

- **The deliberative speech** (the political speech) where the purpose of the speech is to consider political/economical questions and discuss/present future actions. Focus is to convince the audience to either take action/or not take action based on the arguments put forward.
- **The judicial speech** primarily takes place in a courtroom. Focus is on previous actions and its purpose is to decide whether the accused is innocent or guilty. The audience's role is to decide whether the person in question has been accused rightly or wrongly.
- **The epideictic speech** (the ceremonial speech) is often held at specific occasions such as birthdays, weddings, at certain ceremonies etc. Opposite the two other types of speeches, the rhetoric in this type of speech is not to convince the audience but to give praise or criticism, while at the same time it expresses common values and thereby creates engagement and cohesion.

It is mainly the deliberative speech or the epideictic speech you will meet in your English lessons.

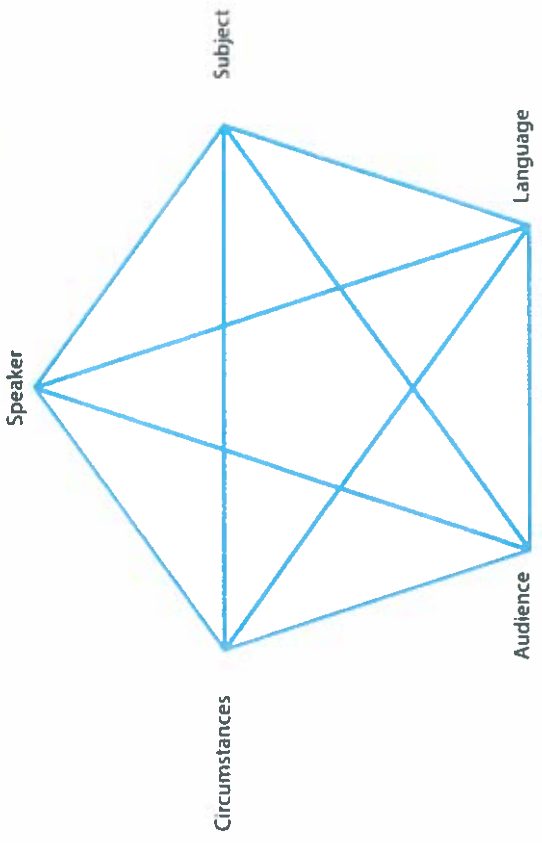
Type of speech	Time	Purpose	Outcome	Example
The judicial speech	Past	To accuse or defend	Judgment/ punishment	A lawyer defending/accusing/prosecuting a criminal
The epideictic speech	Present	To give praise or blame	Bonding or separating	A person talking about another person or group of people
The deliberative speech	Future	To persuade or dissuade	Promises or payoff	A politician promising certain political acts if he is elected A speech with a commercial intent to persuade the listener (a business man selling ideas/commodities) A speech with a social intent to convince the listener (e.g. an environmentalist talking about global warming)

Besides determining the type of speech, it is also relevant to look at the rhetorical pentagram and different rhetorical devices.

The rhetorical pentagram

Cicero was a Roman politician who lived from 106-43 B.C.. He has had a great influence on the development of rhetoric (the art of speaking). Cicero invented 5 important elements of rhetoric: speaker, audience, subject, circumstances and language. Together these elements can form a rhetorical pentagram. As the lines in the diamond indicate, all features of the rhetorical pentagram are interdependent and therefore influence each other.

Nonfiction analysis



When using the rhetorical pentagram, you can ask yourself some of the following questions:

1. **Speaker** (The person giving the speech)
 - Who is the speaker (name, gender, profession)?
 - Is the speaker known/famous or not known to the audience?
 - What is the role of the speaker?
 - Does the speaker have credibility?
2. **Circumstances** (The circumstances of the speech)
 - Where is the speech being held?
 - When?
 - Why is the speech performed?
3. **Language** (Which language is used?)
 - Does the speaker use a complicated or simple language?
 - Does the speaker use the three modes of persuasion?
 - Does the speaker use other rhetorical devices?
 - Does the language correspond to the audience, the circumstances and the topic?
4. **Subject:** (What is the subject of the speech?)
 - Is the subject a well-known topic for the audience?
 - Is the topic controversial, emotional, logical?
 - Is the topic difficult for the audience to comprehend?
5. **Audience:** (Who is the intended audience?)
 - Is the intended audience people who know about the topic beforehand?
 - What is the primary age group, occupation etc. of the audience?

cohesion sb. sammehængighed
 prosecute vb. rejse tiltale
 commercial adj. kommerciel erhvervsmaessig
 interdependent vdi. indbyrdsaerhaevende

The three modes of persuasion

In order to persuade one's audience, the three modes of persuasion are often used.

- **Pathos:**
 - A speaker uses pathos when he/she tries to persuade the audience by referring to emotions.
 - A speaker can appeal to different kinds of emotions such as sympathy, hate, caring emotions, disgust.
 - These emotions can be expressed through the use of words, the way the speaker uses his/her voice and non-verbal communication such as hand gestures and facial expressions.
- **Logos:**
 - A speaker uses logos when he/she tries to persuade by referring to something rational and logical such as statistics, numbers and facts.
 - Logos can also be expressed through the use of words and the way the speaker uses his/her voice.
- **Ethos:**
 - A speaker uses ethos when persuading through his/her own character. The intent is to appear credible. This can be done through:
 - Profession - a professor of economics has ethos when he/she talks about economics but not if he/she talks about fashion.
 - Choice of words used in order to convince the listener.
 - Non-verbal communication such as facial expressions

Other rhetorical devices

The following rhetorical devices are also important to use when preparing or analysing a speech.

Rhetorical device	Example
Allusion: Reference to something the audience is believed to be familiar with.	"What makes us exceptional -- what makes us American -- is our allegiance to an idea articulated in a declaration made more than two centuries ago." Barack Obama, <i>Inaugural speech</i> , 21 January 2013 obamawhitehouse.archives.gov
Alliteration: Repetition of an initial consonant sound in two or more words.	"We, the people, declare today that the most evident of truths -- that all of us are created equal -- is the star that guides us still; just as it guided our forebears through Seneca Falls, and Selma, and Stonewall," Barack Obama, <i>Inaugural Speech</i> , 21 January 2013 obamawhitehouse.archives.gov

Rhetorical device

Antithesis:

Opposition or contrast of words.

Example

"They do not make us a nation of takers; they free us to take the risks that make this country great"

Barack Obama, *Inaugural Speech*, 21 January 2013

<https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov>

Rhetorical question:

Asking a question which will not be answered by the audience but very often by the speaker him/herself.

"Will we respond to the changes of our time with fear, turning inward as a nation, turning against each other as a people?..."

Barack Obama, *State of the Union Address* 2016

www.whitehouse.gov

Anaphora:

Repetition of a word or a phrase in successive sentences.

"We shall fight on the seas and oceans, we shall fight with growing confidence and growing strength in the air, we shall defend our island..."

Winston Churchill, *We Shall Fight on the Beaches*

www.winstonchurchill.org

Metaphor:

A figure of speech where a word or phrase is used to describe something by saying that it is something else to suggest similarity.

"Hear me, my Chiefs! I am tired; my heart is sick and sad..."

Chief Joseph, *Surrender speech*

www.americaslibrary.gov

Simile:

Comparison by using *like* or *as*.

"A room without books is (like) a body without soul"

Roman philosopher Marcus T. Cicero, 106 BC -- 43 BC

Onomatopoeia:

The creation of words that imitate a natural sound.

"How they clang and clash and roar"

Edgar Allan Poe, *The Bells*, 1849

"The birds tweet outside"

In comic strips "kaboom", "whack"



Exercise: Spoken and written language

- In pairs: Examine a text-message conversation. What characterizes the language used? Does text-message language mostly look like spoken or written language? Remember to argue your case.
- Groupwork: Prepare and record an interview with a person from outside your class (it can be a family member, a friend etc.). Make a precise transcription of the interview where you remember to write down everything from the interview. Analyse the interview and take notes whenever you detect spoken language characteristics.

Fillers

- are words used to fill out spaces when speaking orally.
- function as a pause giving the speaker time to think about what to say (*ehh, well, like, kind of*).
- function as a softener so what is said is not taken to literally (*you know, I guess, I mean*).
- have an important function orally.
- distract the reader of a written text and thereby decrease the understanding of the text.

Low or high style

Every communication situation, either written or verbal, uses a certain style of language and it is important that the sender/author of the text has considered which style to use. Style refers to the characteristics of e.g. the language used, the words used and the way sentences are constructed in a verbal communication or a written document.

- Style of language can be divided into two subgroups of style:
- High/formal style
 - Low/informal style

High/formal style of language is characterised by:

- Longer sentences.
- Correct grammar.
- Varied vocabulary.
- Use of subordinate clauses.
- Varied sentence structure.
- Few repetitions.
- Third person use.
- Neutral tone.

Written language

Structured composition
Economical use of words
Coherent, prepared and precise
Limited use of repetition

Sentences

Use of longer sentences
Use of complicated sentence structure
Use of many long main clauses
Use of several and more elaborate subordinate clauses
Limited use of split sentences
Limited use of incorrect/abrupted sentences

Limited use of afterthoughts (*ehh*), corrections of oneself and repetitions

Words

Absence of slang, adjectives (*great, just*) swearwords, dialect
Use of many complex words
Use of abstract words, academic words and foreign words

No use of fillers

Limited use of *and* and *but*

Spoken language

Loose composition
Use of many words
Spontaneous, esoteric
Use of repetitions

Use of shorter sentences

Use of simple sentence structure

Use of short main clauses

Use of short subordinate clauses

Use of split sentences (*Peter, he is stupid*)

Use of incorrect/abrupted sentences where subject or verb is missing

Use of afterthoughts (*ehh*), corrections of oneself and repetitions

Extended use of slang, adjectives (*great, just*) swearwords, dialect

Use of simple words

Use of concrete words

Use of fillers (see page 153) – words and expressions regulating the conversation (*you know, no way, you don't say, right?, eh, uhmm*) and contractions (*you'll, won't, ain't*)

Use of *and* and *but*

Many literary texts using written language have started to include parts of spoken language elements in order to make the text more spontaneous and real. If one looks closer at the language, it will often be possible to detect that though the literary text has some elements from spoken language, it is first and foremost a literary construction. Spoken language in its pure form is characterised by the language we use when we speak to each other on a daily basis, and it is therefore too unstructured, incoherent and esoteric in order to make sense in writing.

economical adj. sparsommelig
main clause sb. hovedsætning
subordinate clause sb. ledsætning
elaborate adj. udførbende

Low/informal style is characterised by:

- Short sentences.
- Mainly main clauses.
- Less varied vocabulary.
- Repetitions.
- Use of fillers.
- Alternate and incorrect spelling and grammar.
- Little variation in sentence structure.
- Contractions (such as *I'll, you'd, ain't, won't*).
- First person use.
- Personal tone (the use of *we* and *I*).

Examples of high and low style

High style:

- Students are expected to use grammar and punctuation correctly.

Low style:

- Well, students usually try to use correct grammar and punctuation, you know.

Exercise: High/Low style

1. Create 3 sentences. Try to write each sentence in both high and low style.
2. In pairs: Try to write a short text message about your plans this coming weekend – one writes a text message to a parent or grandparent – the other writes a text message to a best friend. Read them aloud to each other and discuss the choice of words and where the two text messages differ.



Exercise: Determine the style

1. Look at the two tweets and determine which style of language is used. Remember to use the above-mentioned characteristics.



The White House @WhiteHouse · 12 Jan

Because of the #ACA, it's illegal to discriminate against people with pre-existing conditions. Repeal takes us back: go.wh.gov/ACAWorks



THANKS TO THE AFFORDABLE CARE ACT

- 31 million young adults can no longer be denied coverage for a pre-existing condition
- 105 million Americans no longer have a lifetime limit on their health coverage
- 137 million Americans are guaranteed preventive care coverage
- 20 million Americans have gained health coverage

185



1,7 td



1,9 td



White House tweet

Calvin Harris tweet:

I trimmed my mustache I was looking washed up...while making the best music of my life...didn't correlate. Gonna grow it back for the Brits

twitter.com/calvinharris, 3 January

Guide to discourse analysis

Discourse analysis is primarily used when analysing non-fiction texts such as articles, blogs etc. Here is a guide which can help you when using discourse analysis.

1. Read the text and find the nodal point of the text.
2. Look for the chain of equivalence after finding the nodal point. They are words connected to the nodal point. In order to find the words, ask yourself if they give added value to or more information about the nodal point.
3. When you have found the words which, you believe, are part of the chain of equivalence, ask yourself the following questions:
 - a. What is the exact meaning of the words in the chain of equivalence?
 - b. Which connotations do the words invoke?
 - c. Which effect do the words have?
4. Sum up your findings and draw a conclusion regarding your findings.
5. When there are two nodal points and two opposing chains of equivalence, you have a chain of difference. Do the same analysis of the chain of difference by asking the same questions and sum up by making a comparison of the two chains of equivalence.
6. You can also use Fairclough's model which puts the text you analyse into a societal context.

4.4 Argumentation theory



Another way of analysing language is by looking at the argumentation of a text. Put differently, which point of views does the sender of the text want the receiver to agree to and which means are used to make sure of that?

Argumentation theory has its roots in classic rhetoric (see page 141). Therefore, many of the elements of argumentation theory come from the art of rhetoric such as the three modes of

persuasion (see page 144). However, argumentation theory does have its own method which will be explained in the following sections.

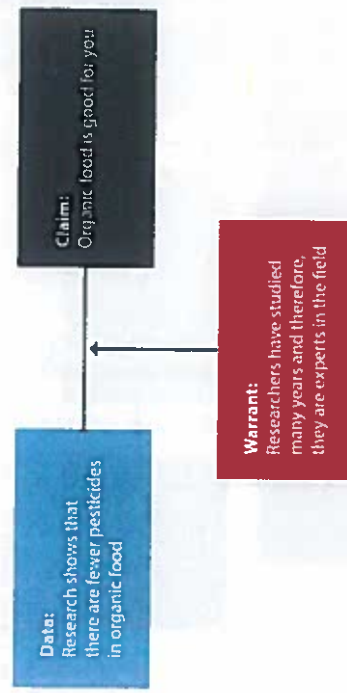
When you argue, you try to win support for your argument by coming up with reasons to why your argument should be supported.

Example of an argument

You might have the argument that Danish high school students are too stressed and your reasons for that argument are that Danish high school students are too stressed because they have too many written assignments and too much homework on top of a full day at school.

Toulmin's model of argumentation

One method of constructing a convincing argument is by using Stephen Toulmin's model of argumentation. Toulmin's model breaks down an argument into 6 basic parts. His approach identifies and separates these six components of an argument into a specific order.



Claim

The most simple form of an argument is a claim. A claim is the statement to be argued.

Example: *Organic food is good for you*

Such a claim, on its own, has no reasons/data to support whether it is true or false. Therefore, more is required for the claim to be convincing.

convincing adj. overbevisende
approach sb. fremgangsmåde
claim sb. påstand
organic adj. økologisk
require vb. forlange, kræve

Data

As mentioned earlier, the point of an argument is to persuade or convince the receiver/audience that your claim is true or best. Therefore, a claim such as *organic food is good for you* needs something that justifies this claim. It needs facts or evidence to prove the claim. These facts/evidence are called data.

Example: Research shows that there are fewer pesticides in organic food.

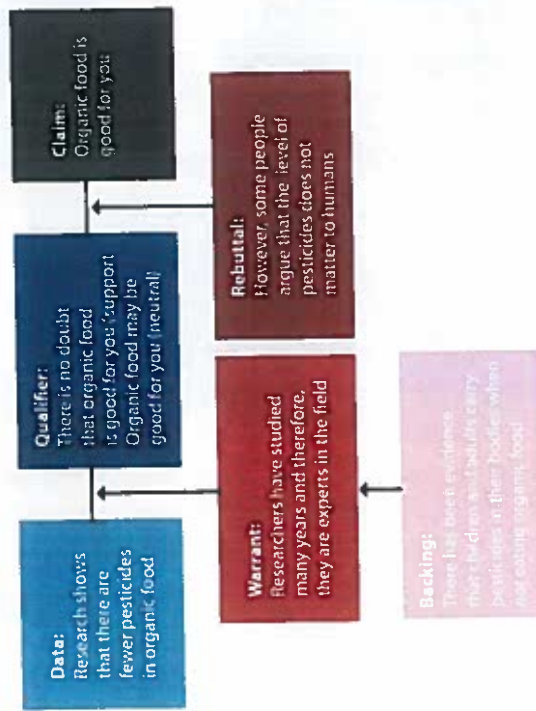
Now, the claim *organic food is good for you* is supported by the data research shows there are fewer pesticides in organic food.

Warrant

A warrant supports and substantiates your data and claim and acts as a bridge between them. It can be said to deliver the punch line – the ultimate argument that is meant to convince the receiver. However, warrants can prove somewhat tricky as they are often implicit in arguments.

Example: Researchers have studied many years and therefore, they are experts in the field

Toulmin's extended model



persuade vb. overbevise
justify vb. berettige
prove vb. bevise
pesticide sb. pesticider
warrant sb. hjemmel
substantiate vb. underbygge

Backing

Sometimes the validity of the warrant may be called into question. To demonstrate the validity of the warrant, it may therefore be necessary to introduce additional data or information to back the warrant. This is called backing. Backing functions as a sort of justification for a warrant. Its purpose is to provide an explanation to why the warrant(s) function(s) as a reason to accept the claim.

Example: There has been evidence that children and adults carry pesticides in their bodies when not eating organic food

A backing can be based on diverse criteria such as belief, law, authority, ethics, moral etc.

Qualifiers

Qualifiers are used to express the relative strengths of warrants. Qualifiers support the claim that warrants justify. Qualifiers can be a word or an expression which the sender of the claim will use to support his/her claim.

Qualifiers can either provide extra support for the claim or make the claim more neutral

Examples: There is no doubt that organic food is good for you (support) – Organic food may be good for you (neutral)

Rebuttal

A rebuttal acknowledges that the argument has limitations. Therefore, a rebuttal captures the reasons for why the warrant may not hold.

Example: However, some people argue that the level of pesticides does not matter to humans

Rebuttals can be used to counter argue, in fact giving your original claim more weight. The receiver/audience may perceive your rebuttal as a sign of objectivity – seeing things from several perspectives. It may contribute to persuade the receiver/audience.

validity sb. gyldighed
additional adj. yderligere, ekstra
backing sb. rygdækning (for hjemmel)
qualifier sb. styrkemarker
justify vb. berettige
rebuttal sb. gengrivelse
limitation sb. begrænsning
capture vb. fastholde
counter argue vb. modargumentere

Different types of arguments



When you construct an argument, it is often a good idea to use different types of arguments. The purpose of using different types of arguments is to convince your audience. Therefore, it is important to consider when to use a specific type of argument as it will depend on the situation, the sender, the channel, message sent and the audience.

Some types of arguments appeal to ethos, some to pathos or to logos. You will find these different types of arguments in both text messages, commercials, articles, speeches etc.

In a longer text, you will often find that different types of arguments are used whereas fewer types of arguments will be used in a shorter text. The types of arguments used will tell you something about what is characteristic of the text, commercial, speech etc.

The sign argument

The argumentation is built on the fact that something is a sign of something else.

X is a sign of Y

Example: *The growing drought in the world (is a sign) of global warming*

The cause argument

The argumentation is built on the fact that something is the cause of something else.

X is the cause of Y

Example: *The badminton player changed his strategy and therefore he won the match*

The classification argument

The argumentation is built on the fact that when it applies to the majority, it also applies to the rest.

When something applies to 5X then it also applies to X

Example: *Teenagers sleep with their smart phone (indirectly: therefore, you also do that)*

The generalisation argument

The argument is built on the fact that when it applies to one, it applies to all. Therefore, this argument is the opposite of the classification argument.

When something applies to X then it also applies to 10X

Example: *I am young and sleep with my smart phone (indirectly: therefore, everyone who is young sleeps with their smart phone)*

The comparative argument

The argument is built on that fact that you compare one event, thing, phenomenon with something else. If it applies to this event, it will also apply to the next one.

The difference between the comparative argument and the generalisation argument is that the comparative argument only compares with one incident, whereas the generalisation argument makes one incident apply to several.

If it applies to X, it also applies to Y

Example: *Of course, going skiing will be fun – it was fun last year*

The authoritative argument

The construction of the authoritative argument relies on the use of others to provide evidence for the validity of the claim. Therefore, the authoritative argument appeals to ethos.

X is true because Y says so

The authoritative argument can rely on different types of evidence:

Experts: When the argument relies on an authority within the subject in question.

Example: *Elon Musk, owner of Tesla, says that electric cars are the future.*

Using a quantity: When the argument relies on a quantity to support the claim in question. If a quantity supports the claim then it must be right. The difference between the classification argument and the authoritative argument is that the authoritative argument relies on an authority.

Example: *1.86 billion users cannot be wrong. Facebook is the most popular social media in the world*

Postulate: When the argument relies on a postulate made by the person constructing the argument. This is done verbally as there is no authority besides the person making the claim who can state the truth of the claim.

Example: *It is obvious that you should not use your mobile while driving because it is dangerous*

Experience: When the argument relies on experience. A teacher may use his/her experience when talking about a certain subject. This is opposite from using an expert as authority as the argument here is based on experience and not expert knowledge.

Example: *From my own experience, you become a better student when doing homework for at least three hours a day (I did that)*

The motivational argument

The argument appeals to people's emotions (pathos) such as feelings, fear, sympathy, ethics etc... This type of argument is very much used in commercials.

You will feel better by doing X

Example: *if you buy this lotion, you will look younger*

The choice of word argument

The argument is not really a 'real' type of argument but takes into consideration the way words are used when constructing the argument.

Through the use of words the person constructing the argument tries to convince the audience.

Example: *using the words 'restructuring the company' instead of 'firing'*

Words have the same denotation. However, the connotation of the word(s) is different.



Exercise: Determine the type of argument

1. Determine the type of argument in the following sentences.
 - High school students are constantly partying.
 - All experts agree that smoking causes cancer.
 - She must be very hungry as she has eaten 10 cookies in 5 minutes.
2. Determine the type of argument used in the tweet by Donald Trump.

Arnold Schwarzenegger isn't voluntarily leaving the Apprentice, he was fired by his bad (pathetic) ratings, not by me. Sad end to great show.

Kilde: twitter.com/realdonaldtrump

1. Pair work: Each person constructs two types of arguments. The other person tries to determine which type of argument it is.