

Models For The Pragmatic Analysis Of Fallacy In Obama's Political Speeches

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Abstract

Fallacy as a derailment of strategic maneuvering can be defined as the process of issuing a defective argument (when subjected to certain criteria) to support and strengthen a previously issued one for purposes of persuasion. However, fallacy is a broad topic that has been approached from different perspectives. Several studies have attempted to tackle fallacy pragmatically. Yet, those attempts have suffered from many gaps and drawbacks which have characterized them as insufficient accounts in this regard. Hence, this work has set itself the task of dealing with this problem through developing pragmatic models for the analysis of fallacy as far as its pragmatic structure, types and strategies are concerned. These models are built upon several models introduced by several scholars in addition to the observations made by the researchers themselves.

The validity of the developed models has been tested by means of analyzing sixteen fallacious situations taken from Barak Obama's war and electoral speeches. The analyses conducted have proved that the models developed are workable. Besides, they have yielded various results among which it has been concluded that fallacy is a process composed of various stages. Each stage is distinct for its pragmatic components and strategies.

1. Fallacy: Definition

Fallacy assumes a crucial part of our daily life exchanges; people make fallacies everywhere in offices, at homes, in schools, ads, media...etc. Therefore, Fallacy is at the top of every fully fledged argumentation theory. Rated so highly, the study of fallacy begins as early as argumentation and logic emerge. Since that time, there is a disagreement over the definition of fallacy. This inconsistency and disagreement lead to the emergence of various approaches, theories and definitions of the term fallacy.

Scholars differ in approaching and viewing fallacy. Some, like Aristotle and the sophists, study fallacy from a logical perspective.

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Others prefer to approach it dialectically like Hamblin(1970). Eemeren and Grootendorst (1999) study fallacy from a pragma-dialectical perspective where they regard it as a "derailment of strategic maneuvering". Still others approach fallacies pragmatically. In this respect, Walton(1995: 23) defines fallacy as: "an argument (or at least something that purports to be an argument); that falls short of some standard of correctness; as used in a context of a dialogue; but that, for various reasons, has a semblance of correctness about it in context; and poses a serious obstacle to the realization of the goal of a dialogue".

In 1992, Walton observes that fallacy, in any context, has a starting point and an end point. The process approach, as has been already indicated, sees fallacy as a dynamic entity that moves through different stages toward a collective goal based on the collaborative conversational postulates that govern how moves are made during the process(Walton and Reed, 2003: 12). The process view to fallacy comes from the purpose or the intention behind issuing fallacy. Fallacy, according to Walton(2007: 159), is a deliberately crafted tactic of persuasion.

Based on Walton's definition and observation, fallacy can be defined as the process of issuing a fallacious argument(an argument that violates a certain rule of correctness) in support of a previously issued argument. This definition will be regarded as the operative definition of fallacy in this work.

1. Strategic Maneuvering and Fallacy

The nature of fallacy as an argumentative tactic is difficult to be understood. Some think it is a deceptive tactic, others do not. Aristotle (cited in Walton(1995: 1) defines fallacy as a "deliberate deceptive tactic of argumentation used to trick and get the best of a speech partner in a dialogue unfairly.

Among those who do not regard fallacy as a trick are Eemeren and Houtlosser(1999a: 164). They introduce what is called strategic maneuvering to do justice to "the fact that engaging in argumentative discourse always means being at the same time out for critical reasonableness and artful effectiveness"(Eemeren and Houtlosser, 2002: 11). They (ibid: 14) define fallacy as "derailment of strategic maneuvering where rhetoric gains upper hand over dialectics or vice versa".

Strategic maneuvering has three aspects that are, depending on the researcher's observations, revealed throughout the process of issuing fallacy:

1. Topical Potential

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This dimension involves the arguers to choose topics that best advance their interests, i.e. the arguer should choose the topics which he wants to discuss, prove or disprove from the list of topics available(Tindale, 1999: 4).

2. Audience Orientation

This dimension requires the arguer to adapt to audience demands. This lives up to create some sort of empathy and communion with the addressees(Eemeren & Houtlosser, 2000b: 298).

Beard(2000: 202) states that there are different ways of adapting to audience, the best of them is appealing to deixis of integration which are best represented by the first person deixis.

Brown and Levinson(1987) consider showing awareness of the hearer's face as the best means of adaptation which is achieved through the following strategies:

a. Claiming a Common Ground

According to them (Cited in Watts (2003: 89)), the speaker should realize that he and his addressees belong to some group of people who share specific wants, goals and values. This involves the speaker to show that some of the hearer's wants and desires are also desirable to him.

b. Attending to hearer's interests

This requires the speaker to notice the hearer's wants and needs and behave accordingly(ibid).

c. Seeking Agreement

In order to gain the hearer's empathy, the speaker should agree with what the addressees want or say whatever it is. One of the best strategies of seeking agreement is through raising safe topics(ibid).

d. Being Indirect

Directness causes threat to the hearer's face so the speaker should be indirect in order to avoid such threats(ibid: 90).

e. Minimize Imposition

This strategy involves minimizing the possible imposition carried by the utterance of the speaker. This comes through appealing to certain expressions like (just, exactly, only, merely...etc.) or through intonation or through being indirect(ibid).

f. Being pessimistic

This involves showing pessimism towards what the speaker wants the hearer to do(ibid).

3. Presentational Devices

This dimension involves using the best means of impressing the hearer at a certain stage of argumentation. In this regard, rhetorical

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devices are the most effective means to be employed(Tindale, 1999: 5). Only devices expected to appear in the data scrutinized are discussed below:

a. Profound words

These are words that have a great impact on the hearer when receiving them, like: (great, terrible, superb, magnificent...etc.)(ibid: 23).

b. Padding

It is the process of adding significant-sounding sentences here and there that in fact say nothing or little(Cavender and Kahane, 2006: 163).

c. Weasel Words

These are locutions that seem to make little or no change in the content of a certain construction or statement, while, in fact, sucking out all or most of its content(ibid).

Brydon and Scott (2008: 391) consider it necessary for the public speaker to present his message with the accompany of principles of influence which they consider as the most persuasive presentational devices. Only principles expected to appear in the data are discussed below:

a. Appeal to Fear

They(ibid: 398) state that emotional appeals such as fear can enhance persuasive effect but must be used carefully and ethically.

b. Appeal to Interests

They (ibid: 79) consider it important for the speaker to show his interest in the addressees interests and wants.

c. Reciprocity

The saying “You scratch my back, and I’ll scratch yours” illustrates reciprocity. A reciprocity-based appeal can work in one of two ways in a persuasive speech. Candidates for political office often promise to give something in return for a person’s vote. They may promise to reciprocate by proposing legislation, supporting a specific bill, or voicing a concern of their constituency(ibid: 391).

d. Authority

For public speakers to be persuasive, they should appeal to the judgment of people that represent an authority for the addressees so as to convince them of the topic discussed(ibid: 392).

e. Commitment

One of the most effective means of persuasion is making commitments. Speakers should commit themselves to what the addressees want them to do in an attempt to convince them(ibid: 393).

f. Flattery

Flattery, according to Walton(2007: 34) is one of the most effective means of persuading the addressees.

The three aspects of strategic maneuvering and their strategies are adopted by this work for it is observed that they are revealed in the data under study.

2. Stages of Issuing Fallacy

Most scholars embrace the process approach to the study of fallacies as devices of persuasion used in argumentation. The first who apply this approach to fallacy is Eemeren and Grootendorst(1984). They believe that fallacy issuance is a process of four stages but their approach suffers from certain weaknesses. One of the clear gaps that distorts their approach, according to Walton(1995:), is that fallacy identification is not clear cut, i.e., there are no clear criteria for fallacy identification and this is one of the reasons why their approach is not adopted in this study. Another scholar who always defends the process approach to fallacy is Walton(1992, 1995, 1996, 2007). He believes that fallacy, in any context, has a starting point and an end point. The process approach, as has been already indicated, sees fallacy as a dynamic entity that moves through different stages toward a collective goal based on the collaborative conversational postulates that govern how moves are made during the process(Walton and Reed, 2003: 12).

The process view to fallacy comes from the purpose or the intention behind issuing fallacy. Fallacy, according to Walton(2007: 159), is a deliberately crafted tactic of persuasion. It is presented in the context as a means of influencing the addressee to accept something in the arguments or claims presented mainly before the fallacious argument, i.e. the fallacious arguments are resorted to in order to contribute something to the context in which they occur- to the previous arguments and claims. According to Walton(2007 : 8), fallacy occurs on three stages: the start-point stage, the argument stage and the end point stage. At the start-point stage, the arguer introduces the main topic in the form of argument(s) trying to persuade the respondent to take action regarding the topic in question.

At the argument stage, the arguer issues the fallacious argument to support the previous argument(s) in a deliberately manipulative way. At the end-point stage comes the role of the respondent in evaluating and responding to the fallacious argument. Such response comes in the form of questioning the argument using the set of critical questions associated with it (ibid). These stages are adopted in this study with some modifications.

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Now, everything is clear with the first and third stages of issuing fallacy. As for the second stage(argument stage), many issues need to be clarified: criteria of identifying the fallacious argument, its pragmatic strategies , types of fallacious arguments and its pragmatic structure.

3.1. Identifying the Fallacious Argument

Many different models for identifying the fallacious argument can be used. In this section only models that can be utilized in developing the pragmatic eclectic model which is used for analyzing fallacy are discussed below.

However, it seems necessary to firstly decide on the criteria that help in identifying fallacious argument in a certain context. Walton's(1995) and Johnson's(2000) models are utilized in this study to establish the criteria used for deciding why a certain argument is considered fallacious. Damer(2009) and Luque(2011) models are utilized to identify types of fallacious arguments that result from violating the criteria proposed by Walton(1995) and Johnson(2000).

3.1.1. Walton's (1995) Pragmatic Model of Fallacy

Walton's(1995) model of fallacy aims to solve the problem of identifying fallacy faced by all scholars who preceded him. According to him(ibid) fallacy is said to be committed whenever an argumentation scheme or theme is used wrongly in a manner that fouls up the right sequence of the moves of the dialogue in which it is used. This means that the concept of fallacy is associated not only with insufficiently supported argumentation scheme or theme but also with the wrong use of them which aims to block the achievement of the goals of the dialogue.

Walton(1995) believes that there should be a distinction between argumentation scheme and theme. He (ibid) defines argumentation scheme as " premise-conclusion-inference structure that represent common types of arguments used in every discourse, as well as in special contexts that include deductive, inductive and abductive forms of argument(Cited in Walton, 2007: 26).

As for argumentation theme or what is sometimes called profile of dialogue, Walton(1995) seems to have made use of Krabbe(1992: 277-81) in defining the argumentation theme as an important tool used for identifying fallacious argument. Krabbe(ibid) defines the argumentation theme as tree-shaped descriptions of sequences of dialectic moves that display the various ways a reasonable dialogue could proceed.

Fallacy committed through the wrong use of argumentation theme is out of the concern of the current study since fallacy, in the current work, is committed through issuing a fallacious argument in support of another

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argument which is not the case with the argumentation theme as stated by Walton(ibid).

As for how fallacy is related to the wrong use of an argumentation scheme, Walton(ibid: 255) defines fallacy as " an argument that falls short of some standard of correctness as used in a context of dialogue but that, for various reasons, has a semblance of correctness about in context and poses a serious obstacle to the realization of the goal of the dialogue".

So the inherent nature of fallacy, according to Walton(ibid: 23), lies in the Gricean principle of cooperativeness which according to Grice(1975) reads as follows " make your contribution such as is required by the accepted purpose and direction of the talk exchange in which you are involved"(Ward and Laurence(2006: 7).

Walton (1995) employs this principle and its maxims to find out fallacies. according to him (ibid: 231) an argument must be evaluated on two levels: the macro(global) level and the micro(local) level.

3.1.1.1. The Macro (Global) Level of an Argument

At this level, the argument is evaluated systematically in the context where it occurs. At the macro level, the argument is presented as a move or sequence of moves in the context of dialogue so it can be evaluated as a fallacious, if it twists some scheme of argument rightly used in its context to the advantage of the participant who has made the move (ibid: 235).

Such an account of fallacy takes it for granted that in the context where it occurs, there is some set of maxims that regulate how and where appropriate moves should be presented(ibid). For identifying fallacies of the macro level, Walton(ibid) put the following criteria:

3.1.1.1.1. Dialectical Relevance

Walton(1995) intends to define relevance in terms of the argument which in turn can be defined in terms of the context in which the argument is used, i.e. how the argument contributes to the achievement of the goals of that context(Walton, 1995: 163).

On this basis, an argument is dialectically relevant if it performs a legitimate function in some stage of the argumentation where it is used. So any argument that doesn't perform a function in the argumentation or put in a way that subverts the goals of the argumentation is fallacious. For example, the use of the ad hominem argument in a context where the arguer tries to persuade his respondents of something is fallacious(ibid: 197).

b. Dialectical Shift

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Conversationalists in the course of conversation move from one type of dialogue into another, this is called dialectical shift (ibid: 118). Dialectical shift is not always problematic or fallacious. It does become so when there is deception or misunderstanding involved. This happens when one party is unaware of the shift made by the other party who tries to conceal the shift to trick his partner (ibid: 120).

Fallacious arguments of dialectical shifts are not the concern of the present study since they involve certain shift from one type of dialogue to another and the data of the present work are monological in nature.

3.1.1.2. The Micro Level

At the micro level, the main concern is with the premises and the conclusion(s) of the argument. Accordingly, two criteria for judging fallacious argument are distinguished here: relevance and sufficiency.

However, it seems that Walton's criteria of the micro level are not useful for developing the model targeted at by this study because they are not sufficient to cover the data of this work as compared with others.

3.1.2. Johnson's (2000) Pragmatic Model of Fallacy

Johnson (2000) introduces ideas to solve the problem Walton (1995) model suffers from. He does so by giving attention to both levels but he gives them different terminology: the illative core and the dialectical tier and his terminology will be adopted by this study from now on because it is, as Ramage (2012: 50) states is more representative than Walton's terminology.

According to Johnson (2000: 34), the fallacious argument is "the argument that violates one of the criteria of a good argument and which occurs with sufficient frequency in discourse to warrant being parodied". Johnsons (ibid: 208) indicates that fallacious argument should be judged on two levels: the illative core and the dialectical tier. For both levels he puts certain criteria. Thus, Johnson (ibid) believes that an argument could be fallacious if it violates the criteria of the illative core or that of the dialectical tier or both of them. He (ibid:189) calls these criteria (of both levels) the criteria of a good argument.

3.1.2.1. The Dialectical tier

3.1.2.2. The Illative Core

Johnson (2000) employs the illative core in judging fallacious arguments and puts criteria for testing its goodness. The illative core according to Johnson (ibid: 190) refers to the structural level that consists of the elements of the argument: the reasons given in support of the conclusion. He (ibid) puts four criteria for evaluating fallacious arguments of this level: acceptability, truth, relevance and sufficiency.

The acceptability criterion

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The first who uses this criterion in evaluating arguments is Hamblin(1970). Hamblin(ibid: 242) states that acceptance is the basic criteria for evaluating an argument. Johnson(ibid), in an attempt to define acceptability, states that the acceptability criterion requires that whenever the proponent puts a thesis, he must furnish support for it, and both the thesis and support must adapt to the audience to whom they are presented(ibid).

The requirement of acceptability must be understood in terms of a dialectical situation of interacting between a proponent and respondent in a certain context and that's why it is a pragmatic criterion(ibid: 95).

This criterion is applied to all elements of the argument. When it is applied to a certain premise the arguer must ask himself "is this premise one which my audience is prepared to accept as good" (ibid: 200-201).

a. The Truth Criterion

Johnson(2000: 197) makes use of this criterion to judge what arguments to be considered as fallacious and sees it hard to imagine evaluation without resorting to the truth criterion. It is after all the core of communication. According to Johnson(ibid) this criterion judges the truth versus the falsity of a certain utterance and it is applied to all the elements of the argument and violating it may result in fallaciousness.

b. The Relevance Criterion

Johnson(2000) employs this criterion to judge the fallaciousness or not of an argument. What is meant by relevance, according to him(ibid: 200), is the propositional relevance to be distinguished from other types like topical relevance and audience relevance.

Relevance, on the illative core, is a property of propositions. It is applied to the evidence presented to support the conclusion. It is context-sensitive, i.e. what is relevant in one context may be not in another and this is why it is a pragmatic criterion(ibid: 201-2).

c. The Sufficiency Criterion

The regulation of this criterion is that the premises must provide sufficient support or evidence to prove the conclusion or target claim(ibid: 205).

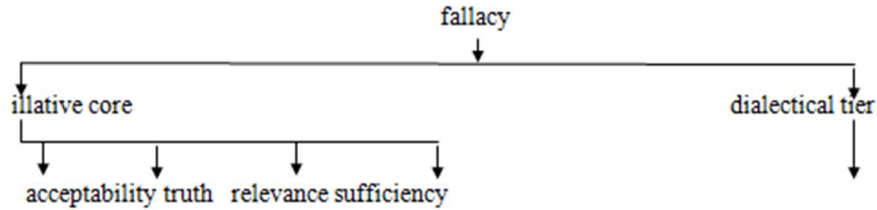
Sufficiency, unlike relevance, should be presented to both data and warrant at the same time. What is sufficient in one context or set of circumstances may not be so in another. It is this feature that gives sufficiency its pragmatic nature.

Since it is the most comprehensive set of criteria when compared with others like Tindale (2007) and Pirie (2006), Johnson's set of criteria of

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the illative core is adopted by this study to help in developing the model targeted at to analyze fallacious.

Accordingly, The data under study will be judged on two levels, based on Johnson's(2000) terminology, the dialectical tier and the illative core. For the dialectical tier Walton's(1995) criterion of (dialectical relevance) are used for the identification of fallacious arguments. For the illative core, Johnson's(2000) criteria(acceptability, truth, relevance and sufficiency) are used for identifying fallacious arguments. The figure below illustrates these criteria:



figure(2) Criteria for Identifying Fallacious arguments on the Two Levels

3.2. Pragmatic Strategies of Issuing the Fallacious Argument

The criteria of identifying fallacious arguments arrived at in the previous section are also employed as part of the strategies of issuing the fallacious argument. Having identified these criteria or rules referred to by Walton(1995) and Johnson(2000), time is ripe to refer to the strategies of issuing the fallacious argument through using these criteria. To start with the illative core. At this level the arguer can issue a fallacious argument by resorting to the following strategies:

- Violating acceptability
- Violating truth
- Violating relevance
- Violating sufficiency

At the dialectical tier the arguer is said to commit a fallacious argument if he used the following strategies:

- Violating dialectical relevance

These strategies are best illustrated by the following figure:

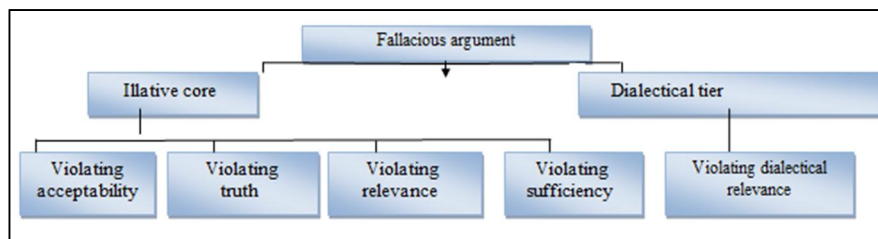


Figure (3) Pragmatic Strategies of Issuing a Fallacious Argument

3.3. Types of Fallacious Arguments

Fallacious arguments that result from breaching the criteria identified above can be of various types on the basis of the kind of the criteria being violated. Damer(2009) concerns himself with classifying fallacious arguments that result from violating the criteria of acceptability, relevance and sufficiency while fallacious arguments that result from violating the truth criterion have been the concern of Luque's(2011) model as illustrated below. The two models are made use of by this study in the analysis of the data of the work because both of them are found more comprehensive than other models.

3.3.1. Damer's (2009) Types of Fallacious Arguments

Unlike Johnson (2000), Damer(2009) doesn't regard truth as one of the criteria of a good argument. That's why he classifies fallacious arguments that result from violating only the three criteria of acceptability, relevance and sufficiency. As for fallacious arguments that result from violating the truth criterion, Luque's(2011) model will be adopted in this work.

Damer's(2009) and Luque(2011) models are adopted in this study to be utilized in developing the model targeted by this study to analyze types of fallacious arguments that result from violating the criteria of: acceptability, truth, relevance and sufficiency.

3.3.1.1. Fallacious arguments of Acceptability

According to Damer(2009: 120) fallacious arguments of acceptability are arguments that use premises that don't comply with the acceptability criteria. Those arguments fall into two main categories: fallacious arguments of linguistic confusion and fallacious arguments of unwarranted assumption.

3.3.1.1.1. Fallacious arguments of linguistic confusion

This category of fallacious arguments suffers from some lack of clarity in one of the premises of its arguments. They include the following: equivocation, ambiguity, misleading accent, argument by innuendo, misuse of a vague expression and distinction without a difference(ibid: 121).

Equivocation

This type of fallacious argument, according to Damer(ibid), is the argument that directs the respondent towards unwarranted conclusion by making a word or phrase, which is employed in two different senses in one of the premises, appear to have the same meaning.

a. Ambiguity

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It is the argument that directs the respondent toward an unwarranted conclusion by presenting a claim that uses a word, phrase or grammatical construction that can be interpreted in two or more different ways without making clear which meaning is intended(ibid: 123).

b. Misleading Accent

Pirie(2006: 3) is the first who refers to committing fallacious arguments phonologically by stressing a word or phrase. Damer(2009: 126) makes use of this reference in his classification and thus he states that this fallaciousness lies in leading the respondents toward unwarranted conclusion by putting emphasis on a word a phrase or a particular aspect of an issue or claim.

c. Argument by innuendo

This argument is first referred to by Plato under the name " damaging the origin" (Cited in Fearnside and Holther, 1959: 119). Those who follow Plato somehow stick to the tradition in naming fallacious arguments, but there are always those seekers of innovation and change like Damer(2009: 129) and thus he calls this argument "argument by innuendo".

He (ibid) states that this fallacious argument directs the listener toward a particular conclusion by a skillful choice of words that implicitly suggest but doesn't assert that conclusion.

d. Misuse of a Vague Expression

This is the argument that attempts to establish " a position by means of a vague expression or drawing an unjustified conclusion as a result of assigning precise meaning to another word or phrase that is imprecise in its meaning or range of applications"(ibid: 131).

e. Distinction without a difference

The fallaciousness of this argument lies in the arguer's attempt to defend an action or position as being different from another one, with which it might be confused, through careful distinction of language. What is fallacious is that the action or position defended is not different in substance from the one from which it is linguistically distinguished(Damer, 2009: 134).

3.3.1.1.2.Fallacious Arguments of Unwarranted Assumption

Arguments of this category suffer from employing highly questionable, though popular assumptions as their premises. This category includes the following arguments : fallacious argument of the continuum, fallacious argument of composition, fallacious argument of division, false alternatives, is-aught argument, wishful thinking, misuse

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of a principle, fallacious argument of the mean, and faulty analogy(ibid: 137).

a. Fallacious Argument of the continuum

This fallacious argument has a premise that assumes that small differences on a continuum between a thing and its contrary have neglectible effects and that to make definite distinctions on that line is impossible or arbitrary(ibid).

b. Fallacious Argument of Composition

This argument is fallacious because it has a premise that carries the assumption that what is true of the parts of the whole is also true of the whole(ibid: 140).

Cook(2009: 116) agrees with Damer(ibid) stating that " the fallacious argument of composition is the informal fallacious argument that occurs when the reasoner illicitly moves from a premise asserting that the parts of an object individually have a certain property to the conclusion that the object as a whole has that same property".

c. Fallacious argument of Division

This argument uses a premise that assumes what is true of the whole is also true of the parts of the whole. It is the opposite of the fallacious argument of composition(ibid: 141).

d. False Alternatives(fallacious argument of either-or)(fallacious argument of black-white)

This name is given to the argument that restricts too severely the number of proposed alternative responses to a problem or situation and assuming that one of the suggested alternatives must be the true one(ibid: 143).

e. The fallacious argument of Is-ought

This argument uses a premise that assumes that because something is now the practice, so it ought to be the practice and vice versa(ibid: 145).

f. Wishful Thinking

Pirie (2006: 176) points out that " If we accept a contention because we would like it to be true, rather than because of the arguments or evidence which support it, we move into fallacious argument of wishful thinking".

Damer(2009: 146) makes use of this point in his classification of fallacious arguments of acceptability stating that this argument assumes that because one wants something to be true, it will be true and vice versa.

g. Misuse of a Principle

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This argument misapplies a principle or a rule in a particular instance by assuming that it has no exception or attempts to refute a principle or rule by means of an exceptional case(ibid: 148).

h. Fallacious argument of the Mean

This argument assumes that the moderate middle view between two extremes must be the best or right one simply because it is the middle view(ibid: 150).

3.3.1.2. Fallacious Arguments of Relevance

Fallacious arguments of relevance are those that use premises that are propositionally irrelevant to the conclusion. They fall into two categories: fallacious arguments of irrelevant premise and those of irrelevant appeal(Damer, 2009: 92).

3.3.1.2.1. Fallacious Arguments of Irrelevant Premise

This group of arguments uses premises that have no connection to or fail to give support to their conclusions. They include the following: genetic fallacious argument, rationalization, drawing the wrong conclusion and using the wrong reasons(ibid: 93).

a. Genetic Fallacious Argument

This argument is said to be committed when the arguer evaluates a thing in terms of its earlier context and then carries over the evaluation to the thing in its present context while ignoring relevant changes that might have changed its character(ibid).

b. Rationalization

The arguer issuing such fallacious argument uses plausible-sounding but usually fake reasons to support a particular position that is held on, other less respectable grounds. It violates the relevance criteria in the sense that the premises are not relevant to the conclusion since they are not the real reasons for the conclusion drawn(Damer, 2009: 95).

c. Drawing the Wrong Conclusion

This fallacious argument occurs when the arguer draws a conclusion other than the one supported by the reasons given in the argument(Damer, 2009: 97).

d. Using the wrong Reasons

This fallacious argument resides in the arguer's attempt to support a claim with reasons other than those appropriate to it(ibid: 99).

3.3.1.2.2. Fallacious arguments of Irrelevant Appeal

These arguments have a feature in common. They all try to support a claim by resorting to questionable appeals to the authority of other people or emotional factors none of which is relevant as support for the given claim. They include appeal to irrelevant authority, appeal to common

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opinion, appeal to force or threat, appeal to tradition, appeal to self-interest and manipulation of emotions(ibid: 102).

a. Appeal to Irrelevant Authority

Walton(2007: 78)indicate that this is one of the most common fallacious arguments used by people. Damer(2009: 102), taking this point into consideration, states that this argument occurs when the arguer supports a claim through appealing to the judgment of someone who is not an authority in the field, or the judgment of unidentified or biased authority.

b. Appeal to Common Opinion

Damer(2009: 104) defines this argument as "urging the acceptance of a position on the grounds that a large number of people accept it or urging the rejection of a position on the grounds that large number of people accept it".

c. Appeal to force or Threat

The first who classifies this argument as fallacious argument of relevance is Walton(1989: 19). Similarly, Damer(2009: 106) states that it is a fallacious argument of relevance claiming that it occurs when the arguer attempts to persuade others of a position or a claim by threatening them of the bad consequences instead of presenting evidence for the claim or position(ibid).

d. Appeal to value or tradition

Hietanen(2007: 115) regards this argument as a rhetorical move made by arguers in an attempt to persuade. Taking this into account, Damer(2009: 108) indicates that what the arguer does in such argument is that he tries to persuade others of their claims by appealing to their feeling of reverence or respect for tradition instead of presenting reasons to support the claim.

e. Appeal to Self-interest

Damer (2009: 110) regards such appeal as a fallacious argument of relevance and thus defines it as follows: "urging the addressee to accept or reject a particular position or claim by solely appealing to his or her personal circumstances or self interest, when a more important issue is at stake"(ibid: 110).

f. Manipulation of Emotions

Damer(ibid: 111) regards such an appeal as fallacious and classifies it under the fallacious arguments of relevance. For him(ibid) the argument of manipulation of emotion occurs wherever the arguer tries to persuade others to accept a claim by appealing to their emotions instead of giving evidence for the claim(ibid: 111).

3.3.1.3. Fallacious argument of Sufficiency

The fallacious arguments of sufficiency are suffering from the insufficiency of evidence. The arguments of this type fall into two categories: fallacious arguments of missing evidence and causal fallacious arguments(ibid: 160-1).

3.3.1.3.1. Fallacious arguments of missing evidence

This group of arguments utilizes little or no evidence. They include the following: insufficient sample, unrepresentative data, argument from ignorance, contrary to fact hypothesis, fallacious argument of popular wisdom, special pleading, and omission of a key evidence(ibid: 161).

a. Insufficient Sample(hasty generalization)

This fallacious argument bases its conclusion or generalization on a very small sample of cases(ibid).

b. Unrepresentative Data

This type of fallacious argument attempts to draw its conclusion from data that are unrepresentative and biased(Damer, 2009: 163).

c. Arguing from Ignorance

The fallaciousness of this argument lies in "arguing for the truth or falsity of a claim because there is no evidence to the contrary or because of the inability or refusal of the opponent to present convincing evidence to the contrary"(ibid: 165).

d. Contrary to Fact Hypothesis

This argument is said to occur wherever the arguer treats a hypothetical claim "as if it were a statement of fact by making a claim, without sufficient evidence, about what would have happened in the past if other conditions had been present or about an event that will occur in the future"(Damer, 2009:168).

e. Fallacious argument of Popular Wisdom

This fallacious argument occurs when the arguer appeals to insights expressed in aphorisms or clichés ,folk wisdoms or common sense instead of presenting evidence for his claim. (ibid:169).

f. Special Pleading

Damer(ibid: 171) classifies this argument under the umbrella title of fallacious arguments of sufficiency defining it as "applying principles, rules or criteria to another person while failing or refusing to apply them to one self or to a situation that is of self interest ,without providing sufficient evidence to support such an exception".

g. Omission of a Key Evidence

This fallacious argument fails to present an evidence that is important and critical one to support its conclusion (ibid:173).

3.3.1.3.2.Causal Fallacious arguments

These fallacious arguments represent various ways of inferring faulty causal explanations from premises that don't provide sufficient evidence for such explanations (ibid:176). They include: confusion of a cause and effect, neglect of a common cause, domino fallacious argument , the gambler's fallacious argument (ibid:54).

a. Confusion of a Necessary with Sufficient Condition

This argument assumes that a necessary condition of an event is also sufficient one (ibid: 177).

b. Causal Oversimplification

The fallaciousness of this argument resides in "oversimplifying the causal antecedents of an event by specifying causal factors that are insufficient to account for the event in question or by overemphasizing the role of one or more of those factors" (ibid: 178).

c. Post Hoc Fallacious argument

This argument assumes that a certain event B, is caused by another one A, simply because B follows A in time (ibid: 180).

d. Confusion of Cause and Effect

This argument, as the title tells, lies in confusing the cause with the effect of an event (ibid:182).

e. Neglect of a Common Cause

The occurrence of this fallacious argument is associated with the failure to recognize that two seemingly related events, may not be causally related at all, but rather are effects of a common cause(ibid: 183).

f. The Domino Fallacious argument

The fallaciousness of this argument lies in " assuming, without appropriate evidence, that a particular action or event is just one, usually the first, in a series of steps that will lead inevitably to specific undesirable consequences(ibid: 185).

g. The Gambler's Fallacious argument

This argument occurs when the arguer argues that because a chance event has had a certain run in the past, the probability of it occurrence in the future is significantly altered(ibid: 186).

3.3.2. Luque's (2011) Types of Fallacious arguments

Luque's (2011) model is adopted in this study because it identifies fallacious arguments that result from violating the truth criterion which have not been dealt with in the previous discussion.

Luque(ibid: 189) states that for an argument to be good, its premises must be true. He identifies two types of arguments that violate the truth

criterion: the fallacious argument of self-contradiction and that of circularity.

a. The Fallacious argument of Self-Contradiction

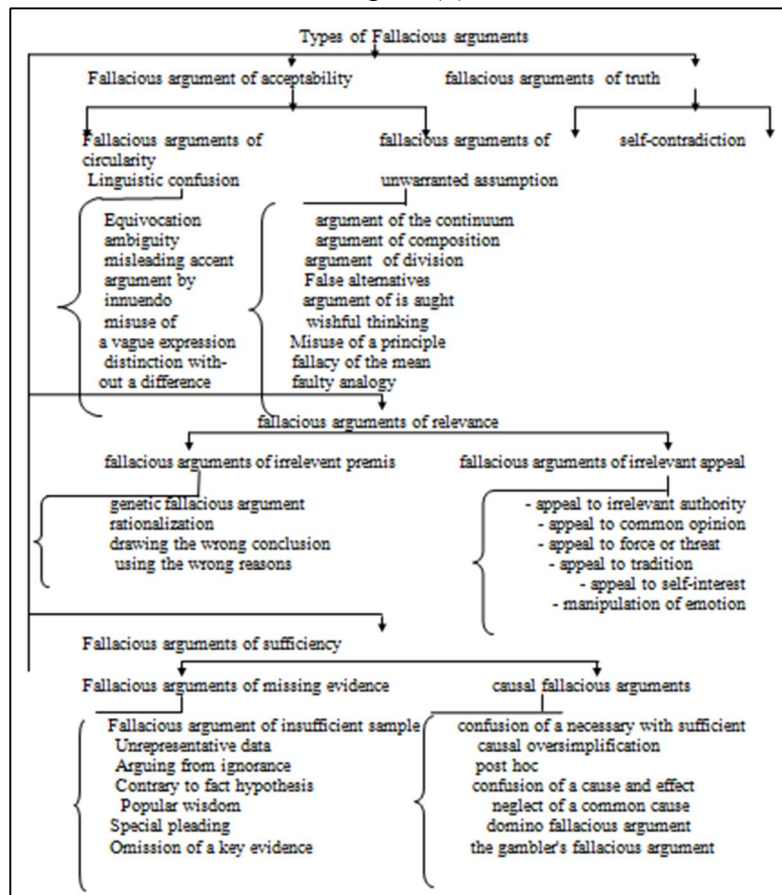
It is the argument where the speaker puts forward the premise (r) and then, few steps later, he denies it either implicitly or explicitly or puts forward a claim that is incompatible with it(ibid).

b. Fallacious argument of Circularity

This argument uses its conclusion as one of its premises. Instead of offering supporting evidence for the conclusion, it asserts the conclusion as its evidence(ibid: 190).

3.3.3. An Eclectic model for analyzing types of fallacious arguments

Pulling together all the models discussed above results in an eclectic model which is schematized in Figure (4) below :



Figure(4) Types of Fallacious Arguments

3. Pragmatic model of Fallacy Analysis

4.1.The Pragmatic Structure of Fallacy

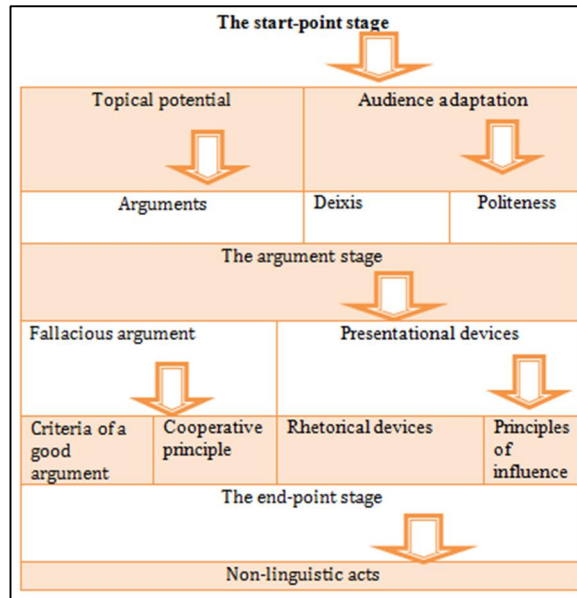
Fallacy is the process of supporting an argument with another one that is considered defective for violating one or more of the rules of correctness for no reason but impressing the addressees to respond positively to that argument. This means that fallacy is composed of three stages. Each stage is distinct for its own devices and sub-stages. Generally speaking, these stages are: the start-point stage, the argument stage and the end point stage. The start-point stage embraces the topic introduction (topical potential) sub-stage where the speaker introduces the topic to be discussed or proved. For this sub-stage, the speaker utilizes arguments which might be inductive or deductive. The researcher observes, depending on the data under study, that the start point stage includes another sub-stage which is called audience adaptation or audience orientation where the speaker employs two components: deixis and politeness (see section (2)).

At the second, the argument stage, the speaker issues the sub-stage of the fallacious argument which is structured of two pragmatic components: criteria of a good argument and cooperative principle. Depending on the researcher observations, the argument stage encompasses another sub-stage which is the presentational devices structured of two pragmatic components: rhetorical devices and principles of influence.

At the last stage, the end-point stage, the function of fallacy is tested to see whether it succeeds in persuading the addressees or not. Thus, at this stage comes the role of the addressees to evaluate and respond to the fallacious argument.

Walton(1995: 45) states that their response comes through questioning the argument using the critical questions related to that argument. Of course, this type of response occurs in dialogical cases. The data of this work are political speeches where the addressee has no right to respond linguistically. Walton(2007: 65) makes it clear that they can respond to any argument non-linguistically. Having surveyed the data under study, the researcher has observed that the addressee respond to fallacies with certain non-linguistic acts.

The figure below summarizes the pragmatic structure of the three stages of fallacy:



Figure(6) The pragmatic structure of fallacy

4.2. The Stages of Fallacy and Their Strategies

Each of the three stages of fallacy is distinct for its components and strategies that need to be introduced here.

4.2.1. The Start-Point Stage

This stage is composed of two sub-stages: topical potential and audience adaptation.

a. Topical potential

At the topical potential sub-stage, the topic to be discussed is introduced by the speaker. Speakers differ in the ways of topic introduction, but they mainly do so through utilizing arguments. The argument of this stage are either inductive or deductive in type. These arguments carry the claim that the arguer tries to support at the next stage through issuing the fallacious argument.

b. Audience adaptation

The second sub-stage, audience adaptation, manifest itself as indicated previously through deixis and politeness strategies.

4.2.1.1. Deixis strategies

As for deixis, it is realized by first person deixis of integration employed to raise some sort of empathy and communion with the addressed group.

4.2.1.2. Politeness strategies

Models For The Pragmatic Analysis Of Fallacy.....(29)

a. Claiming a Common Ground

According to Brown and Levinson (Cited in Watts (2003: 89)), the speaker should realize that he and his addressees belong to some group of people who share specific wants, goals and values. This involves the speaker to show that some of the hearer's wants and desires are also desirable to him.

b. Attending to hearer's interests

This requires the speaker to notice the hearer's wants and needs and behave accordingly(ibid).

c. Seeking Agreement

In order to gain the hearer's empathy, the speaker should agree with what the addressees want or say whatever it is. One of the best strategies of seeking agreement is through raising safe topics(ibid).

d. Being Indirect

Directness causes threat to the hearer's face so the speaker should be indirect in order to avoid such threats(ibid: 90).

e. Minimizing Imposition

This strategy involves minimizing the possible imposition carried by the utterance of the speaker. This comes through appealing to certain expressions like (just, exactly, only, merely...etc.) or through intonation or through being indirect(ibid).

f. Being pessimistic

This involves showing pessimism towards what the speaker wants the hearer to do(ibid).

g. 4.2.2.The Argument Stage

This stage embraces two sub stages: the fallacious argument sub-stage and the presentational devices.

a. The Fallacious argument

To start with the fallacious argument. Whether an argument is fallacious or not, it should be judged on two levels:

4.2.2.1. The Dialectical Tier

The dialectical tier refers to the argument within a structure of dialogue.

4.2.2.1.1.Criteria of identifying the fallacious argument on the dialectical tier

Walton(1995: 163) proposes dialectical relevance for testing fallacious arguments of the dialectical tier. According to Walton(ibid), an argument is dialectically relevant if it contributes something to the goals of the context in which it occurs.

Models For The Pragmatic Analysis Of Fallacy.....(30)

4.2.2.1.2.Pragmatic Strategies of Issuing Fallacious arguments on Dialectical Tier

At this level, there is one main strategy of issuing the fallacious argument which is violating dialectical relevance. When the argument is irrelevant to the preceding argument(s) that it is intended to support, fallacious arguments of dialectical relevance occur.

4.2.2.2.. The Illative Core

The illative core refers to the internal structure of the argument.

4.2.2.2.1Criteria for Identifying Fallacious arguments on the Illative core

The criteria put for judging fallacious arguments of the illative core are proposed by Johnson(2000: 190). These are the following:

a. The Acceptability criterion

According to this criterion, the propositional content of the argument is judged to see whether it can be accepted by the intended audience or not.

b. The Truth Criterion

This criterion judges the truth versus the falsity of the premises of the argument, if they are truthful, the argument is good and if they are false the argument is fallacious.

c. The Relevance Criterion

According to this criterion, the argument is propositionally judged to see whether its premises are relevant to each other or not.

d. The Sufficiency Criterion

According to this criterion, the argument is judged to see if the evidence is sufficient enough to prove the claim or not.

4.2.2.2.2. Pragmatic Strategies of Issuing Fallacious Argument at the Illative Core

On the illative core, the arguer commits a fallacious argument if he follows one of the following strategies:

4.2.2.2.2.1. Violating the Acceptability Criterion

An argument is said to be fallacious if it violates the acceptability criterion. Fallacies that result from violating this criteria are:

a. Fallacious arguments of linguistic confusion

Those arguments are unacceptable because they lack clarity in some of their premises. This group includes the following: equivocation, ambiguity, misleading accent, argument by innuendo, misuse of a vague expression and a distinction without a difference.

b. Fallacious arguments of Unwarranted Assumption

Those arguments are violating the acceptability criterion through using

Models For The Pragmatic Analysis Of Fallacy.....(31)

questionable premises. This category includes the following fallacious arguments: argument of the continuum, argument of composition, argument of division, false alternatives, the argument of is-aught , wishful thinking, misuse of a principle, fallacious argument of the mean, faulty analogy.

4.2.2.2.2 Violating the Truth Criterion

An argument is regarded as fallacious if any of its premises is false or untruthful. Fallacious arguments resulting from violating this criterion, according to Luque's (2011: 189) classification are: argument of self-contradiction and argument of circularity.

4.2.2.2.3. Violating the Relevance Criterion

Another strategy for committing fallacious argument is violating the relevance criterion. Fallacious arguments resulting from such violation fall into two types:

a. Fallacious argument of Irrelevant Premise

As the title tells, those arguments use premises that are irrelevant to the conclusion which they intend to prove. They include: genetic fallacious argument , rationalization, drawing the wrong conclusion, and using the wrong reason.

b. Fallacious arguments of Irrelevant Appeal

These arguments support their claims through using irrelevant appeals. They include: appeal to irrelevant authority, appeal to common opinion, appeal to force or threat, appeal to tradition, appeal to self-interest, manipulation of emotions.

4.2.2.2.4. Violating the Sufficiency Criteria

The last strategy of committing fallacious argument is violating the sufficiency criteria. Fallacious arguments that result from such violation also fall into two types:

a. Fallacious arguments of Missing Evidence

This group of arguments fails to present evidence that is enough to prove their claims. They are the following: fallacious argument of insufficient sample, fallacious argument of unrepresentative data, arguing from ignorance, contrary to fact hypothesis, fallacious argument of popular wisdom, special pleading and omission of a key evidence.

b. Causal Fallacious arguments

Those arguments infer faulty causal explanations from premises that fail to give sufficient support for such explanations. These are: confusion of a necessary with sufficient condition, causal oversimplification, post hoc fallacious argument, confusion of a cause and effect, domino fallacious argument, neglect of a common cause, and gambler's fallacious argument.

C. Presentational Devices

Models For The Pragmatic Analysis Of Fallacy.....(32)

The second sub-stage, the presentational devices, encompasses two components:

 rhetorical devices and principles of influence.

A.. Rhetorical devices strategies

 It is observed that politicians employ three devices: padding, weasel words and profound words(see section 2).

B.. Principles of influence strategies

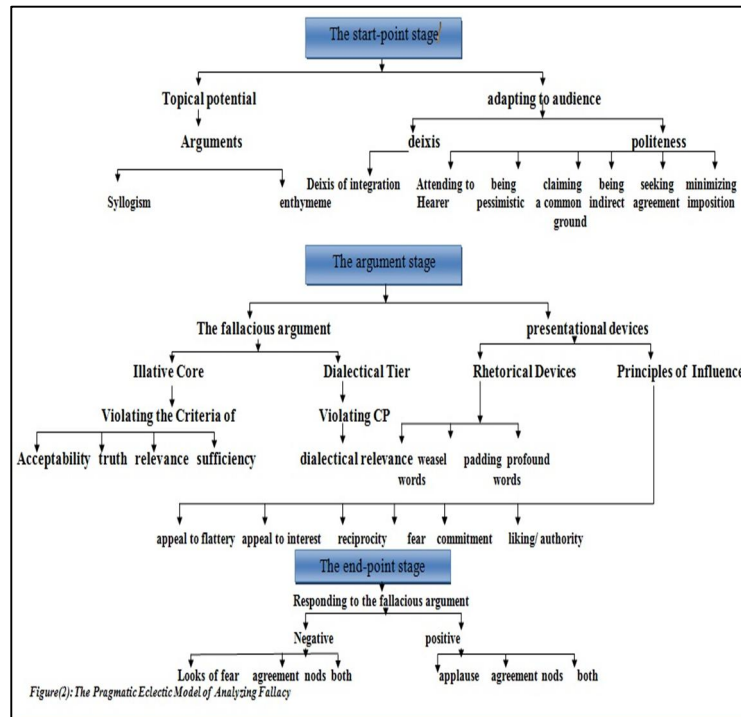
 As for principles of influence, it is observed that politicians appeal to: fear, interest, flattery, commitment, reciprocity, authority(see section 2).

3.6.2.3.The End-point Stage

 This stage is specified for testing the effect of the fallacious argument on the addressee. It is already mentioned that fallacious arguments have a persuasive function. They are issued by the arguer as means of influencing the addressee to do or accept something. At this stage, the addressee shows his evaluation and response to such arguments.

 Their response is shown through non-linguistic act in monological situations. The main non-linguistic acts used by the audience in such situations are: cheer applause, agreement nods, both acts, looks of fear, looks of fear and agreement nods.

 The model developed here is schematized by the figure below:



Figure(2):The Pragmatic Eclectic Model of Analyzing Fallacy

4.3.Data collection and description

The data collected for analysis are represented by(16) fallacious situations chosen from (6) political speeches as a whole delivered by Barak Obama. These data are characterized by the following features:

1.Genre

The data to be analyzed in this work are political speeches where the politician is the only speaker. This doesn't mean that there is no interaction between the speaker and his addresses, there is a simple kind of interaction represented by a word of praise or complaint but mainly the audience response is of the non-verbal kind like cheer applause, facial sympathy, laughter...etc.

2.Length

The speeches under study vary in length. Their length ranges from four to twenty pages.

3.Theme

The main themes of the data of this work are election and war. This doesn't exclude tackling other themes. For example, while the politician is trying to convince the audience to give him support in election, he may discuss the healthcare or social system and how he is going to bring change to them.

4.Form

All political speeches are scripted and video-recorded. In this study, both forms(scripts and videos) are considered. This is so because scripts often ignore the audience non-linguistic responses to fallacious argument which are important in indicating the third stage of fallacy- the response stage.

4.4.Data analysis

4.4.1. Methods of Analysis

The models developed previously in section (4) will be the means of analyzing the pragmatic structure as well as the pragmatic strategies of fallacy in the political speeches under study (See section 4), whereas the model developed in(3.3.3.) is used for identifying types of fallacious arguments. As for the statistical methods of analysis, this study adopts the percentage equation, so as to achieve its aims.

4.4.2.Overall analysis

4.4.2.1.Pragmatic structure

As far as the pragmatic structure is concerned, the analysis shows that fallacy is a process composed of three stages: the start-point stage, the argument stage and the end-point stage. Each of these stages is composed of components forming the pragmatic structure of fallacy which can be

illustrated as follows:

Concerning the start-point stage(henceforth SPS), the analysis reveals that it is composed of two sub-stages: topical potential (TP) and audience adaptation(AA). Three pragmatic component, namely: arguments, deixis and politeness are the constructing elements of this stage of fallacy. These elements are realized by various pragmatic strategies(see 4.4.2.2). Deixis and politeness are devoted to the sub-stage of audience adaptation(AA), whereas arguments are devoted to the sub-stage of topical potential (TP).

The analysis reveals that these components differ in their frequencies of occurrence. Concerning the SPS, arguments have the highest frequency, it has amounted to 100%. The two sub-components of arguments, namely inductive and deductive arguments are both used in the data of the study. Inductive arguments are more frequently used than deductive one. Their frequency has amounted to 95% where as that of deductive arguments has amounted to 5%. This finding assures the persuasive nature of fallacy since inductive arguments are regarded more persuasive than deductive ones. Politeness has amounted to 75% whereas deixis 58.333% see table (2) below.

The analysis of the data of the argument stage(henceforth AS) indicates that four pragmatic components form the pragmatic construct of this stage: criteria of a good argument (98%), rhetorical devices(76.666%), principles of influence (76.666%) and cooperative principle(2%) (See Table (2) below). These components are distributed over two sub-stages: the fallacious argument(henceforth FA) is issued through violating the criteria of a good argument(relevance, truth, acceptability and sufficiency) and CP(dialectical relevance). And presentational devices are issued through rhetorical devices and principles of influence.

The analysis of the data of the end point stage(EPS) of the fallacy process indicates that it contains only one element, namely non-linguistic acts (100%) which are actualized by various strategies see also(4.4.2.2).

To sum up, the analysis of the three stages above shows that the pragmatic structure of fallacy is composed of eight major components: arguments, deixis, politeness, criteria of a good argument, CP, rhetorical devices, principles of influence and non-linguistic acts.

Table(1): The pragmatic components of fallacy calculated in percentages

The SPS	TP	Arguments 100%	IA 95% DA 5%
	AA	Deixis	58.333%
Politeness		75%	
The AS	FA	Criteria of a good argument	98%
		CP	2%
	PD	Rhetorical devices	76.666%
		Principles of influence	76.666%
The EPS	Non-linguistic acts		100%

4.4.2.2. Pragmatic strategies

The analysis of the pragmatic strategies of the first stage SPS reveals that AA is issued through deixis and politeness strategies. As for deixis strategies, the analysis reveals that first personal deixis "we" has a high percentage of about 58.333% which indicate that the fallacy maker is concerned with integrating himself within the group of addressees he is addressing.

Strategies of politeness are also employed at this stage so as to adapt to audience. They differ in their frequencies of use. Attending to hearer is the most frequent one among others. Its frequency has amounted to 45.7%, while that of, being indirect, seeking agreement, being pessimistic, minimizing imposition and claiming a common ground have amounted to 16.9%, 15.2%, 10.5%, 8.4%, 3.3% respectively.

At the second stage, the fallacious argument is issued. The analysis reveals that the speaker uses different strategies in this regard like: violating the criteria of a good argument (relevance, truth, sufficiency and acceptability) and violating CP (dialectical relevance).

These strategies differ in their frequency of use, for example frequency of using the strategy of violating relevance has amounted to 65% whereas the frequency of violating sufficiency, acceptability, truth, and dialectical relevance have amounted to 17%, 13%, 3%, and 2% respectively.

Concerning rhetorical devices strategies used at this stage, the analysis indicates that all of them are used by Barak Obama. Using profound words is the most frequent strategy employed here, it amounts

Models For The Pragmatic Analysis Of Fallacy.....(36)

to 79.6% whereas the frequency of padding and weasel words have amounted to 14.8% and 5.6% respectively.

At this stage, Obama also appeals to the principles of influence to persuade the hearers. These strategies are all used at this stage but with different frequencies. Appeal to interest and fear are the most frequent ones , appeal to interest has the frequency of 41.7% whereas appeal to interest 37.5%. As for the frequencies of appeals to flattery, commitment, authority, reciprocity, they have amounted to 10.4%, 4.1%, 4.1% , 2.2% respectively.

At the end-point stage, the speaker employs non-linguistic acts strategies like cheer applause, agreement nods, cheer applause and agreement nods, looks of fear, looks of fear and agreement nods . They are all used with different frequencies: cheer applause 32%, looks of fear 30%, agreement nods 23%, both 12%, looks of fear and agreement nods 3%.

Table(2) strategies of the first stage of fallacy calculated in percentages

Topic Introduction		Audience adaptation											
Arguments Deixis			politeness										
The Start-Point stage													
Inductive	deductive	first personal	ATH	BP	CCG	BI	SA	MI					
95%	5%	58.333	45.7%	10.5%	3.3%	16.9%	15.2%	8.4%					
<i>Table(3) strategies of the second stage of fallacy calculated in percentages</i>													
The Argument-Stage													
<i>The Fallacious argument</i>				<i>Presentation Devices</i>									
<i>Criteria of a good Argument</i>		CP	<i>Rhetorical devices</i>			<i>principles of influence</i>							
<i>Table(4) strategies of the third stage calculated in percentages</i>													
VA	VT	VR	VS	VD	WW	P	PW	F	I	R	FE	C	A
13%	3%	65%	17%	2%	5.6%	14.8%	79.6%	10.4%	41.7%	2.2%	37.5%	4.1%	4.1%
<i>4.4.2.3.Types of fallacies</i>													
The End-Point stage													
<i>Positive non-linguistic acts</i>						<i>negative non-linguistic acts</i>							
<i>Cheer Applause agreement nods</i>			<i>both</i>	<i>looks of fear</i>	<i>agreement nods and looks of fear</i>								
32%			23%	12%	30%	3%							

4.4.2.3. Types of fallacious arguments

As far as the type of fallacious argument is concerned, the analysis shows that not all types of fallacious arguments are used by Obama in his political speeches. The analysis also reveals that Obama tends to use certain types of fallacious arguments more than others and this depends on the type of speech he is delivering (war, electoral) and on the purpose or goal he is after.

The analysis indicates that in war speeches, the most frequently used type of fallacious argument is appeal to fear, its frequency has amounted to 26.66% whereas in electoral speeches the most frequently used types are appeal to self-interest and appeal to emotion. Their frequencies have amounted to 21.66% and 10% respectively. Other types of fallacious arguments are not affected by the type of speech but by the goal of the speaker. Other types of fallacious arguments and their frequencies are best illustrated in the table below:

Table(5): Types of fallacious arguments calculated in percentages

Type of fallacy	frequency
Fallacy of appeal to fear	51%
Fallacy of appeal to interest	40%
Fallacy of appeal to emotion	0%
Fallacy of insufficient sample	2%
Fallacy of faulty analogy	1%
Fallacy of false alternative	0%
Fallacy of unrepresentative data	1%
Fallacy of neglect of a common cause	0%
Fallacy of post hoc	0%
Fallacy of wishful thinking	0%
Fallacy of appeal to value	0%
Fallacy of arguing from ignorance	0%
Fallacy of self-contradiction	0%
Fallacy of popular wisdom	0%
Fallacy of equivocation	1%
Fallacy of omission of a key evidence	1%
Fallacy of the gambler	1%
Fallacy of distinction without a difference	1%
Fallacy of appeal to irrelevant authority	1%
	100%

4.4.3. Illustrative analyzed examples

Since the situations representing the data are too many and analyzing all of them occupies a large space in the present paper; only some illustrative examples are presented below:

Situation (1)

My grandfather signed up for a war the day after Pearl Harbor was bombed, fought in Patton's army. He saw the dead and dying across the fields of Europe; he heard the stories of fellow troops who first entered Auschwitz and Treblinka. He fought in the name of a larger freedom, part of that arsenal of democracy that triumphed over evil, and he did not fight in vain. I don't oppose all wars.

What I am opposed to is a dumb war. What I am opposed to is a rash war. What I am opposed to is the cynical attempt by Richard Perle and Paul Wolfowitz and other armchair, weekend warriors in this administration to shove their own ideological agendas down our throats, irrespective of the costs in lives lost and in hardships borne.

This situation is fallacious because the speaker infringes the acceptability criterion in trying to distinguish types of war which are in fact undistinguishable (see the AS stage below).

The SPS, in this example, consists of two pragmatic components: arguments and politeness distributed over two sub-stages: TP and AA. Inductive argument is the triggering component of the TP sub-stage: **"My grandfather signed up for a war the day after Pearl Harbor was bombed, fought in Patton's army. He saw the dead and dying across the fields of Europe; he heard the stories of fellow troops who first entered Auschwitz and Treblinka. He fought in the name of a larger freedom, part of that arsenal of democracy that triumphed over evil, and he did not fight in vain. I don't oppose all war".**

The AA sub-stage encompasses one pragmatic element which is politeness realized by two pragmatic strategies. The first is claiming a common ground with the hearer through telling the story of his father. The second strategy is attending to the hearer's interests through showing that he wants to fight, as his grandfather did, in "the name of larger freedoms" and this is one of their interests.

The subsequent AS is triggered via the issuance of FA and PD sub-stages. The FA comprises the criteria of a good argument component embodied by violating the acceptability criterion. The fallaciousness of this argument comes from presenting data that try to distinguish between the war intended by the speaker and the war he is against, but in vein. War is war, bloody, dumb, rash and merciless and any attempt to

distinguish one war from another is futile when subjected to reasonable standards.

Subjecting this argument to the criterion of the dialectical tier reveals its goodness whereas applying the illative core criteria to its elements reveals that reasons presented to the claim are not acceptable. In so doing, the speaker breaches the acceptability criterion. An argument that distinguishes something from another without differentiating them and this results in fallacious argument of the type distinction without a difference.

The PD sub-stage encompasses two pragmatic components: rhetorical devices and principles of influence. Rhetorical devices are realized by the use of profound words and phrases: dumb, rash, cynical, shove, costs in lives, hardship borne. Alongside with profound words, the speaker makes use of padding. He states that he is "opposed to a dumb war" and then he adds that he is "opposed to a rash war". This second construction adds nothing to the meaning of the first, it just emphasizes it in an attempt to influence the hearer.

The second component of PD is principles of influence realized by appealing to fear in referring to the **"the cynical attempt by Richard Perle and Paul Wolfowitz and other armchair, weekend warriors in this administration to shove their own ideological agendas down our throats, irrespective of the costs in lives lost and in hardships borne"**.

The EPS is triggered via non-linguistic acts realized by looks of fear made by the addressees in response to the fallacious argument.

The findings of this analysis conform to those arrived at in (4.4.2.1.), (4.4.2.2.), (4.4.2.3.) and accord with those listed in tables (1), (2), (3), (4), (5).

Situation (2)

So for those of us who seek a more just and secure world for our children, let us send a clear message to the president today. You want a fight, President Bush? Let's finish the fight with bin Laden and al-Qaida, through effective, coordinated intelligence, and a shutting down of the financial networks that support terrorism, and a homeland security program that involves more than color-coded warnings. You want a fight, President Bush?

Let's fight to make sure that the U.N. inspectors can do their work, and that we vigorously enforce a non-proliferation treaty, and that former enemies and current allies like Russia safeguard and ultimately eliminate their stores of nuclear material, and that nations like Pakistan and India never use the terrible weapons already in

their possession, and that the arms merchants in our own country stop feeding the countless wars that rage across the globe.

Subjecting this situation to the criteria of a good argument reveals its fallaciousness which lies in infringing the sufficiency criterion. The reasons presented for the urgency of fighting are not sufficient(See the AS stage below).

The SPS, in this example, is triggered via two pragmatic components: arguments and politeness distributed over two sub-stages: TP and AA. TP is initiated through the inductive argument: **"So for those of us who seek a more just and secure world for our children, let us send a clear message to the president today. You want a fight, President Bush? Let's finish the fight with bin Laden and al-Qaida, through effective, coordinated intelligence, and a shutting down of the financial networks that support terrorism, and a homeland security program that involves more than color-coded warnings. You want a fight, President Bush"**.

The AA sub-stage is activated through politeness represented by using two strategies: the first is attending to hearer's interests when addressing those who want a more just and secure world. The second strategy is minimizing imposition in issuing the claim **"Let's finish the fight with bin Laden and al-Qaida, through effective, coordinated intelligence, and a shutting down of the financial networks that support terrorism, and a homeland security program that involves more than color-coded warnings"**. These two strategies are used by Obama to arise some sort of communion and empathy with the addressees.

The immediate AS is activated by invoking two sub-stages: FA and PD. The FA sub-stage consists of the criteria of a good argument realized by violating sufficiency.

The speaker, in the above argument presents insufficient data as evidence to prove his claim. Making sure that **"that the U.N. inspectors can do their work and that they vigorously enforce a non-proliferation treaty and that former enemies and current allies like Russia safeguard and ultimately eliminate their stores of nuclear material and that nations like Pakistan and India never use the terrible weapons already in their possession, and that the arms merchants in our own country stop feeding the countless wars that rage across the globe"** are not sufficient reasons for fighting, the speaker omits a key reason which is "let's fight so as to dominate and spread our control over the world". This type of reasoning results in a

fallacious argument of omission of a key evidence.

The PD sub-stage is issued through rhetorical devices and principles of influence. Rhetorical devices are actualized by the strategy of using profound words: vigorously, former, current, terrible, countless. Principles of influence are represented by appealing to reciprocity in stating that "either fight or let everything gets worse".

The EPS is engendered by issuing non-linguistic acts realized by agreement nods made by the addressees to announce their acceptance of the fallacious argument as being persuasive.

The findings of this analysis accords with the findings referred to in (4.4.2.1.), (4.4.2.2.), (4.4.2.3.), and are compatible with those mentioned in tables(1), (2), (3), (4), (5).

Situation (3)

ISIL poses a threat to the people of Iraq and Syria, and the broader Middle East — including American citizens, personnel and facilities. If left unchecked, these terrorists could pose a growing threat beyond that region — including to the United States.

While we have not yet detected specific plotting against our homeland, so ISIL leaders have threatened America and our allies.

When subjected to the criteria of a good argument, this situation reveals its fallaciousness. The speaker violates the sufficiency criterion in presenting insufficient reasons for the claim "Isil leaders have threatened America and our allies"(see the AS stage below).

The SPS is brought about by issuing two sub-stages: TP and AA. The TP consists of the inductive argument: **"ISIL poses a threat to the people of Iraq and Syria, and the broader Middle East — including American citizens, personnel and facilities. If left unchecked, these terrorists could pose a growing threat beyond that region — including to the United States"**.

The AA sub-stage is issued through politeness strategies. The first strategy is being indirect in constructing the claim **" If left unchecked, these terrorists could pose a growing threat beyond that region — including to the United States"**. The speaker also resorts to the strategy of minimizing imposition in constructing the whole argument.

The AS is activated through invoking two sub-stages: the FA and PD. In the FA sub-stage, the speaker utilizes the criteria of a good argument using the strategy of violating sufficiency. The fallaciousness of this argument arises from arguing that because a chance event has not had a certain run in the past so the probability of its occurrence in the future is so certain and this is not a sufficient cause for issuing the claim. violating

sufficiency through this type of arguing results in a fallacious argument of the gambler's type.

The PD sub-stage is issued through principles of influence, namely through appealing to fear in stating that "ISIL leaders have threatened America and our allies".

The EPS is triggered via non-linguistic acts actualized by agreement nods and looks of fear.

The findings of the analysis of these three stages accords with the findings referred to in (4.4.2.1.), (4.4.2.2.), (4.4.2.3.), and are compatible with those mentioned in tables(1), (2), (3), (4), (5).

Situation (4)

Here's my point, Virginia. That's how this thing started. It shows you what one voice can do. That one voice can change a room. And if a voice can change a room, it can change a city, and if it can change a city, it can change a state, and if it can change a state, it can change a nation, and if it can change a nation, it can change the world. Virginia, your voice can change the world tomorrow.

In 21 hours if you are willing to endure some rain, if you are willing to drag that person you know who is not going to vote, to the polls. If you are willing to organize and volunteer in the offices, if you are willing to stand with me, if you are willing to fight with me, I know your voice will matter.

The fallaciousness of this situation comes from the speaker's violation of the acceptability criterion. This violation occurs when he tries to make two different words(voice and vote) with two different meanings appear to be the same(See the AS stage and the standard form below).

The SPS, in this example, is engendered by bringing in the TP and AA sub-stages. In the TP, the speaker issues the deductive argument: "**Here's my point, Virginia. That's how this thing started. It shows you what one voice can do. That one voice can change a room. And if a voice can change a room, it can change a city, and if it can change a city, it can change a state, and if it can change a state, it can change a nation, and if it can change a nation, it can change the world tomorrow**".

The AA is raised through the element of politeness where the speaker utilizes the strategy of seeking agreement in stating that the addressees voice can change the world and the strategy of being indirect when he asks them to give him their vote.

The AS is triggered via invoking two sub-stages: FA and PD. FA is raised through utilizing criteria of a good argument embodied in the strategy of violating acceptability.

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In the above argument, the speaker is trying to direct the addressee to accept the claim by making "voice" and "vote" which have two differences or meanings appear to have the same meaning. In the topical potential argument the speaker talks about voice (the physical voice) and how it can change the world if it can change a room. At this stage, the speaker is playing upon the words "vote" and "voice" to make them appear the same while they are not breaching in that acceptability and causing fallacious argument to occur and its type in this example is equivocation.

The PD is triggered via the component of the rhetorical devices realized by using profound words: willing , endure , drag , stand with , matter.

The EPS is motivated by non linguistic acts realized by cheer applause and agreement nods.

The findings of this analysis accords with the findings referred to in (4.4.2.1.), (4.4.2.2.), (4.4.2.3.), and are compatible with those mentioned in tables(1),(2), (3), (4), (5).

Situation (5)

In an area that was once the heart of the insurgency, a combination of fighting and training, politics and partnership brought the promise of peace.

And here's what the local Iraqi deputy governor said: "This is all because of the US. forces' hard work and sacrifice."

That's in the words of an Iraqi. Hard work and sacrifice.

Those words only begin to describe the costs of this war and the courage of the men and women who fought it.

Cheer applause.

This situation is fallacious because the speaker breaches the relevance criterion in appealing to irrelevant authority "Iraqi deputy governor". This violation is made clear at the AS stage below.

The SPS, in this example, comprises two pragmatic components: arguments and politeness. Each component is manipulated to issue certain sub-stage. The TP sub-stage is engendered via the inductive argument "**In an area that was once the heart of the insurgency, a combination of fighting and training, politics and partnership brought the promise of peace**".

The AA sub-stage is initiated through politeness strategies like attending to hearer's interests in making them feel that they, themselves brought the promise of peace.

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The AS is raised by invoking two sub-stages FA and PD. The FA sub-stage embraces the criteria of a good argument represented by violating relevance.

This argument is considered fallacious because the speaker tries to prove that "the promise of peace comes from the American's hard work and sacrifice" by appealing to the judgment of an Iraqi deputy governor. What is wrong with this reasoning is that that Iraqi deputy governor neither an authorized person to the troops addressed nor an authority in the field of war to judge - he is a civilian deputy governor.

Appealing to irrelevant authority in this example, breaches relevance and results in a fallacious argument of appeal to irrelevant authority. This fallaciousness occurs on the illative core not on the dialectical tier since the argument is propositionally relevant to the one it supports. So, the fallacy issued in this situation is of the appear to irrelevant authority type.

The PD sub-stage is engendered by two pragmatic component: rhetorical devices and principles of influence. Rhetorical devices are realized by appealing to weasel words like "only". The word only sucks the meaning of the whole sentence though it seems to add nothing. Principles of influence are realized by appealing to authority(Iraqi deputy governor).

The EPS contains non linguistic act realized by cheer applause.

The findings of this analysis accords with the findings referred to in (4.4.2.1.), (4.4.2.2.), (4.4.2.3.), and are compatible with those mentioned in tables(1), (2), (3), (4), (5).

4. Conclusions

The developed models have proved their validity in pragmatically analyzing fallacy, as they have successfully revealed many pragmatic aspects associated with fallacy as illustrated below:

1. Arguments, deixis, politeness, criteria of a good argument, cp, rhetorical devices, principles of influence and non-linguistic acts are all components of the fallacy process.
2. The above mentioned components are realized by various strategies: deixis is realized by first personal deixis 'we', politeness is realized by(attending to hearers, being indirect, being pessimistic, minimizing imposition, seeking agreement, claiming a common ground), criteria of a good argument are realized by(violating relevance, violating acceptability, violating truth, violating sufficiency), cp is realized by violating dialectical relevance, rhetorical devices are realized by (padding, weasel words, profound words), principles of influence are realized by appealing to (fear, interest, flattery, reciprocity, authority, commitment).

3. There are different types of fallacious arguments that best serve the politicians' interests like appeal to fear, appeal to interest and appeal to emotions.

ملخص البحث

يمكن تعريف المغالطة على انها اثاره حجة معلولة او مغلوطة (اذا ما اخضعناها لمعايير معينة) لدعم حجة سبقتها لأغراض بلاغية تُخدم صاحب الحجة. إن موضوع المغالطة واسع ومتشعب الى الحد الذي جعله موضوعا للتحليل والدراسة ضمن حقول علمية مختلفة. لقد زخرت عدة من الدراسات بمحاولات مختلفة لتحليل هذه الظاهرة براغماتيا. وبرغم ذلك عانت تلك المحاولات من عدم الدقة أحيانا واحتوائها على الثغرات في أحيان أخرى أضف لذلك كله عدم تمكنها من طرق الموضوع بصورة وافية. لذا تنطوي هذه الدراسة على محاولة لتطوير نماذج لتحليل المغالطات براغماتيا حيث استندت الدراسة إلى النماذج المذكورة في الدراسة وما اهتدى إليه الباحثان من مشاهدات براغماتية للموضوع. تمت عملية التحقق من فعالية عمل النماذج بواسطة اجراء تحليل البيانات المستحصلة من خطابات الرئيس اوباما الحزبي و الانتخابية وبرهنت الدراسة على فعالية عمل النماذج التحليلية باستخدام عملية التحليل. وقد خلص التحليل الى ان المغالطة هي عملية مكونة من عدة مراحل وكل مرحلة تتميز عن غيرها بمكوناتها و استراتيجياتها البراغماتية.

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