** is reached. After all, decisions must often be carried out by everyone involved.

Although in many democracies argumentation is considered the best way to end disputes, this does not mean that in these countries disputes are always solved in a rational way. If the interests at stake get too big, many people cannot resist resorting to other means.

The decision to end a dispute by means of debating, for that matter, has certain consequences. As soon as you give arguments for your opinion or proposal, you allow it to be disputed. And that implies that you must be prepared to change your mind.

- * If you know how to **analyse** an argumentation, you will be able to read or listen to another person's argumentation and criticise it in systematic way. Everyone takes decisions partly on the basis of other people's argumentations, more or less instinctively.
- * Later, when you have a job, intuition will not do. You will be expected to **account for your decisions**. Therefore, you will have to be able to analyse other people's arguments. After all, you will usually not know so much about a subject that you can take a decision without reading texts about it written by other people. These texts will present arguments that you will have to analyse, and criticise carefully.

By the way, 'to criticise' is a neutral word, implying both positive and negative criticism. In a critique you give an opinion about other people's work, and you defend your own opinion.

As we said before, we will mainly deal with **analysing** texts written by others, because we think that this will also enable you to set up good argumentations yourself.

Argumentations on Policy

We restrict ourselves to arguing on policies, because the decisions that you will have to take in your jobs will often be policy decisions. Furthermore, you will have to write many policy-making texts yourself, e.g. your thesis. You will have to talk about policies as well: persuasive presentations, debates, etc. In business meetings you will have to respond to policy proposals by other people. Another reason is that all policy proposals in texts/debates/presentations have more or less fixed structures. This makes it easier to analyse them.

3.2. Recognising Argumentation

It is not always easy to recognise argumentation. Statements that resemble argumentations cannot always be regarded as such. And once you have established that there is argumentation, it is sometimes difficult to recognise the different arguments. We will show you how you can determine whether a piece of text is an example of argumentation or not. But first, we will explain some important notions that we must define before we can deal with about argumentation.

3.3. Basic Notions

So far we have used a number of concepts, such as to argue, persuade, dispute; an argument, argumentation and dispute without giving a definition. In everyday use there is not much difference, but if you want to discuss this subject you must use the correct terminology. In this section we will now define some basic notions.

One of these basic notions is **to argue**. This means that someone tries to prove that a statement is correct by means of one more other statements (arguments).

To make this concept clearer, we will now give you a definition of an **argumentation**:

An argumentation is a combination of statements of which one (the opinion or conclusion) is supported by one or more other statements.

Typical of argumentation is that the statements show a support relation. If I say “The weather is going to be fine today”, then this is just an observation, for example when looking out of the window. So, it is not an example of argumentation. But this observation may be used as an opinion or argument, depending on its relation with other statements:

The weather is going to be fine today, (opinion)
the swallows are flying high up in the air. (argument)

Let's go to the beach, (opinion)
the weather is going to be fine today. (argument)

The word **statement** in the above definition is in itself a neutral word. A statement can be used as an opinion or an argument; it may even not be argumentation at all.

An opinion or conclusion is not neutral. It has a subjective element. We define it as follows:

*An **opinion** or **conclusion** is a view of reality that is not shared by everyone, in other words a statement that is or may be disputed.*

The above implies that by arguing (orally or in writing) one admits the following:

- * There is a disagreement (a dispute), or a disagreement may occur.
- * The reader/listener is regarded as a person who can be convinced by means of arguments. In other words argumentation is thought to be of use.

As we told you in the introduction a dispute is the same as a disagreement, a disagreement about a statement (an opinion). There are two types of disputes:

- * One person's statement is doubted by another person, and the first person gives one or more arguments to support his opinion. Here is an example:

A: I think it is beginning to get more difficult for HEAO graduates to get a job.

B: Why?

A: *Well, in the past few years there has been an explosion of HEAO graduates.*

- * The second person does more than cast doubt on the first person's statement. He sets his own opinion against his opponent's. This makes the situation more complicated. They both have to play double roles: they dispute each other's opinion and give arguments to support their own. An example will make the situation clear:

A: I think it is beginning to get more difficult for HEAO graduates to get a job.

B: In my opinion, it is getting easier.

A: Where did you get that idea from?

B: *Well, the demand for HEAO graduates is increasing because everyone knows by now what to expect from a HEAO graduate.*

To add to the confusion, the notion **argumentation** is also used for a combination of several argumentations, together forming a (oral or written) text of some length. Such an argumentation consists of one main opinion or conclusion which is supported by the rest of the text. In this unit we will use the words **argumentative text** to indicate an argumentation of some length.

Now we will explain the notion "**to convince**". The purpose of argumentation is to convince the listener/reader **by means of arguments** that a certain opinion is correct. The way in which this aim is achieved is confined to rules.

In everyday language 'to convince' is also used when **other methods than arguing** are used. In this broader sense 'to convince' means: to make someone adopt a certain view. In that case, the goal is more important than the means. Here are some of the methods that may be used:

- * Appealing to the readers'/listeners' needs, emotions or wishes. This is what happens in advertising. The audience's rational capacities are not involved.
- * Exerting pressure. Some parents use pressure in an attempt to make their children share their own opinions.
- * Making use of one's authority in certain matters. The readers'/listeners are convinced because it is an expert who is saying something.

As you can see, there are many ways of convincing, ranging from rational methods (argumentation) to attempts that can hardly be considered

reasonable. It is perhaps better to call the latter persuasion, but the dividing line is hard to define.

By the way, we do not consider the above methods objectionable, and some of them, e.g. accepting the speaker's authority, are quite common in argumentation. Pressure is a common device in international politics and diplomacy. Obviously they are considered to be 'reasonable'.

In this unit we will also deal with forms of argumentation that are not, or not so reasonable: the so-called fallacies, or sophisms.

3.4. Forms

In the previous section we dealt with all the parts that make up an argumentation. Now we will have a look at the structure of argumentation, and discuss three forms of argumentation. As we explained in the previous section argumentation consists of two parts: an opinion (or conclusion) and one or more arguments supporting the opinion. The three forms of argumentation that we will now have a look at differ in their combinations of opinion and argument (s).

3.4.1. Simple Argumentation

The simplest form of argumentation, the basic form, consists of **two statements: an opinion supported by an argument** (the order may be reversed).

Example (simple argumentation)

John will probably drop out of the course, (opinion)
he hasn't done a thing. (argument)

Schematically it looks as follows:

1. (opinion)



1.1. (argument)

As we stated above, the order may be reversed:

Example (simple argumentation, reversed order)

John hasn't done a thing, (argument)
he'll probably drop out of the course. (opinion)

So far we have said that a simple argumentation consists of **two** statements. This does not mean that it is necessarily a combination of two sentences. The opinion or argument may consist of **a combination of sentences**.

Example (simple argumentation, with an argument consisting of two sentences)

Surely Becker must be able to beat Agassi. (opinion)
Agassi was defeated in the semi-finals by Chang last Sunday. And everyone remembers that only three weeks ago, Becker heated Chang hollow. (argument)

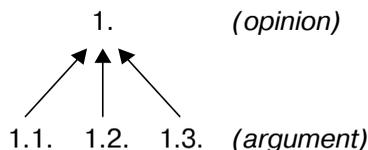
3.4.2. Multiple Argumentation

A multiple argumentation is a combination of two or more simple argumentations: **one opinion is supported by two or more arguments**. It makes the position of the person who uses them more convincing, because he has more strings to his bow.

Example (multiple argumentation)

John will probably drop out of the course, (opinion)
he hasn't done a thing, (argument)
his first-semester marks were insufficient, (argument)
and he has cut at least half of the classes. (argument)

Schematically:



But there is danger in excess. If a speaker/writer gives three or more arguments — without having been asked to give so many — the listener/reader generally gets the impression that there is something fishy about it.

“Qui prouve trop, ne prouve rien” (he who proves too much, proves nothing at all), the proverb says.

3.4.3 Subordinate Argumentation

Of course an argument can in its turn be supported by another argument. The writer/speaker will do so when he thinks that his opponent may dispute his first argument. An argument supporting another argument is called a subordinate argument (or: subargument). In an argumentative text subordination is indispensable: it is the only way to write an argumentative text. In a discussion subordination usually occurs when someone disputes an argument mentioned by someone else. We will give you an example of both.

Examples (subordinate argumentation)

A

I always buy branded clothes. (1.) After all, you get value for money (1.), because branded clothes keep their shape longer than an obscure brand (1.1.1). For example, look at this Portobello sweater of mine: I have had it for four years and it is still beautiful. Another sweater that had been worn as often as this would have been worn out by now (1.1.1.1).

B

A: It's better to buy branded clothes than an obscure brand.

B: Why? Branded clothes are much more expensive, aren't they?

A: Yes, but you do get value for money (1.1): branded clothes keep their shape longer (1.1.1).

B: Where did you get that idea from?

A: Well, look at this Portobello sweater of mine: I have had it for four years and it is still beautiful. Another sweater that had been worn as often as this would have been worn out by now (1.1.1.1).

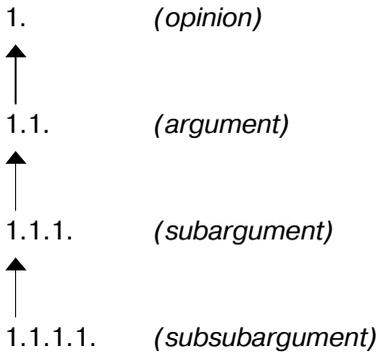
The numbers used in the above example are a notation system that is frequently used when analysing argumentation. It is called the **decimal notation system**:

1. = opinion

1.1. = first argument (1.2 = second argument, etc.)

1.1.1 = first subargument (1.1.2 = second subargument, etc.)

Schematically (this is called the **graphic notation system**) both argumentations look the same:



The above diagram makes clear that an argument that is supported by a subargument in fact has two functions; 1.1. is an argument to 1., but is in itself an opinion supported by 1.1.1. So, in subordinate argumentation a statement can be both argument and opinion.

3.5. Analysis

So far we have explained some important aspects of argumentation, and shown you the various forms of argumentation. Knowledge of the preceding is essential to be able to analyse argumentations. But how do we know what part of an argumentation is the argument, and what part is the opinion? This is not always easy. In this section we will discuss methods to analyse argumentation.

3.5.1. For/so Test

Analysing an argumentation in a text boils down to determining what support relations exist between the statements. Usually the text contains few signals of these relations. This does not bother the reader, but it may make an analysis rather difficult. How can you analyse an argumentation if the text does not have any signals?

One way to determine whether a statement is an argument or an opinion is by carrying out the **for/so test**. You should be able to place **for** or **so** between the two parts of an argumentation. For example:

*I quit,
I have done enough for one day.*

It is possible to put the word **for** between the first and second sentence. This means that the first sentence is *the opinion*, and the second *the argument*. Of course the order may be reversed:

I have done enough for one day, I quit.

Now the word **so** may be inserted between the two sentences. This means that the first sentence is *the argument*, and the second is *the opinion*. In fact, the **for/so test** consists of two tests. You either apply the **for test** or the **so test**. But you may also use both: if you are not sure that your first analysis is correct, you may do the second test as well. Of course you must reverse the order of the sentences first.

Schematically the **for/so test** looks like this:

opinion, for argument
argument, so opinion

Occasionally both **for** and **so** are possible. In that case the surrounding text must make clear which of the two is required. For example:

Most dog owners are highhanded people: they enjoy giving orders.

3.5.2. Signals

The **for/so test** is suitable when the text has no signals of the relation between its statements. Before applying the **for/so test** you should check whether such signals are present. They may be words, word groups or parts of the sentence.

We will discuss the following signals:

A signals of opinions

B signals of arguments

C signals of multiple or subordinate argumentation

At the end of this section we will present a list of all signals discussed.

A Signals of opinions

There are several possibilities; first of all phrases that refer to a large piece of text (macro signals):

I will first outline the facts and then draw a conclusion
My opinion on this matter is...

This leads to the following conclusion...
These arguments justify the conclusion that, ...

The following phrases refer to shorter pieces of text, or sentences (micro signals).

It follows that...

We may conclude from this that...

All this shows/proves/goes to show that...

That is why...

So, ...

Another way to announce an opinion is by contrast:

Contrary to what A has said...

B will have to admit that...

Although opinions differ on this matter, ... is really the case.

The following words/expressions are also often used to indicate an opinion:

I think, according to me, in my opinion/view, I hold the opinion that..., it is advisable that..., the verbs must, should, ought to;

etc., etc.

For example:

The burden of taxation is, according to us, much too high at the moment: fraud and tax evasion are increasing steadily.

Taxes must go down. The current burden of taxation paves the way to fraud and tax evasion.

Punctuation marks may also be used to indicate argumentation, especially *the colon*.

For example:

The red light is burning: he is probably developing his photos.

The colon in itself does not announce an opinion, it may also introduce an argument. You must carry out the for/so test to analyse the argumentation.

The above signals all announce an opinion, **but they do not necessarily imply argumentation!** It is possible to voice an opinion, **without supporting it, i.e. without giving arguments.** In that case there is no argumentation.

There is another matter you must take into account. Some of the above expressions may also be used in an argument. Of course, in that case the statement is in itself challengeable, but the writer/speaker may **use** it as an argument. For example:

It is high time that Roald Dahl received the Pulitzer Prize (opinion).

In my opinion he is one of our major literary writers (argument).

B Signals of arguments

There are words/phrases announcing arguments as well, some of them again referring to bigger pieces of text (macro signals):

I have three arguments for this, the first of which...

This conclusion is based on four arguments. I will give two arguments for the proposition that... I have demonstrated in succession...

Examples of signals used for shorter pieces of text, or sentences (micro signals) are:

Some arguments for this are...

This follows from...

This conclusion is justified by...

For

Because

As

After all

Again punctuation marks may serve as signals of an argumentative relation. For example:

Probably I forgot to fill up with oil: the red light is burning.

In many cases the signals occur **between** the opinion and the argument, but not always. We will give you some examples:

*You will get a fine (opinion), **because** you were speeding (argument).*

***As** John is coming (argument), the party will be fun (opinion).*

***Considering the fact** that the exams take such a long time (argument), attention is bound to wane (opinion).*

C Signals announcing multiple or subordinate argumentation

Some signals do not announce an argument or an opinion, but indicate a relation between two or more arguments.

The following micro signals are used to announce two or more arguments (multiple argumentation):

Besides

Also

Furthermore

Apart from that

All the more since/because...

All the more reason for/to...

Another

What is even more important...

Subordinate argumentation is indicated by the same signals as the ones announcing arguments.

All the signals mentioned above are useful when you analyse argumentation, but you must not look for them blindly. Remember that signals also occur in texts that are not argumentative. You must apply the for/so test as well.

On the following page you will find all the signals we have discussed so far.

	MACRO SIGNALS	MICRO SIGNALS
OPINION	I will first outline the facts, and then draw a conclusion. This leads to the following conclusion ... These arguments justify the conclusion that ...	It follows that ... We may conclude from this that ... All this shows/proves/goes to show that ... That is why ... So, ... Contrary to what A has said ... B will have to admit that ... Although opinions differ on this matter, ... is really the case. I think ... I am convinced that ... According to me ... In my opinion/view ... I hold the opinion that It is advisable that ... “must”, “should”, “ought to” colon

	MACRO SIGNALS	MICRO SIGNALS
ARGUMENT	I have three arguments for this, the first of which is... This conclusion is based on four arguments. I will give two arguments for the proposition that... I have demonstrated in succession...	Some arguments for this are ... This follows from ... This conclusion is justified by ... For ... Because ... As ... After all ... colon
MULTIPLE ARGUMENTATION		Besides ... /Furthermore ... Also ... Apart from that ... All the more since/ because ... All the more reason for/ to ... Another what is even more important...
SUB-ORDINATE ARGUMENTATION		cf. signals of arguments

3.5.3. Complications

So far we have not dealt with the complications that may occur in argumentation. In the heat of the argument the different parts of the argumentation are sometimes given another shape. Nevertheless, you must be able to recognise them. That is why in this subsection we will show you somewhat more complex forms of argumentation.

Variants of the Basic Form

The basic form may appear recognisable enough at first sight, but in reality you will come across some variants that may be confusing. We will first give some examples:

1. *John will probably drop out of the course, for he hasn't done a thing.*
2. *John will probably drop out of the course, for if you don't do a thing, you are bound to drop out of the course.*
3. *John hasn't done a thing, and we both know that if you don't do a thing, you are bound to drop out of the course.*

The above sentences are three variants of the same simple argumentation. Variant 1 is the most frequent of the three, but the other two are not uncommon. How is this possible?

Every argumentation consisting of an opinion and an argument is in fact based on a combination of **three** statements:

conclusion (= opinion)

argument

linking statement (1.1. -> 1. in the decimal notation system)

The **complete** argumentation underlying both 1, 2 and 3 is:

John will probably drop out of the course, (1.)
for he hasn't done a thing. (1-1)
If you don't do a thing, you are bound to drop
out of the course. (1.1. -> 1.)

Usually the linking statement is simply left out, but the argument or even the opinion may be left out too. It is no problem that one element is usually left out. Language users are capable of completing the argumentation in their minds. It is a matter of being economical: the speaker or writer leaves out elements that are superfluous.

Here are the three variants again, in their completed forms:

1. *John will probably drop out of the course,* (1.)
for he hasn't done a thing. (1.1.)

[if you don't do a thing, you are bound to drop
out of the course] (1.1. -> 1.)
2. *John will probably drop out of the course,* (1.)
for if you don't do a thing, you are bound to drop
out of the course. (1.1.->1.)

[John hasn't done a thing] (1.1.)
3. *John hasn't done a thing,* (1.1.)
and we both know, that if you don't
do a thing, you are bound to drop out of the course,
(1.1->1.)

[John will probably drop out of the course.] (1.)

So, one of the three elements — usually the linking statement — is implicit. A further complication is that the order in which the elements are put is not fixed. So, the order is no help when you are analysing argumentation. Instead you must look at signals and apply the for/so test.

Another problem is that an argumentation is often ‘condensed’. This means that you must rephrase it to determine that it is really a combination of statements. We will give you an example:

You, a seventeen-year-old, are not yet allowed to vote.

At first sight this may not look like an argumentation at all. But it is. It becomes clear when we rephrase it:

You are not allowed to vote, (1.)
for you are not eighteen yet. (1-1)

Implicit Elements in Argumentation

Arguing requires careful and comprehensible expression of one’s thoughts. Nevertheless, everyone comes across argumentations that seem incomprehensible. This need not mean that the writer/speaker is a bit soft in the head; the speaker/writer probably did not realise to whom he was speaking/writing or what his audience knew about the subject. In such a case a writer/speaker leaves out certain steps that he thinks the reader/listener knows. But he is wrong: too much is implicit for the reader/listener to understand.

Usually it is possible to find out what element was meant to be the argument, and what element was supposed to be the opinion (for/so test; signals). Sometimes you simply do not have enough information to understand the argumentation.

Example 1 (implicit elements in argumentation)

*A cold front was forecast for Christmas, so I think
I will go round to the bank after all.*

There is argumentation in this example (so), but there does not seem to be a connection between the argument and the opinion. Suppose that the person speaking is in doubt whether he will go away on a Christmas holiday or not. The latest weather forecast makes him cut the knot: he decides to go to the bank and book a holiday in a seaside resort. Knowing this, the argumentation makes sense after all.

Example 2 (implicit elements in argumentation)

A gentleman enters a dress hire shop in Utrecht to try on a dress suit, as he will soon take his Ph.D.

The following conversation develops between the Ph.D. student and the sales assistant.

A: Where will the ceremony take place?

B: In Leiden.

A: So you will need a black waistcoat.

B: ???

From the fact that the ceremony will take place in Leiden, the sales assistant draws the conclusion that a black waistcoat is needed. We can rephrase this argumentation as follows:

The ceremony takes place in Leiden, (1.)
so a black waistcoat is required. (1.1)

Now we must tell you that during a Ph.D. ceremony white waistcoats are the rule, except in Leiden, where a black waistcoat is required. The signal so discloses a set of clothing rules with which the sales assistant erroneously assumes the student to be familiar.

The above examples demonstrate how important knowledge of the subject is in order to understand and analyse argumentation. Do not discard an argumentation too quickly. First try to get extra information that will help you to reach a meaningful interpretation.

Masked Argumentation

The opinions and arguments we have dealt with so far were always, sometimes after some rephrasing, recognisable as such. They were always statements that showed a support relation. But sometimes argumentation is more complicated.

Some arguments and/or opinions are presented in another form, e.g. a question or exclamation that on reflection should be interpreted as an argument. So these arguments do not immediately show their true appearance. That is why we call them **masked arguments**. When analysing a text you may have to unmask such statements first in order to demonstrate that they are arguments. We will give some examples.

Examples (masked argumentation)

(at dinner)

Do use your napkin! Or would you rather go on spilling food all over your shirt?

(at an illegal consult during a written exam)

Gentlemen, would you please take care? Or would you prefer my taking receipt of your sheets now?

Knowledge is power! Why don't you attend a written course?

In these examples the opinions assume the shape of an order (or exclamation), a question, and a question respectively. The arguments are a question, a question and an exclamation respectively.

Especially the questions are interesting: they are usually rhetorical questions to which no meaningful answer can be given, since the answer is included in the question. In the first example it is quite obvious that the person addressed does not want to spill food on his clothes.

If you come across masked argumentation in a text, you can analyse it as follows:

1. Rephrase the sentences into statements.
2. Apply the for/so test.

We will do this for the three examples above.

Examples (unmasked argumentation)

You should use your napkin, for if you don't you will go on spilling food all over your shirt.

Gentlemen, you must take care, for if you don't I will take receipt of your sheets now.

Knowledge is power! So you should attend a written course.

3.6. Non-argumentative Elements

An argumentative text may contain a lot of 'drills'. It may be very **redundant**: a writer repeats information in a different way, because he wants it to be clear, or simply because he has a circumlocutory style.

In many argumentative texts the conclusion is repeated. Often the conclusion is stated both at the beginning and the end of the text.

Furthermore, there are texts that contain digressions or asides: fragments that do not play a role in the argumentation of the text. They have been included because the writer did not select the information carefully, or because the text in fact serves another purpose than argumentation.

There is another category of fragments that often occur, without having a logical function in the argumentation, the so-called concessions. We will give an example.

Example (concession)

In spite of the fact that all the players gave it all they got, the Dutch team deservedly lost the football match (opinion); the Germans simply were the better team (argument).

The concession has a mainly psychological function. The writer is aware that part of his readers will not agree. So, to meet their objections he concedes a minor point. This makes his opinion more acceptable.

In the cases described above it may prove useful to make a schematic summary of the essence. This allows you to leave out everything that is superfluous. And you can phrase the statements in such a way that they link up with each other.

So far we have discussed the phenomenon argumentation, sometimes in great detail. This section should make it easier for you to analyse argumentative texts written by other people, so that you may deduce from the text what is valuable for you when you have to make a policy decision.

4. ASSESSING QUALITY: ARGUMENTATIONS AND FALLACIES

4.1. Introduction

In this section we will show you how you can assess the quality of argumentative texts. That is why we will pay attention to different types of argumentation. For each type we will present evaluative questions that you may use to determine whether an argumentation is convincing or not.

We will also show you what types of argumentation are almost always abused. An argumentation that is misused is called *a fallacy*. They are very tricky, because at first sight they may look very convincing.

When criticising an argumentative text you may point out fallacies in the text, thus undermining the cogency of the writer's argumentation. If you are also able to put forward counter arguments, you will be even more successful. In a debate, your opponent will have to defend himself.

Before discussing the different types of argumentation's and the fallacies, we will first pay attention to a demand that any argumentation must meet.

4.2. General Demand

When criticising an argumentative text you must realise that there is a (quality) demand that must always be met:

Every (sub) argument must in itself be true or plausible.

If a (sub) argument is not correct, the entire argumentation has no value.

Example (incorrect argument)

You are allowed to vote, because you are eighteen.

Suppose the person addressed turns out not to be eighteen yet. Then the argument is not true, and the entire argumentation collapses.

Before we can tell you how you can check whether an argument is true or plausible, we must explain the difference between truth and plausibility. The difference is in the nature of the arguments. If a statement is about facts, it is possible to determine whether the information is **true**. The above example is such a statement: it is possible to determine whether the argument is true.

Example (factual argument)

In my opinion another organ donor system should be introduced in Holland. (1.) After all, 90% of the Dutch have a positive attitude towards organ donation. (1.1)

This argument can be proved true or false, e.g., by referring to research. In other words the information is verifiable.

But there are also arguments that are not factual. They indicate an opinion. It is not possible to determine whether they are true or not. But you may judge their **plausibility**.

Example (non-factual argument)

*I think that colleague X should be fired (1.)
because he is not a good teacher. (1.1.)*

It is impossible to determine whether this argument is true or not, as it is an opinion. And opinions differ. The only thing you can do when criticising this argumentation is wonder whether it is **plausible** or not.

Having determined whether you will assess the truth or the plausibility of the arguments, you should know how you can assess them. After all, it is impossible to check the truth and/or plausibility of all the arguments. It takes too much time to verify all the sources that the supporter of the policy proposal mentions. And it is not always necessary. This is what you can do:

1. If the supporter mentions a source for an argument, you may check whether the source is **reliable**, **expert** and **objective**. We will give some examples.

Examples (judging sources)

- *The Times is more reliable than Daily Mirror.*
- *An advertising leaflet is not objective, because the sender has a personal interest in the message.*
- *TNO (a Dutch Organisation for Applied Scientific Research) has no personal interest in its conclusions, so it is objective.*
- *Kottler is an expert in marketing, but not in nuclear energy.*

Your knowledge of the source is an indication of the truth or plausibility of the argument.

2. If no source is mentioned, you must first find out whether the argument is a **common knowledge** or a **common sense argument**.

In an argumentative text there are always arguments that everyone considers true or plausible. In these cases the supporter of the proposal need not mention any source. Besides, it would damage the legibility of the text.

Common knowledge arguments are factual arguments that everyone knows and believes, without any source.

Example (common knowledge argument)

*The Prime Minister is advocating stricter measures to
restrict government spending, (1.)
as there is still a considerable financing deficit. (1.1)*

Unless the exact figures are important, the argument need not be supported by mentioning a source: everyone knows that the financing deficit is considerable.

Common sense arguments are non-factual arguments. They are generally accepted value judgements that most people will consider self-evident.

Example (common sense argument)

*The Labour Party thinks more money should be set
aside for AIDS research, (1.)
since an increase in the number of AIDS victims is
undesirable. (1.1)*

The plausibility of this argument is obvious: nobody will say that an increase is desirable. Anyone with common sense will feel the same way.

So, in the case of a common knowledge or common sense argument you may assume that it is true or plausible. If not, you may ask for the source of the information.

3. If there is no common knowledge or common sense argument, you may try to determine whether the arguments are at least plausible. You can do this by checking the following:

- **How reliable is the person supporting the proposal?** In some cases you may go by his reliability or expertise and assume that such a person only makes use of true or plausible information.
- **Do the arguments correspond to your own knowledge?** (=consistency with knowledge present)
- **Have the arguments been clearly and accurately phrased?** (If not, it is impossible to judge whether they are true; so the

arguments are weak; in a debate you may ask your opponent to phrase the arguments in a different way.)

- **Are the data statistically correct?** (if applicable)

Keeping the above in mind, we will now deal with the quality of different types of arguments.

4.3. Types of Argumentations and Evaluative Questions

As we announced in the introduction we will discuss some types of argumentation that are quite common and that often degenerate into fallacies. After reading this section you should be able to recognise and assess the different types of argumentation. The sets of evaluative questions are a device to determine whether an argumentation is a valid one or a fallacy.

For every type we will first give an explanation and an example; then we will present the evaluative questions that you may ask to determine whether the argumentation is valid or not. These questions vary depending on the type of argumentation. If the answers to the evaluative questions are predominantly negative, you may state with reasonable certainty that the argumentation is a fallacy. For every type of argumentation we will give you an example of such a fallacy.

4.3.1. Analogy

Example (analogy)

I will probably put on weight again now that I am trying to stop biting my nails. When I stopped smoking I put on five kilos too.

The first statement is the conclusion. It is supported by a reference to a similar situation (an attempt to stop smoking may be compared to an attempt to stop biting one's nails). The similar circumstances (trying to kick a bad habit/addiction) lead to the conclusion that the second time the same effect (putting on weight) will occur.

The argumentation is as follows: if I put on weight when kicking addiction X, I will do the same when kicking habit Y. Or more generally phrased: **if something happened in a certain situation, the same will happen in a similar situation.**

This type of argumentation is often used when speakers/writers deal with the standard questions “feasibility” and “effectiveness”. Then they draw a comparison e.g., with another country where the measure has already been taken and/or where its effectiveness has already been proved.

Example (analogy when discussing the effectiveness of a proposed policy)

The system of obligatory organ donation would work very well in the Netherlands. Look at Belgium, where the system has been successfully applied for years.

Fallacy of Wrong Analogy

Analogies are frequently applied where they should not. The most obvious reason why they should not be applied is that the situations are not really similar.

Evaluative questions:

Are there important similarities?

Are the similarities relevant to the conclusion?

Are not the differences much more important than the similarities?

Example (fallacy of wrong analogy)

I won't get a job after graduating from the HEAO, for my brother has been unemployed for four years too.

The only similarity in the example is the fact that the two are kin. And that similarity is not really relevant: it does not say anything about the speaker's career. After all the differences are more important: perhaps the speaker is more ambitious; he will have a HEAO-diploma, times have changed, etc.

Example (fallacy of wrong analogy)

A medical examination of the population in order to stop AIDS will have little effect, after all a medical examination of the population regarding tuberculosis did not stop the disease at the time.

Again the analogy is used to answer the standard question regarding effectiveness. It is doubtful, however, whether the circumstances of the two

examinations are similar. The tuberculosis research was carried out many years ago. Medical science has developed since then. Besides the two diseases are very different. Therefore the effects of the two examinations cannot be compared.

4.3.2. Generalisation

Example (generalisation)

My neighbour's Renault started rusting very early, and my mother's Renault was covered with rust after one year: all Renaults rust away.

As you can see, this type of argumentation consists of one or more examples on which a general statement is based. More generally phrased: **If something holds good for case a (b, c, etc), then it holds good for all cases.**

Generalisations and analogies are somewhat similar, but a major difference is that in a generalisation there is always a **general statement**, whereas in an analogy there is a comparison between **individual cases**. Compare the following examples:

Examples (analogy and generalisation)

Before World War II there was an economic crisis, just like there is now. So it is obvious what the present crisis will lead to. (analogy)

Every economic crisis leads to war. Just look at the Netherlands: there was an economic crisis before World War II, and the years preceding World War II were the same. (generalisation)

Generalisations are often used as an argument for the second standard matter in dispute: Is the problem serious?

Example (generalisation when discussing the seriousness of the problem)

Professional social workers are increasing pressure on volunteers. For example an elderly woman who took care of her demented neighbour had to go through a quarrel with his

GP to get a few days “off” for Christmas.

Generalisations are also used for the standards matter in dispute “effectiveness”. Have a look at the following examples.

Examples (generalisations used when discussing effectiveness)

Medical examinations of the population in order to stop AIDS have no effect. In the US the disease has all but decreased since the medical examination.

Pregnancy tests are not reliable: my cousin was not pregnant, according to the test, but eight months later she gave birth to a healthy daughter.

Fallacy of the Rash Generalisation

The most frequent mistake made by people who use a generalisation is that they do not mention enough examples (the sample is too small).

You may use the following evaluative questions to determine whether a generalisation is a fallacy:

Are the examples mentioned representative?

Are the examples relevant to the conclusion?

Are there enough examples to support the conclusion?

Are there any opposite examples?

Always try to find representative opposite examples. That is a quick way to determine whether the generalisation is a valid one or a fallacy.

Example (fallacy of the rash generalisation)

Rushdie is a bit crazy and Virginia Woolf was quite mad. In my opinion all writers are crazy.

It is quite obvious that this argumentation is a fallacy. Even if we leave the question whether the two writers are/were crazy or not aside, they may of course not be considered representative for all writers. Furthermore, the two examples are of course not enough and it is quite simple to mention many opposite examples.

4.3.3. Causality Argumentation

There are different types of causality argumentations. They have a cause/result relation in common.

Example (causality argumentation)

Profits have risen in the past few years, so employment will probably increase.

The second statement is the conclusion (prediction that employment will increase). It is supported by an argument starting the cause (higher profits). In other words: **from a certain situation (the cause) a certain result is expected (conclusion).**

The reverse is possible as well: **the argument states the result of the situation mentioned in the conclusion.**

Example (causality argumentation, reversed order)

Do not go skiing when there is so much ice in the snow; you are bound to break a limb.

Causality argumentations often occur when speakers/writers deal with the standard matter of dispute “inherence”. After all, that is when the causes of the problems are looked at. We will give you an example.

Example (causality argumentation used when dealing with inherence)

It is nonsense that banks should reduce the possibility to overdraw one's account in order to protect their clients. Even if they do, their clients will still be pressed for money, for it is not the banks that are to blame. The people simply lack a sense of economy.

In the above example the speaker opposes the proposal that banks should reduce the possibility to overdraw. His argument to support his opinion is that the clients are the cause of the problem, not the banks.

Causality argumentations are also used when dealing with the standard matter of dispute ‘Do the advantages balance the disadvantages?’

Example (causality argumentation used when dealing with disadvantages)

Making mathematics an obligatory subject for every secondary school pupil will harm talented pupils: the level will drop because the subject matter will have to be adapted to pupils who would otherwise be unable to keep up.

Fallacy of Causality

You may use the following evaluative questions:

Is it true that the causes mentioned by the writer/speaker may lead to the predicted result?

Are there circumstances that may prevent the cause mentioned by the writer/speaker from leading to the predicted result?

Fallacy of causality/slippery slope. You reject a measure because of its negative results, but it is not at all certain that they will occur. In such a case people tend to keep on arguing wildly: they state that a certain measure will make us go from bad to worse. That is why this fallacy is sometimes called the fallacy of the slippery slope.

Example (fallacy of the slippery slope)

I oppose the introduction of manure accounting for farmers: the farmers might get angry and decide to fill up the "Hofvijver" (the pond surrounding the House of Commons) in The Hague with manure.

This is a clear example of an unfounded prediction of a result (unless the speaker attended a secret meeting by angry farmers). Besides, even if the result will occur, this is not a decisive argument for rejecting the measure. We will give another example.

Example (fallacy of the slippery slope)

We should not allow shopkeepers to determine their own business hours. In a little while there will be nobody in the streets during the day anymore and that will stimulate crime.

In this example quite a big step is taken in the argumentation: free business hours will eventually lead to an increase in crime. There is no evidence, however, that these results will occur. This makes the argument, and therefore the entire argumentation, invalid. The only way to make the

argumentation valid is by substantiating the conclusion.

Not every fallacy of the slippery slope is equally serious. The “steepness of the slope” may vary.

Fallacy of incorrect cause-result relation / “post hoc ergo propter hoc” (something happens after something else, so the first thing is the cause).

This fallacy occurs when people mistake a chronological order for a cause-result relation.

Example (fallacy of “post hoc ergo propter hoc”)

Ever since that teacher switched over to the statistics section, the statistics exams have become much more difficult. So, I would not mind if he went back to his old section.

In this example the new teacher is considered to be the cause of the fact that exams have become more difficult, because this happened after he had joined the section. One thing happens after the other, so the first matter is the cause of the second. This fallacy is a very human, but primitive one: in ancient cultures the arrival of a stranger was considered the cause of the natural disaster that happened afterwards.

4.3.4. Authority Argumentation

Example (authority argumentation)

The marketing mix is not yet an outdated notion, but it must be adapted to modern demands. Kottler said so himself the other day.

The argumentation is as follows: **if authority X says A, A is true**. So the conclusion is supported by pointing to an authoritative source who confirms it.

This type of argumentation is not typical of any of the standard matters of dispute. Authority argumentations will occur in all of them.

Authority Fallacy

You may use the following evaluative questions:

Is the authority who has been mentioned indeed reliable and an expert in this field?

Does he not have a personal interest in the matter?

Is not the statement that has been put forward in contradiction with other authoritative sources or other information?

Example (authority fallacy)

Santa Claus does exist. My father said so.

Of course the father is not an authority in the field of santas. Besides his statement is in contradiction with other authoritative sources.

Example (authority fallacy)

Kitekat is the best cat food there is. The man in the commercial said so.

The problem is that the authority mentioned is not really an expert (he is not a researcher) and that he is not reliable, because he has a personal interest in the conclusion (he wants you to buy the food). Besides other sources of information do not share this conclusion (research does not show that Kitekat is the best cat food) and other sources have another opinion (other people in commercials say that their cat food is the best there is).

This type of argumentation often occurs in a negative context: the conclusion is that a certain statement is wrong, and the argument is that the source is not an expert. The same holds good for the following type.

4.3.5. Argumentation from Quality to Judgement

This type of argumentation is quite common. People judge and condemn in and out of season. Their judgements are often based on mere rumours. That is why the argumentation from quality to judgement should always be critically considered.

Example (argumentation from quality to judgement)

I do not consider this plan a suitable alternative. Its costs are outrageous.

In other words: **if something/someone shows quality/property X, judgement Y on this thing/person is justified.**

You may come across this type of argumentation in reviews, sports columns, etc.

Example (argumentation from quality to judgement in a review)

The choreography of Reflex, the new dance group, is refresh; new gestures are presented with technical perfection and a surprising degree of humour.

The quality-judgement argumentation is often used for the first two standard matters in dispute, when the seriousness of the problem must be proved. Whether a problem is serious or not is a matter of judgement, that is why the supporter of the policy proposal tries to prove its seriousness by pointing out certain qualities of the problem.

Example (quality-judgement argumentation used when dealing with the seriousness of the problem)

There is still a big lack of donor organs in the Netherlands. It is obvious that this is a serious problem: in 1969 the waiting list increased by 2.4% and the waiting time is now 30 months.

This type of argumentation also occurs frequently when speakers or writers deal with the advantages and disadvantages.

Example (quality-judgement argumentation used when dealing with the seriousness of the problem)

Making organ donation obligatory is harmful for our legal system, for it is a violation of the right of self-determination over one's own body and the freedom of speech.

Fallacy Quality-Judgement

You may use the following evaluative questions:

Do the qualities mentioned justify the judgement?

Are there qualities or circumstances that justify another judgement?

Example (fallacy quality-judgement)

I think Paul is such a softie! (1.)
(judgement)

He does not go skiing because of the environment. (1.1) (quality)

Assuming that “softie” is not a positive judgement, it is obvious that it is not justified by the quality mentioned in the argument. On the contrary, it may be considered very ‘strong’ not to join the majority.

Another example:

Salman Rushdie must be killed (judgement), for his book "Satanic Verses" is insulting for many Muslims (quality).

This argumentation has raised a dust all over the world, but it is a fallacy: offending any group of people can never justify a murder. Furthermore it remains to be seen whether the book was really so offensive. If not, the Muslims themselves must reach another judgement.

Another **example**, this time from the sports columns:

The results of the Dutch skating team at the world championships in Innsbruck in 1990 were disappointing (judgement); the skaters came second, third, fourth and fifth (quality).

The above example shows how opinions may differ. It is possible to state the exact opposite. The results of the Dutch skating team certainly justify another judgement: to be placed second, third, fourth and fifth is very good.

4.3.6. Argumentation from Purpose to Means

Example

Trade and industry, and the government should give part-time and twin jobs a chance. Then a breach of the traditional family pattern of the working man and the housekeeping woman will be possible.

In this example a measure is proposed (part-time jobs) because it will lead to a desirable purpose (breaking the traditional role pattern). In other words: **if you want purpose X to be reached, you must take measure/ means Y.**

In fact all argumentation applied to policy proposals, (whether in texts or debates) may be considered one big purpose-means argumentation. A measure or policy decision is advocated because it will lead to a certain favourable effect. All the other standard matters in dispute may be considered barriers put up by the audience. And you must take the barriers in a convincing way in order to gain the audience's support.

At a lower level it is the standard matter in dispute ‘effectiveness’ where the purpose-means argumentation is used.

Fallacy of Purpose-Means

The main evaluative questions are:

Is the purpose indeed desirable?

Does the means indeed lead to the desired purpose?

Does the means violate a generally accepted rule?

Are there any adverse effects?

Example (fallacy of purpose-means)

You should take up body-building, because then you will get some muscles.

In this example the means (body-building) will probably lead to the purpose (muscles). But it may not be such a desirable purpose at all! In this case the context determines whether the example is a fallacy or not. If the person addressed has just said that he would like to have more muscles, this statement is a valid argumentation. If not, it may or may not be a fallacy depending on the opinion that the person addressed has about muscles.

Example (fallacy of purpose-means)

You should humour that teacher a bit. You do want a sufficient mark, don't you?

In the above example it is questionable whether the means will lead to the desired purpose. Besides the means is a violation of generally accepted rules, and may have adverse side effects.

Another **example** (fallacy of purpose-means)

All students in the Netherlands must be given an annual season ticket. It will make this generation develop a positive attitude towards public transport and that is an important development in view of pollution.

Nobody will dispute the desirability of the purpose. But it is questionable whether the purpose will be reached. The students may develop a negative attitude because of capacity problems, delays, etc.

4.4. Other Fallacies

In this section we will pay attention to fallacies that have no correct counterpart. These fallacies are argumentations that should be rejected on the basis of logic or ethics. That is why we will not present sets of evaluative questions, like we did in the previous section. You will not need them for the fallacies we will deal with in this section. Once you have recognised them as such, you need not prove that they are incorrect (because they always are).

If you point out such a fallacy to your opponent, he cannot but admit that it is a weakness in his argumentation. It is impossible for him to adapt his argumentation, e.g., by giving additional arguments, all he can do is leave the fallacy out.

Especially in debates you must be prepared for fallacies. As there is an audience and because the opponents immediately respond to each other, the participants make such mistakes much more easily.

In this section we will discuss the following fallacies:

personal attack (ad hominem);
manipulating the audience (ad populum);
straw man: twisting someone's opinion;
evading or shifting the onus of proof;
circular argument.

4.4.1. Personal Attack (ad hominem)

Example

The Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries may think that there should be more sympathy for corn growers, but he is the one who withheld information from the House two years ago, so we needn't listen to him anymore.

This is a clear example of an aggressive personal attack that is not connected with the matter in question.

In a personal attack a person is depicted as stupid, inconsistent, bad, unreliable or biased. It is not his opinion that is disputed, but his personality. That is why we also call this fallacy “ad hominem” (a free translation: going for the man instead of the ball).

The effect is that the reliability of the person involved is damaged, and therefore the persuasiveness of his opinion. It is an improper way of

eliminating an opponent, because the fallacy is not connected with the opinion involved.

In the above example it is obvious that the fact that this man once withheld information is not at all relevant to his opinion about the corn farmers. His proposal should be judged of its merits not of the conduct of the person making the proposal.

4.4.2 Manipulating the Audience (ad populum)

Example

People, we should all prepare food parcels for Bosnia: at Christmas we want to show that we are a generous country, don't we?

As you can see, the audience is directly involved in this fallacy, that is why it is also called “ad populum” (directed at the people). The speaker/writer makes an appeal to the emotions and prejudices of the audience, this makes the audience accept his conclusion, even if these emotions and prejudices are not really relevant to his opinion.

Have another look at the example above. The speaker appeals to the audience’s jingoism/national pride (our country is generous!). Logically these emotions are a weak argument to decide in favour of food aid. Arguments that deal with the need for food aid are much stronger as regards content, but they may be less effective than an “ad populum”.

An “ad populum” is only successful if the audience more or less forms a group. If you appeal to emotions, you must make sure that they are present in the majority of your audience. That is why fallacies are often used in situations where the audience has certain views in common, e.g., at demonstrations or political or religious meetings. It is possible to appeal to **positive** emotions, such as safety or loyalty, but also to **negative** feelings, such as fear, greed or shame.

You must be aware of the fact that manipulating the audience is often effective because of the way it is presented: usually the “ad populum” is not clearly presented as an argument. Look at the example above: the argument is “disguised” as a question (cf. 3.5.3 Masked argumentation). But because of the subtle way the audience’s feelings are manipulated it has the persuasiveness of an argument.

4.4.3. Straw Man: Twisting Someone's Opinion

Sometimes it seems as if people do not want to reach an agreement. An Eastern scientist once said: 'the highest form of communication between people is talking as much as possible at cross-purposes.' Talking at cross-purposes is quite common in discussions too. It is what the fallacy we will deal with in this subsection is all about.

Example (straw man)

A: This course is really not as difficult as some people say.

B: Well, I do not think this course is easy at all. Just look at all the drop outs after the first year!

In this example B twists A's opinion and replaces it by another. A certainly did not claim that the course was **easy**, but this is what he is saddled with. A must now make clear that this was not the opinion that he brought up for discussion. If the two opponents do not succeed in getting on the same wavelength, they will talk at cross-purposes, each defending a slightly different opinion: in such a case they are having a sham discussion.

Again you must be prepared for this fallacy, because it occurs frequently, especially in debates. Furthermore, it is not always as clear as in the above example. Often the opinion gradually shifts in the course of the discussion. In an argumentative text the straw man is sometimes hard to find, because you may not have the opinion stated by the first person at hand, when you read his opponent's response, for example a letter to the editor about a newspaper article, in such a case it is fairly easy to twist someone's opinion in a subtle way, without the readers noticing it.

An opinion may be twisted in one or more of the following ways;

- simplification;
- leaving out modifications or restrictions;
- generalisation;
- making it absolute.

If Y states that he does not agree with X's (twisted) opinion, he implies that X advocates this twisted opinion. If the audience does not pay attention - and if X does not correct Y - Y may seem more convincing.

In the example you can see that B's statement that he does not think that the course is easy implies that A does think so. An attentive audience notices that B has used two of the means mentioned above to twist A's opinion. First of all, he leaves out the modification "as some people say", and

secondly he makes the opinion more absolute by turning “not as difficult” into “easy”. If A does not set this right, the sham discussion is a fact.

4.4.4. Evading or Shifting the Onus of Proof

Evading the Onus of Proof

Example

Any right-minded person knows that this new measure is feasible; I need not even go more deeply into this matter.

In section two we saw that the person putting forward an opinion is obliged to defend it. In other words: the onus of proof lies with the supporter of the opinion. The person attacking the opinion need only cast doubt at some of the arguments. If the supporter of the proposal tries to get rid of some of the standard matters of disputes (as you can see in the example), this is a fallacy called evading the onus of proof.

This means that when criticising argumentative texts you must pay attention to phrases that make a standard matter of dispute look **self-evident**, such as:

There can be no two ways about it that...
It goes without saying that...
It is self-evident/obvious that...
Everyone sees that...
I need not go into... /deal with... /explain...
No one will deny that...
Everyone knows that...

These phrases often disguise the fact that the speaker/writer has no arguments to support his opinion. The audience is often intimidated: the speaker makes you feel stupid if you do not see that it is self-evident. This means that you may accept a statement without argumentation.

In section two we told you that the supporter of a policy proposal may skip a standard matter in dispute if the argumentation is obvious and indisputable. It is therefore questionable whether in the above phrases there is always a conscious evasion of the onus of proof. When criticising an argumentative text you must therefore always **ask** for argumentation, if you think that one of the standard matters in dispute has not been sufficiently argued. It does not really matter whether it was a conscious evasion or not,

because the supporter of the proposal must be able to give arguments for his opinion and/or the standard matters in dispute at any moment. If he fails to give arguments when he is asked to, then the evasion was probably conscious, so it was a fallacy.

Shifting the Onus of Proof

Example

You doubt whether children have sufficient possibilities for identification if they are raised by a homosexual couple, but can you prove the opposite?

The above was said by a person supporting the opinion “homosexual couples must be allowed to adopt children”. The opponent has said that a possible negative effect of being raised by a homosexual couple is the possible lack of possibilities for identification. This will do: the opponent need not prove his statement.

But the supporter of the proposal tries to provoke him to give arguments for his statement. The supporter of the proposal is guilty of the fallacy of shifting the onus of proof. He should instead try to prove that children do have sufficient possibilities for identification.

4.4.5. Circular Argument

Example

A: Why are there so few people in this pub?

B: Because it is so cheerless.

A: Why is it cheerless?

B: Because there are so few people.

It is obvious that this argument is a circle: something is A, because of A. In fact something is assumed to have been proved, whereas it has not been proved yet.

Example (circular argument)

This car is mine, for I am the rightful owner.

The reader may not always notice that it is a circular argument. But when you look carefully, you will notice that the same thing is said twice, in

slightly different words. It is typical of this fallacy that you may reverse the order without any real change (I am the rightful owner of this car, for it is mine). This is possible because of the fact that the same thing is said twice: then the order does not really matter. In a circular argumentation there is not really any support or proof of the statement, but rather a definition.

5. EXERCISES

Exercise 1. *In class a teacher says to a student: "Stop chatting with your neighbour."*

- a Which of the four communicative aspects is stressed in the verbal part of this message?
- b Give four possible responses the student can give, each reacting to a different communicative aspect.

Exercise 2. *Which of the four communicative aspects is usually stressed in a(n):*

essay _____
novel _____
application letter _____
cookery book _____
instructions for use _____
research report _____
travel report _____
column _____
offer _____
summary _____
direct mail _____

Exercise 3. *Read the note below written by a secondary school pupil to the headmaster.*

- a Which of the four aspects should have been stressed in this note?
- b Which aspect is -unintentionally- stressed? How did the writer handle it? What are possible consequences?

15 January 1989

Dear sir,

You wanted to know why I, A. Chariton, oppose punishment. From my point of view no punishment, because anyone who gives lines incurs hatred.

By talking to a child reasonable, and discussing the pro's and cons of cutting classes, will be more effective.

If a child does not know his lessons, it has already also punished himself.

Yours truly, A.C.

Exercise 4. *Comment on the letter below written by a Dutch HE&M graduate looking for a job in Britain. Again use the communication model:*

a What is your opinion on the handling of the four aspects?

b Propose changes/improvements.

Gas and Petrol Trade Ltd.
Personnel Department
P. O. Box 1634
Southampton NE 3 12DE
Great Britain

22 February 1990

Dear Sirs,

I read your advertisement in the Guardian of 20 February 1990 for a position on the Accounting department. I should like to be considered for this position.

The tasks that an employee at the Accounting department will carry out are in my field of interest. Furthermore, I have gained some experience in the field of sales and output analysis, and in budgeting during my work placements for the Institute for Economics and Management Studies.

I consider an initial period during which I will gain detailed knowledge of all aspects of your company essential. That is why I am very willing to extend my knowledge by means of courses.

As you may know, my education includes the acquisition of social and communicative skills. Oral and written reports, conference techniques, taking minutes and managing small and big groups were part of the syllabus.

From the enclosed lists of marks you may infer that I received ten years of training in the English language. Furthermore I attended a course for English for Proficiency, but due to circumstances I was forced to stop.

Finally I gained some experience in speaking English during my holidays in Britain.

Further personal data are mentioned in one of the enclosures.

I hope that this letter will induce you to allow me to elucidate my application during an interview.

Yours faithfully,

Enclosures: curriculum vitae
lists of marks

Exercise 5.

- a *Describe the relational aspect in each of the fragments of a letter below. Make use of the three dimensions.*

-
-
- b *Give a brief description of the four recipients for whom these letters were written.*

A

Dear Mr Howe,

Your missive dated 15 March last has been given due attention by our department. It is self-evident that we regret the misunderstanding that has arisen. We regret even more that this misunderstanding caused resentment on your part. We never had the intention to deliberately disrupt our good relationship with you. In the following we hope to convince you of this.

B

Dear Mr Howe,

Your letter of 15 March last was thoroughly discussed in our department. Indeed we misunderstood each other and we are sorry. We quite understand that you were irritated by our behaviour, which for that matter was no evil intent, we just misjudged the situation. After reading this letter you will hopefully be convinced of this.

C

Dear Mr Howe,

Your missive dated 15 March last was duly received by us. We offer you our sincere apologies for the misunderstanding that has arisen. Especially the disruptions of personal relations are to be regretted. We should much appreciate if you were convinced of the fact that malice

aforethought was absolutely out of the question. Therefore, for your information the background to the present problem will be set forth below.

D

Dear Mr Howe,

I have waited a long time before answering your letter of 15 March. Of course there were organisational reasons for this - your letter had to be read by several people in my department and there were meetings to discuss it - but there were also, let us say, psychological reasons. It was not just a matter of a misunderstanding, you were irritated, almost offended, we thought. I have undertaken to offer you our apologies and I wanted to do so with care, complete with the background and errors of judgement on our part. I really hope that after reading this letter, you will consider this matter an error of judgement on our part, and not evil intent.

Exercise 6. *Read the text.*

Genetic manipulation: consequences incalculable

According to some Dutch and American scientists it is possible to create a physically and intellectually better human being. Anomalies must be corrected.

What are these people doing? They are trying to create a superman who can give an answer to the question what existed before the creation of the universe. Well, that is sheer madness. Man had better be content with what he is now. Delving into human matter will be disastrous.

You do not have to be a Nobel prize winner to know that replacing genes, if at all possible is more than just a technical operation. It is a pity that man cannot accept his fate. What science is doing is simply degrading.

Our fate is not determined by science. Scientists are merely delving into a natter that does not reveal its secrets. There are limits.

Fiddling with the genes does not mean that man is-forcing on the limits

of life. Man is simply unable to grasp them. He lacks dimensions to understand life. Creating a superman does not change this, it merely makes us look more foolish.

J. Billings

Would you be convinced by J. Billings? Why not?

Exercise 7. *Below you will find a school essay written for the final exam.*

The assignment was: Write an argumentative essay considering the pros and cons, titled “**Abortion, Freedom or Murder?**”. The reader is a reasonable person who has not yet formed an opinion on abortion.

Read the text and answer the following questions:

a Has the writer carried out the assignment? Why (not)?

b What opinion does the writer have on his reader? What need of the reader is he -perhaps unknowingly- appealing to?

c What type of text does this school essay remind you of?

Abortion: Freedom or Murder?

Politicians have been discussing, or rather debating, for years whether or not to legalise abortion. Those opposing abortion are mainly Christians, but on the whole most people are in favour. Time and again compromises were reached, but the disputes flare up again. For the time being abortion is not punished, and I hope it never will be. In my opinion women should decide for themselves. It is desirable, though, that women know about the risks of abortion. They should have an obligatory conversation with their doctor before having an abortion.

The decision to have an abortion or not should be based on consultation between the woman and her doctor, or several doctors, if desired. The doctor knows when abortion is still safe, or when the patient is too late. Regulations in the statute book such as “permitted until so and so many months, but not permitted afterwards” are, in my opinion, ridiculous.

Nevertheless abortion should not be considered too easily. Thoughts like “throw away all contraceptives, because abortion has been legalised” are wrong; prevention is better than cure. An abortion costs a lot of money, the clinics should not turn into delivery shops. Abortion must remain a serious matter. Public information is therefore greatly desired.

The opponents of abortion are mainly Christians; they regard removing the foetus as murder. They should not forget that on this earth millions of people have been murdered in the name of God. Compared with that the number of ‘murdered’ unborn foetuses sinks into significance. Besides, there are many people, like me, who do not consider abortion to be murder, whereas the millions of murdered people cannot be disputed!

I can get very angry when some priest or vicar states that abortion is murder. These people even think that the foetus should be kept alive, even at the expense of the mother’s life. And when the mother dies, they do not consider this murder! What does a man, and a priest at that, know about the misery a woman goes through when a child is born, especially if the child is not wanted? No, then sitting on top of a hoisting-crane is not such an ordeal for him!

People always say: there is no arguing about faith. In the abortion issue people do argue about faith. The Christian faith is getting fewer and fewer adherents. One day a big majority will vote in favour of abortion. Midwives will have better equipment and the risks for women will decrease. Total freedom for women will then be guaranteed and nobody will regard abortion as murder.

Exercise 8. *A husband and wife are at home watching the telly. Suddenly their cat starts mewing at the back door. The husband is not fond of cats and says: “That cat of yours is moaning again at the back door.”*

The wife may react in different ways, for example:

1. “Yes, she has not had any dinner yet”.
2. “Is your work bothering you again, dear?”

3. "Is there anything wrong with your legs?"
4. "Why are you always so grumpy?"
5. "What do you mean: your cat?"

a Indicate for every answer to what aspect of her husband's remark the wife is responding.

b Mention two other possible reactions and indicate to what aspect in the husband's message they are a response.

Exercise 9. *Are the following pieces of text examples of argumentation? (In other words: is there a support relation between the statements?) If so, underline the opinion.*

- 1 Motorcycling is not dangerous. Many more cars are involved in road accidents than motors.
- 2 Akzo is paying no dividend this year. Shell, on the other hand, is paying the highest dividend in the past ten years.
- 3 This teacher's employment should preferably not be continued. Teachers who cannot agree to the pursuit of profit, a principle that is held in trade and industry, do not fit in with a HEAO school.
- 4 They are leaving the room looking rather low. The exam must have been quite difficult.
- 5 A double income in the literal sense of the word is very rare. In actual practice if one of the two is working full-time, the other cannot but work part-time.

- 6 The information campaign about radiation and nuclear waste that the government launched today is unique. For example, in this campaign opponents of nuclear energy are absolutely free to express their point of view. In other countries this is not allowed.
- 7 In my opinion, the new manager will not be Wheeler. He has made several capital blunders this year.
- 8 Holland has few nice cities. In my view, Utrecht is not one of them.
- 9 You may think differently! Everyone is entitled to his own opinion.
- 10 To quit smoking is an important step towards a healthy way of living. Logically, the next steps are of course wholesome food and more exercise.

Exercise 10. *Analyse the following argumentations. If possible, first indicate the opinion and then determine whether the other statement is an argument or a linking statement.*

- 1 You may go now, the traffic light is green.
- 2 If one's children are small the best holiday is at the beach. So, that is what we like best.
- 3 First come, first served. That is why Charles may take his time choosing a book.
- 4 There is a sheet of ice on the canal. It is freezing obviously.
- 5 If John takes something upon himself, he does so with all his heart. So, it would be foolish to elect someone else to be our representative in the works council.
- 6 Wolfgang Wolffenbuttel is a German, so he will probably drink a lot of beer.
- 7 Anyone who is fond of candy, is more likely to get tooth trouble. And you are crazy about candy, aren't you?
- 8 The financing deficit has barely decreased: the policy of the cabinet has failed!

- 9 The match has apparently finished, the stadium is empty.
- 10 You should not complain so much about public transport. If you want to live in the country and work in the city, you must put up with the inconvenience of coaches and trains.

Exercise 11. *This task is about the more complex forms of argumentation. Rephrase the statements below, so that you get a complete argumentation (opinion + argument). Add a signal to make the argumentative relation clear.*

Example:

Japanese food? Never!! You know that it disagrees with me!

Paraphrase: I do not want to eat Japanese food (opinion), **because** it does not agree with me (argument).

- 1 You want a clean environment don't you? Use Knox detergent.
- 2 With these bald tyres this car is a menace on the roads.
- 3 Kicking the habit of taking medicines is awful. You had better not get addicted to these tranquilizers!
- 4 Isn't it about time to improve your condition? Or do you think such breathless gasping is normal when climbing the stairs?
- 5 All these nude pictures turn Playboy into a piece of gutter journalism.
- 6 A reduction of working hours at VW? Sales must be declining!
- 7 What! This tea tastes quite different! You bought another brand!
- 8 Do you want to study economics? You are not a Right-Winger are you?
- 9 My son was crying all night. Now I cannot think clearly anymore.
- 10 You won't see me in that shop again. I won't be cheated out of my money by that creature at the cash desk any- more!

Exercise 12. *Below you will find seven argumentations. What types of argumentation are they?*

- 1 The French assume that the world is France and France is the world. Take Jean-Claude: researcher at the university in Limoges, doesn't speak any foreign languages. Take Marie-Louise: after a piano recital in Beijing she is most surprised and indignant that she is asked questions in English.

- 2 If John takes something upon himself, he does so with all his heart. So, it would be foolish to elect someone else to be our representative in the works council.

- 3 I am sure I will not get a sufficient mark for the next mathematics exam. I had an insufficient mark last time.

- 4 I strongly advised her to report ill for a few more weeks. She did not really feel like it, but in that way her illness can run itself out and after the holiday she can go back to work fully recovered.

- 5 This car has bald tyres. It is a menace on the roads.

- 6 You should not watch T.V. so much: you are ruining your eyes.

- 7 If the roads are slippery, you had better pump the brakes. That is the advice of the police and the AA.

Exercise 13. *This is a mixed exercise, i.e. both argumentations or fallacies from 4.3 and fallacies from 4.4 may occur. What types are they? Assess them.*

- 1 The fact that powerful organisations such as the T.U.C. (Trades Union Congress) remain sceptical about some issues is, in my opinion, a sign that a general reduction of working hours will not take place in Britain soon.

- 2 It is probable that many Dutch people will not take **heed** of obligatory legitimation. In actual practice about 30 per cent of Dutch motorists do not carry a driving licence with them, and that is obligatory as well.

- 3 It is striking that your group on average scored much lower for your half-term exams than other first-year groups. It seems unnecessary. You are not going to be beaten, are you? Show them what you are worth next time!
-
- 4 And it is not Utopia what I am telling you, because in England many voices are heard in favour of this. And if it is happening in England, why couldn't it happen here? England is only a few kilometres away across the Channel.
-
- 5 It is obvious that decentralisation at the HEAO in Utrecht had a contrary effect; since then the number of applications has decreased.
-
- 6 I do not think that I need to change, because I think that you must accept me the way I am.
-
- 7 The safety of citizens really does not increase if they are legally allowed to buy firearms. After all, they already shoot a woman during a quarrel over twenty pounds. There was an article about it in the "Daily Mirror" the other day.
-

Exercise 14.

- *What fallacies do you recognise in this interview with the editor of a newspaper that was held during a talkshow? In what lines?*
-

- *What fallacy is the interviewer (A) accused of by the editor (B) in his second reply?*
-
-

- A: What made you put that suitcase with a fake bomb near a shop selling American clothes?
- B: We wanted to see whether the Dutch public and the police were attentive to such matters at that moment (the Gulf War). Well they weren't. It took a few hours until the suitcase was discovered.
- A: Oh, so in fact you did it for the common good. Is that what you are saying?
- B: Well, you may pour ridicule on it, but that is not what I said.
- A: No, I am not ridiculing it, but I just want to find out what made you do this.

B: Well, then you should start asking the right questions, because so far you haven't. And that is a maxim in journalism, isn't it?

A: Oh, are we going to talk about the right way to work as a journalist. I read a report in your newspaper about my recent trip to Russia in which you wrote that I had had an interesting conversation with the mayor of Moscow. I thought it was very flattering, but for your information: I never met the man. (laughter and applause) I am sorry, I did not mean to bring this up, but if we are getting personal, then I have a few more in store for you.

B: Well, I didn't realise that you had not recognised the mayor.

Exercise 15. Below you will find two parts of a debate (pro and contra) on the proposal: the government should build new power stations as quickly as possible. Read the fragments and answer the questions following each of them.

A (pro)

The seriousness of the problem shows itself in the fact that air pollution is so strong that innumerable scientists and researchers have written horrible scenarios predicting the destruction of all life on this unique planet. It is obvious that we will not live to see it. But we have children, grandchildren. Towards them we have a responsibility to create a livable world.

- 1 What standard matter in dispute is dealt with here?
- 2 What is your opinion about the argumentation?

B (contra)

But even more important is the question whether an increase in the number of power stations will indeed solve the scarcity and environmental problems.

It has been calculated that the present supplies of uranium that can be won are limited, about 5 to 7 million tons. This means that as a result of the large-scale use of this uranium supplies will be exhausted within a few decades. In the long term, therefore, power stations will not remain productive. So, nuclear energy will not solve the scarcity problem.

The second problem was the pollution as a result of current energy supplies. Especially the greenhouse effect plays an important role. Two arguments may be put forward that prove that the use of nuclear energy is not an effective way to fight the greenhouse effect.

First of all, CO² emissions -a problem which nuclear energy will ultimately solve- can be blamed for only about half of the greenhouse effect. Other gases are also responsible, such as methane, laughing gas, etc. So, nuclear energy would just be a drop in the ocean.

- 1 What standard matter in dispute is dealt with?
- 2 What problems must have been discussed before?
- 3 What type of argumentation does the writer use in the last paragraph of the text? Assess it by means of evaluative questions.

APPENDIX ONE

STUDENT ESSAY (IN PROCESS) ARGUMENTATION

Jeannie Pugmire

Jeannie Pugmire is in her first year of college and as yet has not declared a major, preferring first to complete her general education requirements. One of her favourite pastimes is reading and discussing current issues, especially those affecting societal ethics. Jeannie became emotionally as well as intellectually involved in the "Baby M" case when it gained considerable media coverage. In the essay that follows, she clearly states her position.

First Draft

Jeannie Pugmire
English 101

Awkward title Better contract for Surrogate Mothers.

Awkward
title

Better Contracts for Surrogate Mothers

Surrogate Mother Contracts need to be Revised

Современный Гуманитарный Университет

A highly emotional and controversial issue has lately captivated the attention of the media as well as the public. Because the issue is charged with ethical and moral implications never before faced by modern courts. Some people applaud surrogate motherhood as a modern miracle whereas others see it as ^{just} yet another sign of contemporary ^{depravity} degeneration. Now, a surrogate mother is a woman who agrees to have a baby for another woman. The surrogate is usually artificially inseminated by the other woman's husband. A contract is drawn up, usually slating that, for a certain sum of money, the surrogate agrees to give up her baby upon birth.

✗ This arrangement sounds very cut and dried, but ~~one could not be further from the truth if he or she believes this~~. Strong opposition to the whole idea is rapidly spreading. Questions are constantly popping up: Is it right or natural for the biological mother to "give away" her child? ^{Doesn't} ^{whole} ^{boil down to} Isn't the process boil down to illegal adoption of a child? Isn't surrogate mothering simply a form of adultery?

The real problem ^{at the center of this murky} ~~in the this entire of this murky~~ at the center of this murky situation is the contract itself. It is the cause of many ^{difficulties} ~~problems~~ for both parties involved after the baby is born. Most contracts state that the natural mother must give up the baby, upon birth, to the couple she agreed to have it for. The contracts do not allow the woman who gave birth any period of time to reconsider her decision to give her own child away. If surrogate motherhood is to become an accepted way for a childless couple to become parents, then the contracts must be revised to ^{resemble} ~~reflect~~ adoption laws, since surrogate mothering is similar to adopting.

Adoption agreements give the natural mother time to reconsider her decision to give up her baby and to change her mind. This time for reflection and psychological probing ^{is essential and} must be allowed.

A classic current case-the case of “Baby M”-involves Rick ^{versus} ~~and~~ Marybeth Whitehead versus William and Elizabeth Stern. Having agreed to “rent her womb” to the Sterns, Marybeth Whitehead was artificially inseminated by William Stern. A contract was drawn up, stating that for the price of \$10,000 Whitehead would surrender the baby, upon birth, to the Sterns. The contract said absolutely nothing about allowing Whitehead time to think about what she was doing. But, after giving birth to a baby girl on March 17, 1986. Whitehead refused to give up the baby, claiming that unforeseen instinctive urges caused her to become so attached to her baby that she would “lose her mind” if she gave her up. On the other side, the Sterns were taking care of the baby and had become bonded to her as well. The result was a catastrophic legal battle, which to date has not been resolved fully, although the New Jersey court awarded preliminary custody to the Sterns, based on the contract provisions.

I sympathise with Marybeth Whitehead. She carried that baby in her womb for nine months and, as is nature’s way, she had grown to love the stirrings inside her, as all mothers learn to love a child forming within them. The contract she had signed became an obligation she simply could not fulfill. It was too businesslike and too cold. It allowed no opportunity for ^{her} Whitehead to sort out her feelings after the baby was born-and that is wong. ^r Whitehead is the natural mother of this infant and here she is forced to live up to an agreement ~~which was~~ made before the

Not being clairvoyant, she did not anticipate the affection that would well up once she saw and held her baby.

decisive factors in the case were available. The opposition I need more explanation might argue that William Stern has rights, too, since he is the biological father, but psychologists and obstetricians alike agree that a father's bonding to the fetus forming inside a womb is not as obsessive as that of the mother. As Dr. William Faraday, the obstetrician in Los Angeles, observed, "The protective instinct of a mother after birth is one of the fiercest powers in nature."

*add
something
emotional
perhaps
lines
from a
poem*

Many thoughtful persons are seeing the evil side of present surrogate mother contracts. For instance, William Pierce, who is President of the National Committee for Adoption, has taken a strong stand against the present way of drawing up surrogate mother contracts. He states, "It commercializes a very private thing. It should not take place at all." Most lawyers and psychologists who have studied the problem agree that surrogate mother contracts, in their present forms, are confusing and blatantly unfair. First and foremost, the natural mother is expected to cold-bloodedly ^{to} part with her baby. ^{Furthermore,} Sometimes the couple waiting for their baby never receive him or her. William Handel, an attorney who works in Beverly Hills, California, and who has arranged thirty surrogate births, says that "the adopting couple may be ordered to pay lifetime medical expenses or child support for a child they don't get." This is unfair to both the surrogate mother and the couple for whom she is having the child. On one hand, the surrogate mother has no time to reconsider her choice of giving away her baby; on the other hand, the adoptive parents may not get the child for which they paid big money.

I do not disapprove of surrogate motherhood, but I strongly

disapprove of the present amateurish way of writing contracts filled with loopholes and never covering the most important issues — the rights of the natural mother and the rights of the adoptive parents. Surrogate mother contracts should closely imxlitate adoption papers — including terms that carefully protect both parties. At the present time, such matters as payment to the surrogate mother ^{are} is illegal, so that the whole contract is tainted with “~~undeground~~” black market ^{Moved image manifestations} ~~overtones~~. Therefore, the contracts ^{are} ~~have~~ often ~~been~~ called invalid. What is needed is for a committee of competent and wise lawyers to sit down and come up with a valid contract ^{grounded in} ~~that would understand~~ the basic assumption that we are not-dealing with a car or a piece of furniture, but a child whose life and happiness ^{are} ~~is~~ at stake With proper revising, surrogate mother contracts could ^{wordy} ~~be written that would~~ assure fairness to both the surrogate mother and to the adoptive parents ^{absolute necessity} ~~Of crucial importance~~ this contract is a clause that will allow the surrogate mother some time to reassess her decision to give up the baby to which she gave birth. Only with decent contracts can both natural mothers and children-loving couples enjoy the beautiful gift of a newborn life.

Final Draft

Jeannie Pugmire
English 101

Better Contracts for Surrogate Mothers

A highly emotional and controversial issue has lately captivated the attention of the media as well as the public. The issue is surrogate motherhood. Because it is charged with ethical and moral implications never before faced by modern courts, people are firmly divided on their opinions on

the subject. Some applaud surrogate motherhood as a modern miracle whereas others see it as just another sign of contemporary depravity. Now, a surrogate mother is a woman who agrees to have a baby for another woman. The surrogate is usually artificially inseminated by the other woman's husband. A contract is drawn up, usually stating that, for a certain sum of money, the surrogate agrees to give up her baby upon birth. This agreement sounds very cut and dried, but it is not. Many ramifications obscure the landscape, and strong opposition to the whole idea is rapidly spreading. Questions are constantly popping up: Is it right or natural for the biological mother to "give away" her child? Doesn't the whole process boil down to illegal adoption of a child? Isn't surrogate mothering simply a form of adultery?

The real problem at the center of this murky situation is the contract itself. It is the cause of many difficulties for both parties involved after the baby is born. Most contracts state that the natural mother must give up the baby, upon birth, to the couple she agreed to have it for. The contracts do not allow the woman who gave birth any period of time to reconsider her decision to give her own child away. If surrogate motherhood is to become an accepted way for a childless couple to become parents, then the contracts must be revised to resemble adoption laws, since surrogate mothering is similar to adopting. Adoption agreements give the natural mother time to reconsider her decision to give up her baby and to change her mind. This time for reflection and psychological probing is essential and must be allowed.

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I sympathise with Marybeth Whitehead. She carried that baby in her womb for nine months and, as is nature's way, she had grown to love the stirrings inside her, as all mothers learn to love a child forming within them. The contract she had signed became an obligation she simply could not fulfill. It was too businesslike and too cold. It allowed no opportunity for her

to sort out her feelings after the baby was born—and that is wrong. Whitehead is the natural mother of this infant and here she is forced to live up to an agreement made before the decisive factors in the case were available. Not being clairvoyant, she did not anticipate the affection that would well up once she saw and held her baby. The opposition might argue that William Stern has rights, too, since he is the biological father, but psychologists and obstetricians alike agree that a father's bonding to the fetus forming inside a womb is not as obsessive as that of the mother. As Dr. William Faraday, an obstetrician in Los Angeles, observed, "The protective instinct of a mother is one of the fiercest powers in nature." Or, in the words of a mother's poetic lines,

There is none,
In all this cold and hollow
world, no fount
Of deep, strong, deathless
love, save that within
A mother's heart.

Mrs. Hemans

Many thoughtful persons are seeing the evil side of present surrogate mother contracts. For instance, William Pierce, who is President of the National Committee for Adoption, has taken a strong stand against the present way of drawing up surrogate mother contracts. He states, "It commercializes a very private thing. It should not take place at all." Most lawyers and psychologists who have studied the problem agree that surrogate mother contracts, in their present forms, are confusing and blatantly unfair. First and foremost, the natural mother is expected cold-bloodedly to part with her baby. Furthermore, sometimes the couple waiting for their baby never receive him or her. William Handel, an attorney who works in Beverly Hills, California, and who has arranged thirty surrogate births, says, that "the adopting couple may be ordered to pay lifetime medical expenses or child support for a child they don't get. "This is unfair to both the surrogate mother and to the couple for whom she is having the child. On one hand, the surrogate mother has no time to reconsider her choice of giving away her baby; on the other hand, the adoptive parents may not get the baby for which they paid big money.

I do not disapprove of surrogate motherhood, but I strongly disapprove of the present amateurish way of writing contracts filled with loopholes and never covering the most important issues - the rights of the natural mother and the rights of the adoptive parents. Surrogate mother contracts should closely imitate adoption papers - including terms that carefully protect both parties. At the present time, such matters as payment to the surrogate mother are illegal, so that the whole contract is tainted with black market

manifestations. Therefore, the contracts are often called in- valid. What is needed is for a committee of competent and wise lawyers to sit down and come up with a valid contract grounded in the basic assumption that we are not dealing with a car or a piece of furniture, but with a child whose life and happiness are at stake. With proper revising, surrogate mother contracts could assure fairness to both the surrogate mother and to the adoptive parents. Of crucial importance in this contract is a clause that will allow the surrogate mother some time to reassess her decision to give up the baby to which she gave birth. Only with decent contracts can both natural mothers and children—loving couples enjoy the beautiful gift of a newborn life.

APPENDIX TWO

‘Television Is Doing Irreparable Harm’

Yes, but what did we use to do before there was television? How often we hear statements like this! Television hasn't been with us all that long, but we are already beginning to forget what the world was like without it. Before we admitted the one-eyed monster into our homes, we never found it difficult to occupy our spare time. We used to enjoy civilised pleasures. For instance, we used to have hobbies, we used to entertain our friends and be entertained by them, we used to go outside for our amusements to theaters, cinemas, restaurants and sporting events. We even used to read books and listen to music and broadcast talks occasionally. All that belongs to the past. Now all our free time is regulated by the ‘goggle box’. We rush home or gulp down our meals to be in time for this or that program. We have even given up sitting at table and having a leisurely evening-meal, exchanging the news of the day. A sandwich and a glass of beer will do - anything, providing it doesn't interfere with the programme. The monster demands and obtains absolute silence and attention. If any member of the family dares to open his mouth during a programme, he is quickly silenced.

Whole generations are growing up addicted to the telly, food is left uneaten, homework undone and sleep is lost. The telly is a universal pacifier. It is now standard practice for mother to keep the children quiet by putting them in the living-room and turning on the set. It doesn't matter that the children will watch rubbishy commercials or spectacles of sadism and violence - so long as they are quiet.

There is a limit to the amount of creative talent available in the world. Every day, television consumes vast quantities of creative work. That is why most of the programmes are so bad: it is impossible to keep pace with the demand and maintain high standards as well. When millions watch the same programmes, the whole world becomes a village, and society is reduced to

the conditions which obtain in pre-literate communities. We become utterly dependent on the two most primitive media of communication: pictures and the spoken word.

Television encourages passive enjoyment. We become content with second-hand experiences. It is so easy to sit in our armchairs watching others working. Little by little, television cuts us off from the real world. We get so lazy, we choose to spend a fine day in semi-darkness, glued to our sets, rather than go out into the world itself. Television may be a splendid medium of communication, but it prevents us from communicating with each other. We only become aware how totally irrelevant television is to real living when we spend a holiday by the sea or in the mountains, far away from civilisation. In quiet, natural surroundings, we quickly discover how little we miss the hypnotic tyranny of King Telly.

The argument: key words

1. Beginning to forget what we did before television.
2. Always occupied our spare time; enjoyed civilised pleasures.
3. Hobbies, entertaining, outside amusements; theatres, etc.
4. Even used to read books, listen to music, broadcast talks.
5. Free time now regulated by television.
6. Rush home, gulp food, sandwich, glass of beer.
7. Monster demands: absolute silence and attention; daren't open your mouth.
8. Whole generations growing up addicted; neglect other things.
9. Universal pacifier: mother and children.
10. Children exposed to rubbishy commercials, violence, etc.
11. Limit to creative talent available.
12. Therefore many bad programmes; can't keep pace with demand.
13. World becomes a village; pre-literate society; dependent on pictures and words.
14. Passive enjoyment; second-hand experiences; sit in armchairs, others working.
15. Cut off from real world.
16. Become lazy, glued to sets instead of going out.
17. Television totally irrelevant to real living.
18. E.g. holiday, natural surroundings; never miss hypnotic tyranny.

The counter-argument: key words

- 1 Nobody imposes TV on you. If you don't like it, don't buy a set or switch off!

- 2 We are free to enjoy 'civilised pleasures' and still do.
- 3 Only when there is lack of moderation can TV be bad — true for all things.
- 4 People sometimes feel guilty watching TV; absurd idea.
- 5 If you boast you don't watch TV, it's like boasting you don't read books.
- 6 Must watch to be well-informed.
- 7 Considerable variety of programmes; can select what we want to see.
- 8 Continuous cheap source of information and entertainment.
- 9 Enormous possibilities for education: e.g. close-circuit TV - surgery.
- 10 Schools broadcasts; educating adult illiterates; specialised subjects, e.g., language teaching.
- 11 Education in broadest sense: ideals of democracy; political argument, etc.
- 12 Provides outlet for creative talents.
- 13 Many playwrights, actors, etc., emerged from TV.
- 14 Vast potential still waiting to be exploited: colour TV; world network: communication via satellite.
- 15 TV is a unifying force in the world.

ИСКУССТВО РЕЧИ НА АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ **ЮНИТА 2**

ПУБЛИЧНОЕ ВЫСТУПЛЕНИЕ КАК ФОРМА КОММУНИКАЦИИ

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