IV. Practicality/Visualization

A. Awareness is knowledge, and knowledge is power. You have the power to change this campus for the better and change the lives of your fellow classmates in the process.

The visualization step makes an appeal to sympathy here.

B. Think about how you appreciate it when someone opens a door for you. It may be a small thing for you, but it makes a real difference for students with disabilities.

C. When you reinforce these ideas among your friends, it is like a ripple in a lake. People all across campus can benefit just from a few words you say.

V. Conclusion/Call to Action

The simile used here gives listeners a visual representation of the effects of their action.

A. Sometimes people need a ramp to create a level playing field. You have the power to make yourself and our campus more AWARE of accessibility issues on campus.

B. Albert Einstein once said, "A mind that has been stretched will never return to its original dimension." I dare you to stretch your mind and attitudes through this plan of awareness, and I promise you it is an attitude you will never regret.

# Summary

## PURPOSES OF PERSUASIVE SPEAKING

- The purpose of a persuasive speech is determined by aligning the audience response you desire with the general subject of the speech.
- Persuasive speeches usually seek to strengthen an audience's commitment, moderate their opposition, or advocate some form of action. Their subject may be a question of fact, an attitude, a policy, or direct action.

## INVENTING YOUR PERSUASIVE SPEECH

- Audience research for persuasive speeches should focus on beliefs, values, perceptions of significance and relevance, and sources of resistance.
- Topical analysis can highlight the stock issues that speakers are expected to address, especially for speeches about policy or action.
- Linguistic analysis can direct attention to key values as resources for persuasion.

## ORGANIZING YOUR PERSUASIVE SPEECH

- The criteria–application pattern establishes clear standards or guidelines for answering questions of fact, shaping attitudes, or evaluating policies.

- The problem–solution and motivated sequence patterns share the logic of identifying a need or problem and then proposing an action or solution to address it.
- Comparative patterns can be used to evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of competing solutions systematically. Finally, the motivated sequence relies on a psychological pattern of need arousal and fulfillment to encourage listeners to take action.

## Key Terms

distraction, p. 328
cynicism, p. 328
polarization, p. 330
stock issues, p. 341
criteria–application pattern, p. 343
problem–solution pattern, p. 345
comparative advantages pattern, p. 346
elimination of alternatives pattern, p. 347
motivated sequence pattern, p. 347

## Comprehension

1. What are two obstacles that speakers face in a public sphere that is overloaded with persuasive messages?
2. What are two primary adaptation strategies for trying to strengthen an audience's commitment to their current point of view?
3. When speaking to an audience that is opposed to your point of view, should your goal be to get audience members to switch their position? Why or why not?
4. How can speeches on questions of fact be persuasive, not just informative?
5. What is the difference between a speech that addresses policy and a speech that addresses direct action?
6. What are three ways in which audience feedback on prior speeches can help you invent a persuasive speech?
7. What are the stock issues in persuasive speeches?
8. Which organizational patterns would be appropriate for a speech addressing a question of fact?
9. What are the five steps of the motivated sequence?

## Application

1. Take an informal survey of your classmates' attitudes about a current campus issue. Then come up with central ideas for three speeches: one that strengthens their commitments, one that moderates opposition, and one that advocates action.

2. Look at a national newspaper or magazine that discusses current events, and identify two articles: one that appears to be *informative* and another that seeks persuasion on a question of fact. How can you tell the difference between the two?
3. Find the website of your Congressional representative or Senator, and locate a page that describes this person's position on a particular issue. Which of the stock issues does he or she address, and what sort of language does he or she use to describe the issue?
4. Using the same issue that you chose for question 1, develop a simple outline for a problem–solution speech. Then, with a small group of classmates, play the roles of different people or groups on campus that might disagree with that speech. Have these people raise disagreements on the stock issues.
5. Develop a motivated sequence speech that encourages students to take this course next semester. Feel free to tailor different speeches to different groups of students who provide ready-made audiences for you.

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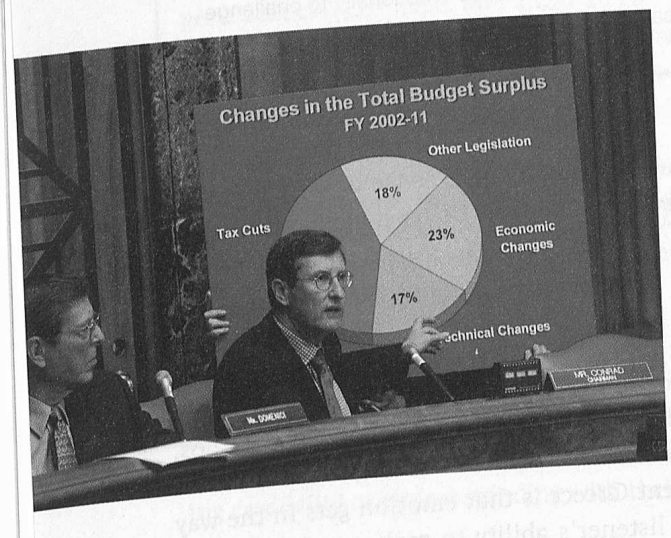
# Supporting Your Persuasive Speech




**CHAPTER OUTLINE**

Pathos: The Appeal of Emotion
Ethos: The Appeal of Character and Credibility
Logos: The Appeal of Evidence and Reasoning

**This chapter is intended to help you:**

- Craft emotional appeals and use them ethically
- Establish credibility and trust with your audience
- Develop sound patterns of reasoning to support your main points
- Avoid fallacies that are often used to advocate policies

In chapter 1, you learned that speakers appeal to audiences in three main ways. These three appeals—ethos, logos, and pathos—are all crucial forms of support in persuasive speaking. Think of them as three legs of a stool. A speech that offers a lot of good evidence (logos) and reveals the speaker as a knowledgeable person (ethos) may not be persuasive if it fails to stir the emotions of the audience (pathos). Likewise, a speech with strong reasons and emotional appeals may not be persuasive if the audience doesn't trust the speaker.

The challenge of persuasive speaking is determining the mix of appeals that will work best for your audience and your situation. If you are speaking to a hostile audience, for example, establishing your ethos may matter more than the specific evidence or reasons you provide. As you learn more about rhetorical

## CASE SCENARIO

### Lindsey's Speech on Adderall

For many reasons, Lindsey felt that it was important to do her persuasive speech on the topic of Adderall. She wanted to persuade her classmates to have a more negative perception of the drug so that they might think twice about using it as a "study drug." She knew that the drug was prevalent on campus, yet she observed that many of her peers did not seem to know much about it. So Lindsey knew that she would have to establish a unique perspective on the topic. She would have to use supporting material that would make her appear credible, and she would need to do something to connect with her audience emotionally to challenge their carefree attitude about the drug.

appeals in this chapter, you should develop a better sense of *what* these appeals look like as well as *when and how* they can be used most effectively in persuasive speaking. ■

## Pathos: The Appeal of Emotion

Perhaps no part of public speaking is more misunderstood than pathos, or the appeal to the audience's emotions. The conventional wisdom since the time of the Sophists in ancient Greece is that emotion gets in the way of reason and interferes with a listener's ability to make good decisions. During the Enlightenment, with the rise of science as the privileged way of knowing the world, "*reason* was widely taken to be the most valuable and most important human faculty" (Brummett). Even today, it is not surprising to see a headline that reads, "Jury verdict a triumph of reason over emotion."

But the rhetorical tradition has often resisted the privileging of reason over emotion, instead seeing the two as closely intertwined. Aristotle saw that thoughts and beliefs—the stuff of rational thinking—contribute to our emotional responses. For example, feeling joy after successfully tutoring someone is based on a rational belief that you actually helped to improve the person's performance. More recently, the political consultant and neuroscientist Drew Westen has argued that voters do not make decisions with cold logic alone; instead, their emotional attachments play a key role in how they evaluate political candidates and policies.

Effective—and ethical—use of emotional appeals demands that speakers give careful attention to how pathos and logos fit together. As you will see, both the purposes of pathos and the emotional appeals themselves reveal the complex mixture of reason and emotion in our lives.

## The Purposes of Pathos

It might seem obvious that you should use emotional appeals in persuasive speaking, but why? What are the reasons for or purposes of incorporating pathos in your speeches? Scholars have pointed to several ways in which emotional appeals provide support for speeches.

**Gaining Attention** A tear-jerking movie, an elated friend, and even a hopeful politician all can attract people's attention through their emotional appeal. Sadness, joy, hope, and anger all can jostle people out of their ordinary routine, moving them from a state of distraction or apathy to one of engagement. Drew Westen makes this point eloquently with regard to the discussion of public issues:

> We do not pay attention to arguments unless they engender our interest, enthusiasm, fear, anger, or contempt. We are not *moved* by leaders with whom we do not feel an emotional resonance. We do not find policies worth debating if they don't touch on the emotional implications for ourselves, our families, or things we hold dear (16).

His point is not limited to political leaders. Even in the classroom or on campus, you are speaking in a world that is overloaded with messages, as we saw in chapters 1 and 13. As a result, contemporary speakers need to consider how they might break through the noise of the public sphere without sacrificing credibility or ethical standing with their listeners.

**Focusing Perception** Scholars who take a cognitive approach to emotions have shown how our emotional responses are not just knee-jerk, thoughtless reactions. Instead, emotions can serve us by guiding us to what is most relevant and meaningful about a particular situation. Emotion can help us to perceive "a situation or event as a moral problem" (Koziak 16); emotions give us a sense of which things are right or wrong.

This way of thinking about emotions should remind us that good decision making does not mean suppressing or ignoring emotions. For example, getting angry when a fellow student has been assaulted is an appropriate response, and having a feeling of kindness toward others is arguably better than being completely emotionless. Feeling these emotions and allowing them to play a part in our thought processes are not the sign of irrationality; they are the sign of humanity.

**Connecting Us to Others** The kinds of emotions that are relevant to rhetoric are what we might call "social emotions." They orient us in the world and shape our relationships with others. As rhetorical theorist Thomas Farrell argues, "Emotions are themselves relational, allowing the recognition we require whenever we are taken outside our own immediacy: from the neighborhood to

the moral community" (71). In other words, emotions are not simply the way we feel "inside" ourselves. Our internal feelings are always connecting us to other people in certain ways.

This reason explains more broadly why pathos is so important to public speaking and the public sphere. When you appeal to emotions, you are not only trying to motivate your audience; you are also encouraging them to have a certain kind of relationship with other people. The rest of this section will identify some of these "social emotions" and discuss how to use them ethically in your speeches.

## Identifying and Using Appeals to Pathos

Speakers can call on a wide range of emotions. Anger, fear, sympathy, and friendliness are some of the key emotions to which you might appeal regularly in persuasive speaking.

**Anger** The classic definition of anger is the impulse for revenge when you observe an unfair attack on something you cherish. Today, it would probably be considered unethical for speakers to encourage or provoke revenge. But we can think of **anger** as that sense of being upset about an injustice and wanting to rectify it. From this perspective, an appeal to anger is a rhetorical strategy connecting some supporting material about an injustice or unfair situation to a broader attitude, policy, or action.

These definitions suggest that an effective and ethical appeal to anger needs to meet several criteria. It needs to *identify a specific action or situation,* depict it as *unfair or unwarranted,* and *encourage identification* with the person or group that has been wronged. For example, trying to generate anger about a large institution such as "our university" or "the government" is ethically questionable, since it prevents your audience from accurately understanding who took a particular action and determining whether that person's action was fair or warranted. Instead, be specific and give details that suggest why the action is unfair.

> Vice President Jones's decision to cut funding for the Student Health Center is unconscionable! With the rise in attempted suicides and assaults reports on our campus, student health deserves more support, not less. These cuts mean that the Suicide Prevention Hotline and the Peers Against Sexual Assault group will be less equipped to help our fellow students when they need it the most.

**Fear** **Fear** involves feeling upset about some dangerous or destructive event in the future. As with anger, you can see that an appeal to fear needs to be based on adequate evidence about the event in question. An effective, ethical fear appeal requires that you not only *display the dangers* of the event, but also *provide an honest assessment of the probability* of those dangers actually happening.

For example, during discussions of health care reform, some advocates appealed to fear by claiming that certain proposals would force people to face "death panels" to judge whether individuals were worthy of getting medical treatment. This claim was deemed the 2009 "Lie of the Year" by the staff of the website Politifact.com; no such panels were proposed, showing that this appeal failed to honestly state the probability of danger (Holan). A better fear appeal might show specific examples of how treatment costs negatively affect health care decisions.

In other words, fear appeals that are effective and ethical do not exaggerate the threat. Outlandish or extreme claims may get people's attention, but critical listeners will want to know whether some event is likely to happen to them. In addition, if you hype fears now, you are likely to be less credible with audiences over time.

**Sympathy** **Sympathy** is the feeling of compassion or sorrow that emerges when we see others suffering. For example, you might sympathize with a person who falls gravely ill, especially if the person is not responsible for his or her illness. Sympathy also is connected to perception of our own circumstances and anticipation of our future. We may be more likely to feel sympathy for another person when we sense our own vulnerability to a similar situation.

Consider this example of an appeal to sympathy in testimony from Texas resident Robin Beaton on health insurance reform:

> In May 2008, I went to the dermatologist for acne. A word was written on my chart and interpreted incorrectly as meaning pre-cancerous. Shortly thereafter, I was diagnosed with Invasive HER-2 Genetic Breast Cancer, a very aggressive form of breast cancer. I was told I needed a double mastectomy. When the surgeons scheduled my surgery I was pre-certified for my two days hospitalization. The Friday before the Monday I was scheduled to have my double mastectomy, Blue Cross red flagged my chart due to the dermatologist report. The dermatologist called Blue Cross directly to report that I only had acne and please not hold up my coming surgery. Blue Cross called me to inform me that they were launching a 5 year medical investigation into my medical history and that this would take approximately 3 months.

This passage shows how even a plain description can evoke sympathy. An ordinary citizen is suffering through no fault of her own, and listeners may sense that a similar fate could happen to themselves. This reveals two important criteria for a sympathy appeal: It should involve characters who are *relatively blameless* for their situation, and it should *provide an honest assessment of the probability* of that situation occurring in their own lives. A statistic earlier in the speech about the number of people who lose coverage each day helps this appeal to meet that latter criterion.

**Kindness and Friendship** Finally, the emotions of kindness and friendship are very similar in their underlying feeling. **Kindness** is the generous

feeling of wanting to help others for their own sake, not for the sake of one's own personal gain or the possibility of getting something in return. **Friendship** is the ongoing connection you feel to others when you want them to have a good life for their own sake, not because you may perceive a benefit for yourself as a result. You feel both emotions when you respect the needs and wants of others.

The difference between kindness and friendship is mostly a matter of scope. Kindness moves people to act directly and so is important for speeches that motivate direct action. If you are advocating involvement in a local blood drive, an appeal to kindness might describe situations in which blood donations saved lives. Thus, an effective appeal to kindness *shows people in great need* and *connects the audience's action to the fulfillment of that need.*

Appeals to friendship are typical in speeches that attempt to shape an audience's commitments or need to establish common ground. You can do this by *identifying the things that you and your audience agree are good or bad* or *displaying your own acts of generosity or kindness* as a concrete way of articulating shared values. For example, imagine that your local hospital wishes to expand onto city property. If residents are skeptical of the hospital directors and their motives, a hospital administrator might remind the audience of shared commitments as well as acts of generosity to the community:

> One thing that is great about our community is that we care about one another. We all want one another to live happy and healthy lives. We volunteer at the homeless shelter, we contribute to charities, and we do important work through our communities of worship. We at the hospital do our share, too, most directly by providing hundreds of thousands of dollars of care to those who are unable to pay for emergency care.

The appeal to friendship in public speaking, then, should not be thought of as a speaker's attempt to "make friends" with the audience as one might do in a context of interpersonal communication. Instead, the goal is to reveal the values that we share as members of a community.

## Pathos and Delivery

Using the guidelines for emotional appeals in the previous section will help you to generate the content of those appeals in your speeches. But one other issue often comes up for beginning speakers who are trying to use emotion effectively: What is the most effective way to deliver an emotional appeal?

Much of rhetorical theory follows the ancient teachers of rhetoric, who emphasized that speakers need to display their emotions through their delivery. One scholar identifies a clear rule from the ancient teacher Quintilian: "The advocate must imagine and feel the emotion himself. Sincerity counts" (Katula 9). This rule says much more about effective delivery than a "how-to" list of gestures, vocal changes, or facial expressions can. The key to delivering

an effective emotional appeal is that you, as a speaker and a citizen, actually feel the emotion that you have on display. After all, emotions are social; they are ways of relating to your audience, not just feelings that you attempt to manipulate.

Consequently, emotional appeals need to be delivered in a way that is authentic to your own feelings if you wish to maintain an ongoing relationship with your audience. Listeners will not trust you if they perceive that you are acting out a role. If you try to fake emotion, you will likely come off as a fake—which is neither effective nor ethical. Deliver emotional appeals authentically to develop a durable bond with your audience.

## Ethos: The Appeal of Character and Credibility

When you were deciding where to attend college, whose voices were most persuasive? Perhaps it was an admissions counselor who put all the basic facts together in a compelling way. Perhaps it was a trusted friend who was already attending the school and knew what you might like about it. Or maybe it was the enthusiastic tour guide who was the best proof of how the college turned out confident, articulate students.

These examples show that persuasive appeal comes from who is speaking just as much as it does from the words that are said. The counselor might have high credibility with you regarding academic programs but less credibility when talking about the student culture. Ethos will vary according to audience, too. Each of these speakers might have a very different ethos for your parents than for you.

As you can see, your ethos as a speaker is a dynamic construct, not a fixed part of who you are. It must be renewed every time you speak. Chapter 10 focused on establishing ethos in your introduction; this section examines the dimensions of ethos in more detail so that you can enhance your ethos throughout your speech.

### Demonstrating Knowledge

As you learned in chapter 10, your introduction is an important time to tell your audience about your education, training, or experience related to the speech topic. During the rest of the speech, you need to *show* them how these factors have made you a knowledgeable, intelligent person. Several techniques can heighten this dimension of ethos.

**Offer a Comprehensive Picture** Audiences will appreciate speakers who can show how the topic fits into a broader context. If you are trying to persuade a campus committee to give your organization funding, you might show that you understand the overall budget for student groups:

> We realize that by asking for $5,000, we are asking for an increase in our funding from last year. However, we have looked at the student organization budget from the past three years, and our request this year is actually a smaller percentage of your overall budget. That means that you will actually have a greater share of money for other groups this year.

If you are trying to persuade local residents to support a farmers' market, you might discuss how markets have worked in other cities or how markets are part of broader shifts in the food system. Showing your audience the big picture can suggest that you are thoroughly engaged with your topic and have a broad understanding of how it connects with other public issues.

**Give Attention to History and Recency** Well-informed speakers will use recent supporting material on their topic, but they will also display an understanding of the history of the issue. Historians Richard Neustadt and Ernest May state that while most decision makers jump right to the question "What should we do?," they would do better to ask "What's the story?" (Neustadt and May). Audiences will appreciate understanding how a current issue has emerged over time and will respect your knowledge of that history.

For example, if you are trying to influence decision makers to raise wages for student workers on campus, you might share how such an increase has been put off for years. For people who may be focused on the immediate issue, your information can show that you have done your research and are able to bring an important perspective to the discussion. You can enhance your credibility by showing how past events are relevant to present circumstances.

**Explain Key Concepts Clearly and Simply** With complex or technical topics, it can be tempting to dive right into the details. But consider your audience. If they have a similar level of expertise on the issue, jargon may be appropriate. But for a general audience, you may lose credibility if you try to impress them with a lot of complex ideas. Instead, take time to define key concepts and clarify complex ideas using ordinary language.

The student who spoke about coal-bed methane in chapter 10, for example, needed to explain several technical concepts for an audience that knew nothing about the topic. Here is how she described one process:

> Hydro-fracking is somewhat like taking an axe to a piece of wood. Just like you use an axe to pry apart the wood, hydro-fracking uses high-pressure liquid to pry apart rocks. A few bugs may crawl out of the wood when you're done with an axe, but with hydro-fracking the treasure is much more valuable. Inside those rocks is methane gas.

This clear, simple analogy boosts the speaker's credibility far more than a complex lecture on petroleum geology would.

**Use Diverse, Authoritative Sources** You also can strengthen your ethos by citing multiple, diverse sources throughout the body of your speech. This not only demonstrates broad knowledge, but also can help your ethos by showing that you are attentive to multiple perspectives.

Sources enhance your ethos when your audience perceives them as authoritative on your topic. For example, consider this approach:

> I found that I am not alone in thinking that medication labels are confusing. The Institute of Medicine, a branch of the National Academy of Sciences and our nation's top independent advisory group on health matters, convened a workshop on this very issue in 2007. They identified some of the same problems I have discussed so far.

The ethos of knowledgeable sources can rub off on you as a speaker, showing that your opinions have been informed by intelligent participants in the public sphere.

**Show Instances of Practical Knowledge** When you have practical knowledge or have learned from experience, this can be another powerful source of appeal in a persuasive speech. Stories and examples from your experience can provide vivid proof that you know what you are talking about. In addition, examples can show how your knowledge "works" in the real world and that your knowledge leads you to make good decisions:

> If you are still skeptical about conservation efforts, then it's time to hit the showers—literally! Last year, our group worked with the Residential Life office to find efficiency opportunities in the dorms. Through our research, we discovered that a big cost for the dorms was hot water, so for our first project we decided to install water-saving showerheads. The payoff was huge. According to the Campus Facilities Office, the energy savings for the year was more than three times the cost of the showerheads, and it cut our water usage in half. It's hard to dispute that this was a smart investment.

In this example, the speaker's credibility gets a boost by having a personal connection to the topic. Instead of talking about hypothetical savings, he can take advantage of an actual project in which his knowledge was the basis for an action that had a positive outcome.

## Building Trust

If someone is trying to persuade you, issues of trust should arise almost immediately. Why should I believe the speaker? Is she really telling me the whole story? Is he the kind of person I should respect? Your audience needs to have confidence that you are telling the truth about your topic and that you possess some of the qualities of character that they respect. When building your speech, then, think about the implicit messages you can develop that build trust around facts as well as values.

PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE

Bill and Melinda Gates often give examples of success stories that show "what works" in speeches about agricultural development and poverty reduction.

**"I'm Consistent"** Showing your audience that you have held a consistent position over time or that your speech is consistent with your actions addresses the concern that you are pandering to your audience as described in chapter 5. Imagine that two administrators at your college are discussing support for a new international student center on campus. Which of the following are you more likely to trust?

> We have every intention of adding an international student center on campus. As you know, international students are very important to our university. Our entire campus is enriched by a diverse student body.

> We have every intention of adding an international student center on campus. I personally have been committed to strengthening support for international students for the past five years by adding two new advisors for international students and supporting the establishment of an international student association. I have also started a reserve fund for a center that, along with some grants, could help to make the center a reality.

The first speaker offers vague clichés that do little to suggest a genuine personal commitment. The second speaker offers specific actions, in both the past and the present, that display an ongoing attention to the needs of international students.

**"I Have a Track Record of Good Judgment"** Showing that you have made good decisions in the past can encourage listeners to trust your judgment.

For example, if you have been involved in pedestrian safety initiatives near your campus, you might say the following:

> Back when we were debating whether to add a warning light at Main Street and University Drive, I felt strongly that student safety should be our top priority. Fortunately, we haven't had any accidents at that intersection since installing the light. I'm convinced that we should add lights at the other crossings on University Drive, too.

This strategy is easier to use when you have strong initial credibility prior to your speech. If you have been part of a community or organization for some time, your reputation and track record may precede you—for better or worse. Rhetorical theorists have long recognized this, leading some to claim that the best speakers will try to sustain a positive reputation at all times and not merely create the appearance of goodness during a speech.

**"I Share Your Experiences and Values"** In some situations, your audience may know little about your background or reputation. As a result, highlighting shared experiences and values—creating identification—is a crucial aspect of building trust. Shared experience builds trust by affirming listeners' perceptions of the world and showing that you can relate to their concerns and challenges. Displaying shared values can lead audience members to trust your judgment.

For example, in a persuasive speech you might identify a specific action or decision and have a particular value judgment about it. Then you can highlight that value and use it as the basis of persuasion regarding some other issue:

> Like many of you, I was upset with the recent cuts to the university budget. Some were arbitrary and not made with much foresight. Talented people were let go, and some of the best programs were hurt the most. Unfortunately, arbitrary and short-sighted thinking seems to be the norm in our state these days. A look at our state's economic development office reveals a similar pattern—one that should worry you as future workers and residents in our state.

Notice that showing your audience shared values is not just a matter of stating that you adhere to those values. As we saw with the college administrator examples above, it is better to offer specific instances and put values into a context to *show* your audience what you mean.

## Creating Goodwill

Even if your audience trusts your facts and shares your values, listeners still may wonder whether you intend to help them, not just yourself. You need to demonstrate goodwill, a perceived caring and genuine concern for the needs and desires of your audience.

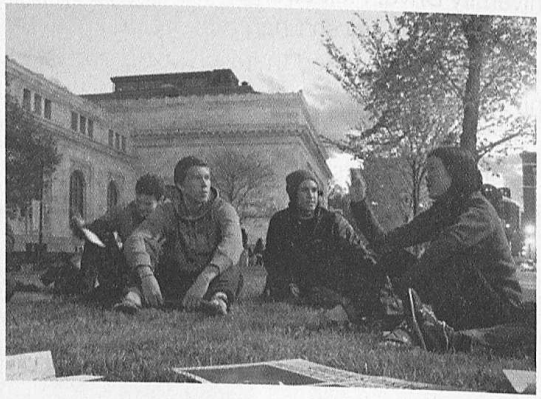
## PUBLIC SPOTLIGHT

### Yaicha Bookhout

Around the world, college students have demonstrated civic and political engagement on a variety of issues related to energy and climate change. Persuasive speaking is a necessary skill for effective engagement, and college student Yaicha Bookhout has recognized the importance of creating identification and selecting the right supporting material in her own persuasive speaking.

Yaicha has spoken to a variety of groups about the impacts of climate change and the need for action and has organized students locally and nationally to pressure decision makers on climate-related policies. "To reach students, I can't just give a bunch of statistics about climate change. I have to show them how climate change is going to affect their recreation year-round. I have also tried to inspire them with examples of how young people in past generations have changed the course of history."

Yaicha also was selected to run a workshop at the national Powershift climate summit to help youth climate leaders speak more effectively to oppositional audiences who are skeptical of the need for climate action. She emphasized the need to understand audience concerns and identify their goals and values in order to make effective persuasive appeals.



Social Media Spotlight

Advocates have taken advantage of social media to address global issues such as climate change. College students have been a central part of climate movements worldwide, using online tools to organize events and circulate information. For example, 350.org has used social media to raise awareness of the safe upper limit for $CO_2$ in the atmosphere and to coordinate thousands of simultaneous climate actions worldwide. The Energy Action Coalition coordinates youth-led climate organizations and convenes the Powershift climate summits in Washington, DC.

- 350.org produced a wordless video to depict the significance of the number 350: http://www.350.org/en/videos.
- They also use a Flickr photostream for participants to share examples of events and demonstrations: http://www.flickr.com/photos/350org/.
- Social media connections related to Powershift can be found at: http://www.wearepowershift.org/organize/spread-the-word.

Communication researcher James McCroskey describes three dimensions that contribute to the perception of goodwill: understanding, empathy, and responsiveness (McCroskey and Teven). From the speaker's perspective, these translate into three things you want to show your audience: that you understand what they think and feel, that you care about what they think and feel, and that you are willing to engage and address the audience's needs and desires.

Barack Obama's "A More Perfect Union" speech in 2008 contains several attempts to show understanding and empathy. Given at a time of intensified racial discussion during the Presidential campaign, Obama's speech

made these attempts not only to build his own ethos, but also to improve understanding and empathy among his diverse audiences. For example, Obama tried to show understanding of the history and reasons for frustration among some African-Americans:

> Segregated schools were, and are, inferior schools; we still haven't fixed them, fifty years after Brown v. Board of Education, and the inferior education they provided, then and now, helps explain the pervasive achievement gap between today's black and white students.
>
> Legalized discrimination—where blacks were prevented, often through violence, from owning property, or loans were not granted to African-American business owners, or black homeowners could not access FHA mortgages, or blacks were excluded from unions, or the police force, or fire departments—meant that black families could not amass any meaningful wealth to bequeath to future generations. That history helps explain the wealth and income gap between black and white, and the concentrated pockets of poverty that persists in so many of today's urban and rural communities.

Notice how these passages are not so much about channeling the anger felt by the audience or agreeing with that anger. Instead, they explain its basis, illustrating how relatively neutral and informative language can show understanding of an audience's point of view.

Later in the speech, Obama shows empathy with the feelings of some white Americans relative to race:

> In fact, a similar anger exists within segments of the white community. Most working- and middle-class white Americans don't feel that they have been particularly privileged by their race. Their experience is the immigrant experience—as far as they're concerned, no one's handed them anything, they've built it from scratch. They've worked hard all their lives, many times only to see their jobs shipped overseas or their pension dumped after a lifetime of labor. They are anxious about their futures, and feel their dreams slipping away; in an era of stagnant wages and global competition, opportunity comes to be seen as a zero sum game, in which your dreams come at my expense. So when they are told to bus their children to a school across town; when they hear that an African American is getting an advantage in landing a good job or a spot in a good college because of an injustice that they themselves never committed; when they're told that their fears about crime in urban neighborhoods are somehow prejudiced, resentment builds over time.

Here, the more personalized language, especially in the last sentences, shows an empathy with the experience and feelings of some of his audience members.

The concluding sections of Obama's speech also show responsiveness to the needs of his audiences. In contrast to focusing on divisive racial politics, Obama suggests that the public discourse surrounding the election should focus on the real concerns that cross racial lines:

> Or, at this moment, in this election, we can come together and say, "Not this time." This time we want to talk about the crumbling schools that are stealing the future of black children and white children and Asian children and Hispanic children and Native American children. This time we want to reject the cynicism that tells us that these kids can't learn; that those kids who don't look like us are somebody else's problem. The children of America are not those kids, they are our kids, and we will not let them fall behind in a 21st century economy. Not this time.
>
> This time we want to talk about how the lines in the Emergency Room are filled with whites and blacks and Hispanics who do not have health care; who don't have the power on their own to overcome the special interests in Washington, but who can take them on if we do it together.

Ultimately, creating goodwill hinges less on clever rhetorical tactics than on careful listening to your audience's needs and concerns. By listening with an ear for what your audience really thinks, feels, and desires, you will be in a much better position to understand and empathize with their concerns and to respond to them accordingly.

## Logos: The Appeal of Evidence and Reasoning

"Why do you think that?" This simple question, one that should be asked of any persuasive speaker, gets at the heart of the appeal to logos. When listeners ask why you hold a certain belief or advocate a particular position, they are asking for the evidence and reasoning that supports your point of view. This is what make your position *reasonable*, rather than just a whim, a gut reaction, or a personal prejudice.

### Logos versus Logic

Although logos is related to the word "logic," the rhetorical appeal to logos is different from the kind of formal logic that you may learn about in a philosophy course. Formal logic draws conclusions that necessarily follow from true **premises**, or starting points for an argument. But this ignores the audience and social context for arguments. In contrast, public speaking addresses issues in which premises are disputed and audiences respond differently according to their concerns and values. As a result, the rhetorical appeal to logos is not simply the application of logic, but the use of evidence and reasoning to influence a particular audience to adhere to the strongest possible conclusion.

Let's look at a highly controversial public issue to better understand this difference between rigid logic and the rhetorical appeal to logos. This example attempts to draw a logical conclusion from a set of premises:

> Statistics show that handguns are involved in a significant number of accidental deaths. And obviously, it is important to prevent accidental deaths. Therefore, it follows that we should ban handguns.

Under the rules of logic, if you accept the first two statements, then you should accept the final statement. But it is easy to imagine audience members raising all kinds of questions about this pattern of reasoning. They might question your premises: Exactly how many deaths? Why is that a "significant" number? Even if they agree that preventing accidental deaths is important, they might not accept your conclusion. Perhaps there are other actions that could help to prevent accidental deaths from handguns.

In public speaking, then, strictly formal logic is not necessarily the best strategy for persuading an audience. It would be impossible to come up with a "perfect" example of a better pattern of reasoning, since different audiences would have different questions and objections to that argument. Instead, you want to learn a variety of patterns of reasoning and then use the ones that are best suited to your topic, purpose, and audience.

## Patterns of Reasoning

The scholar Stephen Toulmin describes a general pattern of reasoning that is useful for developing appeals to logos. This pattern, usually called the **Toulmin model**, identifies the component parts of any argument and their relationships to one another. This model can help you to develop more specific patterns of reasoning, which we will discuss later, and can help you to identify potential areas of audience disagreement.

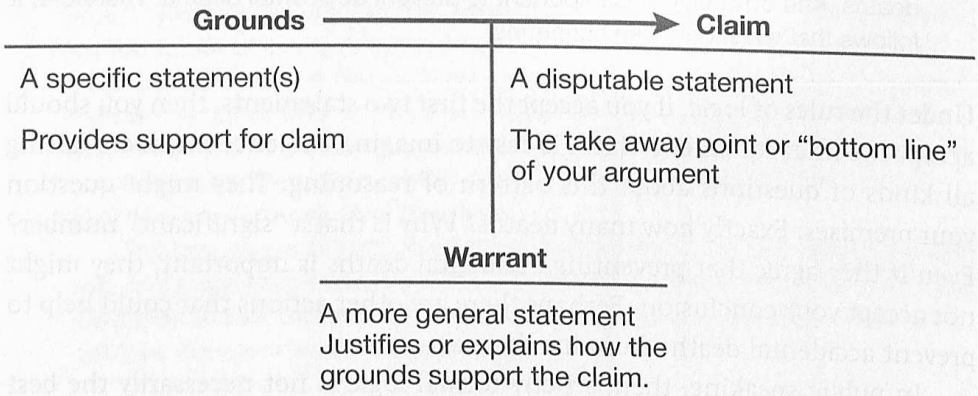
### The Toulmin Model

**Main Parts of the Model.** The basic parts of an argument as identified by the Toulmin model include a **claim**, a disputable statement that you want your audience to accept; **grounds**, specific statements about observable conditions that offer support for the claim; and a **warrant**, a general statement that justifies or explains how the grounds support the claim. An audience should be able to recognize or infer each of these parts from your speech. Typically, the model diagrams these parts as in Figure 14.1.

Let's look back at the handgun argument to see how this model works. Start by identifying the claim—the idea that the speaker ultimately wants the audience to accept. In this case, the claim is that we should ban handguns.

Once you have identified the claim, two simple questions will help you to understand the relationship between these parts. The first question to pose in response to the claim is: *Why do you think that?* The answer to this question is the ground of the argument. Remember that the grounds are typically statements about things that are specific, observable, or concrete. In this case, the statement that handguns are involved in a significant number of deaths

**FIGURE 14.1** The Toulmin Model




is the most specific answer to the question "Why do you think we should ban handguns?"

The second question is posed in response to the grounds: *So what?* This question asks what *relevance* the grounds have to support the claim, or why the grounds are a reasonable basis for supporting the claim. The answer to this question is the warrant of the argument. In this example, the warrant says that because we believe that it is important to prevent accidental deaths, the fact that handguns lead to accidental deaths is a reasonable basis for considering a handgun ban. A model of this argument would look like Figure 14.2.

*Putting arguments into the Toulmin model helps you to diagnose the quality of arguments. It does not necessarily make the argument sound or persuasive.* It helps you to see whether you have all the necessary parts, and it can help you to think about the process of audience adaptation. For example, if you think that your audience will not accept the warrant, then developing a new warrant may require you to also bring in new grounds.

**Secondary Parts of the Model.** Other parts of the model can help you to develop more complex or extended arguments. Many arguments include

**FIGURE 14.2** Example of the Toulmin Model

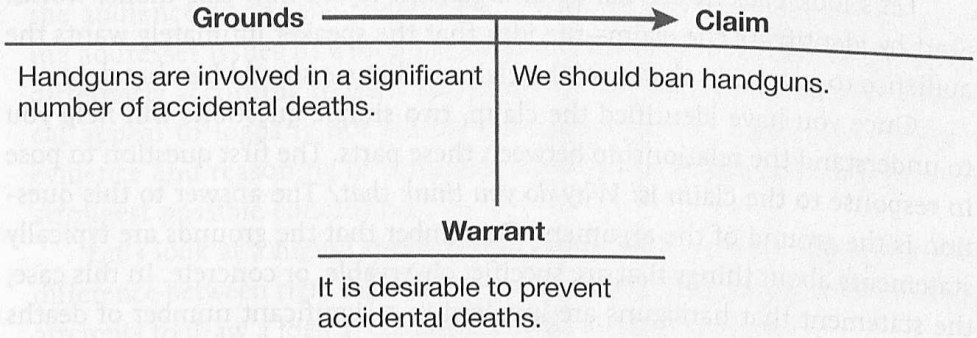
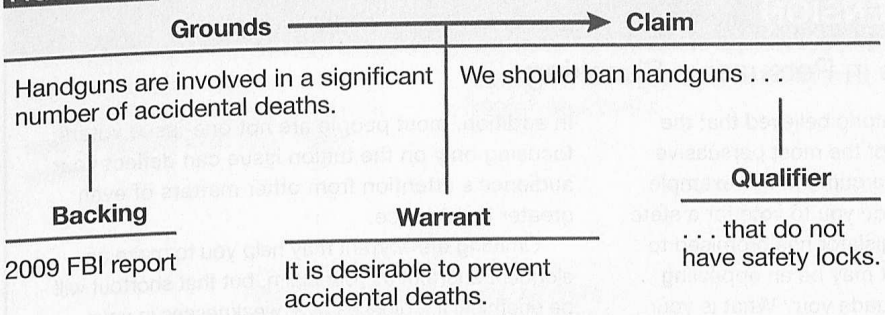


**FIGURE 14.3** Extended Example of the Toulmin Model




**backing**, or additional support for the grounds or warrant. The example above might add a couple of studies or testimony that backs up the idea that handguns are involved in a "significant number" of deaths. Some arguments attach a **qualifier** to the claim, which clarifies the force of the argument with words such as "certainly" or "generally" or defines the scope of the argument with words such as "in the next decade" or "on our campus." Figure 14.3 shows one way in which these parts might work in the handgun example.

Finally, some analysts of argument will include a **rebuttal**, the primary objection that could be made against the claim, and a **reservation**, a response to the rebuttal that often identifies exceptions to the claim. These do not affect the basic structure of the argument but are useful for brainstorming extensions of your argument. Your instructor may give you additional guidance about using these to develop your persuasive speech.

**The Role of Warrants in the Model.** Before looking at how this model can help you to produce more specific patterns of reasoning, two important points must be mentioned about the warrant. First, *in many arguments, the grounds are explicitly stated but the warrant is left unstated.* This style of argument is called an **enthymeme**, a pattern of reasoning in which the audience supplies one of the premises. Especially in public speaking, it can be excessive to spell out premises that are obvious. Do audiences really need to be told that it is important to prevent accidental deaths? By leaving warrants unstated, audience members supply them mentally and thus participate in their own persuasion—a powerful persuasive tactic.

However, "unstated" does not mean unimportant. This raises the second key point: *Warrants make arguments reasonable.* Without a warrant, there is nothing that connects your grounds to your claim, nothing that allows your audience to understand why the grounds are a legitimate basis for accepting your claim. Whether stated or not, warrants are the linchpin of good arguments. The Ethical Dimension feature can help you to decide whether to include or omit warrants in your speeches.

## THE ETHICAL DIMENSION

### Omitting Warrants in Persuasive Speaking

Ancient teachers of rhetoric believed that the enthymeme was one of the most persuasive ways to construct an oral argument. For example, your friend tries to persuade you to vote for a state legislator because that legislator has promised to freeze college tuition. That may be an appealing reason, but should it persuade you? What is your friend assuming about your interests and values that makes freezing tuition a good reason?

These questions point toward the ethical issues that are involved in omitting a warrant from an oral argument. By omitting the warrant, your friend is assuming that you believe certain things: that freezing tuition is obviously a good thing and that it is a sufficient reason by itself to vote for a legislator. It is one thing to omit these ideas if your friend knows you very well and fully understands your opinions.

But in public speaking, the situation generally is different. The primary ethical question is: *Should the warrant be omitted if some listeners would dispute it?* In this example, not everyone would agree that freezing tuition is obviously a good thing. While it may save students some money, it also may harm certain programs at your college. In addition, most people are not one-issue voters; focusing only on the tuition issue can deflect your audience's attention from other matters of even greater importance.

Omitting the warrant may help you to make an eloquent shortcut to your claim, but that shortcut will be unethical if it glosses over weaknesses in your argument and issues that would create real disagreement if they were stated. As a speaker, you have an obligation to identify warrants during invention to be sure that you are making a reasonable argument. If the warrant is weak or a source of potential disagreement, then omitting it harms your audience's ability to make rational choices.

#### WHAT DO YOU THINK?

1. How would your classmates respond to the tuition freeze argument? Could you ethically omit the warrant if they were your audience?
2. What other concepts have you learned in this book that would help you to develop warrants that have broad agreement and thus ethically could be omitted?

**Reasoning by Generalization** In **reasoning by generalization**, a speaker uses a set of examples or specific instances as grounds for inferring a broader principle or a statement about a larger group of examples. The grounds suggest some sort of general pattern that the speaker wants the audience to accept.

Arguments by generalization are used when it is impossible to examine every single instance, but a few instances can provide a good overall picture. For example, consider the generalization about mining towns in Figure 14.4. The claim makes a general assertion about mining towns based on three specific instances. The warrant explains the conditions under which these instances would be reasonable support for that claim. When you are reasoning by generalization, your audience must accept that there are a *sufficient number of examples* to support the claim and that those examples are *representative or typical instances*. If the audience members think that your examples are extreme or unusual instances, they will be less likely to accept the generalization.

In addition, while doing research, be attentive for a **counterexample**, an instance that is an exception to a generalization. Counterexamples do not

**FIGURE 14.4** Reasoning by Generalization

| Grounds | → Claim |
|---|---|
| The examples of Keystone, WV; Butte, MT; and Uravan, CO show how the boom and bust cycle works. | Mining towns are prone to economic booms and busts. |

**Warrant**

These examples are representative and sufficient. (What is true of them is generally true of mining towns.)

necessarily disprove generalizations; in fact, they can help you to qualify and complicate your argument. In this case, a counterexample of a successful mining town might reveal proactive measures that communities can take to provide economic stability, feeding into your overall persuasive purpose. In addition, if those measures were absent in the other towns, they would actually strengthen your generalization.

**Reasoning by Analogy** The overall pattern in much persuasive speaking is to start with ideas that are familiar to or accepted by your audience before moving on to less familiar or more controversial ideas. This pattern is also reflected in **reasoning by analogy**, in which a speaker refers to the known characteristics of one instance as grounds for inferring unknown or uncertain characteristics of a similar instance.

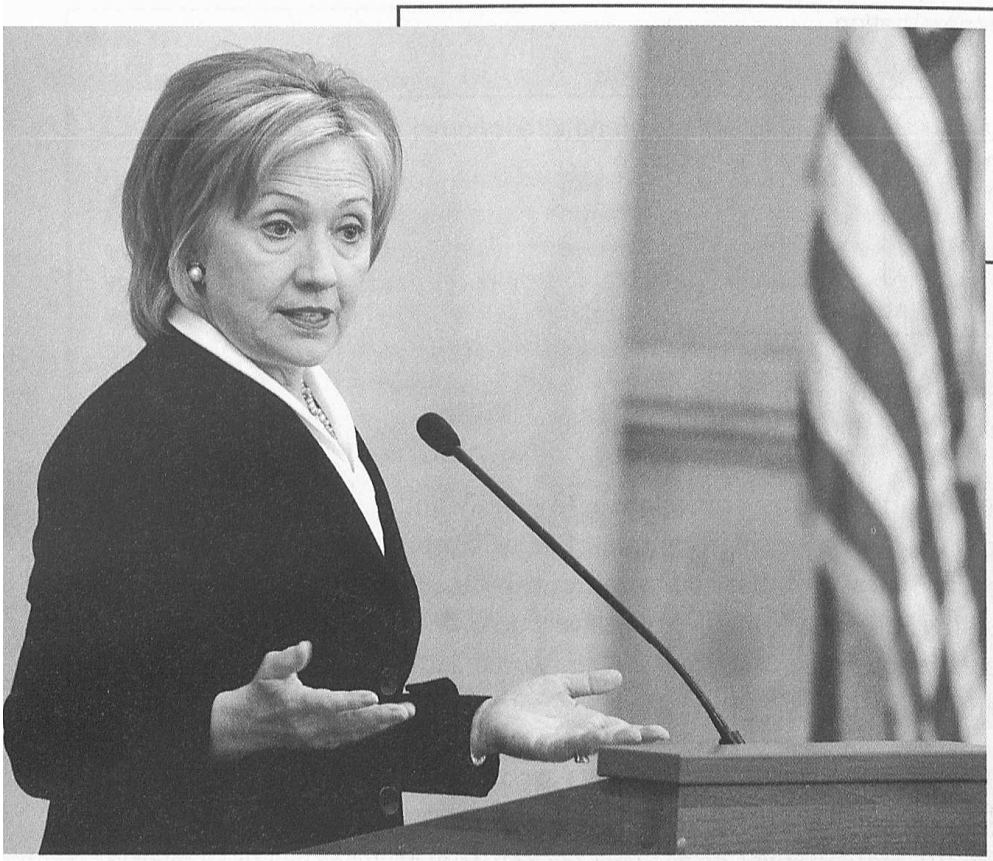
In persuasive speeches, analogies are especially useful for advancing a new practice or policy based on our knowledge of how that practice or policy has worked in a different place or time. The analogy gets its strength from the similarities of the compared items. For example, an analogy might be used to argue for adopting another college's program on your campus, as in Figure 14.5.

**FIGURE 14.5** Reasoning by Analogy

| Grounds | → Claim |
|---|---|
| The social norms campaign at Ivy U was very effective. | We should adopt a social norms campaign to reduce theft in the residence halls. |

**Warrant**

These campuses are sufficiently similar. (What will work at Ivy U is likely to work here.)



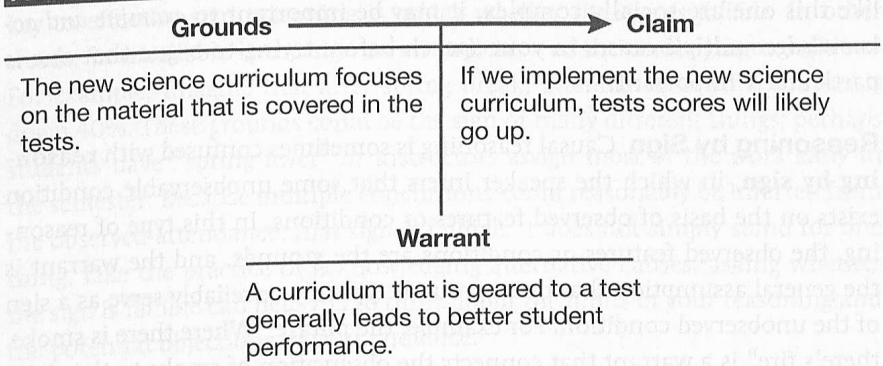
**REASONING BY ANALOGY**
Persuasive speaking about foreign policy and international relations often relies on reasoning by analogy that compares past situations to present circumstances.

The warrant in this example shows that analogies are reasonable when the compared instances are more similar than different. As a speaker, then, you want to *highlight similarities* and *account for any differences* between the situations that have relevance for your claim. In this example, it might be important to address similarities and differences between the two campuses regarding campus population or overall crime rates on campus and community.

**Reasoning by Cause** Persuasive speeches also rely heavily on **reasoning by cause**, in which a speaker infers a direct, substantive connection between one action or event and a subsequent effect. Reasoning by cause can take two different forms, depending on whether you are trying to persuade your audience that an effect is likely to happen or that some action is the primary cause of a later effect. In the first type of reasoning, often called **cause-to-effect reasoning**, the claim asserts an effect; in the latter, **effect-to-cause reasoning**, the claim asserts the cause.

Cause-to-effect reasoning occurs when speakers argue about the likely effects of a policy or action: "If we do X, then Y is likely to happen as a result." You can see this pattern in statements such as "If we implement a new science curriculum, test scores will likely go up" or "If we raise tuition, enrollment will probably go down." A full-blown causal argument might look like Figure 14.6.

**FIGURE 14.6** Reasoning by Cause




This example shows how grounds and warrants sometimes look very similar. Both are factual statements that could get backing from additional evidence. But remember that grounds are more specific than warrants are. Here, the grounds describe *this particular curriculum,* while the warrant describes how curriculum generally affects performance. Both the specific statements and the more general warrant need to be accepted by your audience members for them to see the causal link as reasonable.

As a speaker, then, you face two key challenges with cause-to-effect reasoning. First, you need to *make a direct, material connection* between the cause and the effect. If you advocated for a new science curriculum but did not explain how it was related to the tests, you would not have very strong grounds for a claim about test scores. Second, you need to *think about intervening factors* that might prevent the effect from occurring. Perhaps students might have a difficult time adjusting to a new curriculum. Familiarity with the social and political context surrounding your topic can help you to anticipate these intervening factors.

In contrast, effect-to-cause reasoning pinpoints a cause or set of causes that led to a later situation or event. Typically, this type of reasoning is used to identify a causal factor that the speaker wants either to promote or to eliminate in order to achieve goals beyond the speech. For example, consider the following claims about the factors leading to divorce:

Our state's high divorce rate is the direct result of a lack of moral commitment.

Our state's high divorce rate is the direct result of economic pressure on families.

Our state's high divorce rate is the direct result of no-fault divorce laws.

Here, each claim directs audience attention to a single causal factor that the speaker might want to eliminate in order to lower the divorce rate. For example, the last claim might be a part of a speech that is intended to persuade the audience to change divorce laws. But the other two claims

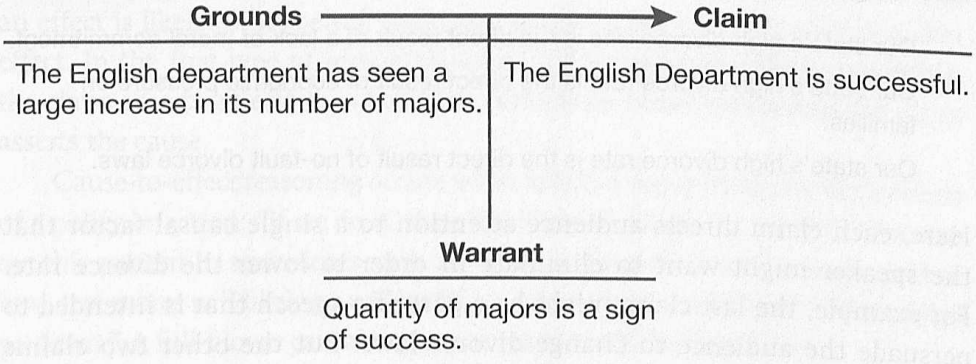
offer alternative causes that may be plausible. Because many public issues like this one are socially complex, it may be important to *examine and acknowledge multiple causes* in your speech before trying to argue that one is particularly important.

**Reasoning by Sign** Causal reasoning is sometimes confused with **reasoning by sign**, in which the speaker infers that some unobservable condition exists on the basis of observed features or conditions. In this type of reasoning, the observed features or conditions are the grounds, and the warrant is the general assumption that those grounds typically or reliably serve as a sign of the unobserved condition. For example, the phrase "Where there is smoke, there's fire" is a warrant that connects the observation of smoke to the claim that a fire must exist, even though the fire itself is not directly observable.

Sign reasoning and causal reasoning often are confused because both types of reasoning attempt to establish a relationship between two things. The key distinction is that causal reasoning tries to explain *why* something occurs, but sign reasoning simply tries to prove *that* something occurs. For example, in Figure 14.7, the grounds are not the *cause* of success; instead, it is simply a marker or indicator of success. The question remains as to what caused the increase in major—perhaps a popular introductory course or an influx of new faculty members.

In everyday life, sign reasoning is used to make sense of situations even if we do not know the cause. Diagnosing disease exemplifies sign reasoning: A runny nose and a cough are signs of a cold; an X-ray or MRI can exhibit signs that lead doctors to infer a particular disease. But none of these signs tell us what caused the diseases. Similarly, on public issues, sign reasoning helps us to infer broader conditions even when we do not have direct evidence of what caused those conditions. A successful military operation may be a sign of a well-trained military, but since the operation happened *after* the training, it could not have a causal impact on the training.

**FIGURE 14.7** Reasoning by Sign



In addition to this challenge of *distinguishing sign from cause,* another key to effective sign reasoning is *asking whether the sign is fallible.* In other words, how reliable is the sign as an indicator of the underlying condition? For example, imagine that after spring break, attendance in your courses is down 40%. These grounds could be the sign of many different things; perhaps students have "spring fever" or instructors assign most of the work early in the semester. Because multiple conclusions could reasonably be inferred from the observed attendance, that sign is fallible; it does not simply stand for one thing. Like the practice of acknowledging alternative causes, asking whether the sign is fallible can help you to think about the limits of your reasoning and the potential objections of your audience.

## Fallacies in Reasoning

As you have seen, each pattern of reasoning has inherent limitations and typical problems. When a speaker's argument falls prey to one of these problems, they have generated a **fallacy**, or pattern of flawed reasoning. Although some scholars have cataloged hundreds of fallacies (Damer), this section will focus on the fallacies that are directly related to the patterns of reasoning described above and are especially common in persuasive arguments on public issues.

Because reasoning on public issues can be very context-specific, it is useful to think of fallacies as starting points for closer inspection rather than as absolute judgments that you might make about a speaker's pattern of reasoning. What makes a generalization "hasty" or a dilemma "false" cannot be determined strictly by a textbook definition; it needs close analysis that is sensitive to the particular topic.

**Hasty Generalization** The charge of **hasty generalization** occurs when a speaker has chosen examples that audience members find to be unrepresentative or insufficient. If you claimed that efforts to stop panhandling in your community will not work because a previous campaign failed, it's easy to see how such a generalization might be hasty or premature.

Unfortunately, there is no "magic number" of examples that are needed to make a generalization absolutely valid. However, you can bolster the strength of generalizations in several ways. First, use multiple examples rather than just one that is easier to challenge. Second, explain how your examples are representative by showing their similarities or contrasting them with more extreme examples. Finally, bring in other forms of evidence to support the generalization. For example, if you are discussing how unnecessary medical procedures drive up health costs, you might first discuss some particular procedures and then bring in statistics about the average amount of extra costs, allowing you to compare the individual cases to a norm.

**False Analogy** A **false analogy** compares things that are fundamentally dissimilar or that have critical differences that undermine their comparison. One of the most common false analogies in U.S. public discourse is the comparison of any political adversary to Nazis or any proposal to fascism. Such comparisons are rarely if ever reasonable; speakers would have to demonstrate the existence of an organized political system based on explicit racial prejudice and direct attacks on democratic practices, backed up by state-sanctioned violence.

False analogies also emerge when the number of relevant differences begins to outweigh similarities. In the previous section, you saw an analogy between two college campuses used to develop support for a theft reduction program. This analogy is likely more reasonable than one that tries to draw an analogy between a private business's theft program and a campus program. The structural, age, and role differences between a campus and a business create entirely different cultures and populations, making the comparison a relatively weak one.

***Post Hoc* Fallacy** Our desire to figure out why things happen can sometimes lead us astray. When one event follows another, it can be tempting to see the earlier event as the cause:

> No wonder I flunked the exam; that breakfast burrito made me sick.
>
> After the Democrats got into office, the economy improved. They sure know how to turn things around.
>
> Applications went up 15% this year. Clearly, it's because of those glossy new brochures.

But a critical thinker should be on the lookout for the ***post hoc* fallacy**, which occurs when a speaker inaccurately presumes that an earlier event caused a later event simply because of their sequence in time. This label is shorthand for the Latin phrase *"post hoc, ergo propter hoc,"* which means "after this, therefore because of this."

Especially for persuasive speaking, the *post hoc* fallacy can be attractive because it seems to offer plausible explanations for events and often reinforces one's own biases. Take the example about Democrats above. If you prefer that party, then selective perception can lead you to see their policies as the cause of good effects. But also ask: Are there other possible causes? What evidence shows that their policies were the primary cause of those effects? Perhaps a much earlier decision about interest rates or factors outside of government policy had a greater impact. You can avoid the *post hoc* fallacy by considering alternative causes and remembering to draw a direct material connection between cause and effect.

**False Dilemma** At the beginning of this course, you read and probably heard about many of the benefits of taking public speaking. These benefits

provide good reasons to take the course. But imagine if the argument about the benefits of public speaking were posed like this:

> Either you take public speaking, or you will never be a success.

It seems a little far-fetched, doesn't it? The alternative to taking public speaking is not necessarily a mediocre life. Those are not the only two paths you might take. This phrasing of two options, known as a **false dilemma**, poses a choice between only two alternatives when others may exist. This fallacy is often referred to as the either/or fallacy for an obvious reason.

False dilemmas can be hard to resist if one option is contrasted with an obviously undesirable alternative, which makes the first option seem more appealing. "Look, either you can have a gun in your house, or you can be robbed on a regular basis." No one wants to be robbed regularly, but that does not mean that one *must* have a gun in one's house. The false dilemma distracts from the good reasons why one may or may not choose to possess a gun.

As these example show, persuasive speaking is especially prone to the false dilemma fallacy when questions of policy are being addressed. In the desire to make a specific policy seem like the best choice, it can be tempting to make it appear as if it is the *only* choice. This is an ethical problem because it fails to empower your audience to make a sound decision among alternatives. But it is also a problem if it blinds you to the problems of your own position and the potential strengths of other alternatives. Consequently, if you find yourself turning to a dilemma to encourage a particular choice, take a step back and find stronger arguments for your position.

## CASE CONCLUSION

### Lindsey's Speech on Adderall

Lindsey recognized that her audience had been exposed to a lot of fear appeals from antidrug campaigns, and she figured that they would be skeptical of such appeals. So she decided instead to develop an ongoing appeal to sympathy. In her introduction, she shared her own story, describing how occasional and recreational use of Adderall quickly turned into addiction and drug dealing. Her purpose in appealing to sympathy was not to make her audience feel sorry for her, but to demonstrate how drug abuse could easily happen to any of them.

Lindsey's introduction established her ethos and personal connection to the topic in a powerful way. But she realized that establishing ethos on this topic would require more than just a description of her personal experiences. So Lindsey went the extra mile to find testimony from university researchers and federal agencies that could speak with authority about Adderall, its relationship to other narcotics, and its health impacts.

Lindsey developed an important enthymeme in her speech that was grounded in an extended example of a student who became a heavy user of Adderall in college. She thought that her audience would easily infer from this example that Adderall should be avoided. From audience research, she knew that her classmates valued their health and were not so motivated by high grades that they would see the student's choice as sound. As a result, she did not have to explicitly state all of her premises—she just needed to develop the example and provide additional evidence about health effects. The audience's own values would lead them to see Lindsey's conclusion as reasonable.

## SAMPLE OUTLINE

### Lindsey's Speech about Adderall

*Specific purpose:* To strengthen my audience's negative attitude toward Adderall.

*Central idea:* Adderall should be a major public health concern, especially among college students.

I. Introduction

Lindsey establishes ethos with her personal connection to the topic, without making the speech all about herself.

A. You've got an exam or a paper due the next day, and it looks like it could be another all-nighter. You might grab an energy drink, have a few extra cups of coffee, or maybe even try a little Adderall from one of your friends.

B. I've been there myself. During my first semester, it seemed like I was always waiting until the last minute to study. Some friends of mine gave me some Adderall in a pinch. But it didn't take too long before this study drug became a party drug for me. Within a few months, I had fallen into addiction, and drugs became a way not just to have fun, but to make money.

C. Most people don't end up as addicts and drug-runners, but that doesn't mean we shouldn't be concerned about Adderall, Ritalin, and other prescription amphetamines. The widespread use of these drugs, even for legitimate purposes, is an important public issue.

She has a clear and concise central idea.

D. In my speech, I want to convince you that Adderall should be a major public health concern, especially for students of our generation.

E. My speech has three parts. After providing some basic facts, I want to explain why Adderall is a growing problem on college campuses and then discuss some of the negative health impacts that can result from this so-called study drug.

*(Transition: To understand why Adderall is so popular, we first need to look at what it really is.)*

II. Adderall is a prescription methamphetamine.

A. In other words, Adderall is a stimulant. It produces a short-term increase in cognitive and physical functions.

The first part of the body uses several different definitions and comparisons as supporting material to shape the audience's perspective on Adderall.

B. A 2006 article by Harry Jaffe on Washingtonian.com described it through a comparison to drug that may be more familiar in our part of the country. "In street terms, Adderall is 'speed' in a very low dose. Methamphetamine, the drug made in clandestine labs that is tearing up families and communities across the country, is speed in high doses" (Jaffe).

C. Like other stimulants, such as caffeine, nicotine, or meth, Adderall creates feelings of increased awareness and concentration.

D. As a result, Adderall can be an appealing drug for several reasons.
   1. First, according to the National Center for Biotechnology Information, it can be used to treat symptoms of ADHD, or attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (NCBI). This is the main reason why Adderall is legitimately prescribed.
   2. Second, Adderall is also used for "off-label" purposes, which are not approved by the manufacturer or federal regulators.
      a. For example, in March 2008, ABC News reported that Adderall was a popular weight loss drug among some female celebrities (Childs).
      b. Treating depression is also another common off-label use of Adderall.

The speech acknowledges that there is a legitimate reason why someone may use Adderall, before getting into its illicit uses.

*(Transition: But these uses have not received nearly as much attention as the use of Adderall as a study and recreational drug on college campuses, which I will cover next.)*

III. Adderall is a significant problem on college campuses.

A. The real problem with Adderall lies in its use as a cognitive aid or "neuroenhancer." It can be used to sharpen thinking and sustain attention for long periods of time. This is exactly what college students often need to do—but at what cost?

Lindsey adapts to her audience by acknowledging why the drug may appear beneficial at first glance.

B. The Washingtonian.com article I mentioned earlier reports the stories of several students at universities who use Adderall to maintain a high-intensity life.
   1. For example, Kirk struggled to keep up with his classmates at Duke during his freshman year.
   2. The following year, he took Adderall that was offered by a fraternity brother, studied for fourteen hours, and got an A on his chemistry exam.
   3. But that was not the end. "One Tuesday night before winter break, Kirk crushed more than 40 milligrams of Adderall. He had knocked off a physics exam that afternoon. He was determined to drink all night. He snorted the Adderall and reached into the refrigerator for a beer. His legs buckled, and he passed out. Kirk awoke in the morning in a pool of vomit with the worst hangover of his life. He swore off Adderall as a recreational stimulant. He figured if he limited the drug to schoolwork, he could control it."
   4. But he couldn't. During finals week, he downed 200 milligrams in five days and was taken to the hospital with a 103.5 degree fever before his last exam. You would think that a pre-med major would know better.

This extended example vividly depicts the experience of a college student.

C. But many students seem to view Adderall as an appealing drug.

1. One prominent study by researchers at the University of Michigan Substance Abuse Research Center published in 2005 reported that just over 4% of U.S. college undergraduates sampled had used prescription stimulants for off-label use (Talbot).
2. However, at individual colleges, rates varied from 0% to 25%.
3. More recently, a 2008 study by University of Kentucky researchers found that 34% of their respondents had used ADHD drugs illegally (DeSantis, Webb, and Noar). Other recent studies also suggest that the use of Adderall and similar prescription stimulants is on the rise.
4. These studies generally show that most students are using it as a study drug. In the Kentucky study, the top three reasons for using Adderall were "to stay awake to study, to concentrate on your work, and to help memorize" information. But many others also reported using it to sustain their energy during "marathon party sessions."
5. This is what makes Adderall a potentially big problem on college campuses. The pressure to succeed, both in the classroom and socially, makes college students especially susceptible to the continued use—and abuse—of drugs like Adderall.

Lindsey brings in multiple scholarly studies here to boost her ethos.

This passage shows that Lindsey has dug into the study's details.

These statements connect the evidence back to her main point in this section.

D. Even those who do not see it as a serious problem still recognize the potential for abuse.

1. Gretchen Feussner, a pharmacologist with the DEA, does not see Adderall as a major problem compared to other drugs.
2. However, she does say that "If the use is continued and the dose escalates . . . they're setting themselves up for a real problem, especially if there's a history of addiction in the family" (Jaffee).
3. Indeed, the FDA warning label on Adderall says that "amphetamines have a high potential for abuse" and that when administered over a long time, "can lead to drug dependence."
4. As my story and Kirk's story show, this is the real problem with Adderall: how easily it can lead to addiction and real health problems.

This supporting material anticipates potential objections, showing that even skeptics recognize some aspects of this problem.

*(Transition: Let's now turn to look at some of these side effects in more detail.)*

IV. Adderall has many negative side effects.

A. Like any drug, Adderall can have minor side effects that result from the "crash" of the drug wearing off. For example, Talbot states that "Drugs such as Adderall can cause nervousness, headaches, sleeplessness, and decreased appetite, among other side effects."

B. However, more severe side effects also can result from the drug.

1. Canadian regulators pulled Adderall off the market in 2005 after learning of twenty deaths and a dozen strokes that were linked to prescribed use of the drug.

Like the other sections, this section relies on a variety of supporting materials to illustrate a range of side effects.

2. Fourteen of the deaths were in children, and none of these reactions were associated with overdose or misuse of the drug, according to the Associated Press ("Canadian Regulators").

C. The possibility of unanticipated side effects is heightened if users are taking other drugs or have other medical conditions that might lead to bad interactions.

1. This is a real issue on college campuses, where students who previously had an ADHD diagnosis bring their Adderall prescription to college and distribute pills to friends.
2. Maryland psychiatrist David Zwerdling says, "There are side effects and toxicity when Adderall is taken in an unregulated way." While parents can keep better tabs on their children's pills in high school, "In college that breaks down," Zwerdling says. "Who's going to control this medication?" (Jaffe).

Lindsey shows how the issues are connected to the specific context of college campuses.

V. Conclusion

A. After researching my topic, I am even more convinced that Adderall should be a major public health concern for college students. The pressures of college and the easy availability make this drug a perfect fit for the college scene, but its side effects and potential for dependence and abuse should lead you to avoid it.

B. It's true that Adderall can give you a mental boost. But is it worth it? Not just for you personally, but for us as a society. We need to resist the possibility that performing on drugs will become the norm.

C. Margaret Talbot in the *New Yorker* captures my feelings best: "All this may be leading to a kind of society I'm not sure I want to live in: a society where we're even more overworked and driven by technology than we already are, and where we have to take drugs to keep up; a society where we give children academic steroids along with their daily vitamins." Avoiding Adderall can help us to avoid this kind of society.

Lindsey poses a rhetorical question and then offers a quotation that summarizes her own position.

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## Summary

### PATHOS: THE APPEAL OF EMOTION

- Pathos focuses your audience's perception on what is most important about a situation and encourages relationships with others within the public sphere.
- To use pathos ethically, a speaker needs to avoid exaggerating the scenarios that are used to evoke emotions.

### ETHOS: THE APPEAL OF CHARACTER AND CREDIBILITY

- Speakers need to demonstrate clear and comprehensive knowledge of their topic, use diverse and authoritative sources, and demonstrate practical knowledge.
- Speakers can build trust by demonstrating consistency and a record of good judgment and highlighting experiences and values that they share with their listeners.
- Speakers can evince goodwill by showing understanding, empathy, and responsiveness toward listeners' needs and desires.

### LOGOS: THE APPEAL OF EVIDENCE AND REASONING

- Reasoning in public speaking involves using the strongest forms of evidence and reasoning that resonate with the premises already accepted by your particular audience. The Toulmin model can help you to identify these premises and the relationships between grounds, warrants, and claims.
- Specific patterns of reasoning include generalization, analogy, cause, and sign. Each of these patterns has an inherent limitation that can generate a fallacy.

## Key Terms

anger p. 358
fear p. 358
sympathy p. 359
kindness p. 359
friendship p. 360
premises p. 368
Toulmin model p. 369
claim p. 369

grounds p. 369
warrant p. 369
backing p. 371
qualifier p. 371
rebuttal p. 371
reservation p. 371
enthymeme p. 371
reasoning by generalization p. 372
counterexample p. 372
reasoning by analogy p. 373
reasoning by cause p. 374
cause-to-effect reasoning p. 374
effect-to-cause reasoning p. 374
reasoning by sign p. 376
fallacy p. 377
hasty generalization p. 377
false analogy p. 378
*post hoc* fallacy p. 378
false dilemma p. 379

## Comprehension

1. In what ways does emotion contribute to sound reasoning?
2. What three rhetorical purposes are served by appeals to emotion?
3. What are two requirements for an effective and ethical fear appeal?
4. Who determines the ethos of a speaker: the speaker or the audience?
5. Name four ways in which you demonstrate knowledge about your topic.
6. What are the three dimensions of goodwill?
7. What is the difference between the grounds of an argument and the warrant?
8. Under what conditions is it ethical to omit the warrant in a speech?
9. As a speaker, what can you do to avoid making a false analogy?

## Application

1. Create two appeals to anger that relate to some aspect of college life: one that is ethical and another that is ethically questionable. Compare the two appeals among your colleagues, and see whether they can explain which appeal is ethically questionable.
2. Identify a charitable or service organization in your community. Obtain some of the organization's promotional materials, and see whether you can identify appeals to kindness and friendship.
3. Talk to a professor, a staff member, and a student about your upcoming speech, and ask them who they would find to be an authoritative source on your topic. Then discuss with your colleagues whether any of those sources should *not* be used, regardless of audience.
4. Examine the letters to the editor in your school newspaper, and see how many fallacies you can identify. Rewrite one letter by fixing the fallacy in it.