16 Methods of Persuasion

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Sample Speech with Commentary

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Persuasion is big business. Thousands of authors and consultants promise to teach you the one key secret to persuading people to do what you want. Dan Lok claims to reveal "forbidden psychological tactics" that will "give you an unfair advantage in dealing with people." Scott Moldenhauer will help you unlock "the science of persuasion" to get the business results you crave. Kurt Mortensen promises to make you "a master of persuasion" so you can "get what you want when you want it." Kevin Hogan draws on "the science of influence" to give you persuasion techniques "the experts don't want you to know." These people all charge thousands of dollars for their seminars, hundreds for videos and motivational books. Companies and individuals flock—and pay—to read and hear what they have to say.

It sounds good, but can any of these people really have the "one key secret" to persuasion? Probably not. Persuasion is too complicated for that. Yet, as the number of books, seminars, and videos on the subject shows, there is a perpetual fascination with the strategies and tactics of effective persuasion.

What makes a speaker persuasive? Why do listeners accept one speaker's views and reject those of another? How can a speaker motivate listeners to act in support of a cause, a campaign, or a candidate? People have been trying to answer these questions for thousands of years—from the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle to modern-day communication researchers. Although many answers have been given, we can say that listeners will be persuaded by a speaker for one or more of four reasons:

Because they perceive the speaker as having high *credibility*.

Because they are won over by the speaker's *evidence*.

Because they are convinced by the speaker's *reasoning*.

Because their *emotions* are touched by the speaker's ideas or language.

In this chapter we will look at each of these. We will not discover any magical secrets that will make you an irresistible persuasive speaker. But if you learn the principles discussed in this chapter, you will greatly increase your odds of winning the minds and hearts of your listeners.

Building Credibility

Here are two sets of imaginary statements. Which one of each pair would you be more likely to believe?

We can expect to see more female candidates for President in the foreseeable future. (Hillary Clinton)

We will not have more female candidates for President in the foreseeable future. (Peyton Manning)

Changes in professional football are producing a faster, more pass-oriented game. (Peyton Manning)

Changes in professional football are producing a slower, more run-oriented game. (Hillary Clinton)

Most likely you chose the first in each pair of statements. If so, you were probably influenced by your perception of the speaker. You are more likely

to respect the judgment of Clinton, who almost captured the 2008 Democratic presidential nomination, when she speaks about female candidates for President, and to respect the judgment of Manning, two-time NFL Player of the Year, when he speaks about trends in professional football. Some teachers call this factor *source credibility*. Others refer to it as *ethos,* the name given by Aristotle.

ethos
The name used by Aristotle for what modern students of communication refer to as credibility.

FACTORS OF CREDIBILITY

Many things affect a speaker's credibility, including sociability, dynamism, physical attractiveness, and perceived similarity between speaker and audience. Above all, though, credibility is affected by two factors:

- *Competence*—how an audience regards a speaker's intelligence, expertise, and knowledge of the subject.
- *Character*—how an audience regards a speaker's sincerity, trustworthiness, and concern for the well-being of the audience.

credibility
The audience's perception of whether a speaker is qualified to speak on a given topic. The two major factors influencing a speaker's credibility are competence and character.

The more favorably listeners view a speaker's competence and character, the more likely they are to accept what the speaker says. No doubt you are familiar with this from your own experience. Suppose you take a course in economics. The course is taught by a distinguished professor who has published widely in prestigious journals, who sits on a major international commission, and who has won several awards for outstanding research. In class, you hang on this professor's every word. One day the professor is absent; a colleague from the Economics Department—fully qualified but not as well known—comes to lecture instead. Possibly the fill-in instructor gives the same lecture the distinguished professor would have given, but you do not pay nearly as close attention. The other instructor does not have as high credibility as the professor.

It is important to remember that credibility is an attitude. It exists not in the speaker, but in the mind of the audience. A speaker may have high credibility for one audience and low credibility for another. A speaker may also have high credibility on one topic and low credibility on another. Looking back to our imaginary statements, most people would more readily believe Peyton Manning speaking about professional football than Peyton Manning speaking about the future of female presidential candidates.

initial credibility
The credibility of a speaker before she or he starts to speak.

TYPES OF CREDIBILITY

Not only can a speaker's credibility vary from audience to audience and topic to topic, but it can also change during the course of a speech—so much so that we can identify three types of credibility:

derived credibility
The credibility of a speaker produced by everything she or he says and does during the speech.

terminal credibility
The credibility of a speaker at the end of the speech.

- *Initial credibility*—the credibility of the speaker before she or he starts to speak.
- *Derived credibility*—the credibility of the speaker produced by everything she or he says and does during the speech itself.
- *Terminal credibility*—the credibility of the speaker at the end of the speech.[1]

All three are dynamic. High initial credibility is a great advantage for any speaker, but it can be destroyed during a speech, resulting in low terminal credibility. The reverse can also occur, as in the following example:

Barry Devins is the information technology manager for a major nonprofit research foundation. Soon after taking the job, he purchased an upgrade for the foundation's e-mail program. He assumed there would be some glitches, but they far exceeded anything he had imagined. It took six months to get the upgrade working properly, and even then people continued to grumble about messages they had lost during the phase-in period.

A year later, the foundation was awarded a large contract, and the president decided to purchase a data synchronization system for the entire organization. She asked Barry to take charge of buying the system and training the staff in its use.

When Barry outlined his plans at a weekly staff meeting, he had low initial credibility. Everyone remembered the e-mail program, and they were reluctant to go through the same problems again. But Barry realized this and was prepared.

He began by reminding everyone that the president had authorized him to purchase a state-of-the-art system that would make their lives easier and improve office communications. He then acknowledged that he had told them the same thing about the e-mail upgrade—an admission that drew a laugh and helped everyone relax. Finally, he explained that he had checked with several other organizations that had installed the same data synchronization system he was purchasing, and they all had told him it worked flawlessly.

Throughout his presentation, Barry's approach was "I know the e-mail upgrade was a disaster, and I've worked hard to make sure it doesn't happen again." By the time he finished, most staff members were eager to have the data synchronization system up and running. Barry had achieved high terminal credibility.

In every speech you give you will have some degree of initial credibility, which will be strengthened or weakened by your message and how you deliver it. And your terminal credibility from one speech will affect your initial credibility for the next one. If your audience sees you as sincere and competent, they will be much more receptive to your ideas.

ENHANCING YOUR CREDIBILITY

How can you build your credibility in your speeches? At one level, the answer is frustratingly general. Since everything you say and do in a speech will affect your credibility, you should say and do *everything* in a way that will make you appear capable and trustworthy. In other words—give a brilliant speech and you will achieve high credibility!

The advice is sound, but not all that helpful. There are, however, some specific ways you can boost your credibility while speaking. They include explaining your competence, establishing common ground with the audience, and speaking with genuine conviction.

Explain Your Competence

One way to enhance your credibility is to advertise your expertise on the speech topic. Did you investigate the topic thoroughly? Then say so. Do you have experience that gives you special knowledge or insight? Again, say so.

Here is how two students revealed their qualifications. The first stressed her study and research:

A speaker's credibility has a powerful impact on how her or his speech is received. One way to boost your credibility is to deliver your speeches expressively and with strong eye contact.

Before I studied antibacterial products in my public health class, I always used antibacterial soaps and antibacterial all-surface cleaner for my apartment. I also know from my class survey that 70 percent of you use antibacterial soaps, cleaners, or other products. But after learning about the subject in class and reading research studies for this speech, I'm here to tell you that, try as we might, we cannot build a bubble between ourselves and germs with antibacterial products and that these products actually create more problems than they solve.

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View these excerpts from "Bursting the Antibacterial Bubble" and "Keeping the Safety Net for Those Who Need It" in the online Media Library for this chapter (Video Clip 16.1).

The second student emphasized her background and personal experience:

Most of us have no idea what it means to be poor and hungry. But before returning to school last year, I spent three years working at local assistance centers. I worked in every part of the city and with every kind of person. I can't begin to tell you what I have seen—how poverty destroys people's souls and how hunger drives them to desperation. But on the basis of what I can tell you, I hope you will agree with me that government help for the poor and the needy must be increased.

Both speakers greatly increased their persuasiveness by establishing their credibility.

Establish Common Ground with Your Audience

Another way to bolster your credibility is to establish common ground with your audience. You do not persuade listeners by assaulting their values and rejecting their opinions. As the old saying goes, "You catch more flies with honey than with vinegar." The same is true of persuasion. Show respect for

your listeners. You can make your speech more appealing by identifying your ideas with those of your audience—by showing how your point of view is consistent with what they believe.[2]

creating common ground
A technique in which a speaker connects himself or herself with the values, attitudes, or experiences of the audience.

Creating common ground is especially important at the start of a persuasive speech. Begin by identifying with your listeners. Show that you share their values, attitudes, and experiences. Get them nodding their heads in agreement, and they will be much more receptive to your ultimate proposal. Here is how a businesswoman from Massachusetts, hoping to sell her product to an audience of people in Colorado, began her persuasive speech:

> I have never been in Colorado before, but I really looked forward to making this trip. A lot of my ancestors left Massachusetts and came to Colorado nearly 150 years ago. Sometimes I have wondered why they did it. They came in covered wagons, carrying all their possessions, and many of them died on the journey. The ones who got through raised their houses and raised their families. Now that I've seen Colorado, I understand why they tried so hard!

The audience laughed and applauded, and the speaker was off to a good start.

Now look at a different approach, used in a classroom speech favoring a tuition increase at the speaker's school—an unpopular point of view with his classmates. He began by saying:

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View this excerpt from "Let's Protect the Quality of Our Education" in the online Media Library for this chapter (Video Clip 16.2).

> As we all know, there are many differences among the people in this class. But regardless of age, major, background, or goals, we all share one thing in common—we are all concerned with the quality of education at this school. And that quality is clearly in danger. Because of budget reductions, faculty salaries have fallen below those at comparable schools, library hours have been cut back, and more and more students are being crowded out of classes they need to take.
>
> Whether we like it or not, we have a problem—a problem that affects each of us. This morning I would like to discuss this problem and whether it can be solved by an increase in tuition.

By stressing common perceptions of the problem, the student hoped to get off on the right foot with his audience. Once that was done, he moved gradually to his more controversial ideas.

Deliver Your Speeches Fluently, Expressively, and with Conviction

There is a great deal of research to show that a speaker's credibility is strongly affected by his or her delivery. Moderately fast speakers, for example, are usually seen as more intelligent and confident than slower speakers. So too are speakers who use vocal variety to communicate their ideas in a lively, animated way. On the other hand, speakers who consistently lose their place, hesitate frequently, or pepper their talk with "uh," "er," and "um" are seen as less competent than speakers who are poised and dynamic.[3]

All of this argues for practicing your persuasive speech fully ahead of time so you can deliver it fluently and expressively. In addition to being better prepared, you will take a major step toward enhancing your credibility. (Review Chapter 12 if you have questions about speech delivery.)

Speaking techniques aside, the most important way to strengthen your credibility is to deliver your speeches with genuine conviction. President Harry

Truman once said that in speaking, "sincerity, honesty, and a straightforward manner are more important than special talent or polish." If you wish to convince others, you must first convince yourself. If you want others to believe and care about your ideas, you must believe and care about them yourself. Your spirit, enthusiasm, and conviction will carry over to your listeners.

Using Evidence

Evidence consists of supporting materials—examples, statistics, testimony—used to prove or disprove something. As we saw in Chapter 7, most people are skeptical. They are suspicious of unsupported generalizations. They want speakers to justify their claims. If you hope to be persuasive, you must support your views with evidence. Whenever you say something that is open to question, you should give evidence to prove you are right.

Evidence is particularly important in classroom speeches because few students are recognized as experts on their speech topics. Research has shown that speakers with very high initial credibility do not need to use as much evidence as do speakers with lower credibility. For most speakers, though, strong evidence is absolutely necessary. It can enhance your credibility, increase both the immediate and long-term persuasiveness of your message, and help "inoculate" listeners against counterpersuasion.[4]

evidence
Supporting materials used to prove or disprove something.

Evidence is also crucial whenever your target audience opposes your point of view. As we saw in Chapter 15, listeners in such a situation will mentally argue with you—asking questions, raising objections, and creating counterarguments to "answer" what you say. The success of your speech will depend partly on how well you anticipate these internal responses and give evidence to refute them.

You may want to review Chapter 7, which shows how to use supporting materials. The following case study illustrates how they work as evidence in a persuasive speech.

HOW EVIDENCE WORKS: A CASE STUDY

Let's say one of your classmates is talking about the harmful effects of repeated exposure to loud music and other noises. Instead of just telling you what she thinks, the speaker offers strong evidence to prove her point. Notice how she carries on a mental dialogue with her listeners. She imagines what they might be thinking, anticipates their questions and objections, and gives evidence to answer the questions and resolve the objections.

She begins this way:

> As college students we are exposed to loud music and other noise all the time. We go to parties, clubs, and concerts where the volume is so loud we have to shout so the person next to us can hear what we are saying. We turn our iPods so high they can be heard halfway across the room. And we seldom give it a second thought. But we should, because excessive noise can have a serious impact on our health and well-being.

How do you react? If you already know about the problems caused by noise pollution, you probably nod your head in agreement. But what if you don't

know? Or don't agree? If you enjoy rock concerts and listening to your iPod at high volumes, you probably don't *want* to hear about it. Certainly you will not be persuaded by a general statement about exposure to loud music. Mentally you say to the speaker, "How do you know? Can you prove it?"

Anticipating just such a response, the speaker gives evidence to support her point:

> The American Medical Association reports that 31 million Americans have some degree of hearing loss, and that 15 million of those cases are caused by too much exposure to loud noise.

"That's unfortunate," you may think. "But everyone loses some hearing as they grow old. Why should I be concerned about it now?" The speaker answers:

> In an alarming trend, more and more victims of noise-induced deafness are adolescents and even younger children. According to the American Academy of Audiology, 5.2 million children in the U.S. between ages 6 and 19 have some hearing damage from amplified music and other sources. Audiologist Dean Garsetcki, head of the hearing-impairment program at Northwestern University, says, "We've got 21-year-olds walking around with hearing-loss patterns of people 40 years their senior."

"These are impressive facts," you say to yourself. "Luckily, I haven't noticed any problems with my hearing. When I do, I'll just be careful until it gets better." Keeping one step ahead of you, the speaker continues:

> The problem with hearing loss is that it creeps up on you. *Sierra* magazine notes that today's hard-rock fans won't notice the effects of their hearing loss for another 15 years. And then it will be too late.

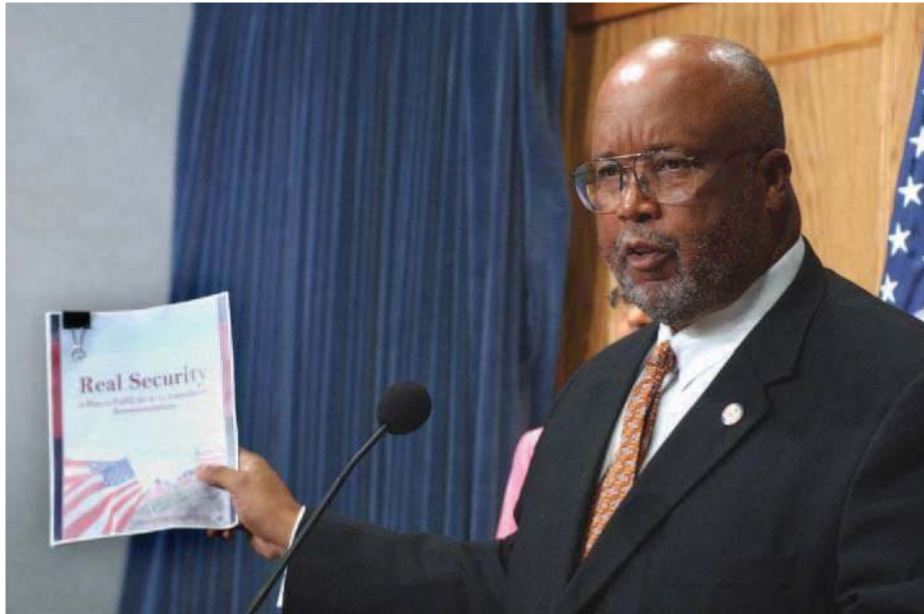
"What do you mean, too late?" you ask mentally. The speaker tells you:

> Unlike some physical conditions, hearing loss is irreversible. Loud noise damages the microscopic hairs in the inner ear that transmit sound to the auditory nerve. Once damaged, those hairs can never recover and can never be repaired.

"I didn't know that," you say to yourself. "Is there anything else?"

> One last point. Repeated exposure to loud music and other noise does more than damage your hearing. The latest issue of *Prevention* magazine reports that excessive noise has been linked to such problems as stress, high blood pressure, chronic headaches, fatigue, learning disorders, even heart disease. It's easy to see why Jill Lipoti, chief of Rutgers University's Noise Technical Assistance Center, warns that "noise affects more people than any other pollutant."

Now are you convinced? Chances are you will at least think about the possible consequences the next time you are set to pump up the volume on your iPod. Maybe you will use earplugs at a rock concert. You may even begin to reassess your whole attitude toward noise pollution. Why? Because the speaker supported each of her claims with evidence. You should try to do the same in your persuasive speeches.



Persuasive speeches need strong evidence to convince skeptical listeners. Finding the best evidence often takes hard digging, but it is well worth the effort.

TIPS FOR USING EVIDENCE

Any of the supporting materials discussed in Chapter 7—examples, statistics, testimony—can work as evidence in a persuasive speech. As we saw in that chapter, there are guidelines for using each kind of supporting material regardless of the kind of speech you are giving. Here we look at four special tips for using evidence in a persuasive speech.

Use Specific Evidence

No matter what kind of evidence you employ—statistics, examples, or testimony—it will be more persuasive if you state it in specific rather than general terms.[5] In the speech about noise pollution, for instance, the speaker did not say, "Lots of people suffer from hearing loss." That would have left the audience wondering how many "lots" amounts to. By saying "31 million Americans have some degree of hearing loss," the speaker made her point much more effectively. She also enhanced her credibility by showing she had a firm grasp of the facts.

Use Novel Evidence

Evidence is more likely to be persuasive if it is new to the audience.[6] You will gain little by citing facts and figures that are already well known to your listeners. If they have not persuaded your listeners already, they will not do so now. You must go beyond what the audience already knows and present striking new evidence that will get them to say, "Hmmm, I didn't know *that*. Maybe I should rethink the issue." Finding such evidence usually requires hard digging and resourceful research, but the rewards are worth the effort.

Use Evidence from Credible Sources

Listeners find evidence from competent, credible sources more persuasive than evidence from less qualified sources.[7] Above all, listeners are suspicious of evidence

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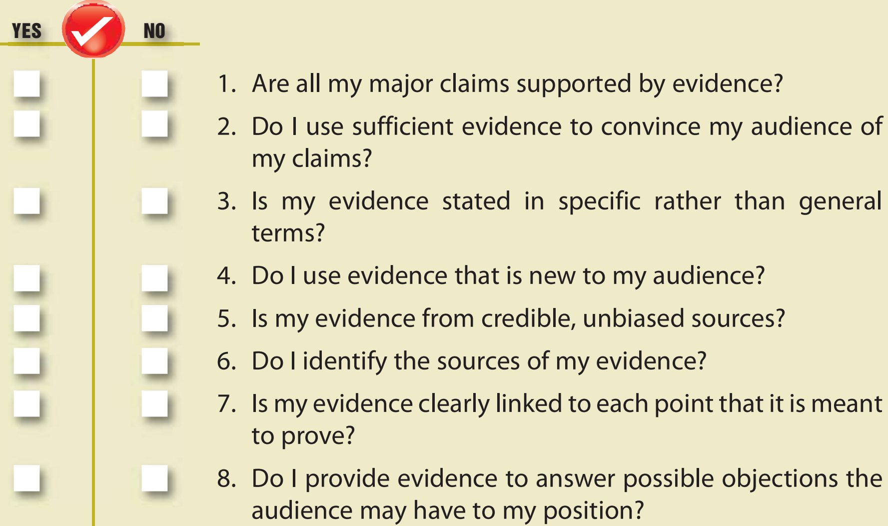

Checklist Evidence

YES	NO	
☐	☐	1. Are all my major claims supported by evidence?
☐	☐	2. Do I use sufficient evidence to convince my audience of my claims?
☐	☐	3. Is my evidence stated in specific rather than general terms?
☐	☐	4. Do I use evidence that is new to my audience?
☐	☐	5. Is my evidence from credible, unbiased sources?
☐	☐	6. Do I identify the sources of my evidence?
☐	☐	7. Is my evidence clearly linked to each point that it is meant to prove?
☐	☐	8. Do I provide evidence to answer possible objections the audience may have to my position?

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This checklist is also available in the online Study Tools for thie chapter.

from sources that appear to be biased or self-interested. In assessing the current state of airline safety, for example, they are more likely to be persuaded by testimony from impartial aviation experts than from the president of American Airlines. If you wish to be persuasive, rely on evidence from objective, nonpartisan sources.

Make Clear the Point of Your Evidence

When speaking to persuade, you use evidence to prove a point. Yet you would be surprised how many novice speakers present their evidence without making clear the point it is supposed to prove. A number of studies have shown that you cannot count on listeners to draw, on their own, the conclusion you want them to reach.[8] When using evidence, be sure listeners understand the point you are trying to make.

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View this excerpt from "Putting the Brakes on Teenage Driving" in the online Media Library for this chapter (Video Clip 16.3).

Notice, for example, how the speaker in Video Clip 16.3 in the online Media Library for this chapter drives home the point of her evidence about the number of motor vehicle fatalities involving teenage drivers:

> According to the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration, while teenagers make up 7 percent of the nation's licensed drivers, they represent 14 percent of all motor vehicle fatalities. The NHTSA reports that last year 3,657 drivers aged 16 to 20 were killed in automobile accidents. In addition to killing the drivers, these same accidents took the lives of 2,384 teenage passengers. But these accidents didn't affect teenagers alone. They also took the lives of 2,625 people aged 21 or older.
>
> So the total number of people killed last year in automobile accidents involving teenage drivers was 8,666—almost exactly the number of full-time students at this campus.

logos
The name used by Aristotle for the logical appeal of a speaker. The two major elements of *logos* are evidence and reasoning.

Evidence is one element of what Aristotle referred to as *logos*—the logical appeal of a speaker. The other major element of *logos* is reasoning, which works in combination with evidence to help make a speaker's claims persuasive.

Reasoning

The story is told about Hack Wilson, a hard-hitting outfielder for the Brooklyn Dodgers baseball team in the 1930s.[9] Wilson was a great player, but he had a fondness for the good life. His drinking exploits were legendary. He was known to spend the entire night on the town, stagger into the team's hotel at the break of dawn, grab a couple hours sleep, and get to the ballpark just in time for the afternoon game.

This greatly distressed Max Carey, Wilson's manager. At the next team meeting, Carey spent much time explaining the evils of drink. To prove his point, he stood beside a table on which he had placed two glasses and a plate of live angleworms. One glass was filled with water, the other with gin—Wilson's favorite beverage. With a flourish Carey dropped a worm into the glass of water. It wriggled happily. Next Carey plunged the same worm into the gin. It promptly stiffened and expired.

A murmur ran through the room, and some players were obviously impressed. But not Wilson. He didn't even seem interested. Carey waited a little, hoping for some delayed reaction from his wayward slugger. When none came, he prodded, "Do you follow my reasoning, Wilson?"

"Sure, skipper," answered Wilson. "It proves that if you drink gin, you'll never get worms!"

And what does this story prove? No matter how strong your evidence, you will not be persuasive unless listeners grasp your reasoning.

Reasoning is the process of drawing a conclusion based on evidence. Sometimes we reason well—as when we conclude that ice particles forming on the trees may mean the roads will be slippery. Other times we reason less effectively—as when we conclude that spilling salt will bring bad luck. Most superstitions are actually no more than instances of faulty reasoning.

reasoning
The process of drawing a conclusion on the basis of evidence.

Reasoning in public speaking is an extension of reasoning in other aspects of life. As a public speaker, you have two major concerns with respect to reasoning. First, you must make sure your own reasoning is sound. Second, you must try to get listeners to agree with your reasoning. Let us look, then, at four basic methods of reasoning and how to use them in your speeches.

REASONING FROM SPECIFIC INSTANCES

When you reason from specific instances, you progress from a number of particular facts to a general conclusion.[10] For example:

reasoning from specific instances
Reasoning that moves from particular facts to a general conclusion.

Fact 1: My physical education course last term was easy.

Fact 2: My roommate's physical education course was easy.

Fact 3: My brother's physical education course was easy.

Conclusion: Physical education courses are easy.

As this example suggests, we use reasoning from specific instances daily, although we probably don't realize it. Think for a moment of all the general conclusions that arise in conversation: Politicians are corrupt. Professors are bookish. Dorm food is awful. Where do such conclusions come from? They come from observing particular politicians, professors, dormitories, and so on.

The same thing happens in public speaking. The speaker who concludes that unethical business practices are common in the United States because

several major corporations have been guilty of fraud in recent years is reasoning from specific instances. So is the speaker who argues that anti-Semitism is increasing on college campuses because there have been a number of attacks on Jewish students and symbols at schools across the nation.

Such conclusions are never foolproof. No matter how many specific instances you give (and you can give only a few in a speech), it is always possible that an exception exists. Throughout the ages people observed countless white swans in Europe without seeing any of a different color. It seemed an undeniable fact that all swans were white. Then, in the 19th century, black swans were discovered in Australia![11]

Guidelines for Reasoning from Specific Instances

When you reason from specific instances, you should follow a few basic guidelines.

hasty generalization
An error in reasoning from specific instances, in which a speaker jumps to a general conclusion on the basis of insufficient evidence.

First, avoid generalizing too hastily. Beware of the tendency to jump to conclusions on the basis of insufficient evidence. Make sure your sample of specific instances is large enough to justify your conclusion. Also make sure the instances you present are fair, unbiased, and representative. (Are three physical education courses *enough* to conclude that physical education courses in general are easy? Are the three courses *typical* of most physical education courses?)

Second, be careful with your wording. If your evidence does not justify a sweeping conclusion, qualify your argument. Suppose you are talking about the crisis in America's national park system brought on by overuse and commercial development. You document the problem by discussing some specific instances—Yosemite, Yellowstone, the Everglades. Then you draw your conclusion. You might say:

> As we have seen, America's national park system is serving more than 400 million people a year, with the result that some parks are being overcome by traffic, pollution, and garbage. We have also seen that more and more parks are being exploited for mining, logging, and other forms of commercial development. It certainly seems fair, then, to conclude that new measures are needed to ensure that the beauty, serenity, and biological diversity of America's national parks are preserved for future generations as well as for our own.

This is not as dramatic as saying, "America's national parks are on the brink of destruction," but it is more accurate and will be more persuasive to careful listeners.

Third, reinforce your argument with statistics or testimony. Since you can never give enough specific instances to make your conclusion irrefutable, you should supplement them with testimony or statistics demonstrating that the instances are representative. When talking about prescription drug abuse, you might say:

> Prescription drug overdoses have skyrocketed in recent years. Consider the most publicized cases. In early 2008, actor Heath Ledger overdosed from a lethal cocktail of six different prescription drugs. A year earlier, model Anna Nicole Smith died from a dangerous mixture of nine prescription drugs. And five months before that, Smith's son, Daniel, died from a combination of at least three prescription drugs.

These specific examples help make the conclusion persuasive, but a listener could easily dismiss them as sensational and atypical. To prevent this, you might go on to say:

> The problem is not limited to the rich and famous. As reported by the Centers for Disease Control, the number of prescription drug overdoses has almost doubled over the past decade, making it the second leading cause of accidental death in the United States, right behind automobile accidents. Each year more than 20,000 people die from adverse reactions to prescription drugs. According to Leonard Paulozzi, a medical epidemiologist with the CDC: "Judged by any measure, . . . the prescription drug problem is a crisis that is steadily worsening."

With this backup material, not even a skeptical listener could reject your examples as isolated.

When you reason from specific instances, you can either state your conclusion and then give the specific instances on which it is based or give the specific instances and then draw your conclusion. Look back at the example about national parks on page 362. In that example, the speaker first gives three facts and then draws a conclusion. In the example about prescription drug overdoses, the conclusion is stated first, followed by three specific instances. It doesn't matter which order you use as long as your facts support your conclusion.

REASONING FROM PRINCIPLE

Reasoning from principle is the opposite of reasoning from specific instances. It moves from the general to the specific.[12] When you reason from principle, you progress from a general principle to a specific conclusion. We are all familiar with this kind of reasoning from statements such as the following:

reasoning from principle
Reasoning that moves from a general principle to a specific conclusion.

1. All people are mortal.
2. Socrates is a person.
3. Therefore, Socrates is mortal.

This is a classic example of reasoning from principle. You begin with a general statement ("All people are mortal"), move to a minor premise ("Socrates is a person"), and end with a specific conclusion ("Socrates is mortal").

Speakers often use reasoning from principle when trying to persuade an audience. One of the clearest examples from American history is Susan B. Anthony's famous speech "Is It a Crime for U.S. Citizens to Vote?" Delivered on numerous occasions in 1872 and 1873, at a time when women were legally barred from voting, Anthony's speech reasoned along the following lines:

1. The United States Constitution guarantees all U.S. citizens the right to vote.
2. Women are U.S. citizens.
3. Therefore, the United States Constitution guarantees women the right to vote.

This argument progresses from a general principle ("The United States Constitution guarantees all U.S. citizens the right to vote") through a minor premise

("Women are U.S. citizens") to a conclusion ("Therefore, the United States Constitution guarantees women the right to vote").

Guidelines for Reasoning from Principle

When you use reasoning from principle in a speech, pay special attention to your general principle. Will listeners accept it without evidence? If not, give evidence to support it before moving to your minor premise. You may also need to support your minor premise with evidence. When both the general principle and the minor premise are soundly based, your audience will be much more likely to accept your conclusion.

Suppose, for example, that you plan to speak about excessive sugar in the American diet. You begin by formulating a specific purpose:

Specific Purpose: To persuade my audience to limit their consumption of soft drinks, desserts, candies, sweetened dairy products, and other foods with high sugar content.

Next, you decide to use reasoning from principle to help persuade your audience. Your argument looks like this:

1. Excessive consumption of refined sugar is unhealthy.
2. Soft drinks, desserts, candies, and sweetened dairy products contain excessive amounts of sugar.
3. Therefore, excessive consumption of soft drinks, desserts, candies, and sweetened dairy products is unhealthy.

To make the argument persuasive, you have to support your general principle: "Excessive consumption of refined sugar is unhealthy." You cite medical evidence and research studies. Part of your argument might go like this:

> High sugar intake has been linked with diabetes, osteoporosis, cancer, high blood pressure, and heart disease, not to mention tooth decay and obesity. Indeed, the Harvard School of Public Health has identified sugar-sweetened sodas as a major cause of the U.S. obesity epidemic and the alarming increase in Type II diabetes. According to the American Medical Association, high sugar intake is among the most serious health problems facing the United States.

Having supported your general principle, you bolster your minor premise: "Soft drinks, desserts, candies, and sweetened dairy products contain excessive amounts of sugar." Your evidence includes the following:

> The World Health Organization recommends that people consume no more than 48 grams of refined sugar a day. But just one can of Pepsi, 7-Up, or Mountain Dew delivers 40 grams. A large McDonald's milk shake contains 48 grams—as does one Cinnabon or one slice of cherry pie. Add ice cream to the pie and the sugar content exceeds 60 grams. A 5-ounce candy bar has 25 grams of sugar. Even foods that are supposed to be nutritious can contain large amounts of added sugar. An 8-ounce serving of fruit yogurt has 36 grams, while a glass of whole milk contains 16 grams. No wonder we have a sugar overload!

Reasoning is an important part of persuasive speaking. In a legal trial, for example, neither the prosecution nor the defense is likely to sway the jury unless their reasoning is clear and convincing.

Now you have supported your general principle and your minor premise. You can feel confident in going on to your conclusion:

Therefore, excessive consumption of soft drinks, desserts, candies, and sweetened dairy products is unhealthy.

And you can expect your audience to take you seriously. When used properly, reasoning from principle is highly persuasive.

CAUSAL REASONING

There is a patch of ice on the sidewalk. You slip, fall, and break your arm. You reason as follows: "*Because* that patch of ice was there, I fell and broke my arm." This is an example of causal reasoning, in which someone tries to establish the relationship between causes and effects.

causal reasoning
Reasoning that seeks to establish the relationship between causes and effects.

As with reasoning from specific instances, we use causal reasoning daily. Something happens and we ask what caused it to happen. We want to know the causes of chronic fatigue syndrome, of the football team's latest defeat, of our roommate's peculiar habits. We also wonder about effects. We speculate about the consequences of chronic fatigue syndrome on life expectancy, of the star quarterback's leg injury, of telling our roommate that a change is needed.

Guidelines for Causal Reasoning

As any scientist (or detective) will tell you, causal reasoning can be tricky. The relationship between causes and effects is not always clear. There are two common errors to avoid when using causal reasoning.

The first is the fallacy of false cause. This fallacy is often known by its Latin name, *post hoc, ergo propter hoc,* which means "after this, therefore because of this." In other words, the fact that one event happens after another does not mean that the first is the cause of the second. The closeness in time of the two

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Although it was written more than 2,000 years ago, Aristotle's *Rhetoric* remains the classic work on the methods of persuasion. You can access the full text of the *Rhetoric* on the Web at http://classics.mit.edu/Aristotle/rhetoric.html. For links to more than 25,000 other electronic books, log on to Project Gutenberg at www.gutenberg.org/wiki/Main_Page.

Are you giving your persuasive speech on a topic currently in the news? If so, you may be able to find materials on it by logging on to NewsDirectory (www.newsdirectory.com/), which provides hundreds of links to newspapers, magazines, broadcasters, and news services worldwide.

events may be entirely coincidental. If a black cat crosses your path and five minutes later you fall and break your arm, you needn't blame your accident on the poor cat.

One student in speech class argued that a rise in SAT scores for students in her state was caused by the election of a new superintendent of public instruction the previous year. Her reasoning? The superintendent had pledged in his campaign to reverse the state's recent decline in SAT scores. Within a year after he took office, SAT scores had improved. Therefore, the improvement was caused by the new superintendent. The student's classmates were not impressed. They pointed out that the timing of the two events did not prove that one *caused* the other; SAT scores would have risen regardless of who won the election.

false cause
An error in causal reasoning in which a speaker mistakenly assumes that because one event follows another, the first event is the cause of the second. This error is often known by its Latin name, *post hoc, ergo propter hoc,* meaning "after this, therefore because of this."

A second pitfall to avoid when using causal reasoning is assuming that events have only one cause. In fact, most events have several causes. What causes the economy to boom or bust? Interest rates? Gas prices? Tax policy? Labor costs? Consumer confidence? World affairs? *All* these factors—and others—affect the economy. When you use causal reasoning, be wary of the temptation to attribute complex events to single causes.

You cannot escape causal reasoning. All of us use it daily, and you are almost certain to use it when speaking to persuade—especially if you deal with a question of fact or policy.

ANALOGICAL REASONING

What do these statements have in common?

analogical reasoning
Reasoning in which a speaker compares two similar cases and infers that what is true for the first case is also true for the second.

> If you're good at racquetball, you'll be great at Ping-Pong.
>
> In Great Britain the general election campaign for Prime Minister lasts less than three weeks. Surely we can do the same with the U.S. presidential election.

Both statements use reasoning from analogy. By comparing two similar cases, they infer that what is true for one must be true for the other.

Guidelines for Analogical Reasoning

The most important question in assessing analogical reasoning is whether the two cases being compared are essentially alike. If they are essentially alike, the analogy is valid. If they are not essentially alike, the analogy is invalid.

Look back to the analogies at the start of this section. Is playing racquetball the same as playing Ping-Pong? Not really. Both involve hitting a ball with a racquet or a paddle. But racquetball uses a stringed racquet and a rubber ball. Ping-Pong uses a solid paddle and a smaller, lighter, celluloid ball. Racquetball is played by hitting the ball against the walls or ceiling of an enclosed court. Ping-Pong is played by hitting the ball back and forth over a net stretched across a table. Skill at one is no guarantee of skill at the other. The analogy is not valid.

What about the second analogy? That depends on how much alike the British and American political systems are. Are the countries similar in size and diversity? Is it possible for candidates in both countries to canvass the entire land in less than three weeks? Does the party system operate the same in both countries? In other words, are the factors that allow Great Britain to conduct campaigns for Prime Minister in less than three weeks also present in the United States? If so, the analogy is valid. If not, the analogy is invalid.

invalid analogy
An analogy in which the two cases being compared are not essentially alike.

Reasoning from analogy is used most often in persuasive speeches on questions of policy. When arguing for a new policy, you should find out whether it has been tried elsewhere. You may be able to claim that your policy will work because it has worked in like circumstances. Here is how one student used reasoning from analogy to support her claim that controlling handguns will reduce violent crime in the United States:

> Will my policy work? The experience of foreign countries suggests it will. In England, guns are tightly regulated; even the police are unarmed, and the murder rate is trivial by American standards. In Japan, the ownership of weapons is severely restricted, and handguns are completely prohibited. Japan is an almost gun-free country, and its crime rate is even lower than England's. On the basis of these comparisons, we can conclude that restricting the ownership of guns will control the crime and murder rates in America.

By the same token, if you argue against a change in policy, you should check whether the proposed policy—or something like it—has been implemented elsewhere. Here, too, you may be able to support your case by reasoning from analogy—as did one student who opposed gun control:

> Advocates of gun control point to foreign countries to prove their case. They often cite England, which has strict gun control laws and little violent crime. But the key to low personal violence in England—and other foreign countries—is not gun control laws but the generally peaceful character of the people. For example, Switzerland has a militia system; 750,000 assault rifles and military pistols are sitting at this moment in Swiss homes. Yet Switzerland's murder rate is only 15 percent of ours. In other words, cultural factors are much more important than gun control when it comes to violent crime.

As these examples illustrate, argument from analogy can be used on both sides of an issue. You are more likely to persuade your audience if the analogy shows a truly parallel situation.

FALLACIES

A fallacy is an error in reasoning. As a speaker, you need to avoid fallacies in your speeches. As a listener, you need to be alert to fallacies in the speeches you hear.

Logicians have identified more than 125 different fallacies. Earlier in this chapter, we discussed three of the most important: hasty generalization (pages 362–363), false cause (pages 365–366), and invalid analogy (pages 366–367). Here we look at five other fallacies you should guard against.

fallacy
An error in reasoning.

Red Herring

The name of this fallacy comes from an old trick used by farmers in England to keep fox hunters and their hounds from galloping through the crops. By dragging a smoked herring with a strong odor along the edge of their fields, the farmers could throw the dogs off track by destroying the scent of the fox.

A speaker who uses a red herring introduces an irrelevant issue in order to divert attention from the subject under discussion. For instance:

red herring
A fallacy that introduces an irrelevant issue to divert attention from the subject under discussion.

> How dare my opponents accuse me of political corruption at a time when we are working to improve the quality of life for all people in the United States.

What does the speaker's concern about the quality of life in the U.S. have to do with whether he or she is guilty of political corruption? Nothing! It is a red herring used to divert attention away from the real issue.

Ad Hominem

Latin for "against the man," *ad hominem* refers to the fallacy of attacking the person rather than dealing with the real issue in dispute. For instance:

ad hominem
A fallacy that attacks the person rather then dealing with the real issue in dispute.

> The head of the commerce commission has a number of interesting economic proposals, but let's not forget that she comes from a very wealthy family.

By impugning the commissioner's family background rather than dealing with the substance of her economic proposals, the speaker is engaging in an *ad hominem* attack.

Sometimes, of course, a person's character or integrity can be a legitimate issue—as in the case of a police chief who violates the law or a corporate president who swindles stockholders. In such cases, a speaker might well raise questions about the person without being guilty of the *ad hominem* fallacy.

Either-Or

Sometimes referred to as a false dilemma, the either-or fallacy forces listeners to choose between two alternatives when more than two alternatives exist. For example:

either-or
A fallacy that forces listeners to choose between two alternatives when more than two alternatives exist.

> The government must either raise taxes or reduce services for the poor.

This statement oversimplifies a complex issue by reducing it to a simple either-or choice. Is it true that the only choices are to raise taxes or to reduce services for the poor? A careful listener might ask, "What about cutting the administrative cost of government or eliminating pork-barrel projects instead?".

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In addition to using evidence to support their ideas, effective speakers such as Bill Richardson take care to avoid fallacies in reasoning that may undermine their credibility and persuasiveness.

You will be more persuasive as a speaker and more perceptive as a listener if you are alert to the either-or fallacy.

Bandwagon

How often have you heard someone say, "It's a great idea—everyone agrees with it"? This is a classic example of the bandwagon fallacy, which assumes that because something is popular, it is therefore good, correct, or desirable.

bandwagon
A fallacy that assumes that because something is popular, it is therefore good, correct, or desirable.

Much advertising is based on the bandwagon fallacy. The fact that more people use Tylenol than Advil does not prove that Tylenol is a better pain reliever. Tylenol's popularity could be due to aggressive marketing. The question of which product does a better job reducing pain is a medical issue that has nothing to do with popularity.

The bandwagon fallacy is also evident in political speeches. Consider the following statement:

> The governor must be correct in his approach to social policy; after all, the polls show that 60 percent of the people support him.

This statement is fallacious because popular opinion cannot be taken as proof that an idea is right or wrong. Remember, "everyone" used to believe that the world is flat, that space flight is impossible, and that women should not attend college with men!

Slippery Slope

The slippery slope fallacy takes its name from the image of a boulder rolling uncontrollably down a steep hill. Once the boulder gets started, it can't be stopped until it reaches the bottom.

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A speaker who commits the slippery slope fallacy assumes that taking a first step will lead inevitably to a second step and so on down the slope to disaster—as in the following example:

slippery slope
A fallacy that assumes that taking a first step will lead to subsequent steps that cannot be prevented.

Passing federal laws to control the amount of violence in video games is the first step in a process that will result in absolute government control of the media and total censorship over all forms of artistic expression.

If a speaker claims that taking a first step will lead inevitably to a series of disastrous later steps, he or she needs to provide evidence or reasoning to support the claim. To assume that all the later steps will occur without proving that they will is to commit the slippery slope fallacy.[13]

Appealing to Emotions

Effective persuasion often requires emotional appeal. As the Roman rhetorician Quintilian stated, "It is feeling and force of imagination that make us eloquent."[14] By adding "feeling" and the "force of imagination" to your logical arguments, you can become a more compelling persuasive speaker.

WHAT ARE EMOTIONAL APPEALS?

pathos
The name used by Aristotle for what modern students of communication refer to as emotional appeal.

Emotional appeals—what Aristotle referred to as *pathos*—are intended to make listeners feel sad, angry, guilty, afraid, happy, proud, sympathetic, reverent, or the like. These are often appropriate reactions when the question is one of value or policy. As George Campbell wrote in his *Philosophy of Rhetoric,* "When persuasion is the end, passion also must be engaged."[15]

Below is a list of some of the emotions evoked most often by public speakers. Following each emotion are a few examples of subjects that might stir that emotion:

- *Fear*—of serious illness, of natural disasters, of sexual assault, of personal rejection, of economic hardship.
- *Compassion*—for the physically disabled, for battered women, for neglected animals, for starving children, for victims of AIDS.
- *Pride*—in one's country, in one's family, in one's school, in one's ethnic heritage, in one's personal accomplishments.
- *Anger*—at terrorists and their supporters, at business leaders who act unethically, at members of Congress who abuse the public trust, at landlords who exploit student tenants, at vandals and thieves.
- *Guilt*—about not helping people less fortunate than ourselves, about not considering the rights of others, about not doing one's best.
- *Reverence*—for an admired person, for traditions and institutions, for one's deity.

There are many other emotions and many other subjects that might stir them. However, this brief sample should give you an idea of the kinds of emotional appeals you might use to enhance the message of your persuasive speech.

Emotional appeals often make a persuasive speech more compelling. Such appeals should always be used ethically and should not be substituted for facts and logic.

GENERATING EMOTIONAL APPEAL

Use Emotional Language

As we saw in Chapter 11, one way to generate emotional appeal is to use emotion-laden words. Here, for instance, is part of the conclusion from a student speech about the challenges and rewards of working as a community volunteer with young children:

> The promise of America sparkles in the eyes of every child. Their dreams are the glittering dreams of America. When those dreams are dashed, when innocent hopes are betrayed, so are the dreams and hopes of the entire nation. It is our duty—to me, it is a sacred duty—to give all children the chance to learn and grow, to share equally in the American dream of freedom, justice, and opportunity.

The underlined words and phrases have strong emotional power, and in this case they produced the desired effect. Be aware, however, that packing too many emotionally charged words into one part of a speech can call attention to the emotional language itself and undermine its impact. The emotion rests in your audience, not in your words. Even the coldest facts can touch off an emotional response if they strike the right chords in a listener.

Develop Vivid Examples

Often a better approach than relying on emotionally charged language is to let emotional appeal grow naturally out of the content of your speech. The most effective way to do this is with vivid, richly textured examples that pull listeners into the speech.

Here is how one speaker used a vivid example for emotional appeal. She was speaking to a citizens' group on behalf of CARE, a world humanitarian organization, about the malaria epidemic in Africa. Here is what she might have said, stripping the content of emotional appeal:

> Malaria is one of the biggest problems facing Africa. Many die from it every day. If the rest of the world doesn't help, the malaria epidemic will only get worse.

What she actually said went something like this:

Nathan was only five years old when the fever struck him. At first, no one knew what was wrong. No one knew that parasites inside his body had infected his red blood cells. No one knew those cells were clumping together, choking the flow of blood through his body and damaging his vital organs. No one knew his kidneys would soon fail and seizures would begin. No one knew he would wind up in a coma.

The parasites in Nathan's body came from a mosquito bite, a bite that gave him malaria. And Nathan is not alone. The World Health Organization tells us the horrible truth: In Africa, a child dies from malaria every 30 seconds.

People who listen to a speech like that will not soon forget it. They may well be moved to action—as the speaker intends. The first speech, however, is not nearly as compelling. Listeners may well nod their heads, think to themselves "good idea"—and then forget about it. The story of Nathan and his tragic fate gives the second speech emotional impact and brings it home to listeners in personal terms.

Speak with Sincerity and Conviction

Ronald Reagan was one of the most effective speakers in recent U.S. history. Even people who disagreed with his political views often found him irresistible. Why? Partly because he seemed to speak with great sincerity and conviction.

What was true for Reagan is true for you as well. The strongest source of emotional power is your conviction and sincerity. All your emotion-laden words and examples are but empty trappings unless *you* feel the emotion yourself. And if you do, your emotion will communicate itself to the audience through everything you say and do—not only through your words, but also through your tone of voice, rate of speech, gestures, and facial expressions.

ETHICS AND EMOTIONAL APPEAL

Much has been written about the ethics of emotional appeal in speechmaking. Some people have taken the extreme position that ethical speakers should avoid emotional appeal entirely. To support this view, they point to speakers who have used emotional appeal to fan the flames of hatred, bigotry, and fanaticism.

There is no question that emotional appeals can be abused by unscrupulous speakers for detestable causes. But emotional appeals can also be wielded by honorable speakers for noble causes—by Winston Churchill to rouse the world against Adolf Hitler and the forces of Nazism, by Martin Luther King to call for racial justice. Few people would question the ethics of emotional appeal in these instances.

Nor is it always possible to draw a sharp line between reason and emotional appeal. Think back to the story of Nathan, the five-year-old boy who was infected with malaria. The story certainly has strong emotional appeal. But is there anything unreasonable about it? Or is it irrational for listeners to respond to it by donating to anti-malarial causes? By the same token, is it illogical to be compassionate for victims of terrorism? Angered by corporate wrongdoing? Fearful about cutbacks in student aid? Reason and emotion often work hand in hand.

One key to using emotional appeal ethically is to make sure it is appropriate to the speech topic. If you want to move listeners to act on a question of policy, emotional appeals are not only legitimate but perhaps necessary. If you want listeners to do something as a result of your speech, you will probably need to appeal to their hearts as well as to their heads.

Emotional language and vivid examples can help generate emotional appeal, but neither are effective unless the speaker talks with genuine sincerity and conviction.

On the other hand, emotional appeals are usually inappropriate in a persuasive speech on a question of fact. Here you should deal only in specific information and logic. Suppose someone charges your state governor with illegal campaign activities. If you respond by saying, "I'm sure the charge is false because I have always admired the governor," or "I'm sure the charge is true because I have always disliked the governor," then you are guilty of applying emotional criteria to a purely factual question.

Even when trying to move listeners to action, you should never substitute emotional appeals for evidence and reasoning. You should *always* build your persuasive speech on a firm foundation of facts and logic. This is important not just for ethical reasons, but for practical ones as well. Unless you prove your case, careful listeners will not be stirred by your emotional appeals. You need to build a good case based on reason *and* kindle the emotions of your audience.[16]

When you use emotional appeal, keep in mind the guidelines for ethical speechmaking discussed in Chapter 2. Make sure your goals are ethically sound, that you are honest in what you say, and that you avoid name-calling and other forms of abusive language. In using emotional appeal, as in other respects, your classroom speeches will offer a good testing ground for questions of ethical responsibility.

Sample Speech with Commentary

The following persuasive speech deals with a question of policy and is organized according to Monroe's motivated sequence. As you read the speech, notice how the speaker utilizes the methods of persuasion discussed in this chapter as she moves through each step of the motivated sequence. The speech also provides an excellent example of how a speaker's delivery can enhance his or her credibility and emotional appeal—as you can see by watching Video Clip 16.4 in the online Media Library for this chapter.

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View "Making a Difference Through the Special Olympics" in the online Media Library for this chapter (Video Clip 16.4).

Making a Difference Through the Special Olympics

COMMENTARY	SPEECH
The first step in Monroe's motivated sequence is gaining the attention of the audience, which the speaker does with an extended example. In this case, the example also has strong emotional appeal.	In Seattle, nine young athletes gathered at the starting line for the 100-yard dash. At the gun, they all started off, not exactly in a dash, but with a desire to run the race to the finish and win. All except one little boy who stumbled on the asphalt, tumbled over a couple of times, and began to cry. The other runners heard the boy cry. They stopped; they looked back. Then they all went back to the boy's side—every single one of them. One girl with Down syndrome kissed him and said, "This will make it better." Then all nine linked arms and walked to the finish line—together.
The speaker moves from her opening example to reveal the topic of her speech.	These athletes were not competing on national television. They were not sponsored or idolized. But they were given the opportunity to flourish under the glow of their own spotlight, to feel the brush of the ribbon cross their chests as they ran through their own finish line in their own Olympics—the Special Olympics.
Even though all members of her audience knew about the Special Olympics before the speech, the speaker quickly reminds them of the organization's ideals. She then relates the topic directly to her classmates at a personal level.	Founded in 1968, Special Olympics invited the world to let go of limiting views, unyielding prejudices, and ignorant misconceptions about people with cognitive disabilities and to embrace the idea that they can be respected, valued, contributing members of society. Just think, one of the kids who ran through that finish line could have fallen into your arms. Or, maybe one day, could be your own child.
The speaker establishes her credibility and provides a preview statement that leads into the body of the speech.	After working as a volunteer for the Special Olympics and doing additional research for this speech, I'd like to encourage you to become involved as a volunteer for the Special Olympics. We'll start by looking at the need for volunteers.
Now the speaker moves into the need step of Monroe's motivated sequence. Drawing from the Special Olympics Web site, she provides information about the number of participants and the continuing need for volunteers.	According to the Special Olympics Web site, more than 1.3 million people compete in Special Olympics around the world. Participants must be at least eight years old and be identified as having a cognitive or intellectual disability. There are currently 200 Special Olympics programs running in over 150 countries.
Rather than talking about the need for volunteers in general terms, the speaker relates to the audience by focusing on the situation in Wisconsin, where the speech was delivered.	As the Special Olympics continues to grow, so does the need for volunteers. Here in Wisconsin, there are 10,000 athletes and 3,500 volunteer coaches. But because of all the individual attention required by Special Olympics athletes, there's always a need for more volunteer coaches, or for loads of other volunteers as well.

This paragraph begins with a transition into the satisfaction section of the speech. Notice how the speaker explains that one does not need to be a great athlete or have prior coaching experience to volunteer as a Special Olympics coach. This kind of specificity is important whenever a speaker wants to persuade an audience to take immediate action.

Now you know the need for Special Olympics volunteers. So the question is: What can you do to help? The answer is: Become a volunteer. The most obvious way to become a volunteer is to become a coach. Now, you don't have to be a great athlete. You don't have to have any prior coaching experience. Special Olympics offers a general course on the principles of coaching, in addition to a mentoring program in which the new coaches receive guidance from the experienced coaches.

The speaker provides options for her listeners by noting that one can volunteer in ways other than coaching and that one's contributions to Special Olympics can vary depending on the level of commitment a person is able to make at a particular time.

If you don't want to be a coach, there are other ways to help out as well. You can work behind the scenes by assisting with fund-raising or organizing events or any of the other countless details involved in running a huge organization such as Special Olympics. It's also very important that you know that your contribution to Special Olympics can last from a day to a year to a lifetime, depending on the level of commitment that you're ready to make.

Having explained her plan, the speaker moves into the visualization section of her speech, in which she demonstrates the benefits of her plan. This is one of the most important aspects of any persuasive speech on a question of policy.

No matter how you decide to help, I guarantee you that working with the Special Olympics will be immensely rewarding. As a coach, your instruction and support will help your athletes develop physical skills, while your interaction and friendship will help them develop socially. Ronna Vanderslice, author of the article "Special Olympics: Beneficial to All," reports that individuals who get involved in sports and recreation through Special Olympics develop larger networks of friends, are more likely to socialize with others, and receive more social support.

Drawing on her own experience as a volunteer boosts the speaker's credibility as she explains the personal gratification of working with the Special Olympics. As you can see from the video of the speech in the online Media Library for this chapter, the speaker's sincerity adds immensely to the impact of her ideas.

But it's not just the athletes who benefit from Special Olympics. In my case, working with Special Olympics is one of the most gratifying things I have ever done in my life. Not only do I have the satisfaction that comes from helping others improve the quality of their lives, but I've met so many amazing people and met so many great friends that, really, I would not trade the experience for anything.

A transition signals that the speaker is moving into the action section of her speech. Notice how she ties her call for action directly to her classmates by talking in terms of "you" and "your."

Now you know the need for Special Olympics volunteers, some ways that you can help out, and the benefits to the volunteers and athletes alike, so now I'd like to ask you to take the step of getting involved with the Special Olympics. If you want more information, you can check out the Web site for the Special Olympics or visit the local headquarters located on Monona Drive here in Madison. I also have brochures with contact information that I'll be handing out after the speech.

The speaker again stresses that students can adjust volunteering to their personal schedules.	I know you may not have a lot of time available right now, but you can volunteer for the time that fits your schedule. The most important thing is to get involved in some capacity, for whatever amount of time you can manage.
By returning to her opening story, the speaker relates once more to the audience, unifies the entire speech, and strengthens its emotional appeal. Brief and poignant, the closing quotation provides an excellent ending.	Remember the nine children I mentioned at the beginning of this speech. Think of their happiness and their support for one another. Think of how much they gained from running in that race. And think of how you can help others experience the same benefits as they strive to fulfill the motto of the Special Olympics: "Let me win. But if I can't win, let me be brave in the attempt."

SUMMARY

Listeners accept a speaker's ideas for one or more of four reasons—because they perceive the speaker as having high credibility, because they are won over by the speaker's evidence, because they are convinced by the speaker's reasoning, or because they are moved by the speaker's emotional appeals.

Credibility is affected by many factors, but the two most important are competence and character. The more favorably listeners view a speaker's competence and character, the more likely they are to accept her or his ideas. Although credibility is partly a matter of reputation, you can enhance your credibility during a speech by establishing common ground with your listeners, by letting them know why you are qualified to speak on the topic, and by presenting your ideas fluently and expressively.

If you hope to be persuasive, you must also support your views with evidence—examples, statistics, and testimony. Regardless of what kind of evidence you use, it will be more persuasive if it is new to the audience, stated in specific rather than general terms, and from credible sources. Your evidence will also be more persuasive if you state explicitly the point it is supposed to prove.

No matter how strong your evidence, you will not be persuasive unless listeners agree with your reasoning. In reasoning from specific instances, you move from a number of particular facts to a general conclusion. Reasoning from principle is the reverse—you move from a general principle to a particular conclusion. When you use causal reasoning, you try to establish a relationship between causes and effects. In analogical reasoning, you compare two cases and infer that what is true for one is also true for the other. Whatever kind of reasoning you use, avoid fallacies such as hasty generalization, false cause, and invalid analogy. You should also be on guard against the red herring, *ad hominem,* either-or, bandwagon, and slippery slope fallacies.

Finally, you can persuade your listeners by appealing to their emotions. One way to generate emotional appeal is by using emotion-laden language. Another is to develop vivid, richly textured examples. Neither, however, will be effective unless you feel the emotion yourself and communicate it by speaking with sincerity and conviction.

As with other methods of persuasion, your use of emotional appeal should be guided by a firm ethical rudder. Although emotional appeals are usually inappropriate in speeches on questions of fact, they are legitimate—and often necessary—in speeches that seek immediate action on questions of policy. Even when trying to move listeners to action, however, you should never substitute emotional appeals for evidence and reasoning.

KEY TERMS

ethos *(353)*
credibility *(353)*
initial credibility *(353)*
derived credibility *(353)*
terminal credibility *(353)*
creating common ground *(356)*
evidence *(357)*
logos *(360)*
reasoning *(361)*
reasoning from specific instances *(361)*
hasty generalization *(362)*
reasoning from principle *(363)*
causal reasoning *(365)*
false cause *(365)*
analogical reasoning *(366)*
invalid analogy *(367)*
fallacy *(367)*
red herring *(368)*
ad hominem *(368)*
either-or *(368)*
bandwagon *(369)*
slippery slope *(370)*
pathos *(370)*

REVIEW QUESTIONS

After reading this chapter, you should be able to answer the following questions:

1. What is credibility? What two factors exert the most influence on an audience's perception of a speaker's credibility?
2. What are the differences among initial credibility, derived credibility, and terminal credibility?
3. What are three ways you can enhance your credibility during your speeches?
4. What is evidence? Why do persuasive speakers need to use evidence?
5. What are four tips for using evidence effectively in a persuasive speech?
6. What is reasoning from specific instances? What guidelines should you follow when using this method of reasoning?
7. What is reasoning from principle? How is it different from reasoning from specific instances?
8. What is causal reasoning? What two errors must you be sure to avoid when using causal reasoning?
9. What is analogical reasoning? How do you judge the validity of an analogy?
10. What are the eight logical fallacies discussed in this chapter?
11. What is the role of emotional appeal in persuasive speaking? Identify three methods you can use to generate emotional appeal in your speeches.

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For further review, go to the Study Questions in the online Study Aids for this chapter.

EXERCISES FOR CRITICAL THINKING

1. Research has shown that a speaker's initial credibility can have great impact on how the speaker's ideas are received by listeners. Research has also shown that a speaker's credibility will vary from topic to topic and audience to audience. In the left-hand column below is a list of well-known public figures. In the right-hand column is a list of potential speech topics. Assume that each speaker will be addressing your speech class.

   For each speaker, identify the topic in the right-hand column on which she or he would have the highest initial credibility for your class. Then explain how the speaker's initial credibility might be affected if the speaker were discussing the topic in the right-hand column directly across from her or his name.

Speaker	**Topic**
Oprah Winfrey	The Comedy of Politics
Bill Gates	Fantasy as Literature
Al Gore	Talk Shows: Their Role in Society
Jon Stewart	The Future of Computers
J. K. Rowling	Environmental Politics

2. Identify the kind of reasoning used in each of the following statements. What weaknesses, if any, can you find in the reasoning of each?

   a. According to a study by the American Medical Association, men with bald spots have three times the risk of heart attack as men with a full head of hair. Strange as it may seem, it looks as if baldness is a cause of heart attacks.

   b. There can be no doubt that the use of cell phones by drivers is a major reason for motor vehicle accidents. In New York, five friends who had just graduated from high school died in a head-on collision with a truck when the car driver lost control while using her phone to send a text message. In Colorado, a 17-year-old was using his cell phone when he struck and killed a bicyclist. In Massachusetts, a man driving an SUV killed a 13-year-old boy playing by the road. When police caught up to the driver, he said he was distracted by his cell phone and thought he had hit a mailbox.

   c. The United States Constitution guarantees all citizens the right to bear arms. Gun control legislation infringes on the right of citizens to bear arms. Therefore, gun control legislation is contrary to the Constitution.

   d. Almost every industrialized nation in the world except for the United States has a national curriculum and national tests to help ensure that schools throughout the country are meeting high standards of education. If such a system can work elsewhere, it can work in the United States as well.

3. Over the years there has been much debate about the role of emotional appeal in public speaking. Do you believe it is ethical for public speakers to use emotional appeals when seeking to persuade an audience? Do you feel there are certain kinds of emotions to which an ethical speaker should not appeal? Why or why not? Be prepared to explain your ideas in class.

4. Analyze "The Horrors of Puppy Mills" in the appendix of sample speeches that follows Chapter 18 (pages A9–A11). Pay special attention to the speaker's credibility, evidence, reasoning, and emotional appeal. View the video of the speech in the online Media Library for this chapter at connectlucas.com so you can also assess his delivery and use of visual aids.

Applying *the* Power *of* Public Speaking

As the service manager for a local home improvement company, you have been pleased to see your company expand its size and scope, but you don't want that growth to come at the expense of customer service. In particular, you're worried about losing touch with one of the company's key demographics—women, who make up 55 percent of your customer base. To prevent this from happening, you have developed a plan for a range of personalized services targeted at women, including one-on-one teaching of do-it-yourself skills and free in-home consultations.

When you present your plan at a meeting of the company's management team, you listen as one executive argues in opposition. Among his points are the following: (1) If your plan is adopted, customers will expect more and more special services and eventually will demand free installation of flooring and carpeting; (2) Because a majority of the management team opposes your plan, it must not be a good idea; (3) One of your competitors tried a customer service plan specifically for women, but it did not succeed; therefore, your plan is doomed to failure.

In your response to the executive, you will point out the fallacy in each of his points. What are those fallacies?