

# The Inductive and Deductive Developmental Modalities of Speech of Japanese and Americans

Marilyn Books

## Abstract

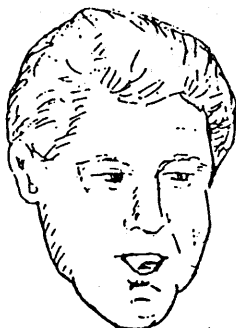
This paper exposes the over-generalization of Americans as deductive and Japanese as inductive speech communicators by examining a model persuasive speech—The State of the Union Address of January 24, 1995 delivered by President William Jefferson Clinton. The characteristics, advantages, determinants, and applications of each type of speech organization, written and spoken, is elucidated, with the bulk of the argument housed in the persuasion discussion.

Key words: inductive, deductive, speech writing/making organizational formatting, persuasion.

## 1. Introduction

It is generally thought that Americans employ the deductive organizational mode and Japanese the inductive in speech writing/making. In fact, Cummings (1992, 31) established that ninety percent of Americans use deduction as their preferred style. But what about persuasive deliveries? The purpose of this paper is to explore this generalization by delving into the characteristics, advantages, determinants, and applications of each. President William Clinton's State of the Union address of January 24, 1995 will be utilized to exemplify an American speech.

President William Jefferson Clinton



The speech writing/making books most useful in the preparation of this work were those of Books (1996a), Carnegie (1962), Cook (1989), Cummings (1992), Echeverria (1987), Kane (1988), and Mudd and Sillars (1979). Those books most cited regarding intercultural communication were Barnlund (1989), Books (1996c), Condon (1975), Sakamoto and Naotsuka (1982), and Stewart and Bennett (1991).

Two intercultural communication authorities, Stewart and Bennett (1991, 153), generated four "functions" of communication: expressive, persuasive, referential (depending on technical information and logical reasoning), and phatic (involving social processing such as small talk). The expressive style is merely a one-way statement, tantamount to the informational form, which is in turn further subdivided by Kane (1988, 6) into three speech categories—exposition, description, or narration. Some of the most common arrangements of information are chronological order; spatial order; order of importance; comparison and/or contrast or analogy; and "generalizational" order. The scope of this work involves a brief examination of generalizational set-ups, which can be broken down as follows.

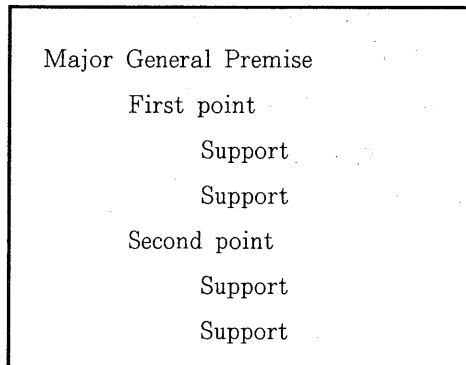
Table 1

1.	Deductive
a.	"Cause to Effects"
b.	"Claim to Proofs"
c.	Problem/Solutions (Books, 1996a, 45)
2.	Inductive
a.	"Effects to Cause"
b.	"Proofs to Claim"
i.	Problems/Solution (Books, 1996a, 45)
ii.	Reflective

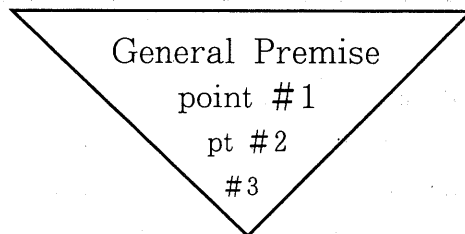
Informational "Generalizational" Organizations

## 2. Deductive Reasoning

Deductive organization, variously termed general to specific or the linear method, is one in which you state your case at the beginning, then back it up. The deductive organization is drawn up thus:



A series of points—first, second, third, and so on—are developed and add up to the major general premise. The deductive is often pictured graphically as an inverted triangle.



For Clinton's primary subject, a report on the United States, it was not necessary to explicitly state it: everyone knows what it is all about; it's an annual institution.

The use of an outline entails linear, straight-line logic, and is a common element in Western compositions; to paraphrase Strunk and White's analogy of an outline as a skeleton (1979, 15), perhaps we can say that the more clearly the speech maker visualizes and projects the skeleton, the better his chances of success with the flesh and blood (Books, 1996a, 109).

The standard outline subordination takes on this form:

---

---

Title

Statement of Purpose (Thesis Statement)

I. Main Topic

A. Supporting Material

1. Example

2. Example

a. Specific Detail

b. Specific Detail

(1) Subpoint

(2) Subpoint

B. Supporting Material

II. Main Topic

---

---

### 2.1 Advantages

The deductive format helps the audience follow; acts as a catalyst for the writer in making important decisions of content; aids in preventing shifting points of view or an illogical sequence of material; and helps in excluding all irrelevant subject matter and unnecessary statements.

A linear speech writer sets up the topic sentence as the roof, the support being the girders that hold it up so that it is not left to drop. Such a speech maker would not leave a point without supporting it any more than a teacher would walk in, recite the topic sentence, and leave.

### 2.2 Determinants

The audience and the occasion are the prime determinants of organization. With a supportive audience, deduction is ideal. Except for instances like Hyde Park where passersby happen to hear a speech, the audience will be predetermined, and in most instances, will be from the same side of the fence as the speaker. With a supportive audience then, it is to the deliverer's advantage if the contention is declared early to increase the amount of time that the belief will be reinforced throughout the speech. The

point will be constantly before the audience and they will not have to wonder which direction the message is heading.

### 2.3 Application

The “cause to effects” sequence (also called the analytical system) will be described in this segment, but the bulk of the elaboration of “claim to proofs” and problem/solutions will be subsumed under Persuasion.

“One cannot write very long without having to explain why something happened or why it is true or false,” purports Kane (1988, 93). This format is, according to Cook (1989, 70) “particularly useful to the speaker who wants to prepare the audience to consider, and then accept, a specific proposal for improvement—a proposal which attacks the causes as described.”

It could be said that Clinton’s 1995 State of the Union address overall was arranged according to the causal approach. The cause of the distressed state of the union was that the citizens were not responsible enough and the government was not decentralized enough, not cheap enough, and not small enough, and there is no cooperation. The effects are defects in all the major topics that the president chose to speak about such as crime, immigration, the welfare system, defense, and foreign affairs.

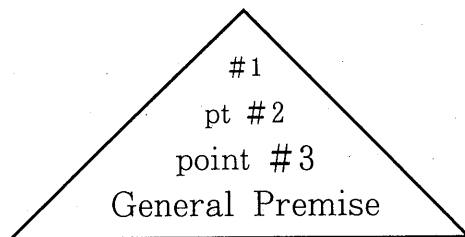
With high credibility presenters, the audience perceives the speaker in a higher status if the position is revealed early. The audience expects more with such speakers, and if they do not live up to aspirations, the listeners will quickly lose attention. Clinton is one such high status person and he did present his major premise fairly early.

The President provides us with a good example of cause and effects in developing a paragraph on health care. He claimed that the cause of the poor health care system is that “we,” meaning the Congress, did not “do anything.” It resulted in these consequences:

- ... another 1.1 million Americans have lost their health care.
- ... many millions more, most of them farmers and small business people and self-employed people, have seen their premiums skyrocket, and their co-pays and deductibles go up.
- ... [no] insurance, when they change jobs, or lose a job, or a family member gets sick.
- ... [no] long-term care for a sick parent or a disabled child.
- ... [no] health insurance coverage ... while they look for work.

### 3. Inductive Reasoning

Inductive organization is the reverse of deductive—specific points lead up to the general statement of premise—and is symbolized by a familiar pyramid shape.



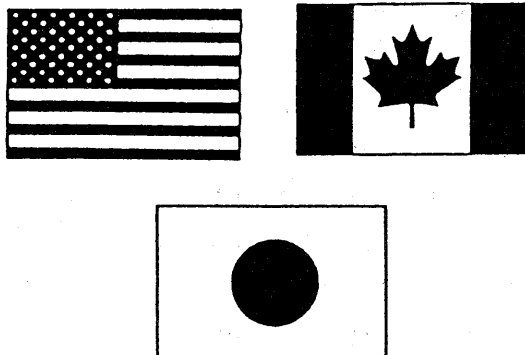
It is also termed “circular,” and is often the strategy used by Japanese who have further adapted this style into the highly artistic *kishotenketsu*. The *ki* in *ki-sho-ten-ketsu* means background; *sho* represents the development; *ten* stands for the turning; and *ketsu* is the conclusion. It is not the exclusive domain of Japanese, though; President Clinton sometimes employed it and added interesting material that was not directly related to the theme. He also went back to previous points that had been made long before.

In the inductive system there are no clear-cut rules about precisely when or how to reveal the plan of the talk, or, as is sometimes the case of Japanese, even if. Japanese often prefer to be implicit, to be indirect, to emphasize form, and to leave much unsaid, to the frustration of foreigners who are not aware of the value of the style: it’s “crooked,” “snobbery,” and “deceptive” (Books, 1996c, 74-75), they complain. It is the perception of many foreigners that frequently Japanese do not reveal their point at the outset to the distress of the interlocutor. Research on the tendency of the Japanese to include fascinating – but non-linear – material has also revealed much anxiety for foreigners (Books, 1996b, 55). Some of it was due to the Japanese habit of adding “extraneous” matter and being “ambiguous” in their communicative performance, leaving the listener confused as to the point attempted (Books, 1995, 55).

Condon purports that American and Japanese linear and circular styles differ geometrically. He compares them to the flags of the two nations:

The American preference is for the linear—lines of argument, lines of reasoning. “The bottom line” has moved from the accountant’s ledger to refer to any “base line” principle. These lines move to points—Americans come to the point, make several points when discussing something. Lines and points, like the pattern in the American flag.

In contrast, the Japanese style, like the Japanese flag, favors the curve. To go around something rather than "straight to the point" is preferred. Points stick out. Points might injure someone. In Japan one takes care to avoid either eventuality (1984, 42-43).



Lines and points on American and Canadian flags;  
curves on the Japanese flag.

### 3.1 Advantages

This methodology is effective when resistance is expected to be encountered by the audience as in when the listeners have already made up their minds, or an unpopular notion will be proposed, or when bad news is about to be revealed. A string of evidence can be used to lead to the major general conclusion that enlightens the audience. The weight of the gathered points makes the final inference or generalization probable and believable.

Cook calls induction "indirect proof" and asserts: it can avoid stiffening resistance by convincing the audience of the supporting evidence before announcing the thesis. ... The speaker's case sounds more convincing when the listeners are not given early warning to set up their defensive rationalizations (1989, 74-75).

### 3.2 Determinants

As mentioned above, deciding on the pattern greatly depends on the audience and the occasion. Cohen avowed that the inductive method is better than the deductive method if the audience is "threatening." The minute that views are revealed, a contrary audience will reject the speaker's, so when an opposing audience is familiar with the position, it

behooves the disseminator to postpone the proposition that the listeners are against. Of course, delaying performs no useful function if the audience is aware of the contention in advance (1964, 11-12).

Such was the case with Clinton. He spoke before a sharply partisan Congress (in fact both Houses were Republican-dominated). He had won the presidential race on the strength of his New Covenant (not named as such in 1992), and he had begun earlier in the month of January, 1995 to resurrect the theme. So the electorate were forewarned. Hence he did not delay until the middle or end of his speech to announce his New Covenant, but rather, he stated it in the introduction. This was a sign of frankness or candidness that he was not concealing anything. Such disclosure can heighten the trust of the audience in the speaker, and it may even mitigate their opposition.

This form is also useful when listeners have little knowledge of the subject. It creates understanding first and gets to the issues later, and allows for an approach of the subject in such a way that the audience understands more clearly what kinds of decisions it must make before it makes them (Mudd and Sillars, 1979, 324).

### 3.3 Application

In the effects to cause lineup, the effects deal with the consequences that followed the cause, but the results/effects are deliberately placed in a series before the cause is laid open. In other words, the main idea is regarded as causing the consequences in the series above it, presented in this order.

Table 2

#1	#1	#1
effect #2	result #2	consequence #2
effect #3	result #3	consequence #3
The cause	The cause	The main idea (cause)

#### Inductive Progressions

The State of the Union address presented the effects (poor government servants, people's distrust, too many lobbyists, citizens' exclusion, and perquisites [perks] for bureaucrats) before the cause: Congress's killing the political reform bill.

... we cannot ask Americans to be better citizens if we are not better servants. ... we have a lot more to do before people really trust the way



things work around here. Three times as many lobbyists are in the streets and corridors of Washington as were here 20 years ago. The American people look at their capital and they see a city where the well-connected and the well-protected can work the system, but the interests of ordinary citizens are often left out. As the new Congress opened its doors, lobbyists were still doing business as usual: the gifts, the trips; all the things [perquisites] that people are concerned about haven't stopped.

Often, cause and effect are closely related. Points may be simultaneously causes and effects, as when the consequence that you expect that an action will have is the reason why you do it, and a snowball effect may transpire.

As for "proofs to claim"-problems/solution and "proofs to claim"-reflective formulae, they will be delineated in Persuasion below.

#### 4. Persuasion Organizations

The etymology of the word persuasion reveals that it is derived from the Latin *persuasionem*, meaning "through sweetness." Research into its history shows:

The tribes of Europe, who found the declensions of the Latin language difficult and awkward, dropped off endings and used words in their root forms. Thus the phrase *per suasionem* lost its *em* ending and became the single word "persuasion" (Mudd and Sillars, 1979, 124).

Contrary to popular belief, Stewart and Bennett claim that exposition is not the dominant function of speech among Americans; persuasion is. They purport that an American is an assertive salesperson "committed to convincing others of his or her own point of view" (1991, 153-154). Ostensibly an information dissemination on the state of the union, the real purpose of Bill Clinton, ever the salesman, was to give a persuasive talk (Books, 1997, 66-69), thereby "fitting the bill," so to speak. His overture—in the sense of a formal proposal or offer—could be said to have been: "Everybody working together—responsible citizens and a pruned, decentralized efficient government—can turn America around."

A persuasive presentation contains argumentation in the development—rather than just information for understanding—and the audience is asked to sanction one point of view over another; hence inductive formats like effects to cause are very common, allowing time to build up a position before listeners can solidify any negative attitudes that they may have toward what one has to say and cut off reception before the speech

is even launched. Besides that, movement to a climax and suspense have interest value.

Persuasion generalizational arrangements can involve any of the arrangements that were encapsulated in Table 1. Because cause to effects has already been discussed under Deductive, and effects to cause was dealt with in the Inductive part, the remainder—claim to proofs; problem/solutions; proofs to claim/problems to solution; and proofs to claim/reflective—are described in this section.

#### 4.1 Claim-to-proofs

The claim-to-proofs format is a deductive plan in which you identify your claim at the beginning and proceed to support it with points. A persuasive presentation will additionally finish with a request for the audience to perform some specific task.

Clinton's overall speech blueprint falls under this category. He used it in tandem with topical arrangement and it is possible that he used it with the order of importance design. He exposed his claim (for the population to espouse the New Covenant) and topic by topic tried to prove to the audience that pulling their own weight and working together can improve the United States.

Clinton proudly reported the country's success in the global economy and endeavored to prove it with facts:

America is once again the world's strongest economic power, almost six million new jobs in the last two years, exports booming, inflation down, high-wage jobs are coming back. A record number of American entrepreneurs are living the American Dream.

The situation of illegal aliens is another case of claim to proofs:

illegal aliens difficulty: disturbed citizens, assumed jobs, burdened taxpayers
---

#### 4.2 Problem/Solutions

Problem/solutions is also a deductive line-up. Some portions of Clinton's delivery applied this modus operandi. The problem was the inferior welfare system and the New Covenant solutions were:

- ... work and responsibility over welfare and dependency.
- ... anyone who can work must go to work.
- And the parents must take responsibility for the children they bring into this world.
- Governments do not raise children; people do.
- If a parent isn't paying child support, they should be forced to pay.
- We should suspend drivers' licenses ...

#### 4.3 Proofs to Claim: Problems/solution

The last two patterns are subdivisions of the proofs-to-claim order and are similar to the inductive method in which your main idea is withheld until all (or most) of the proofs are covered. This discussion presumes that the audience is unaware of your exact solutions.

Whereas in claim to proofs, your main claim A used points 1, 2, and 3 deductively as proof; proofs to claim is the reverse.

#1  
proof 2  
proof #3  
The claim A

The problems-to-solution strategy begins with the problems and then suggests your solution, the action to be taken, and how that solution would work.

#1  
problem 2  
problem #3  
The solution

At the very end is a directive to take action. Cook feels that this time-honored approach is a timeworn technique: "Its virtue lies in simplicity, its sin in overuse" (1989, 73).

Clinton used the problems/solution tactic, though not on a grand scale (not for the overall organization of all his major points). In one paragraph, he related details about his "Middle Class Bill of Rights" which was a key battle plan for the hearts and pockets of the middle class. In trumpeting his devotion to helping the middle class, he

proposed the bill, but not forthrightly. He provided a build-up of proofs/problems before naming his solution.

Today, too many of those [working] people are being left out. They're working harder for less. They have less security, less income, less certainty that they can even afford a vacation, much less college for their kids or retirement for themselves. ...

We've got to have a government ... that helps each and every one of us to get an education ... and raise our incomes by lowering their taxes.

#### 4.4 Proofs to Claim: Reflective

The reflective strategy also withholds the solution. You inform the audience of the problem situation and what is causing it and present some resolutions. You then evaluate each, and finally reveal the choice upon which you wish your audience to act.

The reflective pattern has an important advantage. Because the audience is thereby conditioned to your analysis, later speakers will find it more difficult to undo your persuasive effect; to do so, they must contradict not only your conclusions but your analysis as well.

All of the persuasive patterns conclude with an appeal to act on a suggestion. Actually, Clinton included a number of emotional appeals throughout, not just at the conclusion, although he distinctly reiterated the desired action in his conclusion: cooperative responsibility. His appeals came across as emotional pitches, sometimes in an apologetic, obsequious tone.

As a final observation on generalizational arrangements, the "directionality" (Books, 1996a, 62) of the deductive—cause to effects, claim to proofs, and problem/solutions—are similar: roughly equivalent to top-down and from general to specific. The "directionality" among the inductive forms—effects to cause, proofs to claim, "problems/solution," and reflective—is shared, but is the antithesis of deduction in direction: roughly equivalent to bottom-up and from specific to general.

## 5. Conclusion

President William Clinton's overall speech organization was deductive, i.e., his major premise was uttered at the very beginning of his talk: the state of the USA has its pluses and minuses because of irresponsible and/or uncooperative people and government. His main topics—some of which were: the welfare system; security, both domestic and abroad; the deficit; illegal aliens; the global economy; the "Middle Class Bill of

Rights”; foreign policy; and health care—were also presented deductively, in a topical development manner. However, the development of his subtopics was mostly inductive, which is an effective strategy in a persuasive talk. Professedly an expository production on the 1995 condition of the nation, Clinton and his speech writers prepared a clever convincing speech with the edict for the general populace and the government—his speech arrows aimed squarely at Congress—to “shape up”!

Generalizations are often dangerous and foolhardy, frequently leading to stereotyping. This paper very briefly examined the popular notion of American-deduction/Japanese-induction and is a small step toward dispensing with the generalization. It points to further study on the current prevalence of the functions researched in this work on a larger population, with equal treatment of Japanese deliveries, and encompassing the remaining communication functions—referential and phatic.

### References

- Barnlund, Dean C. *Communicative Styles of Japanese and Americans: Images and Realities*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth. 1989.
- Books, Marilyn. *Speech Writing Step by Step: Highlighting Intercultural Communication Styles*. Tokyo: Passel Books. 1996a.
- Books, Marilyn. “Both Ends of a Speech Writing “Menu”: Japanese and American Conclusions and Introductions.” *Journal of Performance Studies (Pafoumansu Kenkyu)*. Tokyo: IPRA (The International Performance Research Association). 3rd issue (July), 54-61. 1996b.
- Books, Marilyn. *Communication Styles of Japanese and Americans: Six Key Styles Explored*. Ph.D. dissertation. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Microfiche International. 1996c.
- Books, Marilyn. “Characteristics of American Speech: Focusing on Clinton’s Speech.” *Journal of Performance Studies (Japan) (Pafoumansu Kenkyu)*. Tokyo: IPRA (The International Performance Research Association). 4th Issue, 66-69. 1997.
- Carnegie, Dale. *The Quick and Easy Way to Effective Speaking*. New York: Pocket Books-Simon and Schuster. 1962.
- Clinton, William J. *The State of the Union*. Washington. Jan. 24, 1995.
- Cohen, A. R. *Attitude Change and Social Influence*. New York: Basic Books.

1964.

- Condon, John C. and Fathi Yousef. *An Introduction to Intercultural Communication*. New York: Bobbs-Merrill. 1975.
- Condon, John C. *With Respect to the Japanese*. Tokyo: Yohan. 1984.
- Cook, Jeff Scott. *The Elements of Speechwriting and Public Speaking*. New York: Collier-Macmillan. 1989.
- Cummings, Martha Graves. *Listen, Speak, Present: A Step-by-Step Presenter's Workbook*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle. 1992.
- Echeverria, Ellen W. *Speaking on Issues: An Introduction to Public Communication*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston. 1987.
- Kane, Thomas S. *The New Oxford Guide to Writing*. New York: Oxford University Press. 1988.
- Mudd, Charles S., and Malcolm O. Sillars. *Speech: Content and Communication*. 4th ed. New York: Harper and Row. 1979.
- Sakamoto, Nancy, and Reiko Naotsuka. *Polite Fictions: Why Japanese and Americans Seem Rude to Each Other*. Tokyo: Kinseido. 1982.
- Stewart, Edward C., and Milton J. Bennett. *American Cultural Patterns: A Cross-Cultural Perspective*. Rev. ed. Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press. 1991.
- Strunk, William Jr., and E. B. White. *The Elements of Style*. 3rd ed. New York: Macmillan. 1979.