

The Diversity of Fallacies In George W. Bush's Political Speeches: A Pragmatic Study

**Prof. Dr. Fareed Hameed Al-Hindawi**

**fareedhameed3@gmail.com**

**Isalmic University\Najaf**

**Haider Rajih Wadaah Al-Jilhaw**

**hrajih3@gmail.com**

**Ministry of Education \General directorate of Kerbala Holy  
Education**

## Abstract

The act of presenting an incorrect argument in an effort to bolster and sustain an already-published argument in order to achieve the goal of persuasion is known as a fallacy. However, various perspectives have explored the multifaceted concept of a fallacy. A few studies have made realistic attempts to refute the misconception. However, the aforementioned attempts were not sufficiently comprehensive due to their inherent flaws. Consequently, the goal of this research was to provide practical frameworks for analysing fallacies in terms of their pragmatic structure, forms, methodologies, and applications. These models are based on the researchers' findings, as well as several models developed by other academics.

Reviewing a speech given by George W. Bush to assess the validity of the existing models. Results from the analyses proved that the models were effective. It is evident that fallacy is a process with phases, and each round differs in its pragmatic components and techniques, primarily due to the diverse outcomes they have produced.

### تنوع المغالطات في خطابات بوش السياسية: دراسة تداولية

#### المستخلص

إن تقديم حجة غير صحيحة في محاولة لدعم ودعم حجة منشورة بالفعل من أجل تحقيق هدف الإقناع يُعرف باسم المغالطة. ومع ذلك، استكشفت وجهات نظر مختلفة مفهوم المغالطة المتعدد الأوجه. وقد بذلت بعض الدراسات محاولات واقعية لدحض المفهوم الخاطئ. ومع ذلك، لم تكن المحاولات المذكورة شاملة بما فيه الكفاية بسبب عيوبها المتأصلة. وبالتالي، كان هدف هذا البحث هو توفير أطر عملية لتحليل المغالطات من حيث بنيتها البراغمية وأشكالها ومنهجياتها وتطبيقاتها. وتستند هذه النماذج إلى نتائج الباحثين، فضلاً عن العديد من النماذج التي طورها أكاديميون آخرون. مراجعة خطاب ألفاه جورج دبليو بوش لتقييم صحة النماذج الموجودة. أثبتت نتائج التحليلات أن النماذج كانت فعالة. ومن الواضح أن المغالطة هي عملية ذات مراحل، وتختلف كل جولة في مكوناتها وتقنياتها البراغمية، ويرجع ذلك في المقام الأول إلى النتائج المتنوعة التي أنتجتها

**Keywords: Fallacies, Argumentation, Political Speeches**

## 1. Introduction

A large body of research looking at the fallacy's definition from many angles has concluded that it is a major problem. One common drawback is that the theories and methods used to create fallacies are

not defined in these descriptions. This research will meet the following objectives to address this issue:

1. Analysing George W. Bush's speech for pragmatic fallacies
2. Recognising the practical fallacies and critical pragmatic methods used in such speeches
3. Crafting a practical framework for examining the effective form and technique of delivering such speeches

It is hypothesised that, in relation to the aforementioned goals, (1) the fallacy is a multi-stage mechanism with unique pragmatic components at each level and (2) President George W. Bush of the United States seems to favour certain issuance techniques and fallacies over others. To accomplish the aforementioned goals, the following methods are utilised: (1) using the model to decipher erroneous conditions in political speeches, and (2) calculating actual amounts utilising a mathematical technique represented by a percentage equation.

## **2. Fallacy**

### **2.1 Definition**

Many scholars have varied views on what constitutes a fallacy. Some individuals take a more rational approach to analysing fallacies, such as Aristotle and the Sophists. Dialectical methods are preferred by others, including Hambleton (1970). "Fallacy" is a pragmatic notion that pertains to "strategy and manoeuvring" according to Eemeren and Grootendorst (1999). As a last point, some people take a more pragmatic approach to fallacy correction. A fallacy, according to Walton's 1992 observation, is an event with a beginning, middle, and end. The current work combines the views of Walton (1992), Eemeren and Grootendorst (1999), and Walton (2007) to view fallacy as a strategy blunder that occurs when an argument is presented in support of an earlier argument that violates a specific rule of correctness, and it is argued as a carefully constructed tactic of persuasion.

### **2.2 Strategic Mistakes and Manoeuvres**

Fallacy theory may be difficult to grasp as a persuasive tool. Some people think it's misleading advertising. There are those who lack it. Aristotle defined a fallacy as the deliberate use of deceptive arguments to unfairly manipulate and gain the upper hand in a dialogue. According to Eemeren and Houtlosser (1999, p. 164), it is not a hoax. Eemeren and Houtlosser (2002) use their work on page 11, which highlights the idea of "strategic manoeuvring" as an explanation for "the fact that engaging in argumentative discourse always means being at the same time out for critical reasonableness and artful effectiveness" and to strengthen their conclusion. According to their definition, a fallacy occurs when an arguer manipulates dialectics using rhetoric, or vice versa. Errors happen, according to recent studies, when an arguer puts rhetoric ahead of logic. The methodology of propagating fallacies provides a detailed discussion of fallacy distribution tactics. There are three primary ways that fallacies are presented in the book. These are a few:

## 1. Cosmetic Possibilities

For this consideration, arguers should choose subjects that are personally intriguing to them; in other words, pick something you're dying to talk about (Tindale, 1999, p. 4).

## 2. Targeting the right people

This aspect changes its behavior in response to user input. This lesson enables the development of empathy and a sense of connection with the addressees (Eemeren & Houtlosser, 2000, p. 298).

One of the finest responses to deictic expectations, according to Beard (2000, p. 202), appeals to first-person deictic expectations. But before that, according to Brown and Levinson (1987) (quoted in Watts, 2003, p. 45), the most adaptive way is to demonstrate facial awareness to the listener. You can achieve this using the following approach:

### a. Establishing a mutual understanding

The speaker asserts that she and her listeners should value the fact that they are part of a community that shares common goals, values, and experiences. By doing so, the speaker may show that the listener understands.

### b. Attending to the needs and desires of the listener

Because of this, the speaker is able to pay close attention and comprehend the needs of the listener.

### c. Encouraging cooperation

While delivering his speech, the speaker should make an effort to understand and meet the demands of his audience. Dealing with health issues is one way of getting people to agree.

### (d) Being deceptive

The speaker should use indirection to avoid being too direct and embarrassing for the listener.

### e. Reduce the need for

As part of this strategy, you can mitigate the impact of your words or actions on the speaker. This is a result of discussing techniques that appeal to these concepts, such as being indirect or employing intonation.

## 3. Tools for Making a Presentation

This part involves using the most effective method of conveying data to the audience at a certain point in the argumentation process. The most effective means of arguing a topic are those that use rhetoric (Tindale, 1999, p. 5). We will solely delve into the topics indicated in the results.

### a. Strong phrases

Words like "horrific," "amazing," "great," "magnificent," etc. evoke powerful feelings (Tindale, 1999, p. 23).

## b. Buffering

The technique involves randomly introducing lines that seem important but don't really do anything (Cavender and Kahane, 2006, p. 163).

## c. Sly Phrases

Although they may not seem to do so at first glance, these locutions really add to the statement's substance (Cavender and Kahane, 2006, p. 163). Public speakers, according to Brydon and Scott (2008, p. 391), must use control principles, which they see as the most persuasive presentational tools, to back up their messages. Just the seven principles that were included in the data set are given here, out of around seven.

Part I: Use Fear as an Argument. According to them (2008, p. 398), using emotional appeals such as fear to influence people's judgements is possible, but it is important to do so responsibly.

ii. Pique Passions. The writers stress the importance of the speaker showing genuine interest in the addressee's requirements (2008, p. 79).

Part iii. Mutual Aid. "You scratch my back, and I'll scratch yours" is a proverb that means to touch each other in a reciprocal manner. There are two possible formats for a persuasive speech that relies on a reciprocity-based appeal. If citizens vote for politicians, they will also make any kind of promise. Their constituents may hear them voice their care for them or their commitment to a certain measure (Brydon and Scott, 2008, p. 391).

Section IV: Power. Orators wishing to persuade their audiences to pay attention to their message should use the expertise of those in positions of authority to do so (Brydon and Scott, 2008, p. 392).

iv. Dedication. A promise is a powerful tool for persuasion. In order to convince an audience, speakers should act in a way that is expected of them (Brydon and Scott, 2008, p. 393).

part. Adulation. According to Walton (2007), flattery is a persuasive technique that is used to persuade the person being addressed.

## 2.3 The Issuing Fallacy Framework

The fallacy is an issue of persuasion that is used in arguments, according to scholars who examine it using the process method. In their 1999 publication, Eemeren, Grootendorst, and Duistermaat were the first to use the VCA in relation to fallacies.

Their hypothesis has several limits, but they think there is a fourstage process to the erroneous issuance.

The lack of specific criteria for recognising fallacies is one of the major shortcomings of Walton's (1995) method, which is why it is not used in this research.

Walton (1995, 2007) is another academic who thinks the postfallacy process method is flawed.

A fallacy, in his view, always has a beginning and an end, regardless of the setting.

As said in (2.1), the process method addresses fallacy as an entity that goes through many phases to accomplish a common objective, guided by collaborative postulates that are discussed in discourse.

The reasoning behind it is the logical fallacy, which is a fallacy in and of itself.

One definition of a fallacy is an intentionally misleading argument (Walton, 2007, p. 159). In its current setting, a faulty argument is most often used to persuade the addressee to agree or at least partial

ly accept the arguments or assertions that came before it, or to bolster those arguments or claims.

There are three separate phases

the beginning, the argument, and the conclusion during which a fallacy might manifest, according to Walton (2007, p. 8).

Starting with an action on the part of the responder, the arguer establishes the primary issue by the use of argument(s). While arguing, one will purposefully provide an argument that backs up the prior arguments. Respondents are responsible for assessing the flawed argument and providing a response at the end-point stage.

In order to disprove the opposing side's reasoning, counterarguments often resort to asking questions (ibid).

These steps seem to confirm the study's aims. Nevertheless, they will be implemented with a few of tweaks. We must first define the faulty argument and then address its

practical techniques in order to go on to the second level, the argument stage.

### 2.3.1: Recognising Rebuttal Arguments

There are many different types of fallacies. What follows is a discussion of only those aspects of the pragmatic, eclectic model that are relevant to its creation and evaluation. But before that, we must determine what criteria may be utilised to describe faulty reasoning. The criteria for identifying fallacious arguments will be based on the work of Walton (1995) and Johnson (2000), while the kinds of fallacious arguments that result from failing to meet these criteria will be adjusted according to what is suggested by Walton and Johnson (2000).

#### 2.3.1.1 Walton's (1995) Pragmatic Model of Fallacy

Walton (1995) established a system for confirming logical errors so that other scholars may follow suit. According to his definition (1995), a fallacy occurs when an argument's rational development is obstructed due to the improper application of a subject or argumentation scheme. So, a fallacy is an unsupported reasoning scheme or topic, or the incorrect use of such a scheme or theme, that undermines the argument's intended conclusions.

There is a distinction between argumentation systems and themes, according to Walton (1995). On page 26, Walton (2007) states that the argumentation scheme is a framework that displays the common types of arguments, which are inductive and deductive arguments, and is organised as premise-conclusion-inference. The argumentation theme, often called the "profile of dialogue," is important for spotting fallacious arguments; Walton (1995) seems to have cited Krabbe (1992, pp. 277-81) in suggesting this. According to Krabbe (1992), the argumentation theme is the several reasoning lines that may be described as chains of dialogic motions.

Thinking about logical errors that come from using the argumentation topic incorrectly is beyond the scope of this inquiry (1995). For the reason that Walton mentioned, the problem of using a weak argument to bolster a stronger one is central to the present study. Walton (1995, p. 255) defines a false assumption 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 in that context and poses a serious obstacle to the realisation of the goal of the dialogue." Consequently, logical errors are linked to weak forms of arguments. To put it simply, flawed reasoning revolves on the Gricean principle of cooperation, which says: contribute only to the degree that is necessary by the agreed-upon aim and direction of the discourse in which you are engaging (Grice, 1975).

#### 2.3.1.2 Fallacy Model Proposed by Johnson (2000)

By centring on both levels and using distinct vocabulary for each, Johnson (2000) proposes



methods to discredit Walton's (1995) approach. His terms, the illative centre and the dialectical layer, will be used in this research as they are more universally applicable than Walton's. A fallacy is an argument that fails to satisfy at least one of the criteria for a valid argument; this particular argument falls into this category very often. The two stages that Johnson (2002) lays out for assessing faulty arguments are the illative centre and the dialectical stage. On both levels, he has distinct demands. As a result, a proposition may be deemed logically erroneous if it is missing either the parameters of the illative heart or the dialectical stack, or both. In his work, Johnson lays forth a framework rather than an actual answer.

### **2.3.1.2.1 The Dialectical Level**

The dialectic phase is integral to the claim-judging process, according to Johnson (2000). Controversy within a debate and the way in which different perspectives and counterarguments are addressed constitute the dialectical level of criticism. An argument that employs or resolves concerns is known as a dialectic (Johnson, 2000, pp. 90-93). In order to evaluate dialectical tier false statements, he (2000) specifies the following: the ability to foresee criticisms, the ability to deal with competing viewpoints, and the ability to anticipate a solution to a premise. Because of their complexity, however, these specifications are inappropriate for the research at hand.

### **2.3.1.2.2. An Illustrative Framework**

Guidelines for verifying the accuracy of the illative core are laid out by Johnson (2000), who used it in evaluating false claims. On a structural level, the argument's parts make up the illative core; the reasons offered bolster the conclusion. On his list of criteria for identifying faulty arguments, he lists acceptability, fact, relevance, and sufficiency.

#### **a. The Acceptance Standard**

In order to verify assertions, Hamblin verifies the main statistic! in the year 1970. A claim's acceptability is the most important factor to consider while assessing it, according to (1970). The acceptability criteria, as pointed out by Johnson (2000) in his effort to define it, requires one to state a thesis, provide evidence to back up the thesis, and tailor the presentation to the viewer (Johnson, 2000). A pragmatic criteria, compliance must be determined by subjective and dialectical communication between a supporter and responder (Johnson, 2000, p. 95). For the whole argument, the standard would be applied. "Is this premise one that my audience is already disposed to accept as true?" the arguer must question oneself before offering an argument based on a certain hypothesis. This information is derived from Johnson (2000), namely from pages 200-2101.

#### **c. The Truth Level Standard**

It is not possible, according to Johnson (2000), to evaluate arguments apart from the factual standard, and he utilises this criteria to decide which arguments are erroneous. Messages are conveyed via the voice. In essence, this criteria determines whether an assertion is true or untrue; if it is violated, the assertion is false, as stated by Johnson (2000, p. 197).

#### **c. The Relevance Criterion**

This is the standard that Johnson (2000) utilises to determine whether an argument is faulty. Shapiro (2000) states that there are three distinct kinds of relevance: topical, propositional, and audience. One feature of propositional content is the relevant proposition. That the conclusion is valid is based on this evidence. Being a pragmatic criteria, it takes into account the fact that different contexts have different priorities (Johnson, 2000, pp. 201-2).

### an. The Sufficiency Test

In order for the premises to be considered, there has to be sufficient evidence to back up the claim or show the conclusion (Johnson, 2000, p. 205). To back up the allegation, you should provide sufficient evidence, not definitive evidence. A need in one context could not have the same weight in another. Hence, the data will be examined, and the knowledge gathered will shed light on the dialectic and relativistic levels. We find erroneous arguments by using the particular dialectical criterion of (dialectical relevance). To identify illogical arguments in the negative conclusion, the criteria are truth, relevance, and sufficiency.

### 2.3.2. Realistic Approaches to Presenting the Fallacious Claim

One of the tactics used to present the erroneous argument is to go back to the criteria for recognising faulty arguments discussed earlier in this section. \*The illative core level and the dialectical layer level are two levels of appeal to the tactics that sparked the errors. At the illative core level, an arguer may use one of these tactics to produce an illogical argument: a. Not meeting necessary requirements; b. Not being true; c. Not being relevant; and d. Not being adequate. A faulty argument is when the arguer employs a strategy that disregards dialectical significance. Walton (1995, p. 34) and Johnson (2000) state that the response loses some of its persuasive power if it deviates from even one of these dimensions. So, every attempt at strategic manoeuvring will be thwarted if even one of these conditions is not met. Figure 1.below illustrates these methods:

### 3. Collecting Data

I can't possibly list all of the topics covered by the data, but they span from economics to social issues to war to global security to defence strategy and beyond. The data comes from three separate extracts chosen at random from three separate speeches delivered between 2002 and 2008. Just four speeches will be the focus of my analysis. George W. Bush's political speeches in the United States are the subject of the data.

### 3.1 Analysing in practice

Since analyzing all of the speeches that reflect the data under consideration takes up a lot of room in this research and yields the same conclusions, it is impossible to cover all of them pragmatically. Because of this, I am free to provide only three instances with visuals. The study's view that these speeches are the most obvious, compelling, and explanatory examples led to their selection. The pragmatic structure and tactics shown in triggering and operating the three phases of erroneous argument are revealed by analyzing and examining each illustrated scenario.

### 3.2 Illustrative Analyzed Examples

Four illustrative examples extracted from the four selected American president, George W. Bush's speech is analyzed below.

#### Speech No.1

**George W. Bush's speech to the Nation on the "Iraq war" On 7 October 2002, in Cincinnati:**

"Thank you for that very gracious and warm Cincinnati welcome. I'm honored to be here tonight. I appreciate you all coming. Tonight, I want to take a few minutes to discuss a grave threat to peace and America's determination to lead the world in confronting that threat.



The threat comes from Iraq. It arises directly from the Iraqi regime's own actions, its history of aggression and its drive toward an arsenal of terror.

Eleven years ago, as a condition for ending the Persian Gulf War, the Iraqi regime was required to destroy its weapons of mass destruction, to cease all development of such weapons and to stop all support for terrorist groups. The Iraqi regime has violated all of those obligations. It possesses and produces chemical and biological weapons. It is seeking nuclear weapons. It has given shelter and support to terrorism and practices terror against its own people. The entire world has witnessed Iraq's 11-year history of defiance, deception and bad faith”.

According to the pragmatic structure of fallacy, which is shown in extract (1), there are three steps to the fallacy process: One part of the Strat Point Stage is Adapting to Audience (AA), and the other part is Topical Potential (TP). To announce the start of the topical potential sub-stage, the SPS is motivated by delivering an inductive argument. Eleven years ago, in order to end the Persian Gulf War, the Iraqi leadership had to eliminate its WMD, stop developing them, and stop supporting terrorist organizations. This thesis is built with concrete facts. With "its history of aggression and its drive towards an arsenal of terror," the allegation is made that "the threat comes from Iraq." The warrant elaborates on this point. This dispute is quite current and poses a serious danger to world peace. The speaker decides to use an inductive argument in order to make their point more convincing.

Methods for Being Polite Set Off the Adapting to Audience (AA) circuit. In an effort to engage his audience, George W. Bush uses the tactics of "attending to the hearer, seeking agreement and claiming a common ground" because he has chosen an engaging topic that poses a "grave threat to peace" in order to facilitate dialogue. Adapting to Audience (AA) also includes deixis. "I and we" are two examples of the deictic terms used by the speaker. There are two parts to the Argument Stage (AS): the False Argument (FA) and the Presentational Devices phases. Since the speaker relies on his imagination to claim that Iraq possesses WMDs, rather than providing any logical arguments for this claim, this excerpt is fallacious because it fails to meet the standards of truth and sufficiency.

The next step is for the speaker to use rhetorical devices and the principle of influence to deliver the presentational devices sub-stage. "Aggression," "threat," "weapons of mass destruction," and "terror" are some of the deep terms he employs. When he says, "We resolved then, and we are resolved today, to confront every threat," he is also using the flattery principle. "America felt its vulnerability" is one of the many phrases he uses. When listeners react negatively to a speaker's attempt to manipulate their emotions, it triggers the End Point Stage (EPS). In response to the speaker, the addressees do non-linguistic gestures such as agreement nods, which gives the impression that the false argument is compelling. According to the findings of the investigation, American politicians often use different kinds of faulty arguments to sway their audience and gain greater faith in their beliefs.

In the first excerpt, George W. Bush employs a number of logical fallacies, including ambiguity, begging the question, withheld evidence, appeals to sympathy, the people, fear, personal attacks, accidents, red herring, insufficient authority, and ignorance. He manipulates public opinion and silences critics by using all these fallacious arguments. It was up to the United States to establish that Iraq had WMD before demanding their destruction. The United States, on the other hand, assumes that Iraq has WMD and demands their destruction if the country wants peace. It was a

mistake to shift the burden of evidence from the United States to Iraq in this fashion. Iraq could never have supplied it to the US, as this proved. Plus, here's another either/or: either comply with our demands or go to war.

## Speech No.2

### George W. Bush's speech to the Nation on the “ Iraq war ” On 13 March 19, 2003

**“On my orders, coalition forces have begun striking selected targets of military importance to undermine Saddam Hussein's ability to wage war. These are opening stages of what will be a broad and concerted campaign. More than 35 countries are giving crucial support -- from the use of naval and air bases, to help with intelligence and logistics, to the deployment of combat units. Every nation in this coalition has chosen to bear the duty and share the honor of serving in our common defense.**

**, in the Oval Office.**

**Millions of Americans are praying with you for the safety of your loved ones and for the protection of the innocent. For your sacrifice, you have the gratitude and respect of the American people. And you can know that our forces will be coming home as soon as their work is done.**

**Our nation enters this conflict reluctantly -- yet, our purpose is sure. The people of the United States and our friends and allies will not live at the mercy of an outlaw regime that threatens the peace with weapons of mass murder. We will meet that threat now, with our Army, Air Force, Navy, Coast Guard and Marines, so that we do not have to meet it later with armies of fire fighters and police and doctors on the streets of our cities.**

**Now that conflict has come, the only way to limit its duration is to apply decisive force. And I assure you, this will not be a campaign of half measures, and we will accept no outcome but victory”.**

In the next sub-stage, "presentational devices," the speaker will make use of rhetorical strategies and the concept of influence. "Aggression," "threat," "weapons of mass destruction," and "terror" are among the profound words he uses. “We resolved then, and we are resolved today, to confront every threat” is another example of his use of the flattery principle. His usage of the term "America felt its vulnerability" is extensive. The EPS is activated when the audience's unfavorable reaction to the speaker's emotional manipulation attempts is detected. By responding with non-verbal cues like nodding in agreement, the addressees make it seem as if the speaker's argument is convincingly untrue. Based on the investigation's results, American politicians often use various fallacious arguments to influence their audience and strengthen their convictions.

Several logical fallacies are used by George W. Bush in the first extract. These include: ambiguity, asking the question, hidden evidence, appeals to compassion, intimidation, personal attacks, accidents, red herring, lack of authority, and ignorance. By presenting such flawed arguments, he manages to influence public opinion and censors his detractors. Before ordering their destruction, the United States had the burden of proving that Iraq had WMD. But the US thinks Iraq possesses WMD and says they must dismantle them before the nation can be at peace. Transferring the onus of proof from the US on Iraq in this way was a mistake. This revealed that Iraq could never have

given the US with it. Join us in our dilemma: either give in to our demands or face the consequences of war.

**Table (1): The pragmatic Structure of Fallacies**

The Start Point Stage	
Topical Potential	Adapting to Audience
The Argument Stage	
The Fallacious Argument	Presentational Devices
The End Point Stage	
Responding to the Fallacious Argument	

**Table (2): Types of Argument**

Arguments			
Type	Deductive	Inductive	Total
Frequency	4	10	14
Percentage	25,28%	75,72%	100%

Table (3): Types of Deixis

Deixis				
Type	First	Second	Third	Total
Frequency	45	18	45	108
Percentage	44, 46%	16, 88%	44, 66%	100%

Table (4) Politeness Strategies

Politeness Strategies		
Type	Frequency	Percentage
Attending to hearer	14	24,51%
Being optimistic	12	21,05%
Claiming a common ground	11	19,29%
Being indirect	2	3,50%
Seeking agreement	13	22,88%
Minimizing imposition	5	8,77%
Total	57	100%

### Principles of Influence

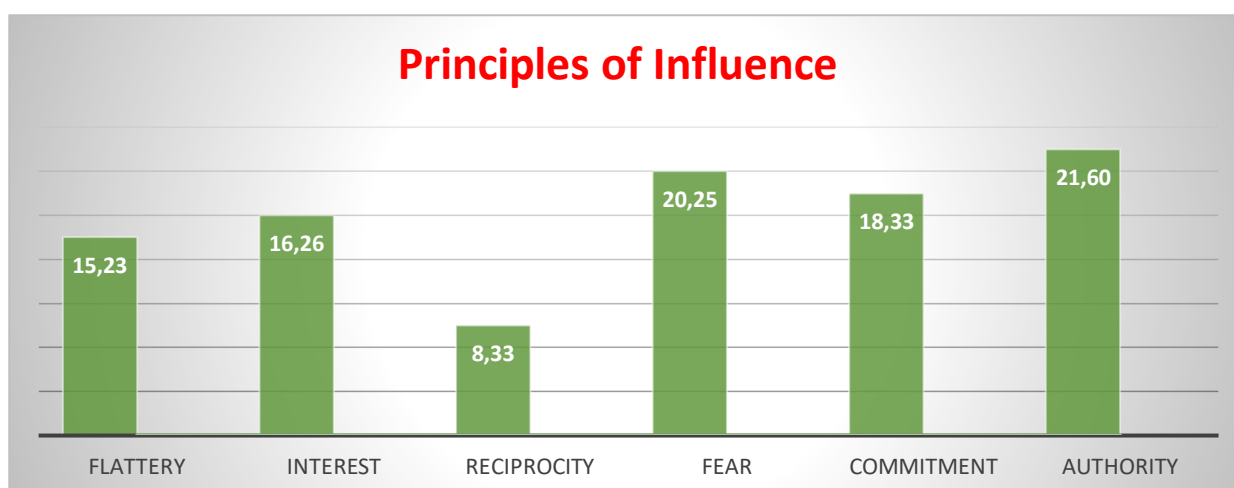


Figure (18): Percentages of the Principles of Influence

## 5. Conclusions

Several inferences may be made from the analysis's results. In general, the present findings are linked to the objectives and assumptions of this study. However, further conclusions have been

reached as a result of the analysis's results. Therefore, they will be included into this since they are believed to be relevant and helpful in this context. Consequently, the following is a presentation of the findings:

1. There are three steps to committing a fallacy in American political speeches. There are two sub-stages that make up the first stage, SPS: TP and AA. One pragmatic component, arguments 100%, makes up the TP. While the AA sub-stage consists of deixis and politeness, there are two sorts of arguments: inductive (85, 72%) and deductive (14, 28%). Third (41.66%), Second (13.88%), and First (44.46%) make up deixis. Among the six tenets of politeness are the following: paying attention to the listener (24, 51%), maintaining a positive outlook (21.05%), asserting a shared ground (19, 29%), being indirect (3.50%), seeking consensus (22.88%), and avoiding force (8.77%).

Two pragmatic components make up the second stage (AS): presentational devices (PD) and fallacious arguments (FA). Acceptability (25.2%), Relevance (15.2%), Sufficiency (31.5%), and Truth (28.1%) are the four components that make up the FA. Two parts make up the Principles of Influence: Appeal to Flattery (15.23%), Interest (16.26%), Reciprocity (8.33%), Fear (20.25%), commitment (18.33%), and Authority (21.60%). Three parts make up the presentational devices: weasel words (13.44%), padding words (30.43%), and profound words (56.53%).

An entirely non-linguistic set of actions constitutes the third stage, the EPS. This confirms the first hypothesis and satisfies the study's primary objective of determining the pragmatic structure of fallacy, namely the steps involved in addressing it in political speeches: A fallacy is a multi-step process that may be seen in political statements.

2. The most prevalent pragmatic tactics of delivering a fallacious argument in the circumstances studied include using strong language, using first-person deixis, paying attention to the audience, appealing to their interest, and encouraging applause. The overwhelming majority of these solutions corroborate this conclusion. This discovery fulfils the study's secondary objective: It confirms the second premise and identifies the most popular pragmatic tactics used to deliver logical fallacies in political speeches: When making political speeches, politicians tend to choose some tactics over others when expressing falsity.

Whether inductive or deductive, the three basic components of a flawed argument are facts, warrant, and claim.

There are a lot of contextual elements that influence the issuing and receiving fallacy process, including genre, standards, setting and scene, act sequence key, participants, ends, and instrumentalities. For instance, personal attacks are the most common form of fallacious argument when discussing dangerous topics like terrorists, Al-Qaida, or Saddam Hussein, whereas appeals to pity are more common when discussing interesting topics like freedom, liberty, or victory. To avoid criticism and convey public opinion, politicians rely on other types of contextual elements, which are crucial for influencing the audience. All sorts of contextual circumstances may have an impact, not only logical fallacies. Both the pragmatic framework and tactics are impacted by them. The fifth objective of the research is met by this discovery: Determining the impact of contextual elements on political speech fallacies and confirming its fifth hypothesis: contextual circumstances have an influence on both the issuance and reception of fallacies, as well as the kinds of fallacious arguments used in political speeches.

President George W. Bush of the United States makes use of a number of fallacies in his speeches, each with its own purpose and function. The public sentiment and criticism are spread via the employment of fallacies. They are tools in the politician's toolbox for winning over voters to his ideals and agenda. In order to deceive and convince the American people that going to war with Iraq is necessary to destroy Saddam Hussein's WMD stockpile, end the suffering of the Iraqis, and break the dictatorship in that country. All of these killings are reprehensible, and he cites them to back up his invasion of Iraq. He makes use of logical fallacies throughout his speech, such as the

personal attack fallacy to criticise Saddam Hussein and the fear fallacy to appeal to the American people. By proving that George W. Bush did, in fact, deploy a variety of fallacies in his speeches both before and after the Iraq War, this result satisfies the sixth and last goal of the research, which was to determine the rationale for this strategy.

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