

Instructor's Resource Manual

***A Pocket
Guide to Public
Speaking***

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Guide to Public
Speaking*

Second Edition

Dan O'Hair
Hannah Rubenstein
Rob Stewart

Prepared by
Elaine Wittenberg-Lyles
University of Texas at San Antonio

Melinda M. Villagran
University of Texas at San Antonio

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INTRODUCTION

This Instructor's Resource Manual to accompany Dan O'Hair, Hannah Rubenstein, and Rob Stewart's *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition, is a valuable tool for new and experienced instructors alike. For first-time instructors in the public speaking classroom, this comprehensive manual provides direction in defining a pedagogical stance and constructing related teaching strategies, and in planning and organizing a public speaking course. For experienced instructors in the public speaking classroom, the manual offers creative and innovative advice for incorporating variety into teaching methods and activities. And for instructors in any academic discipline, the manual gives concrete guidance in incorporating oral presentations into a range of college classes—the social sciences, humanities, education, business, science, and engineering. For all instructors, it provides a framework for the course and for teaching the content of the text. Although this Instructor's Resource Manual is comprehensive in terms of content, many of the interpretations, analyses, and activities are simply basic guidelines or suggestions; thus instructors are encouraged to adapt exercises and discussions to their own teaching styles and strengths, as well as to each classroom's climate and culture.

A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking, Second Edition, has been designed with today's busy student in mind, providing the tools students need to prepare and deliver a wide range of speeches, all in a brief format. Commensurate with the spirit of the text, the Instructor's Resource Manual is designed to help instructors facilitate student learning. Just as students must develop the knowledge and skills that will allow them to become effective public speakers, the philosophy of this manual is that instructors must acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to become effective teachers. Honing the skills most appropriate to achieving learning goals will involve commitment, critical thinking, adaptation and change, and a willingness to engage in a dialogue with students.

ORGANIZATION AND HIGHLIGHTS OF THE MANUAL

The Instructor's Resource Manual begins with a section on course management that offers general suggestions and advice for instructors of the public speaking course as well as any other course that includes public speaking elements. Part 2 narrows the focus to organizing and structuring a public speaking course, as well as incorporating public speaking content into courses across the curriculum. Part 3 then provides a chapter-by-chapter analysis of the content of *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition, as well as specific suggestions for teaching course

material on each chapter's topics. Part 4 provides additional resources for teachers and students, and Part 5 contains sample speeches for analysis and discussion.

In Part 1, Course Management, instructors will find advice on defining a pedagogical stance and formulating a teaching philosophy as well as suggestions for setting and achieving student learning goals. Recommendations for running the classroom include handling grade complaints and dealing with confrontations; soliciting feedback from students; encouraging and using communication outside the classroom; and giving tests, grading speeches, and evaluating assignments. In addition, several teaching strategies — involving role playing, games, field trips, classroom guests, computer-mediated communication, brainstorming, homework, goal setting, and student empowerment — are described and analyzed. Part 1 discusses incorporating films and videos, classroom ethics, and plagiarism. It also addresses special student considerations, such as culture and gender, English as a second language, students with disabilities, and nontraditional students. New to this edition is a section offering tips for beginning instructors as well as advice for instructors using *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition, for the first time. This section includes helpful descriptions of the resources available with *Pocket*, advice for classroom discipline, and key FAQs covering common concerns of first-time instructors. At the end of Part 1, a section titled “Using the *Pocket Guide* in Other Courses” gives advice to instructors who are incorporating public speaking into their courses for the first time.

Part 2, Organizing and Structuring a Public Speaking Course, includes detailed sample course syllabi and schedules. Other highlights of this section are sample speech assignments, guidelines, and grading sheets for use by both instructors and students in evaluating speeches, a discussion on incorporating technology into public-speaking assignments, and suggested activities using PowerPoint technology. The section titled “What to Focus on When Time Is Limited” is designed to help instructors in other disciplines integrate public speaking into their classes. It includes suggested courses of study for one- or three-week units on public speaking, along with a brief speech grading sheet that helps instructors evaluate student presentations in classes across the curriculum.

Part 3, Chapter-by-Chapter Analysis, highlights the major components of *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition. For each chapter, a chapter content outline is provided, and all key terms are defined. Class discussion questions and content presentation ideas are provided, along with numerous activities and exercises to reinforce students' understanding of the material.

GENERAL SUGGESTION FOR USING THE MANUAL

This Instructor's Resource Manual includes all the materials an instructor needs to structure the course, present the material in the text, and facilitate students' cognitive and experiential learning. Nevertheless, instructors should use these materials in a way that best suits the goals they have set for the course and to encourage students' effective learning. Based on the level of teaching experience, each instructor will find different aspects of the manual helpful. Hopefully, the manual will make teaching the course more enjoyable and rewarding for instructors and learning the material more satisfying for students.

In using the manual, the instructor must adapt the assignments and activities to the particulars of each class. To do this, the instructor must consider such issues as time constraints, number of students, academic background of the students, class climate, and individual teaching style. What works well for an instructor in one class may not necessarily suffice for another.

Generally, we suggest that instructors examine the first two parts of the manual before the first day of class. Considering beforehand your own positions as well as how you anticipate handling any problems that might arise during the semester will best prepare you to respond to the collective needs of your students and ensure a smoothly run, productive class. In all likelihood, you will encounter issues that will cause you to rethink your stance or the way in which you have structured the class and the course. Use the syllabi and schedules provided, but understand their tentativeness; you may have to add to, change, or eliminate portions to accommodate your goals or the students' needs. In effect, Parts 1 and 2 of the Instructor's Resource Manual are simply a compendium of general advice, along with some specific guidelines for instructors of other courses who are pressed for time yet need to incorporate public speaking into their syllabi.

Before using Parts 3 and 4 of the Instructor's Resource Manual, we suggest you first read the text of *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition, so that you gain the perspective of the student who is encountering the material for the first time. The detailed content outlines and summaries provided incorporate all of the major points of the text; however, the nuances of the material may have been lost in the synthesis. These two parts of the manual parallel the presentation of materials in the text and should be used to structure the analysis and discussion of each chapter. Should you choose to involve students in presenting chapter information, this material will help you evaluate the depth and breadth of their presentations, as well as indicate the areas you should elaborate on, illustrate, or explain in greater detail. The activities, exercises, and suggested supplementary materials included here will allow you to more effectively target, apply, and extend specific topics, and to help students gain the skills needed to become effective public speakers.

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This Instructor's Resource Manual is a compilation of five years of Melinda Villagran's experience as a graduate teaching assistant and basic course director at the University of Oklahoma and Southwest Texas State University. She is currently an assistant professor at the University of Texas at San Antonio. She would like to acknowledge her fellow directors of basic courses for their contributions to this manual: Lisa Sparks Bethea, Tara Crowell, Teresa Bridges, Julianne Scholl, Terry Robertson, and April Franklin.

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Part 1

Course Management

FORMULATING A TEACHING PHILOSOPHY

One of the most important aspects of teaching is being able to formulate your own teaching philosophy, which allows you to articulate your general and specific approaches toward instruction. A teaching philosophy is beneficial because it allows you to assess your strengths and limitations as an instructor. It also helps you realize your short-term and long-term pedagogical goals.

A good, complete teaching philosophy includes several key issues. First, what do you believe are the most effective teaching methods? Using a lecture format? Engaging students in collaborative learning? Should students focus on theory or skills? What types of courses require you to emphasize one rather than the other? In addition, you should be able to formulate specific teaching goals, particularly as you strive to improve your teaching methods.

SETTING AND ACHIEVING STUDENT LEARNING GOALS

Students need to know why they are taking a course in public speaking. Providing them with a rationale for the course may help them see how public speaking relates to their chosen field of study. Most students have either a major or minor area of study that requires public speaking; therefore, you can take the opportunity at the beginning of the course to help them relate public speaking to their chosen or anticipated career. You may want to incorporate this approach into your course objectives, which would be listed in your syllabus.

Just as you formulate objectives for yourself as the instructor, you should specify concrete course objectives in the course syllabus that you give to students. The

purpose here is to specify for students what you expect them to learn. Students should be aware of objectives specified for the overall course as well as for each unit or chapter. Examples of learning objectives as stated on syllabi include “To enable students to command an audience’s attention” and “To present oneself as a competent and credible speaker.”

Finally, students should be made aware of the requirements for the course. As with many public speaking courses, a standard set of requirements exists that is usually applied to several sections of the course at a particular school. However, you may be responsible for setting the requirements yourself. If so, be sure to address the attendance policy, penalties for absences, required textbooks and other materials, number and format of exams, number and nature of speeches and written assignments, and penalties for missed assignments. Also include point values for each exam, speech, and assignment so that students can keep track of their grades as the course progresses. Finally, be as detailed as possible, not only for the sake of understanding and clarification, but also in case students have a problem with any aspect of the requirements.

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS FOR RUNNING THE CLASSROOM

There are three categories of information that an instructor should acquire in order to run a classroom effectively and appropriately. First, whether you are given a standardized syllabus or are required to develop your own, you should be knowledgeable about the topics the course will cover. You should also have a sense of how these topics will relate to other courses in your area or department and to other areas or departments at your school. Questions you should ask yourself include “Why is this course being offered? Is this course required or is it an elective? Is this course theory-oriented, skills-oriented, or both?”

Second, know what the course rules will be. In other words, be aware of how the course should be conducted, the appropriate workload, how many of each type of assignment (e.g., exams, speeches) are required, and so on. Also, decide on appropriate policies regarding attendance, late work, and participation. These may already be stipulated for you, depending on whether the public-speaking course is a large, standardized one. You should also know your expectations for class conduct and behavior and articulate them to your students.

Finally, what kind of personality do you want to convey as a public speaking instructor? This is an issue your students will be greatly concerned about. They will want to know how easy you are to talk with as well as how accessible you are. Consider the type of impression you want to make, and then make sure it is conveyed on the first day of class. Remember the impact first impressions can have on students!

The topics that follow provide detailed suggestions about test administration, assignments, facilitating discussion, and so on. However, we have some general suggestions for running the classroom. Try to balance lecturing time and classroom discussions. Remember that it is important to disseminate information to your students; this is how they gain the knowledge they will need to succeed in the course. However, students may begin to lose interest if you lecture too long or fail

to involve them. We suggest that you lecture in increments of eight to ten minutes, breaking up these lectures with discussions or activities. This will hold the attention of the students and keep them involved.

There are some basic heuristic techniques you can use to motivate your students and get them interested in the material. Try varying the media that you use to present information. Also, don't be afraid to use humor, but be sure to use the kind of humor that suits you and makes you feel comfortable in class. Humor is an excellent classroom strategy for keeping students' attention as well as for making the material more memorable and salient.

HANDLING GRADE COMPLAINTS AND DEALING WITH CONFRONTATIONS

Never allow a dissatisfied student to intimidate you or cause you to question your competence or credibility. Most students who have a complaint do not intend to undermine your expertise; usually, they just want to clear up a misunderstanding or ask for clarification. There are others who believe they have a legitimate case for a better grade than the one you gave them; most of these students will simply ask why they got a particular grade. Most of the time a clear verbal or written explanation, or both, will take care of the matter.

Unfortunately, there are always a few students who feel the need to be confrontational, to question your credibility, or simply to be aggressive. The most you can do in these rare cases is to remain calm and remember that no student has the right to challenge your authority. You have every right to be teaching the course, no matter what a student says. Also, you have the right to refuse to talk with confrontational students, saying, for example, "I can't talk to you when you are being confrontational; please see me when you and I can discuss this calmly." One way to avoid such confrontations is to institute a policy in which grades are discussed only during office hours or after the next class meeting.

When students become aggressive or seem dissatisfied with your decision, remember the chain of command that exists in your department or school. In many cases, a course director, who reports to a department head or other administrative official, oversees instructors. If you feel uncomfortable dealing with a student or believe you cannot help the student to his or her satisfaction, refer that student to your immediate supervisor. If you do this, you should brief your supervisor so that he or she is well informed before speaking to the student.

LECTURING AND FACILITATING GROUP DISCUSSION

As suggested previously, you may want to alternate lectures with discussions. This not only maintains students' attention and interest but also helps students participate in the learning process and integrate the material in order to learn and understand it. Eight to ten minutes of lecture, followed by ten to fifteen minutes of discussion, followed by more lecture and discussion, may be a good format for you to try.

Having a few basic guidelines for discussion will help you get students to talk. First, come to class with a list of prepared questions. This may relieve you of the

pressure of having to come up with questions off-the-cuff. Second, ask more open-ended questions and fewer yes/no questions. Third, be sure to provide an example of the concept or principle you are covering in order to place that concept or principle in context. Do not be afraid to wait a few seconds after asking a question. Fifteen seconds is a good rule of thumb; eventually, someone will speak up. Also, tie in students' experiences or stories with the concepts being discussed by asking them the implications or consequences of their experiences. This will help ground the discussion for your students. In addition, do not be afraid to ask students how they feel about a subject; this may make it easier for some students to contribute to the discussion.

Another option is to engage students in *peer instruction*, which involves students teaching other students in order to facilitate learning. Assigning students in pairs and having them tutor each other, assigning each student to “teach” all or part of a chapter to the class (with guidance from you), or having students work in teams to discuss the material can all be part of peer instruction. Whatever method you choose, be sure that students know what is expected of them and what material they should cover. If students are teaching the material to others, then all students are responsible for what is being taught and discussed in class. This means that all students must read and be prepared to discuss the material before coming to class.

There are many advantages to peer instruction. First, students learn from actually having to do the teaching. Second, it takes pressure off the instructor. And third, it can reduce students' anxiety by allowing them to obtain the material from people with whom they can identify through age, status, background, and the like. However, there are some disadvantages to peer instruction. For one thing, it may not allow the class to cover as much material as would be covered in a traditional lecture-discussion format. Also, peer instruction requires students to be responsible, relatively nonapprehensive, and somewhat experienced in addressing others in a public or small-group format.

ENCOURAGING AND USING COMMUNICATION OUTSIDE THE CLASSROOM

Communication between instructors and students that occurs outside the realm of classroom instruction can be a useful tool for instruction. Communication can take place at many times, such as during office hours. Office hours provide you an excellent opportunity to interact with your students outside the classroom in a somewhat more informal manner. Students may feel more comfortable asking you questions or requesting help in this context than in the classroom.

Another way to facilitate communication outside the classroom is to be available before or after class to talk with students. Arriving in your classroom before class starts, or sticking around for a few minutes afterward, is one way to be more accessible to students, especially those who are unable to take advantage of your office hours. This arrangement will also allow you to chat with students in order to establish a good rapport with them. Providing an office phone number or e-mail address so that students can contact you may also be an efficient way to enhance communication. Nowadays, e-mail is the most common means of communica-

tion, particularly because university advances in technology are incorporating course-management systems such as Blackboard and WebCT that allow the instructor to e-mail the entire class at once. Check to see if your university offers such a program.

TEST GIVING, EVALUATIONS, GRADING SPEECHES, AND ASSIGNMENTS

Writing good tests is an important skill for instructors to develop, but it is not an easy skill to acquire. *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition, is accompanied by a test bank of questions for your use. However, if you decide to write your own tests, the following guidelines can be of help:

- Test construction should take into account the desired learning outcomes: Are students expected to analyze something or simply recall it?
- The test items should be representative of the course content, whether this material is covered in class or in the assigned reading.
- Test questions should vary in difficulty. A test that is composed entirely of difficult or easy questions does not truly reflect what students have learned.
- Test items should be devoid of extraneous factors that could affect students' answers. In other words, items should not be ambiguous or contain vocabulary that is too difficult.
- Questions should be written so that students will know the answer only after they have learned the material. Questions should not have any cues that give away the correct answer.
- Get someone else to look over your test before you administer it. Another person's viewpoint is beneficial, and another pair of eyes just might catch any typographical errors you missed.

If you use multiple-choice questions, there are a variety of questions to incorporate. A question may ask:

1. what a term means
2. whether something was or is true in general
3. whether something was or is true in a specific instance
4. whether two things are similar or dissimilar
5. what the chief problem or basic issue is
6. why something is true
7. what is likely to happen under certain conditions
8. what inference may be drawn from certain evidence
9. how to do something
10. what to do under certain conditions

Avoid writing multiple-choice questions that contain the word *not*, as in "Which of the following is *not* true?" or that ask students to identify a false statement. Such questions can confuse students, possibly causing them to choose an incorrect answer. Also, in writing questions, avoid listing fewer than four or more than five choices.

An important issue in testing is security, or the curbing of cheating. Students

cheat for many different reasons: poor preparation, fun, peer pressure, and so on. The best way to deal with cheating is to prevent it from happening at all. Although total prevention may seem unrealistic, you can take several steps to cultivate an environment that makes cheating difficult. First, provide a clear and rigid policy on cheating in your syllabus: what it constitutes, the school's policy regarding cheating, and the consequences of getting caught. Unfortunately, this may fail to deter some students, so you may need to take a few more steps. On test day, make sure students have plenty of room so they are not too close to each other, and that their belongings are stowed under their desks. These measures alone may minimize the temptation some students have to peek over their neighbor's shoulder. Another method is to circulate different versions of the test, so that the order of the questions is not the same on every test. An additional tactic is to ask students to take off their hats, because the bills tend to conceal wandering eyes from the instructor. The basic principle behind these strategies is to minimize or eliminate the *temptation* to cheat; accomplishing this is half the battle.

Remember, some students feel very apprehensive about taking tests, and their apprehension may hinder their performance. If you have students who suffer from severe test anxiety, you can refer them to the office on campus that deals with these anxieties (e.g., a center for learning disabilities)—that is, if your school has such a department. Otherwise, there are things you can do to alleviate mild cases of test anxiety. First, you can foster an atmosphere that encourages students to ask questions about any material, offer extra help in the form of extra course credit, encourage students to meet with you outside class, or use the board or other media to display your notes so that students will know exactly what to study. In addition, you can develop tests that are nonthreatening and are clear to students. In writing tests, your objective should not be to trick students. Rather, a test should assess fairly students' knowledge while being clear and understandable, without being excessively rigorous.

Evaluation is a fact of life in every course. Tests and other methods of evaluation help you assess your students' comprehension, recall, and even appreciation for the course and its content. Overall, the ideal course involves the use of multiple measures for evaluation, including tests, speeches, and written assignments. These measures should be sound and should tie in closely with the course objectives. They should also reflect what was covered in the class lectures and discussions.

TEACHING STRATEGIES

ROLE PLAYING AND GAMES

Role playing and games allow you, the instructor, to vary the format in which you present material, and provide you with a chance to incorporate creativity and fun into your schedule. In considering using a particular game or activity, be sure you know its purpose, and be prepared to inform your students of its importance and relevance to the material. Also, consider the time it will take to engage the class in the activity. Choose an activity that will not take too long, so that you will be able to discuss it in relation to core concepts. (For some suggested activities, refer to

the Activity section in each chapter of Part 3 for creative games and role-playing exercises.)

The main purpose of role playing is to disseminate facts and give students an opportunity to put communication into practice. This practice may include forming an opinion, organizing, using interpersonal relations, resolving conflict, or simply talking in front of others.

FIELD TRIPS AND CLASSROOM GUESTS

Taking field trips and inviting guest speakers to class are beneficial to a course because they add supplemental information that students may find useful; they also add variety to the schedule. As with activities and games, students should know how the field trip or the guest speaker relates to core concepts; otherwise, it may appear superfluous.

Field trips require much foresight and planning. You may have to check with your school or department about policies regarding them. Your best option may be to limit your trips to other locations on campus, such as the library (to acquaint students with resources for speechwriting) or another department or office. However, field trips to other locations may prove useful, depending on what you are discussing or covering in class. Some basic strategies to incorporate include being familiar with the setting that you plan to visit, identifying a project for students to undertake, and being aware of legal issues (e.g., transportation, insurance). A final suggestion is to incorporate the field-trip experience into a project or assignment for class. Students can write about the field trip, or you can ask a test question about the event.

Inviting guest speakers who are experts in their field or have credibility and expertise is also an important consideration. Although using guest speakers requires long-term planning, it may be well worth the effort. Guest speakers add life to the topic you are covering, and they provide an additional perspective to supplement the material. Be sure to contact your guest speakers in advance, and then remind them of their speaking engagement as the date of their talk approaches. Possible guest speakers include an employee of the campus library to talk about the steps involved in researching a topic, a faculty member who can talk about persuasion, or someone from computing or technological services to discuss the use of multimedia presentation aids.

COMPUTER-MEDIATED COMMUNICATION

Try to incorporate some computer media into your lectures. There are many programs available that you can use to enhance your presentation of course material. One popular program is PowerPoint by Microsoft, which provides templates with which to construct slides and handouts. Encourage your students to learn and use PowerPoint in their speech assignments.

BRAINSTORMING

Brainstorming works very well when students must generate ideas for speech topics. A brainstorming exercise involving free association is helpful. No matter what the purpose, the key idea behind brainstorming is *quantity*, not *quality*.

Many students initially think they have nothing interesting to talk about, but if they have an encouraging and nonthreatening atmosphere in which to brainstorm, they will find it easy to come up with ideas. Also, brainstorming is a good way to get students involved in class discussions. If students understand that they will not be criticized or judged for what they say, they will be more likely to contribute.

It may be a good idea for *you* to engage in a little brainstorming as well. Instructors should always be willing to think of new ideas for activities, lecture material, and the like. You may want to take some time to sit down, think about the course as you plan it, and brainstorm different in-class activities, content areas that would benefit from a guest speaker, types of assignments, and so on. Once again, think *quantity*, not *quality*.

HOMEWORK

Homework should facilitate students' learning of the material by underscoring the important aspects of a lecture; it should also provide students with an opportunity to apply the material they have learned. Many instructors assign homework to make sure students are reading the chapters and keeping up with the course. Such homework assignments can include listing the key points of a chapter before it is discussed in class or writing a reflective essay on the assigned chapter. The most productive thing you can do as a public-speaking instructor is to assign homework that helps students prepare for their speaking assignments. For example, if students are required to find five sources for a particular speech, have them turn in citations for those five sources before the actual speech is due.

However, homework that becomes busywork or simply an outlet for points or extra credit will seem trivial and irrelevant to students. Students who feel that they are being forced to do seemingly trivial homework will only become frustrated with the course, discouraged, and unmotivated.

INCORPORATING OUTSIDE SOURCES AND MATERIALS

SELECTING FILMS AND VIDEOS

There are several advantages to using films and videotapes in class. First, they are a resource that students are familiar with and are comfortable using. Second, they are appropriate for students with a variety of different learning styles and abilities. Third, they allow students to observe communication in any form and in a variety of contexts. Fourth, they offer an opportunity for discussion, personal assessment, and clarification of values.

One option for incorporating films or videos is to show them weekly, followed by a discussion that explores public-speaking or communication issues. Another option is to show clips or segments of films, interspersing them with lectures and discussion to add creativity and variety to the class. In addition, consider showing one or two movies throughout the semester and assigning a paper or some in-class homework that applies certain concepts.

In using films and videos, try to select up-to-date or current films, which may encourage students to respond to the contemporary issues presented. Next, avoid copyright infringement by having a clear instructional purpose for showing the film, as well as following principles consistent with fair use. Finally, view the films in advance, and announce them at the beginning of the course. If students object to certain films, they will then have the option of dropping the class, or you may decide to alter your choices.

ETHICS

Ethics involves assessing what is right or wrong, and then acting on that assessment. You should have strong ethical standards that you apply to your teaching. Consulting your school's code of ethics may provide additional information and support.

You should probably anticipate the following issues with regard to ethics and standards of behavior on the part of students and instructors:

1. Classroom policies and procedures: discipline, commenting on students' remarks, dress code, dealing with absences or excuses.
2. Student issues: difficult students, student disclosures in class, prejudicial statements made by students in and outside of class.
3. Lecture style: swearing in class, negative comments about another department or specialty, overuse of films.
4. Activities and assignments: departures from the syllabus objectives or description of the course, sensitive or offensive films, role playing in class, making personal disclosures.
5. Assessment of students: reading assignments, difficulty of exams, effect of oral or written feedback, using the same assignments or tests every term, using unannounced quizzes or other evaluations, grading on the curve, untimely feedback, amount of extra credit.
6. Biased treatment of students: enhancing the evaluation of likable students, choosing favorites, compensating for the needs of certain students, cross-cultural and intercultural sensitivity.
7. Availability of instructor: keeping office hours, having inconvenient office hours, accommodating working students, canceling classes, returning students' phone calls.
8. Confidentiality: telling other students' stories during lectures, publicizing others' private information.

Special consideration should be given to the issue of academic dishonesty, particularly plagiarism. *Plagiarism* can be defined as taking other people's ideas or statements and using them as if they were one's own. Make sure students understand the implications of plagiarism. Many students commit plagiarism simply because they do not understand what it constitutes. Other examples of academic misconduct include using unauthorized materials during exams, falsifying infor-

mation that is given orally or in written form, unauthorized possession of exams, and assisting others in academic misconduct. Your school should have a student code of conduct that spells out the exact definitions of academic misconduct as well as the penalties for such acts.

SOLICITING FEEDBACK FROM STUDENTS

We encourage you to solicit feedback from your students about the course as well as your instruction. Asking for feedback is empowering because it tells students that you care about their input and perceptions. The best time to solicit feedback is midway through the course, after students have been acclimated to you and the class.

You may want to ask students to complete an informal evaluation. This could be in the form of a few open-ended questions, asking students to identify things they liked or did not like about the instructor, the course, or both. Be sure that everyone is clear about the objectives of such an evaluation. Students need to know the specific criteria that are to be employed when completing an evaluation, and it will help to make them aware of the criteria by which they evaluate you. In particular, you may want to ask for comments about the course (e.g., lecture material, textbooks, organization of the *course*) and about the *instructor* (e.g., teaching style, ability to answer questions). Be sure your students are clear about this distinction.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS

CULTURE AND GENDER CONSIDERATIONS

When communicating with students, avoid conveying any uneasiness or suggestion of different expectations. Many students perceive these feelings in instructors who (1) avoid eye contact with and ignore certain students, (2) coach majority students more than they do minority students, (3) interrupt minority students, (4) maintain a noticeable physical distance from minority students, (5) react to comments or questions articulated in a different accent or dialect in a negative way, and (6) make comments implying that minority students are not as competent as majority students. Remember that all of your students are there to learn and may feel uneasy about public speaking. Being mindful of your behavior in and outside class will help you to be more culturally sensitive.

To encourage women and minority students, try to incorporate examples or stories that acknowledge the contributions made by minority groups and women. This is especially handy when brainstorming speech topics and forms of support. Also encourage your students to give speeches on topics that highlight and celebrate their heritage, gender, ethnicity, and traditions.

ESL (ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE) STUDENTS

When working with students who speak English as a second language (ESL), keep cultural differences in mind. However, remember that not all cultural differences are similar in nature or degree, but may vary according to sex, religion, class,

and so on. Also, ESL students may think and write differently than English-speaking or native-born students. This is one of the main reasons that ESL students may experience difficulty with writing or organizing information. It would be helpful to show them how English organization works—for example, by using transitions or formulating a thesis statement. Most important, let your ESL students know that you are not trying to persuade them to accept or agree with this style; they just need to be familiar with it in order to be able to communicate and work effectively in class.

Finally, be sure to include your ESL students in discussions and to encourage them to involve themselves in the class. Encourage them to share some aspects of their culture or worldview, particularly when choosing a topic and researching it for a speech assignment.

ACCOMMODATING STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

Student disabilities can be physical or learning-related. It is often difficult to tell whether a student is physically or learning disabled simply by looking at him or her. Therefore if you think someone is disabled, the safest thing to do is not to assume that the student needs special consideration or assistance. Rather, at most schools, it is usually the students' responsibility to let you know if there's a problem. In fact, most schools require instructors to put a clause in their syllabi stating that if students have a disability that prevents them from fully demonstrating their potential in class, they should inform the instructor.

INCLUDING NONTRADITIONAL STUDENTS

Nontraditional students—individuals who may have returned to school after a period of years—have concerns and anxieties of their own. Some of them may be a little apprehensive about their abilities as students. Your being friendly, inclusive, and encouraging will go a long way toward helping nontraditional students feel comfortable. Also, be aware of any age or background differences that exist between nontraditional and traditional students, and quite possibly between those nontraditional students and yourself. When discussing concepts or theories, try to use examples that are applicable across all age groups and backgrounds. This will help you to be inclusive of all your students.

TIPS FOR FIRST-TIME INSTRUCTORS

First-time instructors may find their new academic position intimidating and even scary, but with experience and some helpful advice, teaching can become an exhilarating and rewarding experience. While many departments offer training programs designed to assist new instructors, other institutions believe that “teachers learn from teaching” and offer little classroom preparation and guidance. This section is designed to assist you with your transition to speech instructor, regardless of whether your institution provides an extensive training program or no training at all.

As a new instructor, you will soon discover that each class is unique. Although you may teach from the same syllabus and use the same lecture notes, the class-

room demographics will influence whether you have a shy or gregarious classroom. Whether your students are excited, apprehensive, or indifferent about taking a public speaking class, there are a few strategies that can help you achieve your desired classroom environment. This section will provide a few tips for surviving the first day of class, a brief overview of different learning styles to help with your lesson planning, advice for soliciting participation, and recommendations for providing feedback as well as disciplinary action.

ADVICE FOR USING *A POCKET GUIDE TO PUBLIC SPEAKING*, SECOND EDITION, FOR THE FIRST TIME

A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking, Second Edition, is designed to provide students and instructors easy access to each chapter. The chapters are arranged in logical progression, beginning with an overview of public speaking and moving to more specific advice on preparing and delivering speeches. Instructors should feel comfortable teaching the chapters in the order listed. If you plan to incorporate overhead transparencies or PowerPoint slides to illustrate your lecture, consult the Speaker's Reference following each tabbed section. It highlights the most important information in each chapter and can guide the headings and content of your slides.

Pay attention to the checklist boxes; they offer concise points that may assist your lecture. As one new instructor reported, "I've gotten in the bad habit of skipping boxed material, but in this book, that would be a mistake. A lot of good information and tips are covered that help me organize my lectures." The checklists can be used as discussion guides or can be completed by students to assist comprehension of course material.

The second edition of *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking* comes with many useful supplemental resources. Instructors have the opportunity to pick and choose from a variety of additional resources, including the Instructor's Resource Manual, Test Bank, sample videos, and companion Web site. These resources are designed to help you create your own unique and educational public speaking class. These materials also will reduce the amount of time it takes to plan your lessons. Whether you are teaching public speaking for the first time, or using *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition, for the first time, this section will introduce you to the various resources available and offer suggestions for incorporating them into your class.

PRINT RESOURCES

Having multiple resources can seem overwhelming to new instructors; therefore, we recommend that first-time instructors focus first on the following resources to help organize their lessons as well as reduce the time spent preparing them:

INSTRUCTOR'S RESOURCE MANUAL

This IRM offers advice on topics dealing with classroom management, achieving student goals, evaluating speeches, and much more. It is designed to help you organize lectures and choose from a range of activities to keep class interesting and

stimulating. Each chapter provides detailed lecture outlines, summary and discussion questions, student activities, and presentation ideas. Choose lecture material and activities that suit your unique teaching style and lecture goals. The IRM is an invaluable resource for first-time instructors because it provides all the necessary requirements for planning and delivering lectures. The activities included provide additional clarity to course concepts and allow students to engage with the material.

TEST BANK

Whether you are giving short quizzes or a final exam, the Test Bank provides a variety of questions that test students' comprehension of course concepts. Moreover, it provides different types of questions, ranging from true-false to essay questions, to suit your testing needs. Writing exams for the first time can be time consuming and cumbersome. Using questions provided in the Test Bank can help you thoughtfully organize an exam in a short time.

MEDIA RESOURCES

The following media resources are available to instructors interested in incorporating video and other technology resources in the classroom:

VIDEO THEATER

This tool offers videos of student speeches and clips of professional speakers with accompanying author commentary. These videos are excellent tools to stimulate class discussion about specific topics.

INSTRUCTOR'S MANUAL ON COMPANION WEB SITE AT www.bedfordstmartins.com/pocketspeak

These materials include resources for both students and teachers, such as a downloadable version of this instructor's manual, links to further Web sites on speech topics and public speaking, discussion questions for sample speeches, and a quiz gradebook for online student self-quizzing. These tools provide accessible information organized by chapter and category to help students clarify and review concepts from class, as well as prepare for their class speech presentations. Instructors will find the site useful for communicating with their students outside of the classroom, such as by posting information on the blackboard.

THE FIRST DAY

Instructors and students often feel a sense of anxiety on the first day. First-time instructors may feel anxiety toward their new academic position, their ability to teach public speaking, or the students in the classroom. Students also feel anxiety (especially in a public speaking class) because of their fear of speaking publicly, the conditions of the unknown (course expectations), and their new instructor. To help ease these anxieties, it is important to address several topics on the first day of class.

As an instructor, you should:

- *Identify yourself.* It is important for students to know who you are and what to call you (“Dr. Smith,” “Ms. Smith,” “Carla”). You may also want to mention your credentials, especially if you are new to the department. Inform students where you received your degrees, what you studied, and any practical experience you have with the course subject.
- *Discuss the course.* Announce the course title to ensure students are in the appropriate class. Provide an overview of the course, referring to your syllabus and discussing each section carefully. Explicitly state all classroom rules and expectations (including attendance policies), a brief description of course assignments, an explanation of the grading system, and any expectations you have for student work and classroom conduct.
- *Roll call.* Make sure students have officially enrolled in the course and announce any policies on late enrollment or overrides. Some students may assume that if they sit in class, you will automatically register them in the course. Check with your department before enrolling any additional students in the class. Some departments have a cap on the number of students allowed into a public speaking class. There also may be guidelines for the enrollment process, whereby graduating seniors receive priority. Begin learning the names of the students in your class. Students feel a special connection to the classes in which their instructors know their name. This can also ease anxiety about giving speeches.
- *Show excitement.* If you show genuine excitement about teaching the course, students often will become excited also. Let them know *you will work with them* to ensure a productive semester. Remember the importance of nonverbal communication. Eye contact, gestures, a movement, and even a smile can make your first day a success.

LEARNING STYLES

Students learn in different ways. Some students prefer to sit and listen to an instructor lecture for 50 or 75 minutes; others receive little benefit from this teaching style, preferring to be actively engaged with the lecture material. According to ldpride.net, a Web site that specializes in educating instructors about students with different learning styles, there are three basic learning styles: visual, auditory, and tactile/kinesthetic.

VISUAL LEARNERS

Visual learners benefit from visual materials (e.g., diagrams, book illustrations, overhead transparencies, videos, flipcharts, and handouts). In order to fully understand the content of a lesson, these students often will sit in the front row of the classroom to allow a full view of the teacher’s body language and facial expressions.

AUDITORY LEARNERS

Auditory learners benefit most from listening. They learn best through hearing the instructor lecture on the course material, and through class discussions. Written information has little meaning until it is interpreted orally.

TACTILE/KINESTHETIC LEARNERS

Tactile/kinesthetic learners benefit from a hands-on approach. These students need to be actively involved in the learning process. They may have difficulty sitting for long periods of time and may become lost in the lecture when not given the opportunity to explore the material firsthand. Service learning can provide a valuable learning opportunity for tactile/kinesthetic learners.

Because it is rare that classrooms are filled with students with the same learning preference, effective instructors diversify their lesson plans in order to accommodate the three types of learners. This can be done by lecturing for 20 minutes, showing a sample speech video, discussing the strengths and weaknesses of the speech, having students work together to create parts of a speech (e.g., writing an effective introduction, transition statement, etc.), and then delivering the speech to the class. Public speaking classrooms are inherently designed to accommodate all learning styles. It is up to the instructor to design a lesson plan that adequately reflects his or her students' needs. For more information about these learning styles, visit "Learning Styles Explained" by going to ldpride.net and choosing the "Learning Styles" link.

PARTICIPATION

Students often are reluctant to participate in classroom discussion for fear of being "wrong" or of being publicly ridiculed for their ideas. To avoid this reaction, create a classroom climate that is safe and respectful for students who share their ideas. Your tone of voice and use of gestures, appreciation for classroom participation, use of open-ended questions, and the classroom environment in general are important components in creating a safe and open atmosphere.

NONVERBAL BEHAVIOR

Your nonverbal behavior speaks volumes! Many students respond to nonverbal cues. As an instructor, it is important to pay attention to your body language. You want to maintain eye contact with your students, such as by scanning the entire room while making direct eye contact with individual students. Try to incorporate inviting gestures, hands and palms open (avoid crossing your arms), and use a friendly tone of voice. Move around the room to include students in the discussion.

VERBAL BEHAVIOR

The way in which you ask questions will determine the type of response you receive. Incorporate open-ended questions that ask students for elaboration. These move students away from simply nodding their heads to engaging in dialogue. You may also call on students by name and ask for their opinion.

When a student provides a wrong answer to your question, there are appropriate ways to respond to prevent him or her from feeling ashamed. One way to provide a safe climate is to respond, "Thank you, _____, for sharing your thoughts. I believe you are referring to the _____, which would be correct. However, I am looking for a more specific answer to _____. Can anyone help us out?" While respectfully correcting the student, and inviting others to continue the discussion,

you are likely to extend the conversation. Remember, positive feedback is the key to conversational success.

CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT

You can encourage classroom participation by arranging the chairs in a circle or semi-circle so that students face one another throughout the conversation. To allow more students the opportunity to participate, form small groups of four to five students, and provide them with discussion questions. Then ask one group member to deliver the group's response to the questions.

FEEDBACK

We encourage you to solicit feedback from your students about the course as well as about your instruction. Asking for feedback is empowering because it tells students you care about their input and perceptions. The best time to solicit feedback is midway through the course (preferably between the first third and first half of the course), after students have acclimated to you and the class. This will allow you time to make any necessary adjustments to your course structure.

One way to solicit feedback from students is to provide them with a feedback form to complete and return anonymously. A second way is to send an e-mail or an online evaluation form (e.g., WebLog, WebCT). This method allows students more time to reflect and answer the questionnaire. If you decide to ask students to complete an informal evaluation, your evaluation form may include a few open-ended questions, asking students to identify what they liked or did not like about the instructor, the course, or both. Be sure that everyone is clear about the objectives of such an evaluation. Students need to know the specific criteria they should employ when completing their evaluation. In particular, you may want to ask for comments about a) the course (e.g., lecture material, textbooks, organization); and b) the instructor (e.g., teaching style, ability to answer questions). Be sure your students are clear about the distinction between the two. For sample feedback forms, see Section II.

DISCIPLINE

(by Erin Underwood, University of Colorado)

DEALING WITH DIFFICULT STUDENTS

There are several strategies you can use to deal with student disruptions in the classroom. First, identify the person or persons who seem to be causing the problem. If they are sitting together, try walking while you teach, and make it a point to stand in front of the disruptive individuals. If the problem persists, finish your thought, then pause until the students stop talking. You may need to ask if there is a problem or question. Usually these simple remedies will resolve the problem.

If the disruption continues to be a problem, ask the student(s) to stay after class (try to make this one-on-one rather than in front of the class). Ask the student if

there is something causing the disruption in class. Usually this provides an opportunity for the student to share feelings of frustration. Often the problems are external to your class (e.g., the student may be upset because their previous speech class did not transfer and they were “forced” to retake the class). Knowing what is frustrating the student can help you address the real problem and respond appropriately to the situation. If the student claims there is no problem, you may need to detail the behaviors you find disruptive. Be sure to express your concern for the other students in the class. Point out that certain behaviors distract and possibly prevent others from participating and learning. Then, request (in a firm and direct manner) that the individual(s) refrain from distracting others, because *this* is the problem. Remember, this should not be about *your personal feelings*, but rather your desire to provide a safe and comfortable learning environment for all. It is important to remain calm and collected.

If a student seems to be directing hostility towards you, you might recommend he or she take the course from another instructor, or schedule a meeting with the course director so that the three of you can discuss the situation. Also, refer to institutional policies discussing classroom codes of conduct and the ethical responsibility of instructors and students.

STUDENT INTIMIDATION

Unfortunately, the reality is that female instructors and ESL instructors tend to receive the most direct student intimidation. If you feel you are being intimidated by a student, review the suggestions above. If these tips do not work, it is important to understand what are appropriate and inappropriate responses.

It is *not appropriate behavior* for the student to:

- blame you for something that results from his/her personal lack of responsibility.
- raise his/her voice.
- tell you that a grade is “your fault.”

It is *appropriate* to:

- talk about why the student is frustrated.
- talk about how the student can improve next time (i.e., on the next paper, test, or quiz).
- talk about the student’s explanation for what has kept him/her from excelling in the class. Side note: This does *not* mean this is a valid excuse, but it does mean that a student has the right to feel validated in explaining his/her perceived inadequacy(s).

If attempts at confronting the student do not work, you should:

- understand how to document problems *before* they become issues.
- recognize that your course coordinator is on your side and is available to intervene.
- be sure to schedule any anticipated “uncomfortable” conversations during office hours, and ask someone else to be present as a witness.

INAPPROPRIATE STUDENT COMMENTS

There is a balancing act between being approachable and being an authority figure. This balance may require some practice to achieve. You may be a target for inappropriate student conduct and/or comments, especially if you appear young, or “fun,” or are unable to establish credibility in the beginning of the semester. To help discourage inappropriate student comments, refer to the previous steps in guiding conversations toward appropriate discussion, and be sure to schedule disciplinary conversations during office hours (or while others are around) rather than at times when you are alone. Document *any* inappropriate conversations that occur and/or speak directly with your course coordinator.

To help avoid uncomfortable situations, you should:

- Dress professionally. Your appearance may help determine your ethos as an instructor.
- Discuss your credentials. Although many first-time instructors are only a year ahead of seniors, and may be younger than some non-traditional students, it is important for students to be aware of your qualifications.
- Tell your students you are excited about teaching the class and be honest when you don’t have all the answers.
- Use academic language as much as possible without talking over the heads of your students. Avoid slang words or curse words.
- Follow the rules stated in your syllabus (e.g., regarding accepting late work). Remember that respect has to be earned, so give your students every reason to respect you. This means you should also show them your respect.
- Have fun! Your students know when you do, and most likely they will too!

SERVICE LEARNING IN PUBLIC SPEAKING

Service learning has become an important part of many communication courses. Service learning is designed to get students out of the classroom in order to experience course concepts firsthand. When students are given the opportunity to provide service in their community, they are able to see firsthand how communication concepts work in the “real world.” Public speaking is one course that makes service learning easy to implement. There are several different types of service learning assignments that work well in a public speaking class. They are described below.

DEFINITION OF SERVICE LEARNING

Service learning typically features four characteristics:

1. Students offer service in the community.
2. Service is connected to course learning.
3. Learning is based upon structured reflection.
4. Students often are motivated to become more engaged in the future.

BENEFITS OF SERVICE LEARNING

Students benefit from service learning by applying skills learned in the classroom to real-life situations. For public speaking classes, service learning provides stu-

dents the opportunity to see the practical side of conducting audience analysis, researching a topic, and organizing a speech. Service learning allows students the opportunity to speak to diverse audiences, including audiences of different ages, interests, and needs. Furthermore, service learning allows students the chance to learn about services offered in their community. Students often feel a sense of accomplishment after giving a speech in their community.

SERVICE LEARNING PROJECTS

There are three types of service learning projects:

Direct Service: Volunteer with an agency

- Students can volunteer at local facilities including senior centers, at-risk youth facilities, or after-school programs. Students should participate in the activities occurring at the site, become familiar with the clients' interests and needs, and complete the volunteer service by delivering a speech to the clients. You may require that students volunteer a certain number of hours (perhaps ten to fifteen) per semester before delivering the speech.

Indirect: Provide a service to an agency

- Students can research an organization and provide a service to it; for example, creating a brochure for a nonprofit agency, designing a quilt for a women's shelter, or organizing a clothing drive for a local homeless shelter. Part of the assignment consists of conducting interviews to better understand the agency and its needs. Then, students should deliver a speech in class about the agency. This option works well for students with little time or who are otherwise unable to volunteer at an agency.

Civic Service: Support a social or political cause

- Students can become involved in a social or political cause. They can help create programs such as a local spring festival, soliciting participation from local organizations and businesses, or assist in promoting the passing of a referendum, giving speeches in the community, creating campaign signs, brochures, etc. This option may require the most time and effort from the student, but tends to be the most fulfilling.

GRADING SERVICE LEARNING PROJECTS

Because it is often difficult for you to attend speeches delivered outside of class, you may want to ask the agency supervisor to rate the student's performance in several areas, including attendance, participation, and speech performance. Although agency supervisors usually are not educated in public speaking, they can tell a good speech when they hear one. You may also ask students to write a critical reflection on their experience and attach a copy of their speech. Other options include having students videotape their performance or deliver the same speech in class.

For more information on Service Learning, see Isaacson, R. & Saperstein, J. (2005). *The Art and Strategy of Service-Learning Presentations*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

FAQ

1. *What happens if my lesson plan is too short?*

Although students may enjoy getting out of class early, they have planned to attend your lecture for the time allotted and expect to get their money's worth. On occasion, ending class a few minutes early may be okay; nevertheless, have additional activities prepared to fill extra time. An easy way to fill extra time with last minute activities is to have students do impromptu speeches or answer discussion questions. For an impromptu activity, have five students stand in front of the class to answer a spontaneous question. This is a great skill for students to rehearse. Sample questions include: What is your favorite pastime? What would you do if you won the lottery? What do you think about the new campus restaurant? Eventually, you will discover how many pages of notes, activities, and discussion questions are necessary to fill the allotted time. For more ideas for class activities, see the Instructor's Resource Manual's chapter-by-chapter analysis.

2. *How many pages of notes will get me through a 50-minute and 75-minute lesson?*

There is no specific number of pages that will guarantee a complete 50- or 75-minute lecture. The amount of notes necessary to fill a lecture will depend upon the activities included for the day. At first, it may be difficult for new instructors to know how long discussion questions, group activities, or critiquing sample speeches will take. However, it won't take long for you to discover what teaching strategy works best for you and how much material you will be able to cover during one class period. To begin, it is best to rehearse your lecture prior to class. This will give you an estimate of how long it will take to deliver. Prepare one or two additional activities, discussion questions, or the subsequent lecture's notes beforehand in case your planned lecture is too short. For additional activities, discussion questions, and lecture notes, refer to the chapter-by-chapter analysis in the IRM.

3. *What are the benefits of using technology (e.g., PowerPoint or overheads) to assist my lecture?*

Modern technology provides valuable resources for teaching and learning. Preparing lecture notes on PowerPoint or overhead transparencies allows you to store your lectures for future use, provides students with visuals to assist with notetaking, adds additional interest to lectures, and can reduce your nervousness by focusing students' attention on the screen or blackboard instead of directly on you.

4. *What are the drawbacks to using technology (e.g., PowerPoint or overheads) to assist my lecture?*

Unfortunately, using technology has a few drawbacks. The main drawback comes from relying solely on the use of technology so that if it fails to work, you are unable to deliver an effective lecture. To avoid this misfortune, always

print out copies of the overhead or PowerPoint slides and be familiar with the rules for using such technology. Limit the amount of information on each slide and refrain from using primary colors back-to-back because they are difficult for students to read. Also, follow the tips for using presentation aids listed in chapter 20 of ASG.

5. *How can I incorporate diversity into a homogenous class?*

Public speaking classes provide a wonderful opportunity to explore diversity. Whether you are teaching to a homogeneous or heterogeneous class, consider including video samples from speakers with diverse ethnic and cultural backgrounds. Research different cultural perspectives on communication. Instead of using names traditionally thought of as belonging to white North Americans as examples on exams, include names from other cultures. When using examples in lecture, consider using local, national, and international illustrations of diversity. Remember to be respectful and to create a safe environment for exploring diversity.

6. *What if my student asks me to join him/her outside of class (e.g., date, social event)?*

Most colleges and universities have a policy prohibiting instructors from seeing a student socially, at least during the semester in which the student attends their class. Before accepting any offers, check your campus policy. If you are unsure, it is best to decline any offers until the semester is completed and grades are turned in.

7. *What if my friend is in my class?*

Occasionally, first-time teaching assistants will know students in their class, especially assistants who recently graduated from the same college or university at which they are now teaching. When multiple public speaking classes are offered during the same semester, it would be appropriate to have your friend enroll in a different public speaking section. Then, your friendship as well as your credibility as an instructor will not be in jeopardy. If no other public speaking classes are offered, do not show favoritism, grade fairly, and set the ground rules early for the responsibilities of teacher and student. If necessary, engage in “blind grading” by having students submit their work under their student identification number rather than their name. This way, you are sure to grade fairly.

8. *What should I do if I think a student has a learning disability?*

It is not your place to diagnose a student’s learning ability or disability. If, however, you have noticed a student struggling, you can make suggestions for campus resources that may be helpful. Students who have been previously diagnosed with a disability should present a written notice from the Disability Services Office requesting special accommodations to meet their individual needs (e.g., having more time to take exams, having a student take notes for them, or taking exams in private). Remember, it is the student’s responsibility to report any disabilities that may present problems in completing class assignments.

9. *How can I avoid being nervous?*

A new instructor is likely to experience some nervousness before entering the classroom for the first time. Even seasoned instructors feel a little nervous at times. This anxiety is typically experienced just before entering the classroom, but should subside with time. Remember that students are just as nervous about taking a public speaking class and look to you as a model for overcoming anxiety. To help reduce this nervousness, make sure you attend class prepared for the day. Be familiar with the lesson plan and activities, and anticipate possible questions from your students. If possible, observe other public speaking instructors and ask for helpful strategies to overcome anxiety as well as for new ideas for teaching.

10. *What challenges will I face as an ESL instructor?*

As an ESL instructor, you may need to make a few adaptations to your lesson plans. To help ensure a positive and successful teaching experience, be sure you understand departmental and course expectations. If you are worried about language barriers, practice delivering your lecture beforehand, or ask other instructors to listen and provide feedback. You may want to use visual aids to assist lectures (e.g., PowerPoint, overhead transparencies, handouts). Remember to be honest with your students. It is okay to acknowledge when you are having difficulty understanding them and ask them to slow down or define words. If you are concerned about a student's complaint, or want to improve your teaching, ask the course director or a trusted colleague to sit in and offer advice. For more information on ESL, refer to chapter 3 of *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition.

11. *How can I help ESL students do well in class?*

Respect cultural differences when working with ESL students. ESL students may think, speak, or write differently from English-speaking or native-born speakers. To assist ESL students, you may need to work with them one-on-one after class or during office hours to familiarize them with outlining and speech organization. Make sure students feel comfortable. Remind them of the importance of asking questions. Encourage their participation in class to reinforce their speaking ability. Often, ESL students are afraid that others will not understand them. Acknowledge their concern and reinforce their capability of being understood.

12. *How do I respond to an inappropriate speech topic?*

It may be necessary to approve student speech topics before they begin preparing their speech. This will reduce the number of inappropriate topics (e.g., "how to get drunk on spring break") and increase the variety of speeches. Although students may inform you that it is their First Amendment right to speak on any topic of their liking, it is your responsibility and right as a teacher to provide a comfortable atmosphere for all students. You may approve sensitive or controversial topics (e.g., abortion) by requiring the student to turn in a draft of the speech prior to its presentation day. If a student unexpectedly de-

livers an inappropriate speech, be sure to discuss with them one-on-one your concerns about their speech topic. You may also encourage students to read chapter 2 of *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition, on the ethical responsibilities of speakers.

13. *What if a student cries during a speech?*

It is not uncommon for students to present an emotionally charged speech. Whether the student is delivering a commemorative speech on a parent or a persuasive speech advocating laws against cruelty towards animals, emotions can unexpectedly take over. If a student appears distraught during the speech, ask if he or she would like to take a minute to get a drink of water or step outside for some fresh air. After the student leaves the room, calmly move on to the next speaker. When the student returns, ask if he or she feels comfortable enough to finish the speech. If not, the student may want to complete the speech during office hours without a formal audience, turn in a copy of the speech and receive a slight grade penalty, or deliver a speech on a different topic.

14. *What if a student passes out during a speech?*

On a rare occasion, a student may experience such speech anxiety that he or she passes out. If this happens, remain calm and take control of the situation. If there is a phone in the room, contact campus police or the health clinic for assistance. If not, ask another student to get help while you remain in the classroom with the student. Often the student will regain consciousness in a matter of minutes. To help avoid such occurrences, be sure to allow students a drink of water, make sure they are breathing properly during their presentation, and never force a student who is experiencing severe anxiety to continue speaking. For more information on reducing speech anxiety, see chapter 6 of *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition.

15. *What if I suspect a student has plagiarized?*

Before accusing a student of plagiarism, be sure to investigate the incident thoroughly. Prior to discussing the incident with the student, review your institution's policy on plagiarism, and seek advice from the department chair or course supervisor. Then, ask the student to come to your office. If possible, provide additional documentation to support your allegation (e.g., a copy of the original source). Follow through on the appropriate consequence for the student. To help students avoid plagiarism, instruct students to review the definition of plagiarism in chapter 2 of *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, Second Edition.

USING THE *POCKET GUIDE* IN OTHER COURSES

INCORPORATING PUBLIC SPEAKING INTO YOUR COURSE

Perhaps this is the first time you have decided to incorporate a public speaking assignment as a requirement for your course. In this case, the first thing you need to do is read through Chapter 26 of the *Pocket Guide*, which summarizes the typical

types of classroom presentation formats that you can add to your list of assignments. Moreover, this information will be useful in developing the specific details of the assignment.

Public speaking presentations vary according to the type of course being taught. Chapters 27–33 highlight the most common speaking formats for certain college courses:

Chapter 27—“Science and Mathematics Courses”: The presentation formats include original research, methods/procedure, research overview, and field study presentations.

Chapter 28—“Technical Courses”: The presentation formats include the design review and the request for funding.

Chapter 29—“Social Science Courses”: The presentation formats include debates, a review of the literature, an explanatory research report, an evaluation research report, and a policy recommendation.

Chapter 30—“Arts and Humanities Courses”: The presentation formats include informative speeches of explanation, presentations that compare and contrast, and debates.

Chapter 31—“Education Courses”: The presentation formats include delivering a lecture, facilitating a group activity, and facilitating a classroom discussion.

Chapter 32—“Business Courses”: The most common presentation format is the case study.

Chapter 33—“Nursing and Allied Health Courses”: The most common presentation formats include the community service learning project, treatment-plan report, and policy recommendation report.

In addition, be sure to read through the particular chapter in Part 8 of the *Pocket Guide* that pertains to your area of study to get more ideas on the types of presentations that are important in that content area. Once you determine an appropriate assignment for your course, you need to determine how much classroom time can be devoted to learning more about public speaking, both in terms of the assignment and the presentation. Please see Part 2 of this manual, “Organizing and Structuring a Public Speaking Course,” for specific suggestions.

Part 2

Organizing and Structuring a Public Speaking Course

The following resources are provided to help instructors structure and organize the introduction to a public speaking course:

- sample syllabi
- student's record of grades
- information sheet for instructor
- sample course schedules (three versions)
- descriptions of speech assignments
- sample student outlines
- guidelines and suggestions for evaluating student speeches
- evaluating online sources
- speech evaluation sheets

SAMPLE SYLLABUS

The following syllabus represents what an instructor might typically expect of a student taking the Introduction to Public Speaking course. These requirements should be adapted to fit the expectations of the individual instructor and the policies and requirements of the school where the course is offered.

Public Speaking Syllabus

Course Description: Students will learn the skills and strategies needed to prepare and deliver ceremonial, informative, and persuasive speeches. Special consideration is given to adapting communication styles and content to diverse speakers and audiences. This course emphasizes how to compose meaningful and coherent messages; how to conduct responsible research on appropriate topics; and how to argue, develop, and polish effective presentation skills.

Course Objective/Rationale: During the course, you will be asked to stand before a group and deliver information, argue a position, present an award, introduce a guest speaker, or honor a special event. It is important that you command the audience's attention and present yourself as a competent and credible speaker. In this course, you will be asked to present four speeches. The goal is for you to gain more confidence in communicating in public contexts.

Instructor:

Voice mail:

ext.

E-mail address:

Office room no.:

Office hours:

Required textbook: O'Hair, D., Rubenstein, H., & Stewart, R. (2007). *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking*, 2e. Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's.

Student Learning Objectives

1. Students will learn how to construct (research, outline, and organize) public speeches for delivery to audiences.
2. Students will be able to deliver ceremonial, informative, and persuasive speeches.
3. Students will develop analytical and critical listening skills.
4. Students will learn how to successfully manage their apprehension about communicating in public contexts.

Attendance: You are expected to attend all classes. Absences require a physician's note that you are to be excused. Do not be late for class. **Coming to class late or leaving early will be counted as an absence for the entire class period.**

The following is the Department of Communication's absenteeism policy:

- a maximum of three absences for Monday/Wednesday/Friday classes
- a maximum of two absences for Tuesday/Thursday classes
- a maximum of one absence for night and summer classes

Absences beyond the allotted amount will result in a 10-point reduction from your final grade for each occurrence.

Inform your instructor if an emergency prevents you from giving a speech on an assigned date.

If you are absent during your scheduled speaking time, a grade of 0 will be assigned unless you present a physician's note within twenty-four hours. If you are absent or tardy for any reason, you are responsible for finding out what material was covered and whether any announcements were made.

Text: Dan O’Hair, Hannah Rubenstein, and Rob Stewart’s *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking, 2e*, is the text for this course. It is available at the university bookstore. Daily reading assignments from the text are listed on the course schedule. Read the material *before* you come to class.

Exams: **Three 75-point exams** will be given during the semester. Each exam will consist of twenty-five standard multiple-choice questions worth 50 points, and multiple-choice, short-answer, fill-in-the-blank, and/or essay questions worth 25 points. These questions are constructed by the instructor and cover information from the text and lectures from class.

Preparation: Speeches and Written Assignments

You will be required to deliver four speeches. You will be evaluated on your skill in selecting and researching a topic, organizing and delivering your speeches, and following instructor requirements. You will be evaluated on the criteria on the grading sheet(s), or your ability to adapt while presenting the information orally, and on your adherence to time limits.

If you do not deliver your speech within the specified time frame, your grade will suffer. **The penalty is 5 points for every minute that a speech is over or under time, and 3 points for intervals of less than 60 seconds.**

Note: On each day that you are scheduled to perform a speech, you must turn in two typed copies of your outline and your grading sheet. One outline will be graded and returned to you; the other copy will be kept in the course administration file. If you fail to turn in the required copies, you will receive a 0 for the entire assignment. In addition, failure to complete all speaking assignments will result in a final course grade of F. In short, no outline (or grading sheet), no speech. No speech, and you will fail the course regardless of your overall average.

You must prepare an outline for each speech. All written assignments are to be neatly typed, double-spaced on 8½-by-11-inch white paper with 1-inch margins. Follow APA (American Psychological Association) guidelines regarding fonts, headings, and pagination. Incomplete sentences and mistakes in grammar, punctuation, and spelling will adversely affect your grade.

To gain a better understanding of the similarities, differences, and connections between oral and written communication, you will also submit a four- to six-page research paper on the topic you select for your informative speech. (Note: You are required to turn in *two copies* of your informative research paper. **You must complete this assignment in order to pass this course.**)

Self-Evaluation: You are required to give a blank videotape to your instructor so that one of your speeches can be videotaped for self-evaluation. Each instructor will select the speech to be recorded, so check with your instructor for the date you need to bring the tape to class.

Speech Critiques

You will critique two speeches either inside the classroom setting (e.g., guest speaker, competition tapes) or outside of it (e.g., speakers on campus, in the city council, at church). If the instructor does not provide this opportunity during class time, you are responsible for critiquing a speaker at an out-of-class function. You must bring proof of your attendance (e.g., pamphlet,

handout, note, ticket stub). One evaluation must be turned in by the end of the eighth week of class. The second evaluation must be turned in by the last (fifteenth) week of class.

Grades: You will be graded in this class based on (1) the number of points you earn for each exam, speech, and written assignment and (2) your class participation. The total number of points available for the semester is 1000. Keep track of your scores on the Student's Record of Grades form. At the end of the semester, add up your points, and use the following chart to determine your letter grade. Your instructor will not average your grade for you.

A	=	1000–900
B	=	899–800
C	=	799–700
D	=	699–600
F	=	under 600 points

Special Notes

Academic Misconduct: The guidelines in the *Student Code of Responsibility and Conduct* will be upheld in this course. According to the Academic Misconduct Code:

Academic misconduct includes (a) cheating (using unauthorized materials, information, or study aids in any academic exercise, plagiarism, falsification of records, unauthorized possession of examinations, intimidation, any and all other actions that may improperly affect the evaluation of a student's academic performance or achievement); (b) assisting others in any such act; or (c) attempts to engage in such acts.

Academic misconduct will not be tolerated and will be severely penalized, resulting in a failing grade for the class. The appropriate dean will be notified of academic misconduct and complaints handled according to university policy.

To avoid the possibility of the use of recycled speeches or papers on campus and the downloading of speeches from the Internet, each student will be required to turn in two copies of written assignments. One copy will be returned to you after your instructor has graded it. The second copy will be given to the course director and kept in a permanent file.

Reasonable Accommodation: Students who have a disability that may prevent them from fully demonstrating their abilities should contact the instructor or the course director as soon as possible so that accommodations can be made to ensure their full participation and to facilitate their educational opportunities.

Student's Record of Grades

Speeches

Ceremonial Speech	____/50
Informative Speech	____/140
Persuasive Speech	____/160
Group Presentation	____/125

Exams

First Exam	____/75
Second Exam	____/75
Third Exam	____/75

Instructor Points

Team Workshops Activity (optional)	____/100
Assurance Readiness Quizzes (optional)	
Class Participation (optional)	
PowerPoint Activity (optional)	

Other Required Assignments

Informative Communication Research Paper	____/100
Self-Evaluation	____/25
Peer Evaluation	____/25
Speech Critiques (2 @ 25 points)	____/50

Subtotal _____/1000

Less _____ **absences** × 10 points each _____

TOTAL _____

NOTE: It is your responsibility to record your grades for this class. Do not expect your instructor to subtotal your grades for you during the course or at the conclusion of the semester.

Information Sheet for Instructor

Name _____

Phone _____ Class Level _____

Major and Concentration _____

What are some other communication classes you have taken? Where were they taken?

What are your career objectives? What do you hope to gain from this course to meet those objectives?

Do you have any concerns about completing this course?

Do you understand the policies set forth in the syllabus? If you do and you agree to abide by them, please sign below. If you have any questions or concerns, please see your instructor as soon as possible.

Signature

Date

Note: Complete this form and give it to your instructor during the first two weeks of classes.

SAMPLE COURSE SCHEDULES

Three sample course schedules follow—for courses offered within a semester system, a quarter system, and a summer session.

Semester Schedule (Tentative)**15 weeks**

WEEK	Speeches, Lectures, and Exams	Readings
1	Syllabus Becoming a Public Speaker Listeners and Speakers Ethical Public Speaking	Ch. 1 Ch. 3 Ch. 2
2	Discuss Ceremonial Speech Assignment Speaking on Special Occasions Managing Speech Anxiety From A to Z: Overview of a Speech	Ch. 25 Ch. 6 Ch. 5
3	Analyzing the Audience Selecting a Topic and Purpose Organizing the Speech Exam 1 (Chapters 1–3, 5–8, 12, 25)	Ch. 7 Ch. 8 Ch. 12
4	Speech 1: Ceremonial Speeches (outlines due) Speech 1: Ceremonial Speeches Speech 1: Ceremonial Speeches	
5	Selecting an Organizational Pattern Outlining the Speech Developing the Introduction and Conclusion	Ch. 13 Ch. 14 Ch. 15
6	Introduce Informative Speech/Paper Assignments Informative Speaking Developing Supporting Material Locating Supporting Material Doing Effective Internet Research	Ch. 23 Ch. 9 Ch. 10 Ch. 11
7	Using Language Exam 2 (Chapters 9–11, 13–16, 23)	Ch. 16
8	Speech 2: Informative Speeches (outlines due) Speech 2: Informative Speeches Speech 2: Informative Speeches	

Quarter Schedule (Tentative)

12 weeks

WEEK	Speeches, Lectures, and Exams	Readings
1	Syllabus Becoming a Public Speaker Listeners and Speakers Ethical Public Speaking Managing Speech Anxiety	Ch. 1 Ch. 3 Ch. 2 Ch. 6
2	Discuss Ceremonial Speech Assignment Speaking on Special Occasions From A to Z: Overview of a Speech Analyzing the Audience	Ch. 25 Ch. 5 Ch. 7
3	Selecting a Topic and Purpose Organizing Main and Supporting Points Exam 1 (Chapters 1–3, 5-8, 12, 25)	Ch. 8 Ch. 12
4	Speech 1: Ceremonial Speeches (outlines due) Speech 1: Ceremonial Speeches Developing Supporting Material Locating Supporting Material Doing Effective Internet Research	Ch. 9 Ch. 10 Ch. 11
5	Selecting an Organizational Pattern Outlining the Speech Introduce Informative Speech/Paper Assignments Informative Speaking	Ch. 13 Ch. 14 Ch. 23
6	Developing the Introduction and Conclusion Using Language Exam 2 (Chapters 9–11, 13-16, 23)	Ch. 15 Ch. 16
7	Speech 2: Informative Speeches (outlines due) Speech 2: Informative Speeches Speech 2: Informative Speeches	
8	Discuss Persuasive Speech Assignment Persuasive Speaking Types of Presentation Aids Designing Presentation Aids A Brief Guide to Microsoft PowerPoint	Ch. 24 Ch. 20 Ch. 21 Ch. 22

9	Choosing a Method of Delivery	Ch. 17
	Controlling the Voice	Ch. 18
	Using the Body	Ch. 19
	Exam 3 (Chapters 17–22, 24)	
10	Speech 3: Persuasive Speeches (outlines due)	
	Speech 3: Persuasive Speeches	
	Speech 3: Persuasive Speeches	
11	Discuss Group Presentation Assignment	
	Communicating in Groups	Ch. 34
	Business and Professional Presentations	Ch. 35
	Social Science Courses	Ch. 29
12	Speech 4: Group Presentation (outlines due)	
	Speech 4: Group Presentation	
	Speech 4: Group Presentation	

Summer Session Schedule (Tentative)

4 weeks

Week 1	Speeches, Lectures, and Exams	Readings
Day 1	Syllabus Becoming a Public Speaker Discuss Ceremonial Speech Assignment Speaking on Special Occasions	Ch. 1 Ch. 25
Day 2	Listeners and Speakers Managing Speech Anxiety From A to Z: Overview of a Speech	Ch. 3 Ch. 6 Ch. 5
Day 3	Selecting a Topic and Purpose Analyzing the Audience Organizing the Speech	Ch. 8 Ch. 7 Ch. 12
Day 4	Exam 1 (Chapters 1, 3, 5–8, 12, 25) Discuss and Work on Ceremonial Speeches	
Day 5	Speech 1: Ceremonial Speeches Speech 1: Ceremonial Speeches Speech 1: Ceremonial Speeches	
Week 2		
Day 6	Introduce Informative Speech/Paper Assignments Informative Speaking Selecting an Organizational Pattern Outlining the Speech	Ch. 23 Ch. 13 Ch. 14
Day 7	Developing the Introduction and Conclusion Using Language	Ch. 15 Ch. 16
Day 8	Developing Supporting Material Locating Supporting Material Doing Effective Internet Research	Ch. 9 Ch. 10 Ch. 11
Day 9	Exam 2 (Chapters 9–11, 13–15, 22–23) (Start Speech 2: Informative Speeches, if you need more than one day for speeches.)	
Day 10	Speech 2: Informative Speeches (paper due) Speech 2: Informative Speeches Speech 2: Informative Speeches	

Week 3

Day 11	Discuss Persuasive Speech Assignment Persuasive Speaking	Ch. 24
Day 12	Types of Presentation Aids Designing Presentation Aids A Brief Guide to Using Microsoft PowerPoint Library Time for Research for Speech	Ch. 20 Ch. 21 Ch. 22
Day 13	Choosing a Method of Delivery Controlling the Voice Using the Body	Ch. 17 Ch. 18 Ch. 19
Day 14	Exam 3 (Chapters 17–22, 24) (Start Speech 3: Persuasive Speeches, if you need more than one day for speeches.)	
Day 15	Speech 3: Persuasive Speeches (outlines due) Speech 3: Persuasive Speeches Speech 3: Persuasive Speeches	

Week 4

Day 16	Discuss Group Presentation Assignment Communicating in Groups Ethical Public Speaking	Ch. 34 Ch. 2
Day 17	Business and Professional Presentations	Ch. 35
Day 18	Social Science Courses Work on Speech 4: Group Presentation	Ch. 29
Day 19	Speech 4: Group Presentation (outlines due) Speech 4: Group Presentation Speech 4: Group Presentation	
Day 20	Speech 4: Group Presentation (outlines due) Speech 4: Group Presentation Speech 4: Group Presentation	

DESCRIPTIONS OF SPEECH ASSIGNMENTS

The following pages present descriptions of speech assignments normally required of students in the introductory public speaking course. Detailed assignments are provided for the ceremonial speech, the informative speech, and the persuasive speech. Also provided are optional assignments for an informative communication research paper and assignments for group presentation.

Each description is followed by a detailed sample outline, which can be reproduced for student use.

The section following this one provides a sample student outline for each type of speech described here.

Description for Speech 1

Ceremonial Speech

Time: 2–3 minutes

The ceremonial speech provides students with practice in preparing and delivering a basic public speech. The content of this speech should be a fictional speech of introduction, toast, or eulogy concerning an individual or individuals with whom the audience is familiar. Choose a person to speak about (e.g., a historical figure, a current film or television star, a person in the class), and construct a speech that discusses his or her qualifications or positive personal qualities.

The goal is to learn how to (1) adapt a topic to your audience, (2) use a clear presentational pattern, (3) present an extemporaneous speech, and (4) formulate a key-word outline (which you will turn in to your instructor *before* you give your speech). You must:

- conduct an audience analysis in order to understand the audience's interests
- provide an introduction to gain the audience's attention and a clear, relevant statement of purpose
- use a clear organizational pattern that allows the audience to follow your speech (follow your key-word outline)
- provide closure and leave the audience with information that is interesting

Examples of Topics

- speech of introduction for the president of the United States
- toast at the wedding of two well-known television stars
- eulogy for a famous historical figure

Hints: Remember, this speech can mix factual events with fictional events. Be creative! Make sure that you focus on the interesting aspects of your speech topic. Do not merely provide a list of the events or achievements. Create a vivid and memorable image that will be interesting to the audience.

Outline Worksheet for Ceremonial Speech 1

Title:

Speaker:

Specific Purpose:

Thesis Statement:

Introduction

- I. Attention-getter:
- II. Establishment of ethos:
- III. Thematic statement:
- IV. Preview (each main point):

First ...

Next ...

Finally ...

(Transition)

Body

- I. Main idea 1 (narrative/story)

(Internal summary)

(Transition to conclusion)

- II. Main idea 2 (significance of narrative)

(Internal summary)

(Transition to conclusion)

Conclusion

- I. Summary:
- II. Review (each main point):
- III. Tie to the introduction:
- IV. Creative concluding thought (end with impact):

Description for Speech 2

Organizing and Outlining the Informative Speech

Time: 4–5 minutes

All informative speeches have an identifiable introduction, body, and conclusion *with at least three verbal citations*.

Introduction: The introduction should compel the audience to listen (with an attention-getter) and provide a preview. The preview usually includes the thesis statement and an overview of the main points.

Body: Most informative speeches should contain no more than three main points, organized in a way that helps the audience make sense of the message. Once the main points and organizational pattern are set, identify what evidence supports which main point and place these sub-points in the correct location.

Conclusion: All informative speeches should include a brief summary of the main points. No new information should be given to the audience in the conclusion. An effective conclusion leaves the audience thinking about the speaker's message.

Outlining the Informative Speech: A detailed outline is mandatory and should include the following sections: title, statement of specific purpose, thesis statement, introduction, body (including internal summaries and transitions), conclusion, and references.

Outline Worksheet for Informative Speech 2

Title:

Speaker:

Specific Purpose:

Thesis Statement:

Introduction

- I. Attention-getter:
- II. Establishment of ethos:
- III. Thematic statement:
- IV. Preview (each main point):

First ...

Next ...

Finally ...

(Transition)

Body

- I. Main idea 1
 - A. Subpoint and/or supporting material (such as a statistic or a quotation)
 1. Sub-subpoint (optional)
 2. Sub-subpoint (optional)
 - B. Subpoint and/or supporting material
 1. Sub-subpoint (optional)
 2. Sub-subpoint (optional)

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

II. Main idea 2

A. Subpoint and/or supporting material

1. Sub-subpoint (optional)

2. Sub-subpoint (optional)

B. Subpoint and/or supporting material

1. Sub-subpoint (optional)

2. Sub-subpoint (optional)

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

III. Main idea 3

A. Subpoint and/or supporting material

1. Sub-subpoint (optional)

2. Sub-subpoint (optional)

B. Subpoint and/or supporting material

1. Sub-subpoint (optional)

2. Sub-subpoint (optional)

(Internal summary)

(Transition to conclusion)

Conclusion

I. Summarize (overall theme):

II. Review (each main point):

III. Tie to the introduction:

IV. Creative concluding thought (end with impact):

References

Description for the Informative Communication Research Paper (Optional Assignment)

Purpose: To enhance social-science research writing skills by applying, analyzing, and transforming the informative research topic into a cohesive, succinct research paper. The goal is for students to gain a better understanding of the similarities, differences, and connections between oral and written communication. Ideally, each paper should cite at least four credible sources (e.g., academic journals, books). Students should cite sources from the Internet cautiously, making sure they are credible. Finally, students are encouraged to consult their instructor for further information on citing credible sources.

Requirements: This paper must be four to six pages in length, excluding references. Additional sources and references are strongly encouraged (e.g., in addition to the text). Students must submit two copies of the paper. One copy will be returned; the other will stay on file. In addition, the paper should be solidly organized and use correct grammar and spelling. (Specific requirements can be found on the following page.) This paper is expected to include:

1. an introduction (with a thesis statement)
2. a body (with three or four main ideas and supporting material)
3. a conclusion (with a brief discussion)

Points: Please submit two copies of the paper. Specific grading criteria can be found on the following page. **A letter grade will be deducted for each day the paper is late. All papers must be typed. No exceptions!**

Informative Communication Research Paper Requirements

A Paper

- two copies of paper
- four or more additional sources
- exceptional grammar
- no spelling errors
- APA format
- critical analysis of chosen topic
- exceptional organization
- 4 to 6 pages long, excluding references

B Paper

- two copies of paper
- three or more additional sources
- few grammatical errors
- few spelling errors
- insightful analysis
- acceptable organization
- 4 to 6 pages long, excluding references

C Paper

- one copy of paper
- at least one additional source
- three or more grammatical errors
- three or more spelling errors
- acceptable analysis
- some organization
- 4 to 6 pages long, excluding references

D Paper

- one copy of paper
- no additional sources
- fails to meet one or more requirements of a C paper
- excessive number of grammatical or spelling errors, or both

F Paper

- does not follow assignment
- is unoriginal work
- is plagiarized

Description for Speech 3

Organizing and Outlining the Persuasive Speech—Action

Time: 5–6 minutes

Organization plays a central role in a persuasive speech: the speech must logically establish why the audience must change. (Unless audience members believe there is something wrong with what they are doing or feeling, they are unlikely to change.) Although other persuasive designs are also effective in preempting psychological resistance to change, the most widely used organizational pattern for public-speaking is Monroe's motivated sequence.

- A. Monroe's motivated sequence (problem-solution format)
 - 1. Gain the audience's attention. Attention-getters grab the audience, arousing curiosity about what the speaker is going to say. To help avoid the effects of psychological resistance, the preview statement should be omitted.
 - 2. Identify unfulfilled needs. The speaker must establish a clear, urgent, and unfulfilled need in the mind of the audience. This is a critical step in the sequence. No solutions should be proposed during this stage.
 - 3. Propose a solution that satisfies. Present the solution to the needs or problems described in Step 2. During this stage, speakers must also identify and eliminate possible objections to the solution.
 - 4. Visualize the resulting satisfaction. Intensify audience members' desire for the solution by getting them to visualize what their lives will be like once they've adopted it. Use vivid images and verbal illustrations to support the benefits of the proposed solution.
 - 5. Define specific actions. In the final step, the speaker must turn the audience's agreement and commitment into positive action. Tell audience members what they need to do to obtain the described solution and its benefits.

- B. Making the most of Monroe's motivated sequence
To make the most of Monroe's motivated sequence, the steps should be followed in sequence. The sequence closely resembles a problem-solution organizational format, but it digresses from linear logic in several ways. In the attention step, the structure deviates from linearity by noting potential objections and dispelling audience concerns or problems with a solution. The most critical principle in Monroe's sequence is the identification of the audience's needs before proposing a solution.

- C. Outlining the persuasive speech
Each of the five steps in Monroe's motivated sequence should be represented by a Roman numeral. Main points and subpoints are represented by capital letters and numbers, respectively. (See the following outline worksheet.)

Outline Worksheet for Monroe's Motivated Sequence

Persuasive Speech 3

Title:

Speaker:

Specific Purpose:

I. Introduction

- A. Attention-getter:
- B. Establishment of ethos:

(Transition)

II. Need

- A. Main idea 1 with supporting material (such as a statistic or quotation)
 - 1. Subpoint (optional)
 - 2. Subpoint (optional)
- B. Main idea 2 with supporting material
 - 1. Subpoint (optional)
 - 2. Subpoint (optional)

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

III. Satisfaction

- A. Main idea 3 with supporting material
 - 1. Subpoint (optional)
 - 2. Subpoint (optional)

B. Main idea 4 with supporting material

1. Subpoint (optional)
2. Subpoint (optional)

(Internal summary)
(Transition)

IV. Visualization

A. Main idea 5 with supporting material

1. Subpoint (optional)
2. Subpoint (optional)

B. Main idea 6 with supporting material

1. Subpoint (optional)
2. Subpoint (optional)

(Internal summary)
(Transition to conclusion)

V. Action

A. Summarize and review taking action

(overall theme including each step of Monroe's motivated sequence)

B. Tie to the introduction

C. Creative concluding thought (end with impact)

References

Group Presentation Option 1

A Professional Presentation—Learning to Use PowerPoint

Rationale: The assignment provides students with the opportunity to work on a team to develop a professional presentation that incorporates the use of Microsoft PowerPoint technology. Students spend many years developing the knowledge and skills of their professional specialty, yet most expend almost no effort studying how to communicate them. “Brilliance without the capability to communicate it is worth little to any enterprise” (Wilden & Fine, 1994). Leaders in many fields rank presentation skills as a top need for employees, and in today’s world presentation skills include technological skills. More and more businesses are using electronic equipment to make presentations, yet those assigned such tasks are not always sure how to do them. As companies make greater capital investments in presentation technology, employees often find themselves struggling to use it properly. As Jim Delany, an employee of Syntax states: “The competition is using multimedia presentation to present to our customers, and we want to know how to do it.”

Purpose: The goal of the professional presentation is for students to learn how to:

- persuade (change attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors)
- sharpen and expand their creative skills
- acquire the knowledge and skills needed to use PowerPoint software
- learn to give presentations using multimedia technology

Description of PowerPoint Assignment

Groups of Five Students

Time: 20–25 minutes

Using information in Chapter 22, “A Brief Guide to Microsoft PowerPoint,” each group will be responsible for creating a professional presentation on PowerPoint software, and then giving the presentation using an LCD projector or computer. In order to accomplish this task, groups will be required to complete the following:

1. Define the intended audience, and do an audience analysis (in order to understand the audience’s interests and needs). You will be giving your presentation to your classmates.
2. Choose either a product or service to sell or a strategy to recommend to the intended audience.
3. The product, service, or recommendation can be either something that currently exists or something that is made up. Groups can brainstorm and use their creativity to invent new products, services, and recommendations.
4. Design a PowerPoint presentation using the outline provided. Presentations should have as many slides as it takes to cover all points thoroughly. Groups should use a clear organizational pattern that allows the audience to follow the presentation. Internal summaries and transitions should not be marked on the slides but, rather, should be done orally to conclude one main point and begin another.
5. Groups should be creative and unique in designing their slides. They might use a running theme, color coordination (for which there are predesigned templates), photos and clip art, sound effects and songs, or movie clips.

Examples of Topics

- a professional presentation selling a product
- a professional presentation selling an idea
- a professional presentation recommendation

Hints: Remember, topics can be existing products, ideas, or recommendations, or they can be created by the team. This speech can mix factual events with fictional events. *Be creative!* Make sure that you focus on the *beneficial aspects* of your speech topic: you are trying to *persuade* your audience. You want to create a vivid and memorable presentation that will result in the audience’s acceptance of your product, idea, or recommendation.

Outline Worksheet for Group Presentation Option 1

Title:

Speakers:

Specific Purpose:

Intended Audience:

I. Introduction

- A. Attention-getter:
- B. Identify the intended audience:
- C. Establishment of ethos:
- D. Thematic statement: selling a product or a service
- E. Introduce group members and the topic each will be speaking on.

(Transition—to the next speaker)

II. Overview

- A. Briefly describe the product or service.
- B. Describe the problems your product/service solves.
- C. Outline the different models available.

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

III. Features and Benefits

- A. Outline the features of your product. Group features in logical categories, and state the benefit of each feature (use one slide per category).

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

IV. Applications

- A. Discuss how the product or service can be used by different groups (giving real examples when possible).

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

V. Specifications

- A. For products, give relevant technical specifications (using as many slides as necessary).
- B. For services, detail the terms and conditions under which the service is offered.

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

VI. Pricing

- A. Detail the product models available, and list specific prices for each model and additional options.

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

VII. Availability

- A. List availability dates.
- B. Describe where the product can be purchased, or where orders should be directed.

VIII. Conclusion

- A. Summarize the major theme of the speech.

Group Presentation Option 2

Introduction to Debate and Argumentation

by Philip D. Dalton

Introduction

People engage in different types of persuasive encounters and disagreements every day. From political discussions to television advertisements, attempts are constantly being made to persuade us to act or think differently. Unfortunately, as productive as these encounters can be, many of them result in unproductive heated arguments.

Scholars and people whose professions include arguing, such as attorneys and politicians, have helped develop several concepts that make the argument or debating process more productive. Three steps will be outlined here: (1) people in a debate or an argument must precisely identify the point of disagreement between parties; (2) both parties must fully understand what their burden is in attempting to support their positions; and (3) participants should be knowledgeable and competent users of methods of refutation in order to properly test the validity of their opponent's claims.

Section I: Classifying Arguments

Stasis

The concept of stasis is used to help identify exactly why two parties in an argument disagree. Stasis is the point at which agreement ends. It is the cause that generates, determines, and characterizes a controversy (Loeb Dieter, 1950). To make this clearer, let's visualize an argument as two people walking toward each other on a catwalk. Once they meet, all movement stops. The two people on the catwalk are forced to negotiate a way that will allow both parties to pass. Similarly, in an argument stasis is the point at which mutual agreement halts. Once the point of disagreement is clearly identified, the duties of the disagreeing parties are easier to deal with.

One example that clearly illustrates the concept of stasis is the first O.J. Simpson trial. Simpson pleaded not guilty to the charge of murdering his ex-wife, Nicole Brown Simpson. The disagreement between the defense and the prosecution was clear. In addition, the duties of Mr. Simpson's attorneys and the prosecuting attorneys were distinct. The prosecutors would argue that enough evidence existed to prove Mr. Simpson's guilt beyond a reasonable doubt, while the defense would argue that not enough evidence existed to convict Mr. Simpson. No other questions or arguments were relevant.

Another example demonstrates how a failure to identify the point of stasis can make a disagreement unclear and unproductive. The 1996 presidential election dealt with the issue of "building bridges." President Bill Clinton claimed that he wanted to "build a bridge to the 21st century." Likewise, his opponent, Senator Bob Dole, asked people at the Republican National Convention to allow him to be a "bridge to the past." While it is clear that neither candidate was actually proposing the construction of a time-bridge to take us ahead or back in time, it is less clear what either of them hoped to accomplish. Because neither candidate managed to state

clearly what he wished to do as president, his opponent could not refute his position. The point of stasis was never made clear. Similar situations arise with our parents, friends, or roommates. Can you identify with the following conversation between two roommates?

Steve: "The room is a mess. Could you either clean up or at least keep your mess in your area where I don't need to deal with it?"

Mike: "Hey, you aren't the cleanest person either. Are you ever going to take the trash out?"

Steve: "I would take the trash out if I was the one putting trash in it. I don't even stay here anymore on account of the room being so messy."

Mike: "You never liked me. You're a jerk, and I'm glad you're never here!"

Here, what begins as a discussion about the cleanliness of a dorm room evolves into a barrage of personal criticism. The original statement by Steve suggests that the disagreement revolves around how clean the room should be or whether Mike should be making more of an effort to keep it clean. The chance of resolving this dispute slips away as Mike increasingly focuses the disagreement on Steve's character. If this conversation continued, it is unlikely that it would be resolved.

In academic debates as well as in public and personal arguments, it is beneficial for both parties to agree on what the point of stasis is. Intercollegiate debate associations propose "resolutions," which students then argue over in competition for an entire school year. The resolution clearly identifies the duties of those who argue in favor of the proposal and those who argue against the proposal. For instance, the Cross Examination Debate Association, a national collegiate debate association, once used the resolution "Advertising degrades the quality of life." One side would affirm or support the resolution, while the other side would negate or attempt to disprove the truth of the resolution. Arguments regarding other issues were considered off-task and irrelevant.

In public arguments, such as debates between candidates or policy arguments on C-Span or in the news, points of stasis are usually made very clear. Congressional arguments over the Balanced Budget Amendment are a good example. In this debate, members of the U.S. Senate and the U.S. House of Representatives generally argued whether an amendment to the Constitution should be passed that would require the federal government to spend no more money than it collects in taxes. Although senators and Congress members disagreed over the general concept of the amendment, there were far more specific points of stasis. These points of stasis included questions regarding the need to spend borrowed money during times of war, the harm that would be done to those who were affected by spending cuts, and disagreements over the economic benefits of deficit spending. These specific questions led to changes in the proposal, as well as to research into the validity of the questions being asked by various senators and Congress members.

Personal arguments also benefit from a clear identification of disagreement. Instead of allowing the argument to wander, as Steve and Mike do in the example above, knowing exactly what

they would like to accomplish in an argument before beginning it allows the parties involved to assess whether they are staying on task and have been successful in communicating their positions.

Ceremonial, Deliberative, and Forensic, and Fact, Value, and Policy

Once two parties engaged in a discussion have decided precisely what they disagree over, it helps to classify the disagreement. This section will describe two different ways to classify arguments and the benefits of these classification schemes. The first scheme is *ceremonial, deliberative, and forensic*. These classifications were first identified by Aristotle (Lawson-Tancred, 1991). They provide a useful way of looking at different types of arguments. In addition, arguments are often discussed as matters of fact, value, and policy (Warnick & Inch, 1994). The use of both of these schemes allows arguers to better understand how their positions differ and what responsibilities both parties have for establishing the validity of their claims.

First, let us look at ceremonial, deliberative, and forensic forms of argument. These three categories are described as three different purposes for addressing an audience (Lawson-Tancred, 1991). Ceremonial speeches are primarily given for entertainment reasons. Examples of a ceremonial speech include eulogies, toasts, introductions, and award presentations and acceptances. Though it may seem unclear what argumentative role a ceremonial speech plays, in many situations the speaker is either praising or blaming the object of the speech. An argument or a “case” is being made that establishes either the positive or negative qualities of an individual or a group. For example, when a nomination speech is given for a public office, a case is made regarding the qualifications of that person.

Deliberative and forensic arguments are what are more traditionally recognized as arguments. While ceremonial arguments deal with praise or blame, deliberative and forensic arguments are different because of the nature of what they are trying to establish. More specifically, a deliberative argument is one that focuses on future occurrences (Lawson-Tancred, 1991). The U.S. Congress deliberates over the success or failure of policies. They may argue that the nation is headed toward either success or disaster. In either case, the future cannot be known for certain. Instead, the success of an argument is based solely on the persuasiveness of the arguer and his or her evidence. For example, let us pretend that the U.S. Senate is arguing over the qualities of a new gun-control initiative. Senator Barbara Boxer has proposed a law that would require gun owners to take competency tests. Topics of arguments on the floor of the Senate could range from future ability to pay for the enforcement of this law to estimated reductions in accidental shootings. The answers to either of these topics cannot be known for certain. Instead, well-supported and well-researched arguments must be pieced together to convince other senators that the government should take this action.

Forensic arguments are very different. Instead of dealing with future successes or failures, a forensic arguer tries to establish the certainty of a past occurrence, or that a person definitely performed a specific act. The television show *CSI: Crime Scene Investigation* centers around a group of forensic experts working at a crime lab who employ scientific and technical methods to solve crimes. In real life, it is often the daily job of attorneys to engage in forensic arguments. Prosecutors must prove to a judge or a jury, without a reasonable doubt, that a person is re-

sponsible for a specific act. For instance, federal prosecutors had to prove that Timothy McVeigh performed the act of blowing up the Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma City.

These three types of argument help arguers classify what they are discussing. If the parties in an argument recognize that the argument is of a certain variety, they will better understand how they differ, how their differences can be made clearer, and what responsibilities each arguer has to “prove” his or her case.

Another way to categorize arguments is to classify them as propositions of fact, value, or policy. These categories allow arguers to decide which issues or questions to address in an argument (Warnick & Inch, 1994). Some propositions make an arguer’s job easier to identify than others. The simplest of the three types of propositions is that of fact. A person who supports a proposition of fact is arguing that something is or is not. For example, people argue that aliens exist, black holes exist, or that King Arthur never existed. The burden for these arguers is simple: they must provide evidence demonstrating the existence or likely existence of a certain person or phenomenon. More difficult than proving that something does exist is proving that something does not exist. The late astronomer Carl Sagan knew this principle well when he challenged theologians to provide evidence establishing the existence of God. For lack of evidence, Sagan knew that he could not prove that God does not exist (Adler, 1997). Instead, he challenged the religious establishment to put forth its own evidence.

Propositions of value pose a more difficult task for arguers. Their burden is greater because they must first establish that a phenomenon exists, then they must construct a persuasive evaluation or judgment of that phenomenon. Politically involved people might argue that “liberals are bad” or that “conservatives are bad.” Though this may seem simple to argue, as most people are familiar with the terms *liberal* and *conservative*, these terms mean different things to different people. The job of the arguer is to provide a commonly acceptable definition of the terms for his or her audience. Some audience members might associate the term *conservative* with right-wing extremists and religious zealots; others might associate it with fiscally responsible supporters of family values. The argument that conservatives are bad requires that the audience know what is meant by the term. The audience must also agree that the arguer’s description actually exists.

The previous example of propositions of value dealt with the arguer’s and the audience’s mutual agreement and understanding of terms and concepts; other examples deal with value claims based on facts that have yet to be proved. For instance, people may argue that Oklahoma governor Frank Keating was bad for the state of Oklahoma. They might support this proposition of value with arguments suggesting that he was involved in a scandal with the governor’s airplane. Though many people might agree that Governor Keating was bad for Oklahoma, it may be less clear that he was involved in the above-mentioned scandal or that the scandal ever occurred. It would be the responsibility of the arguer to argue both that the governor’s behavior occurred and that his actions were detrimental to the state of Oklahoma.

The most complex propositions involve those of policy. Warnick and Inch (1994) explain that “policy claims call for a specific course of action and focus on whether a change in policy or behavior should take place” (p. 66). This type of proposition involves three different types of bur-

dens for the arguer. First, he or she must establish that a phenomenon exists. Second, he or she must convince the audience that the phenomenon is good or bad. Finally, the arguer needs to provide a remedy for the problem. Arguments like this often take place in government, where new policies and proposals are created and debated daily. In 1996, the federal government passed a large-scale welfare reform policy. Republicans argued that the old policy had helped create a “culture of poverty,” and that this culture was harmful both to the members of that culture and to the entire nation. The burdens and responsibilities were very clear for the Republicans in this instance. First, they had to provide strong evidence that a culture of poverty existed and that the former welfare policy had contributed to this culture. Arguments were made that giving financial assistance to poor people encouraged them to behave in ways that maintained their poverty. Second, supporters of welfare reform had to argue that this culture was harmful to people. Finally, it was argued that the proposal would successfully solve the problems outlined in the argument. In this case, many argued that the problem was a never-ending cycle of welfare-dependent families. The policy proposed to limit federal assistance to families to a certain number of years. At the end of that period of time, recipients would be denied further assistance. It was argued that this would motivate people to find alternative forms of income, resulting in a break in the poverty cycle. Many suggested that this would help reduce the culture of poverty.

Section II: Burdens

As the first section makes clear, the topics of arguments are of different varieties. Once people involved in a dispute can agree on the topic of the disagreement, they can then decide what type of topic they have chosen to argue about. As was previously stated, identifying the type of dispute allows the parties involved to identify their responsibilities or burdens in the argument. Though no specific burdens exist for ceremonial speeches or arguments, different types of burdens have been identified for deliberative or policy arguments and forensic varieties of argumentation. In deliberative or policy arguments, argumentative burdens are termed “stock issues” (Ziegelmueller & Dause, 1975). There exist four stock issues, each of which needs to be satisfied by the arguer in order to establish the validity of arguments regarding future action or policies. For both policy arguments and arguments regarding issues of fact and value, arguers are required to satisfy the “divisions of controversy.” Finally, this section will describe the different types of evidence. Ethos, logos, and pathos will be explained, and suggestions will be given for their effective use (Lawson-Tancred, 1991).

Stock Issues

First, the stock issues are the issues or questions that must be answered in order to convincingly justify an action or a change in policy. There are four stock issues (Ziegelmueller & Dause, 1975) including:

1. stock issue of ill
2. stock issue of blame
3. stock issue of cure
4. stock issues of cost and benefit

Policies are rarely enacted by our federal government without rigorous debate taking place. C-Span often airs live debates on the floor of the House of Representatives and the Senate. Mem-

bers of these bodies of government argue to justify action, such as amendments to the U.S. Constitution, budget changes, crime policy, and education spending. However, much like a courtroom, in which the accused is presumed innocent until proved guilty, the government assumes that the country is fine. In other words, policy advocates must argue convincingly that something is wrong before action can be taken to remedy a problem. **This is the stock issue of “ill.” The ill, or problem, must be proved to exist by the affirmative team.** The extent of the problem must also be described. For example, the arguer might choose to tell his or her audience how many people are affected, how much money is wasted, or what types of moral calamities are being caused.

The second stock issue is blame. The arguer must explain what the cause of the ill is. Unfortunately, many people believe this is self-explanatory. For instance, many people believe that television causes acts of violence. Audiences may accept this claim without much evidence. In describing the ill, an arguer may explain how much violence exists in our society. Unfortunately, there is little evidence to link the use of television to violent activity. A popular debate exists today regarding the effects of cigarette advertising on the smoking habits of minors. Though our intuition tells us that images of cool cartoon characters and healthful young people encourage young people to smoke, there is little evidence that directly links advertising to smoking habits. The stock issue of blame must be addressed, as it can develop into a weak spot in an otherwise strong and well-developed argument.

The third stock issue involves the cure. At this stage, the arguer must put forth the solution to the problem he or she has identified. It is not enough to argue that a problem exists; instead, an effective, practical, and acceptable solution must be proposed. For instance, poverty might require types of job training or public assistance, whereas commissions might be proposed to regulate the quality of work conditions. In other situations, an easily understood problem might require a ridiculous remedy. A person might identify nuclear waste as a harmful problem in society. To remedy the problem, he or she might propose that barrels of waste be launched into space, requiring billions of dollars in rocketry, fuel, and personnel, not to mention the risk of an unsuccessful launch casting barrels of nuclear waste back down toward the earth’s surface. Other solutions are not solutions at all. These proposals consist of wishes and desires, but they lack an explanation of how these conditions can be achieved. To make this clearer, one could watch any one of the daytime talk programs that litter the television airwaves. Oftentimes, a dysfunctional person or family will be brought onstage to describe their troubles. Audience members often probe these people with questions and comments, in the hope of making sense of the people and their problems. With the best of intentions, audience members will attempt to enlighten the people on stage by telling them, “You need more love” or “You should just try to get along with other people.” While these suggestions are pleasant, they often fail to explain how the desired love or harmony can be achieved. Good cures must also not run counter to good reasoning. The arguer should not propose a morally repugnant action as a solution to a problem. Though a solution may appear to eradicate a problem on paper, the arguer must keep in mind that the solution will be proposed to an audience, and therefore must be acceptable.

Now that we know that the cure is reasonable and practical, the audience needs to know the costs and benefits of the proposed solution. In other words, the audience should be able

to visualize why the solution is likely to solve the problems identified in the argument. For example, if people argue that poverty is a problem, then reducing public assistance is not an acceptable cure. On the other hand, if the arguer describes poor work ethics as a problem, then reducing public assistance becomes a more acceptable cure. Ideally, the arguer wants to describe how the cure will solve each of the problems identified and any additional benefits that would result from a policy or cure.

Divisions of Controversy

Divisions of controversy are used to direct arguers in any situation toward the issues involved in a dispute (Ziegelmueller & Dause, 1975). Whether people are arguing issues of fact, value, or policy, the divisions of controversy outline both the types of disputes parties will engage in and the areas in which their argument must be made strong or valid. There are three significant divisions of controversy (Ziegelmueller & Dause, 1975) which are used by people in everyday argument. They include:

1. the frame of definition
2. the frame of existence of fact
3. the frame of quality

The *frame of definition* is often used in arguments. Take, for instance, a schoolgirl who acts up in class. The child is given a note to take home to her parents that explains that she has received a reprimand for “acting up in class.” The parents visit the teacher and learn that the “acting up,” in this instance, means that the child has been arguing with the teacher. The parents are not pleased with the teacher’s punishment, and they explain that their daughter has been raised to question authority figures and to test new ideas. The parents do not believe their daughter deserved to be punished.

The dispute between the teacher and the parents stems from a disagreement over the definition of the child’s behavior. Whereas the teacher defines arguing as “acting up,” the parents believe the daughter is displaying signs of strength and independence. Similarly, the parties in an argument often ask each other to define the terms involved. The process of defining and agreeing on terminology ensures that all parties are arguing about the same issue. Arguments can become messy when both parties fail to agree on the meaning of terms. For example, the Constitution protects citizens of the United States from “cruel and unusual punishment.” What constitutes a cruel and unusual punishment? Moreover, Bill Clinton proposed a tax increase immediately after the 1992 campaign arguing that the “rich needed to pay their fair share.” The arguments that followed President Clinton’s proposal dealt with the definition of “rich” and the definition of “fair share.”

The *frame of existence of fact* naturally follows the frame of definition. The frame of definition directs the arguer to make certain that key terms are defined and ideas are mutually understood. Once the arguing parties can agree on how a word, idea, or concept is defined, they must know if claims regarding these terms are factual. Take the situation with the young schoolgirl. Let’s say that both the teacher and the parents agreed that the definition of “acting up” was “a situation in which a child interrupts or argues with the teacher or students three times during a class period.” It would then need to be established that the child had been disruptive three times dur-

ing the class period. Since both the teacher and the child agree that the child had disrupted class three times, there is no question that the teacher's claim that the child had "acted up" is factual.

Finally, the *frame of quality* looks at the circumstances under which a certain fact occurred. In our courts of law, murders are qualified by degree. A person can commit a third-, second-, or first-degree murder. Though in each case a murder has been committed, the circumstances surrounding the situation dictate how severely the murderer will be punished. Similarly, in arguments with friends or family we employ the frame of quality.

In the situation involving the little girl, the parents and the teacher may ask the girl to explain why she behaved the way she did in class. Suppose the girl explains that the first time she yelled because her friend Billy poked her in the head with a pen; the second time she interrupted the teacher was when she asked the teacher to repeat something; and the third time her pen ran out of ink, and she asked her friend Sue for a replacement. In addition, she asks the teacher and her parents to remember that she has never been in trouble before and that her grades are terrific. Although by definition the little girl had acted up, this new information prompts the teacher to reconsider the fairness of the punishment.

Some students use these arguments all the time. Students who hand in material late often explain either why they could not complete the assignment on time or why their grade should not be affected. Either the students' printer broke down or the teacher did not give them a reasonable amount of time to complete the assignment. Even though the students know that by definition the assignment is late, they still hope that by qualifying the situation with additional information they will be judged differently.

Ethos, Logos, and Pathos

Finally, there are three different types of evidence used by arguers. These three types of evidence are termed:

1. ethos
2. logos
3. pathos

Each of these types of evidence influences audiences in different ways. Ethos is based on ethics. Logos is based in logic. Pathos is emotional evidence. What follows is a brief description of each type of evidence and several recommendations regarding its effective use.

Ethos is similar to *ethics*, and shares a lot with this term. An arguer is said to have ethos if he or she is trustworthy, credible, or knowledgeable in a certain area. A person with a great deal of ethos is normally very persuasive. In argument, the ethos of both the speaker and his or her sources lends credibility and strength to an argument. For example, on issues of national security and defense, the secretary of defense may have a great deal of ethos or credibility. Likewise, a young boy at an elementary school might have very little ethos or credibility. In this situation, the secretary of state would be considered more credible because people assume that he or she is very knowledgeable on issues of national security. In this instance, ethos is a matter of knowledge.

Audience assessments of ethos or credibility can be the result of an unlimited number of speaker characteristics. Audience members might rely on expertise and status, as well as on speaking ability, charisma, and appearance. But what about speakers of whom we have no prior knowledge? How do audiences assess the ethos or credibility of unfamiliar speakers, such as guest lecturers, candidates for public office, or people we ask for directions on the street? We encounter unfamiliar speakers every day. Whether we encounter a new professor in a classroom or listen to a new personality on television, audience members formulate opinions and attitudes toward these people with very little knowledge of who they are. These opinions may be based on appearance, speaking style, or use of language. Audiences may dislike a professor because he or she has shifty little eyes or trust a speaker on C-Span because he or she is dressed well and speaks clearly.

Ethos involves not only audience assessments of speakers but also the sources the speakers use. The authors or organizations from whom arguers get their information can affect the strength of their arguments. For example, how trustworthy are cigarette executives when they use their own research to claim that cigarettes are safe to smoke? Moreover, how much credibility do political candidates have when they use statistics supplied by the groups that contributed to their campaigns, such as unions or corporations? These examples demonstrate that arguers should try not to use biased or tainted sources. How much more trustworthy would the same cigarette executive be if the research he or she used to make the claim that cigarettes have little effect on the health of smokers had been published by the American Heart and Lung Association?

Logos is related to *logic*. Logical evidence usually involves forms of reasoning, statistics, or some form of empirical research. Today's high-tech modern society places great value on logical evidence. This form of evidence is very persuasive in arguments. Unfortunately, the persuasiveness of logical evidence often causes speakers to use too much of it.

Logical forms of evidence are compelling for a number of reasons. One reason involves people's trust in science. Scientific successes surround us each day in the form of computers, automobiles, and stereos, to name a few. Many of us know little about how these and other high-tech items work, but we trust the expertise of the scientists and engineers who produce them. Similarly, we trust the processes they use in creating these advancements. Our society has faith in the scientific process. This is significant in argument because research and statistics are also products of scientific processes. For this reason, many audience members are influenced by the mere use of numbers or statistics.

Logical evidence should not be used to deceive an audience. Logical evidence is simply a form of support that helps strengthen a claim. If statistics truly support an arguer's claim, they should be used. Statistics that have little relevance to the point of disagreement lend little to a person's argument. In addition, logical evidence can fatigue an audience. Have you ever heard a speaker rattle off a list of statistics? Did this excite you and cause you to want to continue listening, or did it bore you? It probably bored you. Logical evidence must be used sparingly and intelligently. It is powerful in grabbing people's attention and lending weight to claims. It should not, however, be used by itself. One should also include ethical and emotional evidence.

Pathos is the final type of evidence. *Pathos* appeals attempt to involve the emotions of the audience. They employ personal stories, examples, or illustration. They can also involve the use of fear or sympathy. Audiences may be warned by a candidate that voting for his or her opponent will hurt working families or the nation's children. Audiences may also be shown pictures of the candidate hugging elderly people or working on a farm. Both of these examples demonstrate how words or pictures can be used by persuaders to elicit certain emotions.

While political candidates and commercials often use pathos appeals, speakers also rely heavily on this type of evidence. Arguers may use this type of evidence in many forms, including touching personal stories, stories of tragedies, or vivid accounts intended to scare the audience. Unlike logical evidence, emotional evidence helps keep the audience interested and may help audience members identify with the message the speaker is trying to communicate. For instance, a speaker may want to persuade an audience not to drink while boating. The speaker might tell a story that involves the death of a parent in a tragic boating accident. A story like this might keep an audience involved and prompt it to act, because most people greatly fear the loss of a parent or another family member.

Section III: Refutation

Once an argument or a persuasive appeal has been presented to an audience, the argument must be challenged. The speaker might begin by questioning the extent to which the above-mentioned burdens have been satisfied. For instance, if the argument is over a policy, has the arguer satisfied each of the stock issues? In addition, have all the key terms been defined, and have all the facts been determined? Once these questions have been asked, there are several other steps that may be taken to challenge the validity of an argument.

Keeping the point of stasis or the precise disagreement in mind, there are two approaches that can be employed to test the validity of an argument. The first approach is the lines of argument (Huber, 1963). The lines of argument are used to test claims and evidence. The second approach involves identifying bad logic, or fallacies. These two systems are outlined below.

Lines of Argument

The arguments were designed to be used in policy arguments, but they provide good direction in challenging claims of all varieties. They are divided into three types:

1. lines of argument regarding the ill, or problem, with the present system
2. lines of argument on evidence
3. lines of argument on advantages claimed for a specific proposal

These lists should be used when challenging arguments in a debate.

Lines of argument regarding the ill, or problem, with the present system:

- The speaker did not present the proper inductive proof—that is, evidence exemplifying the asserted cause-and-effect relationship.
- The speaker's evidence does not support the conclusion that he or she is attempting to reach.

- The speaker did not show the harm to be widespread; few facts or examples were presented.
- The speaker did not present examples that cover a sufficient period of time.
- The speaker did not present examples that cover or represent a cross section of the whole.
- There are examples to the contrary, followed by the presentation of such examples.
- The speaker did not show that the cause given is the only cause, and not merely a contributing cause.
- The speaker did not show that the present system is the direct cause of the ill. Is the ill caused by the lack of this proposal?
- The speaker did not show that the condition he or she describes as harmful is indeed, by its nature, harmful.

Lines of argument on evidence:

- Do the figures tell us what we really want to know?
- Was the observer in a position to get the facts or conduct a study?
- Is the observer trained to conduct research? Is he or she an expert?
- Is the observer free from prejudice?
- Is the observer free from exaggeration?
- Are there inconsistencies within the evidence?
- Has the unit of figures been defined?
- Can the set of numbers be compared?
- Is the evidence consistent with the known facts and other evidence?

Lines of argument on advantages claimed for a specific proposal:

- The speaker failed to explain that the proposal has the power or the means to solve the ill.
- The speaker failed to show any widespread ill, and therefore that any significant advantage would result from the policy.
- The speaker failed to show that authorities in the field have testified that the proposal would remove the ill.
- The speaker failed to show that had the proposal been in effect, it would have prevented the ill that exists.
- The speaker failed to show that some counterforce would not prevent the proposal from removing the ill.
- The speaker failed to show that the proposal, when employed elsewhere, removed the ill.
- The speaker failed to show that his or her examples of the proposal (when employed elsewhere) removing the ill were similar to the situation under consideration.

Fallacies

Quite often, claims are made in arguments that sound valid but also seem a bit fishy. Usually, audiences will stop a moment to try to figure out why a speaker's claims seem suspicious but will eventually continue listening to the speaker's comments. Although a speaker's arguments may be persuasive to the untrained ear, an arguer or a listener who is skilled in forms of critical thinking can identify fallacies or weaknesses in the reasoning of others. The following are names and examples of fallacies that are frequently used in argument.

- A. *Begging the question*: Begging the question is an argument stated in such a way that it cannot help but be true, even though no evidence has been presented. One example is the statement “war kills.”
- B. *Bandwagoning*: Bandwagoning is an argument that uses (unsubstantiated) general opinion as its (false) basis; for example, “Nikes are superior to other brands of shoes because everyone wears Nikes.”
- C. *Either-or fallacy*: Either-or fallacy is the type of argument that is stated in terms of two alternatives only, even though there may be many additional alternatives. For example, a person who reasons, “If you don’t send little Susie to private school this year, she will not gain admission to college.”
- D. *Ad hominem*: Ad hominem is the first type of argument most people become aware of. Literally, *ad hominem* means “to the person.” Arguments made to the person are intended to attack the messenger rather than the message. Children often call one another names. In most cases, they get better at it as they grow older. Attacking the person distracts audiences from the argument at hand and is intended to affect the ethos or credibility of the opponent. Unfortunately, it is often interpreted as a last-ditch effort to salvage a losing argument.
- E. *Red herring*: Red herring is the type of argument that introduces immaterial information into a debate in order to divert attention away from the issues at hand. Extraneous knowledge, data, or facts that do not directly relate to the argument may temporarily distract the audience from the primary issues but do not add to evidence or issue relevance. Emotional or sensational claims that may gain the audience’s sympathy divert attention from information directly linked to the resolution. For example, in a debate about the merits of higher education, a speaker who states, “I don’t care what you say about a college education; everyone needs to work full-time while they are in high school, as I did. Full-time work leads to responsibility,” is using a red herring.

Conclusion

Although the preceding material introduces a lot of specific terminology and names, it also describes concepts that communicators use every day. These ideas are organized to help us become more aware of the techniques we and others use to persuade; to better understand how we can communicate our ideas persuasively to others; and to help us become more skilled at challenging the validity and strengths of others’ arguments.

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Organizing and Outlining the Persuasive Debate

Time: 4 minutes

- There are four members per group (this may vary by class size).
- Two people will argue affirmatively, and two people will argue negatively.
- Each group will select a resolution.
- Each side in the debate is required to use a minimum of five sources. At least one must be a book, one must be a magazine, and one must be a journal.

Debate Speaking Order

Time (in minutes)

1. First affirmative speaker	4
2. First negative speaker	4
3. Second affirmative speaker	4
4. Second negative speaker	4
5. Rebuttal by negative team	2
6. Rebuttal by affirmative team	2
7. Audience questions and answers	10

Rationale: Traditionally, the affirmative side goes first because it is indicting the status quo. Not until an argument is put forth is there reason for the negative side to speak. To its benefit, the negative side is given presumption. The audience is told to assume that the present system is fine; not unless the affirmative side can identify a large ill should there be reason for society to act.

The negative side is given two consecutive speaking positions (4 and 5), or six straight minutes of argument. This block of speaking time is justified because the affirmative side gets the first and the final word in the debate.

Steps for Building a Debate/Debate Job Descriptions

The first affirmative speaker has three specific jobs:

1. Present and affirm the resolution, and present a thesis (general reason for the audience to believe the resolution is true, and that the ill, or problem, is affirmed).
2. Define ambiguous terms.
3. Present support or reasons for the audience to believe the resolution (the cause of the ill) is true, and present a cure, or a solution.

The first negative speaker has three specific jobs:

1. Identify the resolution, and present the negative thesis regarding the falseness of the resolution (fallacies with the ill, cause of ill, or cure). At this time the negative speaker explains how the two positions differ. The negative speaker may also explain the specific hang-up, or point of disagreement (stasis).
2. Present the negative speaker's definitions of ambiguous terms. These may or may not differ from the affirmative speaker's perspective. In the event the negative speaker argues with the definitions, he or she must explain what is wrong with the definition, present a new definition, and explain what makes the new definition better.
3. Present the reasons that the resolution is false.

The second affirmative speaker has a very different job: refutation. This person must:

1. Remind us of what the affirmative thesis is and briefly explain why this argument is stronger.
2. Address issues relating to definitions (if any).
3. Employ the lines of argument to test the validity of the claims made by the negative speaker. This person will also look for fallacious reasoning in these arguments.

The job of the second negative speaker, like that of the second affirmative speaker, is refutation. This speaker must:

1. Briefly remind us of the negative thesis and address definitional issues (if any).
2. Explain how their arguments clearly demonstrate their thesis to be true and the resolution to be false.
3. Defend against attacks made by the second affirmative speaker.

The affirmative rebuttal is much more difficult. The speaker must:

1. Explain the affirmative thesis, and explain how the affirmative side has supported its thesis (and the validity of the resolution). The speaker must also address definitional issues.
2. Explain how the negative speaker has failed to support the negative side's argument (including any affirmative attacks the speaker failed to fend off).
3. Defend against questions raised by the negative speaker in relation to the affirmative speaker's evidence and reasoning, and then explain why the affirmative speaker has won the argument.

Outline Worksheet for Group Presentation Option 2

Title:

Speakers:

Specific Purpose:

Intended Audience:

Introduction

1. Attention-getter:
2. Identify the intended audience:
3. Establishment of ethos:
4. Thematic statement: recommending a strategy (ideas for today and tomorrow)
5. Introduce group members and the topic each will be speaking on.

(Transition: to the next speaker)

I. Vision Statement

- A. State the vision and long-term direction. Use subpoints and/or supporting material.

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

II. Goals and Objectives

- A. State the desired goal.
- B. State the desired objectives.

(Internal summary)

(Transition)

III. Today's Situation

- A. Summary of the current situation. Number items or use bullets; discuss details orally.
 - 1.
 - 2.
 - 3.

(Internal summary)
(Transition)

IV. How Did We Get Here?

- A. Any relevant historical information
- B. Original assumptions that are no longer valid

(Internal summary)
(Transition)

V. Description of Available Options

- A. State the strategies you recommend and whether there are other options.
- B. List advantages and disadvantages of each.

(Internal summary)
(Transition)

VI. Cost Analysis

- A. Cost of each option
- B. Comparison of rewards versus cost

(Internal summary)
(Transition)

VII. Recommendation

- A. Recommend one or more of the strategies.
- B. Summarize the results if things go as proposed.
- C. Action (what to do next)

SAMPLE STUDENT OUTLINES

Sample Outline for Ceremonial Speech 1

Title: Instructor of the Year

Speaker: Sarah M. Biller

Specific Purpose: To honor one of the University of Oklahoma's finest professors.

Thesis Statement: An excellent teacher is not only an individual who excels in the areas of teaching, research, and service; he or she is also someone who reaches out to students to facilitate their learning process and their enjoyment of class material.

Introduction

1. **Attention-getter** (story of the first day of class): I was a freshman, and it was the first day of college calculus. My teacher wrote the word *play* on the board and asked us what we associated with this word. There were many responses from the class, but not one of the students said the word *learning*. Then she told us that Aristotle defines *play* as the ultimate form of learning. It was during that semester that I learned calculus by playing.
2. **Establishment of ethos:** My name is Sarah Biller; I am here as a former student, colleague, and personal friend of this year's recipient of the Instructor of the Year Award.
3. **Thematic statement:** Instructors who are nominated for this award must display leadership, dedication to students in and outside the classroom, facilitate learning, and (most of all) genuinely care about the students here at OU.
4. **Preview** (each main point): First, I will begin by showing how this particular teacher has proved her ability to lead and her dedication to the learning process. Next, I will illustrate how this instructor, through her caring nature, teaches students to enjoy learning.

(**Transition:** To begin ...)

Body

- I. **Main idea 1:** This instructor is a natural leader who has proved her dedication to her students and to this university.
 - A. This instructor has become a leader in the field of mathematics by writing numerous books and journal articles, and attending local, regional, and national conventions. She has dedicated her time and efforts to advancing Oklahoma University's math department to its ranking as fifth in the United States. In addition, her work is admired by many instructors both in and outside of her department.
 - B. This instructor has been teaching at the University of Oklahoma for more than fifteen years. As a student who graduated from the university, she carries the tradition of excellence and passes this tradition on to her students in every class that she teaches. This individual offers after-hours tutoring, always reserves time for her students before and after class, and sets up review sessions before each exam. Her teaching evalua-

tions are nothing short of stellar; and on numerous occasions I have had students comment to me about her “excellence as an instructor.”

(Internal summary/Transition: In addition to being a leader and demonstrating dedication to her students, this instructor genuinely cares about her students.)

II. **Main idea 2:** This teacher cares about the learning of OU students.

A. Caring teachers are sometimes hard to find in this day and age, even though caring just may be the most significant contribution of a teacher.

“Caring is supporting an individual’s interpretation of his or her own reality, is an activity of relationship, of seeing and responding to needs, taking care of the world by sustaining the web of connection so that no one is left alone. It requires sensitivity, engrossment with the other, and caring in education fosters critical awakening of the human consciousness.”

B. This year’s winner exhibits all the major characteristics of a caring instructor: knowledge and love of self and others, presence, mutual respect, sensitivity, communication with the other, and organization of the teaching-learning situation.

(Internal summary/Transition to conclusion: Thus I know most of you agree with me when I say that ...)

Conclusion

- I. **Summary:** An excellent teacher holds this country’s future in the palm of his or her hand; and we here at the University of Oklahoma are pleased to honor instructors who are constantly raising their hands up to show our students the stars.
- II. **Review (each main point):** Excellent teachers are individuals who demonstrate leadership, dedication, and caring for both the students and their environment.
- III. **Tie to the introduction:** Once I associated playing with childhood, baseball games, dancing and singing, and spending time with family and friends. However, now I also associate it with learning freshman calculus and one truly extraordinary human being.
- IV. **Creative concluding thought** (end with impact): On behalf of myself, every student lucky enough to have sat in one of her classes, every future student who awaits this spectacular experience, and the faculty and administration here at the University of Oklahoma, I am pleased to present to you this year’s recipient of the University of Oklahoma’s Instructor of the Year Award, Dr. Doris Diffendoofer.

Sample Outline for Informative Speech 2

Title: The Microbrewing World

Speaker: Kyle Haugsness, University of Oklahoma public-speaking student

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience of the history and direction of the microbrewing industry

Thesis Statement: Although the history of microbrewing in the United States has been less than ideal, its recent exponential growth has enabled local microbreweries to thrive, giving you a chance to become a part of this growth.

Introduction

1. **Attention-getter:** Imagine, if you will, that you are sitting in your favorite chair this weekend, watching the NCAA basketball championships. You have pizza, potato chips, remote control, but you are missing something—a beer.
2. **Establishment of ethos:** The market for microbrewed beer in this country has grown into a \$2-billion-a-year industry. The increasing population of beer drinkers has brought about a resurgence in the practice of microbrewing. In my hometown of Houston, I had the opportunity to brew a batch of my very own beer in a local brewery. It was an enriching experience.
3. **Preview** (each main point): First I would like to give a brief history of beer brewing, followed by a look at the explosion of the microbrewing industry and how you can participate.

(**Transition:** Now, I will describe the history of microbrewed beer.)

Body

- I. The microbrewing industry has had a unique history that has hurt its growth at times, but it is now experiencing a surge in popularity.
 - A. The absence of spirits aboard the *Mayflower* may have led to its docking, as one passenger's journal states: "We could not now take time for further search or consideration, our victuals being much spent, especially our beer" (Johnson, 1996).
 1. According to an article titled "A Short History of Brewing in America" (Johnson, 1996), several of our forefathers took the liberty of cultivating the hemp plant, and many of them enjoyed a cold beer on occasion. William Penn, Samuel Adams, Thomas Jefferson, and even George Washington often drank their own home-brewed beverages.
 - B. The number of microbreweries steadily declined until the era of Prohibition. With the repeal of Prohibition, the number of breweries grew until they were forced out by competition and the nationalization of larger firms.

(**Internal summary:** In effect, the microbrewing industry has been down a rocky road, but in recent years it has regained popularity.)

(Transition: While the history of microbrewing has been dismal, the future looks very bright.)

- II. Bronikowski (1996) notes that in 1995 the craft of microbrewing grew to a 2-billion-dollar industry that increased 51 percent from the previous year.
 - A. According to David Edgar (1995), who is the director of the Institute for Beer Studies, microbrew drinkers tend to have a slightly higher education and median income.
 - B. Not only have sales figures been a testament to the industry's growth, but advertising budgets also paint a vivid picture. For example, Pete's Brewing Company became the first specialty brewer to advertise nationally (Edgar, 1995).
 - C. The demand for fresh, new variety in the beer industry has given the small breweries a niche in the market that continues to grow. Currently, there seems to be no indication that this trend will stop or slow down in the near future.

(Internal summary: The die-hard beer drinkers of the nation are speaking out and demanding more microbreweries.)

(Transition: The result of this incredible growth is that microbrewing has found a place in states like Oklahoma as well.)

- III. Establishments such as the Bricktown Brewery, the Interurban Grille, and the Norman Brewing Company are local businesses with a profitable stake in the craft.
 - A. The lure of these restaurants' beer often stems from their descriptive and curious names.
 - B. Although many microbreweries use various special ingredients, the primary components of beer are malt, hops, yeast, and water.
 - C. Changing each of the ingredients slightly gives each beer its own weight, flavor, color, and smell. With so many possibilities, it's easy to see why the microbrewing industry is still growing.
 - D. Do-it-yourself kits that enable you to brew your own beer are now available for around \$60. All you need are the appropriate ingredients, an instruction book, and the imagination to brew your very own award-winning beer!

(Internal summary: So, with the availability of local microbreweries and do-it-yourself kits, an original handcrafted beer is within your reach.)

(Transition to conclusion: Allow me to cap this brief tour of the microbrewing world with a few final thoughts.)

Conclusion

1. **Summarize** (overall theme) and **review** (each main point): I showed that the history of brewing beer in the United States has been unique and unpredictable. I then explained the tremendous expansion of the current microbrewing industry. And I briefly examined the basics of brewing, in addition to some of the local businesses that are making their unique beers available to the general public.
2. **Tie to the introduction:** So next time you're channel surfing or watching your favorite sporting event, don't forget to wash down your pizza with your favorite microbrewed beer!
3. **Creative concluding thought** (end with impact): Finally, if you are of legal drinking age, I encourage you to be adventurous and try some of the local brews.

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Note: As an optional assignment, instructors can assign a research paper, asking students to further explore their informative speech topic.

Sample Informative Communication Research Paper

The Microbrewing World

Kyle Haugsness, University of Oklahoma public speaking student

During the height of the NCAA basketball championships, one can easily see the popularity of sports, especially in the United States. A large part of the tradition of watching sports in our country is the custom of drinking beer. In fact, research indicates that the market for micro-brewed beer has grown into a \$2-billion-a-year industry (Johnson, 1996). In recent years, American microbreweries have been growing steadily. The recent exponential growth has enabled local microbreweries to thrive.

The purpose of this paper is to provide a brief history of beer brewing, followed by an examination of the explosive growth of the microbrewing industry. Finally, the paper will describe ways in which individuals can become a part of the microbrewery experience.

Although the history of beer stretches back to Mesopotamia, beer has been brewed in many parts of the world. Native Americans brewed beer by fermenting maize, or corn. In addition, the passengers on the *Mayflower* were regular consumers of beer. Interestingly, the absence of spirits aboard the *Mayflower* paved the way for its docking. As one passenger's journal states: "We could not now take time for further search or consideration, our victuals being much spent, especially our beer" (Johnson, 1996, p. 1). The emergence of beer as the beverage of choice among the early pioneers was more a matter of necessity than drunkenness. At that time, poor waste disposal predominated, causing unsafe and contaminated water sources (Johnson, 1996). So beer was consumed as readily as we drink water or soft drinks today.

William Penn, Samuel Adams, Thomas Jefferson, and even George Washington often enjoyed home-brewed beverages (Johnson, 1996). In 1840, a wave of German immigration brought a host of German beers and sparked a revolution in the industry. However, after the 1870s, the number of breweries began to decline as companies consolidated in an effort to produce beer nationwide. This declining trend continued through the 1920s due to Congress's attempt at Prohibition. With the repeal of Prohibition, the number of breweries again grew, only to decrease later due to competition and buyouts from larger firms (Edgar, 1995). The local brewery soon became a metaphorical endangered species on the brink of extinction. However, in the early 1980s certain states began to pass laws that deregulated the industry and allowed microbreweries to operate. These microbreweries and brewpubs were able to cater to regional and local tastes in addition to producing many different types of beer. In effect, it is only in recent years that the microbrewing industry has begun to regain its former popularity.

While the history of microbrewing has been dismal, the industry's future appears to be very bright. In 1995, this fine art grew to a \$2-billion industry that increased nearly 51 percent from the previous year (Bronikowski, 1996). In addition, a recent survey of Colorado's microbreweries revealed a startling increase of 41 percent in sales over the past year (Bronikowski, 1996). Thus, not only have sales figures shown evidence of the industry's growth, but advertising budgets have also painted a vivid picture of increases in popularity. Edgar (1995) states that Pete's Brewing Company was the first specialty brewer to advertise nationally in 1994. In addition,

Bronikowski (1996) claims that “each new brewpub and each new microbrewery ends up winning a lot of converts and educating a lot more people about what a great beer is about.” Clearly, the microbrewing industry has taken off in terms of sales and profitability.

The result of this growth is that microbrewing has found a home in a number of states in America, including Oklahoma. Establishments such as the Bricktown Brewery, the Interurban Grille, and the Norman Brewing Company are local businesses with a profitable stake in the craft. The lure of these beers often stems from their descriptive and curious names. The Interurban Grille in Norman offers Light Honey Blonde Ale, Amber Ale, and Route 66, in addition to two dark brews—Tornado Alley and Barking Fish. Each blend is handcrafted using any number of special ingredients added to the basic essentials. Although many microbreweries use various additives, the primary components are malt, hops, yeast, and water. Malt is the name given to barley that has been germinated and then roasted to yield a certain color and flavor. A representative from the Liquid Assets Brewing Systems further explains that hops “are the female flowers of the vine *Humulus lupulus*. [They] give a balance to the malty sweetness in beer and also give it aroma” (Anonymous, 1996). The yeast converts the sugars into alcohol and also determines if the beer will be a lager or an ale. Most of the nationally consumed brands today are lagers, while the microbreweries focus on producing fine ales. The variance of the aforementioned ingredients give each beer its own weight, flavor, color, and smell (Anderson, 1996). With so many possibilities, it is easy to see why the microbrewing industry is growing so rapidly—especially now that kits for home-brewing have become relatively simple and inexpensive. Home-brewing kits are generally available for around \$60 (Joseph, 1996). The preparation time is about four to five hours, while the aging process usually takes about two to four weeks (Anderson, 1996). A little background knowledge on beer dynamics or a good recipe is all you need to know in order to brew beer at home. With the availability of local microbreweries and do-it-yourself kits, an original handcrafted beer is not far away.

Allow me to cap this brief tour of the microbrewing world with a few final thoughts. The history of brewing in the United States has been unique and unpredictable. The tremendous expansion of the current microbrewing industry has been unparalleled. And the simplicity of basic brewing as well as the offerings of local businesses allow you to have handcrafted beer that can be produced in your community or your own home! If you are of legal drinking age, you may want to try some of the local brews or even try your very own at home. However, please drink responsibly.

References

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Sample Outline for Monroe's Motivated Sequence

Persuasive Speech 3

Title: Desalination in the Middle East

Speaker: Deneka Turney, University of Oklahoma speech team

Specific Purpose: To persuade my audience that desalination in the Middle East as a water supplement is much needed.

I. Introduction

- A. **Attention-getter:** Imagine seeing a small child in the street who is starving. If you don't help this child obtain nutrition, she will turn to crime to get money for food. You must help her.
- B. **Establishment of ethos:** This child is like the Middle East and its need for water.
- C. **Thematic statement:** The Middle East needs more water, or it will wage war for control of water. Desalination is the key.

(**Transition:** I will tell you how desalination can allow you to help Middle Easterners just as you would help a starving child.)

II. Need

- A. Middle Easterners are currently getting their water from underground aquifers and from area rivers and streams (*show visual aid*).
- B. The existing water supply is dwindling fast. In a 1994 article in *Audubon*, Bruce Stutz says that the region's aquifers and rivers are drying out.
- C. According to P.J. Vesilind of *National Geographic*, the area will soon break out in "water wars," because water is now more precious than oil. In the same article in *Audubon*, Bruce Stutz (1994) says that there can be no peace in the area until the water crisis is solved.
- D. As the world's "police force" and the nation that supplies most of the human power to the United Nations' operations, the United States may soon be involved in these wars as well. Take, for example, the Persian Gulf War.

(**Internal summary:** All of this shows that water is very precious and that if we don't act soon, war will probably be the result.)

(**Transition:** Now that we see there is such a problem, we need to find a solution.)

III. Satisfaction

- A. Middle Easterners need more usable water, as well as the technology to clean up existing polluted water.
- B. Irwin Ploss and Jonathan Rubinstein of the *New Republic* said in 1992 that desalination was the only real source of new freshwater in that region.
- C. Desalination is like reverse osmosis—it takes out salts and other pollutants.
- D. The United States has the technology to do this now, and it is improving all the time. Desalination is currently being used in Florida and parts of California to increase water supply.
- E. The Middle East has the capability and the desire for change, and the technology is already being implemented.
- F. Desalination is good for the environment.

(Internal summary: All of this shows that there is a plausible solution to the water crisis in the Middle East.)

(Transition: Now that we know there is a solution to the problem, why should we as Americans get involved? What can we as individuals do about it?)

IV. Visualization

- A. The United States doesn't want to be involved in any more wars in that region.
- B. We can prevent wars from happening.
- C. It will cost money to help the Middle East with desalination, but it will be less expensive in the long run because war is so expensive.

(Internal summary: We can now see how desalination could be the key to peace in the Middle East.)

(Transition to conclusion: Now what can we as Americans do to help implement this process of maintaining peace?)

V. Action

- A. Summarize and review taking action (overall theme including each step of Monroe's motivated sequence): There is a water shortage. Middle Easterners are willing to go to war over this shortage. Desalination can prevent water wars by eliminating the water shortage. Write your congressperson to urge him or her to support peace in the Middle East.

- B. Tie to the introduction: By doing this, you are helping the Middle East survive without violence or crime.
- C. Creative concluding thought (end with impact): Desalination is the key, and now you know how you can help the poor, starving child survive.

References

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Sample Outline for Group Presentation Option 1

Title: The Brain Gain 2005 Advertising Strategy

Speakers: Ryan Fite, Sam Zecavati, Chris Thomas, Jay Johnson, and Krystal Hauserman

Specific Purpose: To promote an advertising program designed to sell the Brain Gain 2005 bar.

Intended Audience: College students

Introduction

1. **Attention-getter:** Imagine, if you will, that it's 3 A.M. and you are writing a term paper that you just started the night before. You are fighting to keep your eyes open, and your panic increases as the pending deadline draws closer and closer. What are you to do? We here at Mars, M&M have the solution for you: Brain Gain 2005.
2. **Identify the intended audience:** College students across the United States
3. **Establishment of ethos:** The researchers credited with producing and marketing Brain Gain 2005 include a medical doctor, a marketing and economics professor, a rocket scientist, a nutrition specialist, and a former Nestlé CEO.
4. **Thematic statement:** Convincing college students to buy Brain Gain 2005
5. **Introduce group members:** My name is Dr. Ryan Fite, and I would like to introduce you to my team of experts and what each person will be discussing. First, Dr. Zecavati will discuss the problems of the current energy bars. Second, I will provide an overview of Brain Gain 2005's uses. Third, Dr. Thomas will explain the nutritional superiority of Brain Gain 2005. Fourth, Mr. Johnson will discuss the distribution and manufacturing of Brain Gain 2005. Finally, Professor Hauserman will discuss the pricing and availability of our energy bars.

(Transition: Before introducing our product to you, I will turn the floor over to my colleague Sam, who will discuss the problems associated with the current energy bars.)

I. Problem

- A. No snack bar currently on the market provides the long-term energy that students need.
- B. In today's ever-increasing, fast-food culture, students are relying far too much on fast food as their primary source of nutrition.
- C. Existing "energy bars," though inferior to Brain Gain 2005, are charging upward of four times the projected cost of our product.

(Internal summary: These three examples illustrate the current problem and provide validation for the development and implementation of Brain Gain 2005.)

(Transition: I will now turn the floor back over to my colleague Ryan, who will discuss the overview of our new product.)

II. Overview

- A. Brain Gain 2005 is a low-cost, tasty treat for the average college student. The key advantage of Brain Gain 2005 is that after ingestion the student's acumen and cognition will greatly improve for a period of two to three hours.
- B. Unlike other pseudo-energy bars, Brain Gain 2005 provides college students with the extra energy needed to finish homework, study for exams, or stay up half the night gathering information for a research paper.
- C. The standard Brain Gain 2005 comes in the following flavors: cherry, grape, orange, and our specialties Cramberry Crunch and Coronary Crunch.

(Internal summary: Due to the inadequacies of current energy bars, we have developed the Brain Gain 2005, a low-cost, high-energy health bar and study aid.)

(Transition: To examine some of the more specific features and benefits of Brain Gain 2005, I will turn the floor over to my teammate Chris.)

III. Features and Benefits

- A. The key to Brain Gain 2005's superiority is our patented "secret brain-stimulating chemicals."
- B. As I will show you, Brain Gain 2005 provides up to 500 percent more energy than other energy bars. These results were determined during a two-year study with students at Harvard University.
- C. Not only does Brain Gain 2005 contain vitamins and proteins prescribed by the FDA but its wrapper is completely biodegradable.

(Internal summary: As you can see, Brain Gain 2005 is nutritionally balanced and environmentally sound.)

(Transition: Now that we have established the features and benefits of Brain Gain 2005, I will turn the floor over to Jay to discuss its application.)

IV. Applications

- A. The energy boost that Brain Gain 2005 provides can be utilized not only by students but also by professors and overworked employees who are in desperate need of extra energy.
- B. In the experiment conducted by our team of experts, it was found that students who ate Brain Gain 2005 showed a 1.5 letter improvement in their classes.

(Internal summary: Brain Gain 2005 is a source of energy that is useful to many people, especially college students.)

(Transition: There is a veritable cornucopia of uses for Brain Gain 2005. Now that we have seen the applications of Brain Gain 2005, we will examine the specifications of this extraordinary new food.)

V. Specifications

- A. Each Brain Gain 2005 bar will be 2.17 ounces in size.
- B. Distribution and production will be handled by Mars, M&M and its network of specialists.
- C. A former FDA specialist will oversee the production of Brain Gain 2005 in order to maintain the highest quality possible.
- D. Each Brain Gain 2005 bar will contain no more than 1.5 grams of fat.

(Internal summary: Now that we are clear on the specifications of Brain Gain 2005 ...)

(Transition: I will now turn the presentation over to Krystal, who will discuss the pricing and availability of the bars.)

VI. Pricing

- A. The standard flavored Brain Gain 2005 will be sold at the extremely low and unprecedented price of fifty cents. The ultra Brain bars, Cramberry and Coronary Crunch, will each be sold at a price of one dollar.

VII. Availability

- A. Brain Gain 2005 is expected to be the choice study aid of students in the new millennium, and will be released on January 1, 2004.
- B. Brain Gain 2005 will be available at university stores nationwide. Brain Gain 2005 will also be available to the general public, as grocery stores everywhere will carry it. Direct orders can be placed by contacting the company sponsoring Brain Gain 2005: Mars, M&M, 1 Candy Land Lane, New York, NY, 20001.

VIII. Conclusion

In conclusion, we would like to thank you for your time by giving you a sample of Brain Gain 2005 bars. Remember, "No Strain, No Gain, Just Brain Gain!" (Krystal has a tray of bars and starts to hand out samples of Brain Gain to the audience.)

GUIDELINES AND SUGGESTIONS FOR EVALUATING STUDENT SPEECHES

The following guidelines are provided to help instructors establish objective policies for grading oral and written presentations.

In the basic public speaking course, instructors evaluate students' oral and written competencies. Content-based examinations are an important part of the course because students should be able to understand and explain how and why specific speaking concepts and strategies apply and operate in various speech settings based on the context for and the purpose of the speech. As long as instructors explain the rationale behind testing cognitive learning, the objective evaluation of formally structured tests should pose no problem in terms of the ease of grading for instructors or the students' openness to feedback.

On the other hand, another equally important goal of the public-speaking course is oral performance; hence, grades from speeches should make up at least one-half of the student's grade for the course. Evaluating students' speaking skills often proves more difficult for teachers, especially inexperienced teachers; and students, especially those who are apprehensive, may have a more difficult time accepting feedback. Thus, it is important for the instructor to remember that the ultimate goal is student learning and that all evaluative feedback should be fair, as objective as possible, and couched in constructive terms.

Instructors can attain fairness and objectivity in their grading of speeches simply by outlining the grading criteria for students when the assignment is made. At that time, instructors should distribute a written list of the criteria and explain in detail exactly what students must do to meet those criteria. For inexperienced instructors, determining and explaining to students how their speech will be assessed can be problematic. One useful way for first-time teachers to determine which requirements to impose is to watch videotapes of student speeches, evaluate these speeches, and discuss their evaluations with the course director or a more experienced instructor. Another possibility is to sit in on another class on speech day, use that instructor's prepared grading criteria to evaluate the speakers, and then compare one's evaluations with the instructor's.

The alternatives for grading procedures for student speeches are numerous. Instructors must decide whether they want to grade *holistically*, by outlining speech objectives (e.g., specific purpose, adherence to assignment, improvement since last speech) and evaluating how well students meet those objectives; or *particularistically*, by breaking down each portion of the speech for separate evaluation (e.g., nonverbal behavior and rhetorical style, structure and organization, research and citing of sources, topic, language). Instructors may also decide to use some combination of these two approaches in their evaluations. We suggest that first-time instructors use a particularistic approach to more fairly evaluate students by providing a numerical grade (see the sample grading sheets that follow) as well as offering, in the form of written comments on the grading sheet, two or three observations about what each student is already doing well and two or three observations about areas that need improvement. The student can then focus his or her efforts more specifically for the next speaking assignment.

In addition to specific grading criteria, most instructors will want to offer students some commentary on what they observe as effective or ineffective, appro-

priate or not appropriate in their speech content or presentation style. Two considerations are important here. First, instructors must remember that the goal is student learning; harsh criticism and denigration will only serve to make students uncomfortable and anxious, thereby mitigating effective learning. Constructive criticism is the best approach; instructors should focus on the positive, no matter how challenging it might be, and remain supportive and optimistic when addressing problems or areas that need improvement. Students' effective learning and skills efficacy will be facilitated when they believe that they can improve their performance and that they have personal control over their improvement.

A second consideration for instructors is when to provide feedback. Most instructional research suggests that immediate feedback is key to students' learning and motivation. Depending on the size of the class, however, immediate oral feedback may not be possible. One way to address this time constraint is to allow students to see their evaluations at the end of class on the day they give their speeches. Students may want to ask questions about how to interpret specific comments, and the instructor will have better recall of his or her reasoning. The students should not take their evaluation form with them on speech day; instead, it should be left with the instructor so that the evaluation can be recorded in the grade book. In addition to saving class time for presentation or instruction purposes, allowing students to view their written evaluations rather than providing oral feedback is beneficial because it avoids embarrassing students in front of their peers. Public evaluations tend to produce anxiety for students, even when oral feedback is positive.

EVALUATING ONLINE SOURCES

In discussing online research with students and evaluating online sources, instructors should consider both source and information factors. Suzanne Osborn (1997) suggests several questions that can be used to assess Internet-specific resources. With respect to source factors, she identifies five specific questions or considerations:

1. Is an author or a URL provided?
2. Is the source an authority on the subject?
3. Are the credentials of the source specified?
4. Can the credentials of the source be verified online?
5. Is the source trustworthy and relatively unbiased?

With respect to the information factors, she identifies several questions as well:

1. Is the source identified?
2. Is the information recent?
3. Is the information cross-referenced with other sources, and are links provided to access those sources?
4. How does this information compare with other information in the field?
5. Is the material fact or opinion?
6. Does the information seem objective and balanced?
7. Is the writing clear or unnecessarily obscure?

If students and instructors ask themselves these questions about the source and the quality of the information found on the Internet, they can ensure the credibility and appropriateness of the material for inclusion and evaluation.

SPEECH EVALUATION SHEETS

This section contains forms that instructors can photocopy and use to evaluate student speeches, as well as forms that instructors can distribute to students to help them critique peer speeches in class.

Grading Sheet for Speech 1

Ceremonial Speech

Name _____ Topic _____

Type of Speech (circle one): eulogy, speech of introduction, toast

AUDIENCE ANALYSIS (10)

interesting and creative topic

Agree **Disagree**

5 4 3 2 1

tone of speech proper for speech type

5 4 3 2 1

INTRODUCTION (10)

gained attention

5 4 3 2 1

clear thesis statement

5 4 3 2 1

BODY (10)

organizational pattern that explains key ideas

5 4 3 2 1

created a vivid, memorable image about topic

5 4 3 2 1

CONCLUSION (10)

summarized main theme

5 4 3 2 1

creative

5 4 3 2 1

DELIVERY (10)

adequate eye contact

2 1 0

vocally expressive

2 1 0

used purposeful gestures and movements

2 1 0

avoided nervous mannerisms

2 1 0

general effectiveness

2 1 0

POINTS ____/50

Grading Sheet for Speech 2

Informative Speech

Name _____ Topic _____

AUDIENCE ANALYSIS/TOPIC CHOICE (10)	Agree		Disagree		
interesting and creative topic	5	4	3	2	1
tone of speech proper for speech type	5	4	3	2	1
INTRODUCTION (10)					
captures audience's attention	5	4	3	2	1
provides clear preview or road map	5	4	3	2	1
BODY (10)					
key ideas explained	5	4	3	2	1
major points supported with citations	5	4	3	2	1
CONCLUSION (10)					
reviewed major points	5	4	3	2	1
provided memorable, creative conclusion	5	4	3	2	1
ORGANIZATION (25)					
internal summaries between major points	5	4	3	2	1
clear transitions	5	4	3	2	1
clear organizational pattern	5	4	3	2	1
credible source material included	5	4	3	2	1
sources appropriate for topic	5	4	3	2	1
LANGUAGE (5)					
clear, concise, colorful	5	4	3	2	1
creative, culturally sensitive	5	4	3	2	1
DELIVERY (20)					
vocally expressive, conversational style	5	4	3	2	1
adequate eye contact	5	4	3	2	1
avoided nervous mannerisms	5	4	3	2	1
generally effective and extemporaneous	5	4	3	2	1
VISUAL AIDS (25)					
communicated idea visually	5	4	3	2	1
simple and uncomplicated	5	4	3	2	1
professional quality	5	4	3	2	1
large enough to see	5	4	3	2	1
displayed at appropriate time	5	4	3	2	1

OUTLINE (25)

typed and in correct outline form	5	4	3	2	1
at least three sources	5	4	3	2	1
written in correct APA style	5	4	3	2	1
internal summaries included and labeled	5	4	3	2	1
transitions included and labeled	5	4	3	2	1

TOTAL _____/140

Grading Sheet for Speech 3

Persuasive Speech Proposing Action

Name _____ Topic _____

	Agree			Disagree	
AUDIENCE ANALYSIS/TOPIC CHOICE (10)					
interesting and creative topic	5	4	3	2	1
tone of speech proper for speech type	5	4	3	2	1
INTRODUCTION (10)					
captures audience's attention	5	4	3	2	1
establishes credibility/ethos	5	4	3	2	1
BODY (30)					
key ideas explained	5	4	3	2	1
major points supported with citations	5	4	3	2	1
identify unfulfilled needs (problem)	5	4	3	2	1
propose solution to satisfy needs (solution)	5	4	3	2	1
visualize what adoption will mean	5	4	3	2	1
identify and request specific action	5	4	3	2	1
ORGANIZATION (25)					
internal summaries between major points	5	4	3	2	1
clear transitions	5	4	3	2	1
clear organizational pattern	5	4	3	2	1
credible source material included	5	4	3	2	1
sources appropriate for topic	5	4	3	2	1
LANGUAGE (5)					
clear, concise, colorful	5	4	3	2	1
creative, culturally sensitive	5	4	3	2	1
DELIVERY (20)					
vocally expressive, conversational style	5	4	3	2	1
adequate eye contact	5	4	3	2	1
avoided nervous mannerisms	5	4	3	2	1
generally effective and extemporaneous	5	4	3	2	1
VISUAL AIDS (25)					
communicated idea visually	5	4	3	2	1
simple and uncomplicated	5	4	3	2	1
professional quality	5	4	3	2	1
large enough to see	5	4	3	2	1
displayed at appropriate time	5	4	3	2	1

OUTLINE (25)

typed and in correct outline form	5	4	3	2	1
at least three sources	5	4	3	2	1
written in correct APA style	5	4	3	2	1
internal summaries included and labeled	5	4	3	2	1
transitions included and labeled	5	4	3	2	1

CONCLUSION (10)

reviewed major points	5	4	3	2	1
provided memorable, creative conclusion	5	4	3	2	1

TOTAL _____/160

Grading Criteria for PowerPoint Activity

Name _____ Date _____

REQUIREMENTS (5)	Agree		Disagree		
6 to 8 slides on "What PowerPoint Can Do"	5	4	3	2	1
 ORGANIZATION (5)					
logically structured (clear order)	5	4	3	2	1
 CONTENT (25)					
touched on main functions	5	4	3	2	1
provided examples of main functions	5	4	3	2	1
content flowed together/running theme	5	4	3	2	1
slides were simple and uncomplicated	5	4	3	2	1
slides were of professional quality	5	4	3	2	1

CREATIVITY _____/5

REACTION PAPER _____/10

TOTAL _____/50

ADDITIONAL COMMENTS:

Grading Sheet for Persuasive Debate

Name _____ Topic _____

Circle one: affirmative, negative

	Agree		Disagree		
INTRODUCTION (10)					
captures audience's attention	5	4	3	2	1
establishes ethos/credibility	5	4	3	2	1
BODY (15)					
key ideas explained	5	4	3	2	1
major points supported with citations	5	4	3	2	1
content flows with other portions of case	5	4	3	2	1
ORGANIZATION (20)					
internal summaries between major points	5	4	3	2	1
clear transitions	5	4	3	2	1
clear organizational pattern	5	4	3	2	1
credible and appropriate sources	5	4	3	2	1
LANGUAGE (5)					
concise, colorful	5	4	3	2	1
creative, culturally sensitive	5	4	3	2	1
DELIVERY (20)					
vocally expressive, conversational style	5	4	3	2	1
adequate eye contact	5	4	3	2	1
avoided nervous mannerisms	5	4	3	2	1
generally effective and extemporaneous	5	4	3	2	1
OUTLINE (25)					
typed and in correct outline form	5	4	3	2	1
at least five sources	5	4	3	2	1
written in correct APA style	5	4	3	2	1
internal summaries included and labeled	5	4	3	2	1
transitions included and labeled	5	4	3	2	1
CONCLUSION (10)					
reviewed major points	5	4	3	2	1
provided memorable, creative conclusion	5	4	3	2	1
TEAM GRADE (20)					
cohesion among team members	5	4	3	2	1
plans satisfied needs presented in case(s)	5	4	3	2	1
anticipated counterargument	5	4	3	2	1
avoided inflammatory phrases	5	4	3	2	1
TOTAL _____/125					

Grading Sheet for Professional Presentation

Name _____ Topic _____

INTRODUCTION (15)	Agree		Disagree		
captured audience's attention	5	4	3	2	1
established ethos/credibility	5	4	3	2	1
purpose/introduce group members	5	4	3	2	1
BODY (15)					
key ideas explained	5	4	3	2	1
points supported (citations/arguments)	5	4	3	2	1
feasible/realistic proposal	5	4	3	2	1
ORGANIZATION (15)					
clear organizational pattern	5	4	3	2	1
credible source material included	5	4	3	2	1
realistic idea and implementation	5	4	3	2	1
LANGUAGE (5)					
concise, colorful	5	4	3	2	1
creative, culturally sensitive	5	4	3	2	1
DELIVERY (20)					
vocally expressive, conversational style	5	4	3	2	1
adequate eye contact	5	4	3	2	1
avoided nervous mannerisms	5	4	3	2	1
cohesion among team members	5	4	3	2	1
POWERPOINT VISUAL AIDS (20)					
speaker's ability to use the technology	5	4	3	2	1
creativity/full use of resources	5	4	3	2	1
simple and uncomplicated	5	4	3	2	1
professional quality/fits project's theme	5	4	3	2	1
OUTLINE (25)					
typed and in correct outline form	5	4	3	2	1
at least five sources	5	4	3	2	1
written in correct APA style	5	4	3	2	1
internal summaries included and labeled	5	4	3	2	1
transitions included and labeled	5	4	3	2	1

GROUP EVALUATION _____ / 10

TOTAL _____ / 125

Description and Grading Sheet for Team Workshop (Optional)

1. Instructor divides students into three teams of ten (or fewer).
2. Students need to develop instruments and procedures for providing performance feedback to team members to enhance individual growth and group effectiveness.
3. Each team must design and manage a class workshop on specific concepts related to one of the following three major topic areas:
 - Team Workshop 1: Basic Public Speaking Skills and Obstacles
 - Team Workshop 2: Informing Diverse Audiences
 - Team Workshop 3: Persuading Diverse Audiences
4. Each workshop should include (a) a one-page synopsis of the major conceptual issues, (b) a demonstration of key concepts, and (c) activities that involve members of the class.

Grading Sheet for Team Workshop No. _____

Evaluation Category	Points/
1. Quality of handouts (e.g., summary of major conceptual issues)	____/
2. Demonstration of key concepts	____/
3. How well the workshop involved members of the class	____/

Comments

Strong points

Weak points

Self-Evaluation Video Sheet

Name _____ Date _____

Title/Topic _____

How well have you met each section of the grading sheet requirements?

How well did you explain and support your ideas (e.g., evidence, testimony, examples)?

How effectively did you use previews?

How effectively did you use internal summaries?

How effectively did you use transitions?

Did you provide adequate nonverbal support (e.g., gestures, eye contact)?

What was your greatest strength?

What was your greatest weakness? How will you overcome it?

Peer Evaluation Sheet

Name _____ Date _____

Title/Topic _____

How did the speaker meet each section of the grading sheet requirements?

How well did the speaker explain and support your ideas (e.g., evidence, testimony, examples)?

How effectively did the speaker use previews?

How effectively did the speaker use internal summaries?

How effectively did the speaker use transitions?

Discuss the speaker's nonverbal support (e.g., gestures, eye contact).

What was the speaker's greatest strength?

What was the speaker's greatest weakness? How might he or she overcome it?

Outside Speech Critique Evaluation 1

Your Name _____

Speaker's Name _____ Date & Time _____

1. How did the speaker gain the attention of the audience?
2. How did the speaker relate the topic to the audience?
3. What was the thesis statement of the speech (or the main purpose)?
4. Was there a preview of the main points? List them.
5. How well did the speaker use supporting material? Give examples.
6. Discuss the speaker's conclusion. How well did he or she summarize the main theme? Did the speaker review the major points? To what extent was the conclusion creative?
7. Discuss the speaker's use of language. Was it clear, concise, creative?
8. Discuss the speaker's delivery (e.g., eye contact, gestures, vocal variety).
9. In what parts of the speech could the speaker have improved this presentation?

Outside Speech Critique Evaluation 2

Your Name _____

Speaker's Name _____ Date & Time _____

1. How did the speaker gain the attention of the audience?
2. How did the speaker relate the topic to the audience?
3. What was the thesis statement of the speech (or the main purpose)?
4. Was there a preview of the main points? List them.
5. How well did the speaker use supporting material? Give examples.
6. Discuss the speaker's conclusion. How well did he or she summarize the main theme? Did the speaker review the major points? To what extent was the conclusion creative?
7. Discuss the speaker's use of language. Was it clear, concise, creative?
8. Discuss the speaker's delivery (e.g., eye contact, gestures, vocal variety).
9. In what parts of the speech could the speaker have improved this presentation?

WHAT TO FOCUS ON WHEN TIME IS LIMITED

Preparing an oral presentation for other, general-education courses and major courses is not uncommon. It is possible that the *Pocket Guide* will be used as a supplement to a course you are teaching. Several essential topics should be covered when using this text as a supplement.

When the *Pocket Guide* is used as a supplement to a primary speaking assignment in your course, it is recommended that the following chapters be covered within one week:

Monday Chapter 5—“From A to Z: Overview of a Speech”

Wednesday Chapter 18—“Controlling the Voice”

Friday Chapter 19—“Using the Body”

or

Tuesday Chapter 5—“From A to Z: Overview of a Speech”

Thursday Chapters 18 and 19—“Controlling the Voice” and “Using the Body”

When the *Pocket Guide* is used to augment several speaking assignments in your course, the following is recommended over a three-week period:

Week 1: Chapter 5—“From A to Z: Overview of a Speech”
Chapters 18 and 19—“Controlling the Voice” and “Using the Body”

Week 2: Chapter 26—“Typical Classroom Presentation Formats”
One chapter from Chapters 27–33 (Assign the relevant chapter pertaining to the class content; i.e., science/mathematics, technical course, social science course, arts and humanities course, education course, nursing and allied health course, or business course.)

Week 3: Chapters 20 and 21—“Types of Presentation Aids” and “Designing Presentation Aids”

GRADING AND EVALUATING SPEECHES

There are two main components to consider when evaluating speeches. The most obvious critique of any public speaking presentation is the delivery of the speech. Aspects of delivery, discussed in detail in Chapters 17–19, include vocal elements and using the body. The second component to consider when evaluating speeches is the organization of the speech, including the speech outline. The speech outline should be evaluated to determine whether (1) the primary parts of the speech are present (e.g., introduction, body, and conclusion) and (2) the speech has main and supporting points of research. A typical speech evaluation is based on the following equation: 40 percent delivery and 60 percent speech outline, depending on the assignment.

A sample grade sheet is provided here to help you formulate an appropriate evaluation. The highlighted areas denote evaluation of delivery of speech. Other optional elements include the following: attention-getting introduction, clear preview of speech, adequacy of reference page (including use of style guides), use of presentation aid, and use of transitions between speakers.

Sample Grade Sheet

Element	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Poor	Comments
Eye contact					
Vocal variety					
Body (appearance/ gestures)					
Introduction					
Clear thesis/purpose					
Body					
Main points clear					
Good research/ supporting points					
Conclusion					
Time requirements met					

Part 3

Chapter-by-Chapter Analysis

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **The ability to speak publicly is a valuable asset that opens the door to many new opportunities both professionally and personally.**
- II. **Public speaking as a form of communication**
 - A. Communication scholars typically identify four forms of communication: dyadic, small group, mass, and public speaking.
 1. *Dyadic communication* occurs between two people.
 2. *Small group communication* involves a small number of people who can see and speak to one another.
 3. *Mass communication* is a form of speech in which the receivers of the message are not present or are part of such an immense crowd that there can be no interaction between speaker and listener.
 4. *Public speaking* occurs when a speaker delivers a message with a specific purpose to an audience of people who are present at the delivery of the speech.
 - B. Public speaking shares many characteristics with the other forms of communication; however, listeners expect a more systematic presentation.
- III. **Elements in the communication process**
 - A. There are several elements common to all forms of communication.
 1. The *source* is the person who creates and delivers a message through a process called *encoding*.
 2. The *receiver* is the recipient of the source's message. The receiver interprets the message through a process called *decoding*.
 3. The audience's response is called *feedback*.
 4. The *message* is the content of the communication process. It is thoughts and ideas put into meaningful expression.
 5. The *channel* is the medium through which the speaker sends a message.
 6. *Noise* is physical, psychological, emotional, or environmental interference that serves as a barrier to effective communication.
 7. *Shared meaning* is the mutual understanding of a message between speaker and audience. The creation of shared meaning is the primary purpose of communicating.

8. The *rhetorical situation* includes anything that influences the speaker, the audience, the speech, or occasion. When a speaker is aware of the rhetorical situation, he or she is *audience-centered*.
9. A clearly defined *speech purpose* or goal is necessary for an effective speech. Establishing a speech purpose early helps the speaker maintain a clear focus.

IV. The classical roots of public speaking

- A. The practice of oratory, called *rhetoric*, began in Greece.
- B. There are five parts to the process of preparing a speech, the *canons of rhetoric*. In order, they are:
 1. *invention*, adapting your speech to the audience
 2. *arrangement*, organizing your speech based on the topic and audience
 3. *style*, using specific language to express ideas
 4. *memory*, practicing the speech
 5. *delivery*, the vocal and nonvocal behavior during your presentation

V. Learning to speak in public

- A. Draw on familiar skills.
 1. Learning a new skill involves drawing on skills you already have. For example, public speaking involves skills used in conversation and writing.
 2. Conversation and public speaking both require that a speaker consider the audience, the topic, and the occasion.
 3. Speaking and writing both require a focused sense of the audience, some research or background information, and an organizational structure.
- B. Recognize public speakers' unique requirements.
 1. Although public speaking has much in common with other forms of communication, it is a unique skill.
 2. Conversation is more informal; public speaking requires more formal language usage with frequent use of repetition.
 3. Speakers must effectively use their time through clear, recognizable, and organized speech.
- C. Aim to become a culturally sensitive speaker.
 1. Speakers should avoid *ethnocentrism*; they should not assume a superior stance or presume that listeners share their viewpoints or frames of reference.
 2. Speakers must demonstrate *cultural intelligence*; they must be open to learning about other cultures through their interactions with them, and they must use that knowledge to develop appropriate responses when interacting with others from that culture.

KEY TERMS

dyadic communication communication between two people, as in a conversation.

- small group communication** communication involving a small number of people who can see and speak directly with one another, as in a business meeting.
- mass communication** communication that occurs between a speaker and a large audience of unknown people. The receivers of the message are not present with the speaker or are part of such an immense crowd that there can be no interaction between speaker and listener. Television, radio news broadcasts, and mass rallies are examples of mass communication.
- public speaking** a type of communication in which a speaker delivers a message with a specific purpose to an audience of people who are present during the delivery of the speech. Public speaking always includes a speaker who has a reason for speaking, an audience that gives the speaker its attention, and a message that is meant to accomplish a purpose.
- source** the person who creates a message, also called the *sender*. The speaker transforms ideas and thoughts into messages and sends them to a receiver or audience.
- encoding** the process of organizing a message, choosing words and sentence structure, and verbalizing the message.
- receiver** the recipient of the source's message; may be an individual or a group of people.
- decoding** the process of interpreting a message.
- feedback** audience response to a message, which can be conveyed both verbally and nonverbally through gestures. Feedback from the audience often indicates whether a speaker's message has been understood.
- audience perspective** stance taken by the speaker in which he or she adapts the speech to the needs, attitudes, and values of an audience.
- message** the content of the communication process—thoughts and ideas put into meaningful expressions. A message can be expressed verbally (through the sentences and points of a speech) and nonverbally (through eye contact and gestures).
- channel** the medium through which the speaker sends a message, such as sound waves, airwaves, and so forth.
- noise** anything that interferes with the communication process between speaker and audience, so that the message may not be understood; source may be external (in the environment) or internal (from psychological factors).
- shared meaning** the mutual understanding of a message between speaker and audience. Shared meaning occurs in varying degrees. The lowest level of shared meaning exists when the speaker has merely caught the audience's attention. As the message develops, depending on the encoding of choices by the source, a higher degree of shared meaning is possible.
- rhetorical situation** consideration of the audience, the occasion, and the overall speech situation when planning a speech.
- oratory** in classical terms, the art of public speaking.
- ethnocentrism** the belief that the ways of one's own culture are superior to those of other cultures. Ethnocentric speakers act as though everyone shares their point of view and points of reference, whether or not this is the case.
- rhetoric** the practice of public speaking, or oratory.

canons of rhetoric a classical approach to speechmaking in which the speaker divides a speech into five parts: invention, arrangement, style, memory, and delivery.

invention the classical term for the process of selecting information to illustrate or prove speech points.

arrangement one of five parts of the classical canons of rhetoric; refers to organizing the speech in ways that are best suited to the topic and audience.

style the specific word choices and rhetorical devices (techniques of language) that speakers use to express their ideas.

memory one of five parts of the classical canons of rhetoric; refers to practicing the speech until it can be delivered artfully.

delivery the vocal and nonvocal behavior that a speaker uses in a public speech; one of the five canons of rhetoric.

cultural intelligence the willingness to learn about other cultures and gradually reshape one's thinking and behavior in response to what one has learned.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are the similarities and differences between public speaking and other forms of communication?

Public speaking shares many similarities with dyadic, small group, and mass communication; it also has some notable differences. As in **dyadic communication**, or conversation, public speaking requires that you attempt to make yourself understood and take responsibility for what you say. Like **small group communication**, public speaking requires that you clearly address issues that are relevant to the topic and the occasion. And, as in **mass communication**, public speaking requires that you understand and appeal to the audience's interests, attitudes, and values. Public speaking differs from other forms of communication in terms of the opportunities it offers for feedback (there are fewer than in dyadic and small group, and more than in mass communication); the level of preparation required (greater than in other forms of communication); and the degree of formality involved (greater than in other forms of communication).

What are some of the benefits of public speaking in terms of personal and professional development?

Public speaking training offers many benefits. These include becoming a more knowledgeable person, developing critical thinking and listening skills, enhancing your abilities as a student, achieving professional success, and exploring and sharing your values and those of others.

What are the elements of the public speaking process?

The **source** is the sender, or the person who creates a message. The source engages in **encoding**, which involves organizing one's thoughts, choosing appropriate words, and verbalizing a message. The **receiver** is the recipient of the source's message, or the

audience. Receivers engage in **decoding** when they assign meaning to a message based on their own cultural background, experience, and personal attitudes. The **message** consists of the thoughts, ideas, or nonverbal actions conveyed by the sender. The **channel** is the medium through which the speaker sends a message to the receiver. **Shared meaning** is the mutual understanding of a message between a speaker and the audience.

Why is being culturally sensitive so important to success as a public speaker?

Audience members want to feel included and recognized in the speaker's remarks. To foster this sense of inclusion, today's public speaker must attempt to identify and understand the diversity of values and viewpoints held by audience members. Public speaking requires special consideration of the **speech context**.

What are the canons of rhetoric, and how do they function?

The canons of rhetoric detail a five-part process to preparing a speech. The five-part process includes: *invention*, adapting your speech to the audience; *arrangement*, organizing your speech based on the topic and audience; *style*, using specific language to express ideas; *memory*, practicing the speech; and *delivery*, the vocal and nonvocal behavior during your presentation.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. In what specific ways can effective public speaking benefit both your professional and personal lives?

Students should be able to touch on several of the following: Professional benefits include being a sought-after employee; getting information to employees, team members, supervisors; persuading and influencing others; being called on to speak to groups; getting and holding a job; and employing critical thinking and effective listening. Personal benefits may include expressing an opinion on a subject that one feels passionate about, engaging in civil and critical debate on a variety of subjects, and being able to address those who disagree with you as well as those who share your views.

2. Think of three speakers whom you think are effective. What makes them effective as public speakers? In what ways do they influence the people around them?

Students should feel free to cite both historical speakers of note and contemporary figures. Encourage students to identify individuals who speak within the community, the state, or on campus. When talking about how these people are effective, students should be able to cite such factors as audience analysis, creation of shared meaning, knowledge of one's topic, ethics, cultural sensitivity, and interpersonal influence.

3. The thought of speaking in public arouses fear in many people. What do you suppose are the sources of these fears? In other words, where do these feelings of anxiety or fear originate?

Getting people to talk about the causes of speech anxiety may help anxious students find ways to minimize their nervousness. Have students brainstorm common (and not so common) sources of public speaking anxiety (e.g., fear of being unattractive, fear of inadequacy, conflicting emotions, or a fear of criticism). Have students go down the formulated list and think of ways in which these sources can be dealt with, and how speech anxiety might be minimized. Also, encourage students to share their own experiences with speech anxiety and overcoming it. What kind of fear did they experience? How did they feel as a result of this fear, and what did they do to overcome this fear? What can students take from those experiences to apply to their own public speaking anxiety? (Speech anxiety is the topic of Chapter 6.)

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Talk to someone who works in a field that you are interested in. Ask the following questions: What specific communication skills are required by people entering your line of work? How important are public speaking skills to your job? How important to success in your career is effective public speaking?

Suggest that students try to anticipate the answers to these questions before they speak to their chosen professional. The first question may touch on such skills as organization, oral skills, research, and writing. Regarding the second question, the importance of public speaking may vary given specific duties within a job or a certain level of advancement one attains on the job. The third question would probably be answered in such a way as to address the professional and personal issues previously mentioned (see Discussion Question 1). Another option is to ask a representative from the campus career-placement center to speak to the class about the importance of public speaking skills, both during the employment interview and on the job.

2. Think back to a conversation in which you tried to achieve a particular result (e.g., giving advice, persuading the listener). What are the similarities between that situation and public speaking?

Students should be able to recognize that face-to-face conversation and public speaking share such aspects as choosing an appropriate channel, relying on the listener's feedback, being mindful of noise, noting the degree of formality, being prepared, being listener- or audience-centered (i.e., considering the receiver of the message), and conveying credibility as a message source. Encourage students to list these commonalities on the board during class discussion, or have them write a short paper relating a past experience of persuading someone in conversation.

3. List some examples of feedback conveyed by an audience, and identify each one as positive or negative. When do you think positive feedback is more appropriate than negative feedback? What are some ways in which speakers can deal with negative feedback they receive while making a speech?

Examples of positive feedback may include smiling, leaning forward, or nodding the head. Negative feedback may include yawning, rolling the eyes, or talking among audience members. Because speakers are in a more formal situation than they would be in dyadic communication, for example, they have much more control. Speakers can therefore take the opportunity to pay attention to the negative cues and adjust to them so that the audience becomes more positive, reinforcing nonverbal cues. Speakers cannot, however, pay attention to every single stimulus. Appropriate attention to feedback requires speakers to determine which behaviors are exhibited by a majority, or at least by many of the audience members, and adjust their delivery accordingly. Also, students must remember that they have more control over delivery in terms of responding to feedback than they do over adjusting a speech's content.

4. List three of your own strengths as a speaker. What are three weaknesses that you want to improve during this course?

Students should list only three strengths and three weaknesses. Try to discourage them from listing additional weaknesses, as this may hinder self-esteem and expectations for the course. Along these lines, remind students that they must list at least three strengths. Ask them to refer to this list throughout the semester, thus encouraging them to work on their weaknesses and, at the same time, add more strengths to the list. What weaknesses pose a challenge to the student? What can the student choose to do in order to enhance his or her strengths while minimizing the weaknesses?

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Work in a group of three or four classmates. Individually, divide a sheet of paper into two columns: Characteristics of an Effective Public Speaker and Characteristics of an Ineffective Public Speaker. Fill in these columns, and then compare them with other members of your group. Which characteristics of an effective speaker did your group agree on?

You may want to use this activity to facilitate a friendly debate, with students arguing or persuading others to agree with their list. This activity will encourage students to organize their arguments and put into practice some informal persuasive strategies.

2. In a group, formulate a list of objectives or goals that you think this public-speaking class should accomplish. Compare them with the goals and objectives of other groups and, as a class, try to come to a consensus on goals or objectives for the course.

You can use this activity in conjunction with the sections on the importance of public speaking, or on the benefits of public speaking, in order to enhance discussion. This can also be broken down into individual paper or essay assignments that students can hand in at the end of class.

3. In a group, draw a pictorial model or diagram that represents the communication process. Be sure to include all the components of the process (e.g.,

source, receiver, channel, decoding). How are the relationships among the components illustrated? What are the strengths and weaknesses of your model? Compare it to other groups' models.

This activity lends itself to a group paper assignment or a write-up to be handed in at the end of class. Bring in other models of communication that aren't listed in the book, and determine whether the students' models resemble the supplementary models you bring to the class's attention.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may help you illustrate important points in the chapter and facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. What are the four categories of human communication?

Dyadic communication, small group communication, mass communication, and public speaking.

2. What are the similarities between public speaking and other forms of communication?

- Key features of any communication are a skilled listener and a skilled conversationalist.
- *Small group communication and public speaking:* Both address a group of people who are focused on the speaker and expect him or her to clearly discuss issues that are relevant to the topic and the occasion.
- *Mass communication and public speaking:* The speaker understands and appeals to the audience members' interests, attitudes, and values.
- *Dyadic communication and public speaking:* The speaker must make him- or herself understood, involve and respond to the conversational partner, and take responsibility for what the speaker says.

3. What are the personal and professional benefits of public speaking.?

- Becoming more knowledgeable
- Honing critical thinking and listening skills
- Enhancing your performance as a student
- Accomplishing professional and personal goals
- Exploring and sharing values

4. Based on the benefits of public speaking:

- What skills do you hope to gain from this class?

- Are there other classes and out-of-school opportunities where you can use these skills?
- How can you make sure that you maximize the benefits of learning public speaking?

5. Define and explain the elements of communication. (Students may want to incorporate the elements of communication into an example or real-world situation.)

Source: The person who creates the message.

Encoding: The physical process of delivering the message.

Receiver: The recipient of the source's message; in public speaking, members of an audience.

Decoding: The process of interpreting the speaker's message.

Message: The content of the communication process; the speaker's thoughts and ideas put into meaningful expressions.

Channel: The medium through which the speaker sends a message.

Noise: Interference that serves as a barrier to communication; can include physical sounds (e.g., a slamming door) as well as psychological, emotional, or environmental interference.

Shared meaning: The mutual understanding of a message between speaker and audience.

6. Define a culturally sensitive speaker.

Culturally sensitive speakers assume that there are differences among people and address these differences with interest and respect.

7. Define a culturally intelligent speaker.

Culturally intelligent speakers are skilled and flexible toward understanding a culture and learn to reshape their thinking to develop responses appropriate to different cultures.

8. Do the canons of rhetoric need to be followed in order?

Yes. The canons of rhetoric define a five-part process to speech preparation. This process is described in terms of the sequential steps needed to prepare a successful speech.

ACTIVITIES**I Heard It through the Grapevine**

Purpose: To have last semester's students help this semester's students do their best in your class.

(Instructors need to do this at the end of one class in order to use it at the beginning of another.)

Instructions: Toward the end of the semester, ask your students to write a letter to next semester's students. Ask them to include any information they wish they had known at the beginning of the semester. This information can include knowledge about the book(s), the assignment(s), the instructor (his or her strengths, weaknesses, pet peeves), strategies to make the class fun and beneficial, or how to get a good grade.

At the beginning of the next semester, on the first day of class (either before or after going over the syllabus), give one letter to each of your students. Tell students that these letters are from last semester's students and they contain information that will help them in this class. Instruct each of the students to read the letter and then, one at a time, introduce themselves to the class and share some of the information in their letter. This will help students get valuable information about you and the class without feeling that you are lecturing to them—or laying down the law. Also, students will start to get to know one another and get used to speaking out loud.

The Silhouette Exercise

Purpose: To let students become familiar with their classmates, thereby lessening anxiety about speaking in front of strangers. Students will also gain experience in speaking in class and begin learning about visual aids.

Instructions: In this exercise students are asked to pair up and get to know one another. If it is done in class, allow a minimum of fifteen minutes at the end of a class in preparation for doing the activity in the next class session. Alternatively, students may be asked to meet outside of class for perhaps an hour, or more if they like, to prepare for the next class session. Ask students to interview one another, taking care to ask about specific aspects of their lives, such as where they have lived, what their hobbies and interests are, what their college experience has been like, and so forth. For the next class session, they should come prepared to make a three- to five-minute speech about the person they have interviewed. To illustrate aspects of that person's personality, they should bring the following items to class:

1. A large (9-by-12-inch or larger) sheet of paper on which a silhouetted profile is drawn
2. Any and all kinds of items to decorate the paper (e.g., pictures, magazine clippings, articles of clothing or other objects, drawings)

Depending on the instructor's discretion, the students may either "decorate" the silhouette in class or bring an already complete silhouette with them. Using this aid, students should give a three- to five-minute speech about the person they have illustrated.

(Alternatively, instructors may ask students to describe themselves, illustrating key points with visual aids. The exercise then becomes one of self-introduction.)

Speech of Introduction

Purpose: To help students introduce themselves to the class.

Materials: Students will bring objects to class that they feel best represent them or some part of their lives.

Instructions: Students will give a brief one- to three-minute speech in which they introduce themselves using the object as a symbol of who they are or of one of the roles they play in life.

Defining Communication through Words and Pictures

Purpose: To illustrate to students the differences among communication as action, interaction, and transaction.

Materials: Chalk, a blackboard, a piece of paper, and a pen.

Instructions: Students should be instructed to find a partner. Once they have formed pairs, students need to identify which person will act as the “source” and which will serve as the “receiver.” Students will need to arrange their chairs so that the source is able to see the board, while the receiver’s back is to the blackboard. The instructor will explain to the students that the source will communicate what he or she sees on the board to the receiver, and the receiver should attempt to follow the source’s directions and duplicate what is heard.

The instructor should draw or tape various pictures or shapes on the board for the students to duplicate. The exercise will be repeated three times. The instructor will deliver the following instructions each time the exercise is performed.

Action Model

Time 1: The source and the receiver should sit back-to-back so they cannot see each other. The source will describe what he or she sees on the board. Instruct the receivers not to communicate during this round.

Interaction Model

Time 2: Students will keep the same seating arrangements they had in Time 1. However, this time the receiver may ask questions or request additional information only after the source has finished each set of instructions.

Transaction Model

Time 3: This time, source and receiver are allowed to face each other. Partners can employ any form of communication necessary to accomplish the task. However, the receiver is still not allowed to look at the board.

Discussion after the assignment: In most cases the picture from Time 3 will yield the best representation of what was drawn on the board. This is true because both the source and the receiver of the message have had free range of communication. Instructors can note that by engaging in communication as a transaction, individuals are likely to engage in effective communication. Instructors should ask the students who participate the following questions:

Participant Looking at the Board

1. Was it hard for you to describe the object to your partner? Why?
2. What would have made it easier? Why?
3. Do you think you could have been a more effective communicator? How?

Participant Who Was Drawing

1. Was it hard for you to draw the object? Why?
2. Did the person answer your questions?
3. What would have made it easier for you to draw the object? Why?
4. Do you think your partner could have been a more effective communicator? How?
5. Could you have been a more effective communicator? How?

What's Your Number? . . . I'll Call You: Learning the Model of Communication

Purpose: To encourage students to learn and remember the communication model.

Materials: Students will need two telephones.

Instructions: The instructor brings two telephones to class. He or she asks for two student volunteers or picks two students to participate. Each student gets a phone. Students are then instructed that they will have a phone conversation for two to three minutes. To help facilitate the conversation, the instructor can give students the following scenarios to choose from. (Alternatively, students can make up their own scenarios.)

- You missed a class and need to call a classmate for notes.
- You are calling to ask someone on a date.
- You are calling to sell something.
- You are calling to ask for a donation.
- You are calling an old friend.
- You are calling in sick to work.
- You are calling your parents to ask for money or to give them bad news.
- You are calling to interview someone.
- You are calling to provide customer service or to get help with something.

Once students have finished with their conversations, the instructor begins asking the audience questions about the conversation. Questions should focus on the communication model.

- Who was the source in the conversation? Did this change? What role does the source play, and how does he or she fulfill this role?

Once the questions have been answered, the instructor can give students the correct terms and definitions for these answers. For example:

- A source is the sender of the message. Given that communication is a transaction, the source and the receiver are constantly changing. The role of the source is to encode the message. Encoding consists of:
 1. deciding what you want to send to the receiver(s).
 2. translating that meaning into a message through the use of symbols that are commonly shared between sender and receiver.
 3. actually choosing a channel and sending the message.

Instructors should follow the same format for each of the elements in the communication model: source, encoding, receiver, decoding, message, channel, noise, shared meaning, and feedback.

Once this process has been completed, if time allows, two more students should be handed the phones to have a second conversation. After this conversation is over, students should write down each of the elements in the communication model and provide an example from the second conversation. Students should work on this part independently and turn it in to the instructor upon completion.

Making a Difference: The Benefits of Public Speaking

Purpose: To encourage students to consider the personal benefits of public speaking.

Instructions: Ask students to answer the following questions. Once the questions have been completed, they can be turned in for credit or used to prompt classroom discussion.

1. How can public speaking make a difference in your personal and professional life?
2. How would your life change if you were unable or prevented from making a public address—if, for example, public speaking was against the law?
3. What are the benefits associated with public speaking?

Identifying Public Speakers

Purpose: To help students identify effective and ineffective methods of public speaking.

Materials: Students must have access to a television (movies and videos can also be used).

Instructions: Students will complete this assignment outside class. The teacher should instruct students to watch someone on television or in a movie/video and then analyze why the person has engaged in public speaking. This speaker can be someone in the news, politics, or business (a public figure); a celebrity giving a speech; or even a person in a clip from a sitcom or a movie.

Students should answer the following questions:

1. Who is the speaker, and what is the topic?
2. Is the speaker effective or ineffective? List the specific qualities that make the speaker good or bad.
3. What are the benefits of the speaker's speech?
4. What, if any, speech mannerisms do you find particularly annoying about the speaker?
5. What speech mannerisms do you engage in that others may find annoying?

Additional Instructions: This assignment can also be used as a semester-long project. Students can keep a speech journal in which they must watch at least one speech (or similar speaking event) a week and answer the preceding analytical questions.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Cusella, L. (1984). The effects of feedback source, message, and receiver characteristics on intrinsic motivation. *Communication Quarterly*, 211–21.
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SUGGESTED WEB SITES

- Public Speaking: Compton's Online Encyclopedia (<<http://www.comptons.com>>)
- National Speakers Association (<<http://www.nsaspeaker.org>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Influence others responsibly.**
 - A. Public speaking is a public act. Even though people have the right to speak freely, it is their responsibility to speak ethically.
 1. Ethics is derived from the Greek word *ethos*, meaning “character.”
 2. Aristotle said that audiences will be disposed to listen to and trust a speaker with positive ethos—competence, good moral character, and goodwill.
 - B. Know the difference between legal and ethical speech.
 1. In the United States, the First Amendment protects the right to free speech for both the ethical and unethical speaker.
 2. Free speech is the right to be free from unreasonable constraints on expression.
 3. Fighting words often provoke people to violence and are not protected under free speech.
 4. Also not protected is (a) defamatory speech, called *slander*, and (b) when a person knowingly states false information, called a *reckless disregard for the truth*.
 - C. Recognizing and respecting the audience’s values are imperative to ethical speaking.
 1. Values are the most enduring judgments or standards of what is good and bad in life, and of what’s important.
- II. **Observe ethical ground rules.**
 - A. The qualities of dignity and integrity are universally seen as central to ethical behavior.
 1. *Dignity* refers to feelings of worth, honor, or respect as a person.
 2. *Integrity* refers to the incorruptibility of the speaker—that is, to his or her unwillingness to compromise for the sake of personal expediency.
 - B. *Trustworthiness* is a combination of honesty and dependability; it is important for speaker credibility and ethical public speaking.
 - C. *Respecting* audience members means treating them as unique human beings, refraining from rudeness and personal attacks.
 - D. Responsible speakers communicate in ways that are accurate, careful, and objective.
 - E. Speakers should employ *fairness* in their speeches; they are obliged to acknowledge opposing views.
 - F. Ethical speakers avoid *hate speech*, any verbal or nonverbal communication that is offensive.

III. Avoid plagiarism.

- A. Ethical speakers avoid plagiarizing other people's ideas or words.
 1. *Plagiarism* is the use of other people's ideas or words without acknowledging the source.
 - a. Plagiarism is a serious breach of ethics.
 - b. Wholesale plagiarism is the misrepresentation of “cut-and-paste” material as your own.
 - c. Patchwrite plagiarism is changing the wording and sentence structure of copied source material and misrepresenting it as your own.
- B. Crediting sources is a crucial aspect of any speech.
 1. Any source that requires credit in written form should also be acknowledged in oral form.
 2. For each source, alert audience members to the type, the author or origin, the title or description, and the date of the source.
 - a. *Direct quotations* are statements made verbatim and should always be acknowledged.
 - b. *Paraphrased information*—information that is a restatement of someone else's statements, ideas, or written work in the speaker's own words—should always be credited.
 - c. The sources for any *facts and statistics* that you cite should always be credited.
 - d. *Common knowledge*—information that is likely to be known by many people—need not be cited.
- C. Ethical speakers seek permission as needed when including copyrighted materials from print and online sources in a speech.
 1. *Copyright* is a legal protection afforded original creators of literary and artistic works.
 2. For works created from 1978 to date, a copyright is good during the author's lifetime plus 50 years, and can be extended thereafter.
 3. *Public domain* works are those that have fallen out of copyright and may be reproduced by the public.
 4. The doctrine of *Fair Use* permits the limited use of copyrighted works without permission for use in scholarship, criticism, comment, news reporting, teaching, and research. Classroom speeches fall within these parameters.

KEY TERMS

ethos the Greek word for “character.” According to the ancient Greek rhetorician Aristotle, audiences listen to and trust speakers if they exhibit competence (as demonstrated by the speaker's grasp of the subject matter) and good moral character.

First Amendment the amendment to the U.S. Constitution that guarantees freedom of speech. (“Congress shall make no law abridging the freedom of speech.”)

defamatory speech a speech that potentially harms an individual's reputation at work or in the community.

reckless disregard for the truth a quality of defamatory speech that creates legal liability.

values our most enduring judgments about what is good or bad in life, as shaped by our culture and our unique experiences within it.

dignity the feeling that one is worthy, honored, or respected as a person.

integrity the quality of being incorruptible; able to avoid compromise for the sake of personal expediency.

trustworthiness the quality of displaying both honesty and dependability.

respect to feel or show deferential regard. For the ethical speaker, respect ranges from addressing audience members as unique human beings to refraining from rudeness and other forms of personal attack.

responsibility a charge, trust, or duty for which one is accountable.

fairness an ethical ground rule; making a genuine effort to see all sides of an issue; being open-minded.

hate speech any offensive communication—verbal or nonverbal—directed against people's race, ethnicity, religion, gender, or other characteristics. Racist, sexist, or ageist slurs; gay bashing; and cross burnings are all forms of hate speech.

plagiarism the act of using other people's ideas or words without acknowledging the source.

wholesale plagiarism a form of plagiarism in which material is "cut-and-pasted" into a speech from print or online sources and represented as one's own.

patchwrite plagiarism a form of plagiarism in which material is copied from a source and then occasional words and sentence structure are changed to make it appear as if the material were one's own.

direct quotation statement made verbatim—word for word—by someone else. Direct quotations should always be acknowledged in a speech.

paraphrase a restatement of someone else's statements or written work that alters the form or phrasing but not the substance of that person's ideas.

common knowledge information that is likely to be known by many people and is therefore in the public domain; the source of such information need not be cited in a speech.

public domain bodies of work, including publications and processes, available for public use without permission; not protected by copyright or patent.

fair use doctrine legal guidelines permitting the limited use of copyrighted works without permission for the purposes of scholarship, criticism, comment, news reporting, teaching, or research.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What is the relationship between speech that is legal and speech that is ethical?

There isn't necessarily one. The First Amendment ensures protection to both the honest and the dishonest and offensive speaker. Codes of ethical speech are built on moral rather than legal principles.

What are values, and what is their relationship to ethics?

Values are our most enduring judgments, or standards, of what's good and bad in life and of what's important to us. Our ethical choices in daily life and in our speeches are our values in action. Ethical speaking requires that we recognize and respect the audience's values, even when they diverge from our own.

Why is an awareness and appreciation of values—both our own and others'—important in ensuring ethical speaking?

Being alert to differences in values can help us speak ethically by sensitizing us to the existence of alternative viewpoints. We can use this awareness to review potential topics from a **culturally sensitive perspective**. It can also serve as a reminder that differences in dialects or accents, nonverbal cues, word choice, and even physical appearance can be barriers to understanding.

What two characteristics are universally seen as central to ethical behavior?

Although there is no single agreed-on code of ethical standards for communication, the qualities of dignity and integrity are universally seen as central to ethical behavior. **Dignity** implies the feeling of being worthy, honored, or respected as a person. **Integrity** implies incorruptibility, being able to avoid compromise for the sake of personal expediency. Speakers who demonstrate dignity and integrity exhibit a hallmark of ethical speaking: concern for the greater good.

In addition to dignity and integrity, what other qualities do ethical speakers exhibit?

Ethical speaking requires that we be trustworthy, respectful, responsible, and fair in our presentations. **Trustworthiness** is a combination of honesty and dependability. **Respect** ranges from addressing audience members as unique human beings to refraining from rudeness and other forms of personal attack.

What is plagiarism, and why is it unethical?

Plagiarism is the passing off of someone else's information as one's own. To plagiarize is to use other people's ideas or words without acknowledging the source. Plagiarism is universally regarded as unethical because it is a form of stealing.

How can you avoid plagiarizing?

The rule for avoiding plagiarism as a public speaker is straightforward: Any source that requires credit in written form should also be acknowledged in oral form. These sources include direct quotations, paraphrased information, facts, statistics, and just about any other kind of information gathered and reported by others.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What advice about ethical public speaking would you give to a political candidate? Why do you think so many people are skeptical of politicians? Can you recall listening to any political speeches that struck you as ethically problematic? In what way?

Political candidates should probably have a clear conceptualization of what it means to speak and act ethically, and it may be a good idea for students to include this idea in their advice. Also, people may be skeptical of politicians because they may not believe politicians are speaking honestly, or believe that what they say reflects only certain interests. Have students examine some classic political speeches, particularly Richard Nixon's "Checkers" speech, and ask them to examine these speeches from an ethical perspective. Campaign speeches from more recent state or presidential races may also be used for this assignment.

2. Are profanity and vulgarity always unethical in public speeches? Can you think of situations where they would seem appropriate? What types of situations, and why?

Talk about possible reactions people may have to vulgar or profane words, and whether these reactions are important to consider in a public speaking situation. Situations in which vulgarity or profanity are acceptable may include specialized audiences that understand the use of such language (such as rock musicians), situations in which vulgarity and profanity are used for educational or artistic reasons, or cases in which a source or a person is quoted for his or her testimony. Encourage students to brainstorm situations in which profanity is appropriate, and encourage them to establish guidelines for the class regarding the use of vulgarity and profanity.

3. What do you think the penalties should be for plagiarizing someone else's work? Should the penalty for plagiarizing someone else's work in entirety be the same as that for plagiarizing parts of it? Explain your position.

Discuss the school's policies regarding plagiarism, which are found in the Student Code of Conduct. Are these policies too strict or too lenient? Discuss an alternative penalty system that the school could adopt, such as that plagiarism of *parts* of a speech should be dealt with by the instructor only, whereas plagiarism of an *entire* speech should be dealt with at the administrative level. Talk about other possible variations on this idea.

4. What are some ways in which a speaker can regain the confidence of those who have accused her or him of unethical communication?

Suggest that speakers should discover exactly what led to the accusations. Should some acts require simply addressing and apologizing for the unethical act, while others require tangible action on the part of the speaker? Use this activity as a short writing assignment, and suggest that students use a real-life example to elaborate on their points.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Listen to a speech on C-Span, or check out a speech on videotape from your library. Does the speaker uphold the responsibilities necessary for ethical speaking? Why or why not? As a listener to this speech, what would your responsibilities be?

Before viewing such a tape or clip, have students spell out the criteria necessary for ethical communication and have them use the criteria to evaluate what they view. Does the speaker address the ethical criteria in terms of the audience to whom he or she speaks? It would also be a good idea for the class to list the criteria for ethical listening (e.g., adjusting to the speaker's style, being honest and fair in evaluating the message, and not assessing the message at face value).

2. Think about the times you have spoken in groups or at meetings. Was there ever an occasion when you could have been more ethical with your message? Explain.

Have students write about a recent speaking situation, whether it is a class discussion, a club meeting, or another event at which they voiced their ideas. Could they have been more ethical? Why or why not? Encourage students to assess past ethical behavior using key issues in the chapter (e.g., trustworthiness, integrity, respect, responsibility, fairness).

3. Who are some of the most ethical people you have known personally? Have you tried to emulate their behavior? What are some of the qualities that you admired most about these people? On the basis of these qualities, what advice could you offer to other people about becoming more ethical?

Students should be encouraged to think of people who follow the rules of trustworthiness, integrity, respect, responsibility, and fairness. Students should also think of personal acquaintances as well as those of local, national, and/or international repute. When students are giving advice based on the ethics of these individuals, have them select people of questionable ethical behavior and then brainstorm pieces of advice in class.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Form a team of four or five people. Suppose you have been asked to give a panel presentation at the international students' orientation. What are some of the things you should think about to ensure that your speech is ethical?

Suggest that students utilize such concepts as trustworthiness, taking responsibility, being fair, and avoiding ethnocentrism, and that they work on this panel presentation as a group assignment that incorporates key ethical issues discussed in the chapter.

2. As part of a group project, find a relevant fact or piece of information on the Internet. Give two ways of conveying this information to your audience; include citations for your source.

Students may want to approach this activity by considering that Internet sources differ in credibility and content. If students collect information from what would be considered a more “personal” source (e.g., Billy Bob’s homepage), they should probably consider it less credible than, for example, the American Medical Association’s homepage. Therefore, more credible pages may be presented as actual references and used to provide statistical, testimonial, or explanatory support. The information from Billy Bob’s homepage, on the other hand, could be used as an example or a hypothetical story, not as a piece of verifiable documentation.

3. Working in a small group, find a speech that was given sometime during the last ten years. Examine the speech to detect any problems with ethics. Present a report to the class on your findings.

This is an excellent opportunity for a group project that uses chapter concepts. Encourage students to select political speeches or addresses given by noteworthy humanitarians. Encourage students to apply the chapter’s criteria to the speech and then to apply those criteria in a group paper, a presentation, or both.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate the important points in the chapter and to facilitate students’ learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
 - quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. Think about ethics and freedom of speech, and generate some speech categories that may be ethically questionable.
 - racist speeches
 - homophobic speeches
 - sexist speeches
 - hate speeches
 - speeches on hardcore pornography
 2. Ask students to provide examples of the preceding items.
 3. Values play an important role in public speaking. When speakers are alert to differences in values, they can deliver their message ethically. What can make a speaker more alert?

- Being sensitive to the existence of alternative viewpoints.
 - Reviewing potential topics from a culturally sensitive perspective.
 - Being mindful that differences in dialects or accents, nonverbal cues, word choice, and even physical appearance can be barriers to understanding.
4. Identify and explain the ground rules for ethical speaking.
 - **Dignity:** a feeling of worth, honor, or respect as a person.
 - **Integrity:** incorruptibility. Speakers who demonstrate integrity do not compromise for the sake of personal expediency.
 - **Trustworthiness:** revealing your true purpose to your audience; not using misleading, deceptive, or false information; acknowledging sources.
 - **Respect:** focus on the issue rather than on personalities; allow the audience the power of relational choice; avoid in-group and out-group distinctions; avoid using jargon, stereotypes, and ethnocentrism.
 5. Pick two of the preceding ground rules for ethical speaking, and give personal examples of either complying with or breaking these rules.
 6. What is plagiarism, and how can you avoid it?

Plagiarism: the use of other people's ideas or words without acknowledging the source. You can avoid it by remembering that any source that requires credit in written form should also be acknowledged in oral form.

ACTIVITIES**Is Lying Ever OK? When?**

Purpose: To encourage students to think about lying and to determine their own thoughts and feelings about the moral and ethical implications of lying.

Instructions: *Part 1:* First, have students form small groups (four to five members). Then have them compile a list of ways they think they can tell if someone is lying. Next, have them list strategies they have used or might recommend for telling others a lie. Finally, have them decide if people are better at detecting lies from those they know really well or from those they hardly know.

Part 2: Within the same groups, have students identify interpersonal circumstances that might justify lying. Also, discuss whether lying is ever justified, and if so, when and why? Next, ask students to make a list of public speaking circumstances that might justify lying.

Discussion: As a whole, the class should discuss the information obtained in both Parts 1 and 2. In addition, the instructor could ask students why they believe they are justified in lying. Also, how would they feel if they were lied to, even if the source had his or her own justifications?

Becoming Credible through Competence

Purpose: To help students establish credibility when they are giving a speech.

Instructions: Have students choose a topic, either one they plan to give a speech about or one that interests them as a possible topic for the future. Alternatively, the instructor may assign topics or have students pick their topic out of a hat. Based on their topic, students will generate ideas about how they would engage in the acts listed below in order to demonstrate their competence. (*Competence* here is defined as the audience's perception of the speaker's expertise, knowledge, and experience on the topic or issue at hand). The goal is to think of creative ways to signal their own competence without being blatant.

1. Disclosing your relationship to the topic
2. Using sources that are not used by everyone else
3. Wearing clothing or objects to signal your relationship to the topic
4. Using live models to illustrate your point
5. Revealing experience related to the topic
6. Demonstrating talent
7. Avoiding disorganization

Ethical Speech Topics

Purpose: To determine various types of appropriate and ethical speech topics for a public speaking class.

Instructions: Have students list three or four topics that they consider inappropriate or unethical for a classroom setting. Then have students form into groups of four or five members to compare their lists. Based on the lists of all group members, generate a list of five ground rules to determine the appropriateness of a topic. Once each group has compiled a list, the instructor will write the lists on the board, combining similar ground rules to generate a final list of ground rules. Students should write this list down in their notebooks to use for future topic selection.

What Is Plagiarism?

Purpose: To determine what constitutes plagiarism.

Instructions: Divide students into small groups of four or five, and have them make a list of what they consider to be plagiarism. Then ask them to review the definition of *plagiarism* (“any act that involves the obtaining, by any means, of another person’s work and the unacknowledged submission or incorporation of it in one’s own work”^{*}). Once students have heard the definition, ask them to write down anything else they would consider to be plagiarism. Also, ask students whether they have ever known anyone who was caught plagiarizing. Once groups are done, have them compare their lists with other groups to see what they may have overlooked.

Discussion: The instructor should provide each student with a copy of the school’s Code of Ethics and its policy on plagiarism. Students should compare the Code of Ethics with their lists and then discuss any differences they find. Also, the instructor should ask students why they believe that plagiarism is wrong. Conclude with a discussion of the benefits of doing one’s own work.

^{*}This definition is taken from the *Student Handbook and Code of Student Life*, University of North Carolina at Wilmington, 1991–92.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Bowan, J. S., & Menzel, D. C. (Eds.) (1997). *Teaching ethics and values in public administration programs*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.
- Capaldi, N. (1974). *The art of deception*. New York: Prometheus.
- Day, L. A. (1997). *Ethics in media communications: Cases and controversies* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
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- Stock, G. (1987). *The book of questions*. New York: Workman.
- Walker, S. (1994). *Hate speeches: The history of an American controversy*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Weaver, R. (1985). *The ethics of rhetoric*. Davis, CA: Hermagora.
- Williams, R. M. (1970). *American society: A sociological interpretation* (3rd ed.). New York: Knopf.

SUGGESTED WEB SITE

National Speakers Association Code of Ethics (<<http://www.nsahouston.org>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. We listen selectively.

- A. *Listening* is the conscious act of receiving, comprehending, evaluating, and responding to messages.
- B. In any given situation, no two listeners process information in exactly the same way. This is because people pay attention selectively to certain messages and ignore others, known as *selective perception*.
 - 1. People pay attention to information they deem to be important.
 - 2. People pay attention to information that touches their experience and background.
 - 3. People sort and filter new information on the basis of what they already know.

II. Common obstacles to listening

- A. *Active listening* is focused, purposeful listening. Inattentiveness and distractions are internal and external forces that compete for the listener's attention.
- B. *External listening* distractions include anything in the environment that can distract from listening. Noise, movement, light, darkness, heat, and cold are possible obstacles that speakers can minimize by anticipating and planning for them.
- C. *Internal listening* distractions include the individual's thoughts, feelings, and physical and physiological states. Speakers and listeners must concentrate and prepare themselves for the speech.
- D. Scriptwriting and *defensive listening* are intrinsically related.
 - 1. People often write scripts, or think about the next thing they will say, rather than focus on the speaker.
 - 2. Because scriptwriting is often motivated by feelings of defensiveness or the perception that one's attitudes or opinions are being challenged, it is generally referred to as defensive listening.
- E. *Laziness* and *overconfidence* create obstacles because listeners assume that they already know, or don't need to know, what the speaker is saying.
 - 1. To address this problem, listeners should avoid making assumptions and make a concerted, conscious effort to attend to the speaker's message.

- F. *Cultural barriers*, including differences in dialects, accents, nonverbal cues, gestures, word choice, and physical appearance, negatively impact listening.

III. Practice active listening.

- A. To become an active listener, people should set listening goals, listen for the speaker's main ideas, take notes, and watch for the speaker's nonverbal cues.
- B. As you listen to a speech you should also critically evaluate it.
 - 1. Critical thinkers evaluate evidence in terms of accuracy, refutation, and the credibility and reliability of the source.
 - 2. Critical thinkers analyze assumptions and biases behind arguments, claims, and conclusions. This analysis includes assessing reasoning for signs of faulty logic and searching for alternative explanations.
 - 3. Critical thinkers assess an argument's logic and the speaker's reasoning.
 - 4. Critical thinkers distinguish similarities and differences in opposing views and decide what they hold to be true based on evidence.
 - 5. Critical thinkers consider multiple perspectives.
 - 6. Critical thinkers summarize and judge evidence for themselves.
- C. Use the thought/speech differential to listen critically.
 - 1. We listen at a much faster rate than we speak, creating a differential between "thought speed" and "speech speed." This is one reason we are so easily distracted.
 - 2. To avoid the distraction of thinking ahead of the speaker, ask yourself questions about the speaker's true meaning and any underlying assumptions he or she may have. Consider how your own biases are intruding on your listening, as well as how you can use the speaker's information.
- D. Offer constructive and compassionate feedback by being fair and honest in your evaluation and focus on the speech, not the speaker.

KEY TERMS

listening the conscious act of receiving, comprehending, interpreting, and responding to messages.

selective perception a psychological principle that posits that listeners pay attention selectively to certain messages and ignore others.

active listening a multistep, focused, and purposeful process of gathering and evaluating information.

listening distraction anything that competes for attention. The source of distraction may be internal or external.

defensive listening a poor listening behavior in which the listener reacts defensively to a speaker's message.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What is listening, and why is it important?

Rather than being a reflexive response, listening is a complex, learned behavior. Listening is the process of recognizing, understanding, and accurately interpreting the messages communicated by others.

What are the major obstacles to active listening?

Obstacles to active listening include cultural barriers; environmental, emotional, and physiological distractions; daydreaming; scriptwriting and defensive listening; and laziness and overconfidence.

What steps can you take to become a more active listener?

Monitor your listening to avoid the poor listening habits noted previously. As you listen, do so consciously, and try to apply these steps: set listening goals; focus listening efforts; concentrate; watch for the speaker's nonverbal cues; listen for the speaker's thesis or main point; and evaluate the speaker's evidence.

How can you listen critically?

Critical thinking is the ability to evaluate claims on the basis of well-supported reasons. It involves both a set of skills and the willingness to use these skills in the service of objective judgment. Critical thinkers evaluate evidence; analyze assumptions and biases; resist false dilemmas, overgeneralizations, and either-or thinking; identify contradictions; consider multiple perspectives; and summarize and judge. Critical thinking goes hand in hand with active listening.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Discuss how rude listening may manifest itself in the classroom.

Responses might include attacking the speaker's point of view with angry comments, ignoring the speaker by talking with others, and alienating and angering classmates by not allowing them to express their ideas without interruption.

2. Discuss what it means to be a socially responsible listener.

Socially responsible listening means critically listening to the message without attacking the speaker's self-concept, listening for the key or main points in an argument, and allowing for all types of speech. Does this typically occur when a speaker has an interesting topic? What if his or her communication style is dynamic but the topic is not relevant to the audience?

3. Do you think that some people are natural-born listeners?

Some people naturally listen well. What qualities make natural-born listeners different from people who must work at being good listeners? Compare these qualities with what you have learned in this chapter.

4. Name some famous people or individuals you know whom you believe to be good listeners.

Reasons for selecting these people should include their ability to minimize or avoid barriers, evidence of active listening, and evidence of understanding people's messages and engaging in critical thinking. It is worth pointing out that, despite how "natural" some people are, listening is still a communication activity that requires practice and training in order to be done effectively.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Bring in examples of speeches seen on television or heard on the radio.

The proportion of the audience who listen attentively may depend on the type of audience for the speech. Who was the intended audience? Was the topic of the speech appropriately directed at the audience? Did the speaker adapt his or her speech to the audience by using appropriate terminology and nonoffensive terms, and by paying attention to feedback?

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. In a small group, brainstorm some songs that have memorable lyrics. Discuss the types of messages in the lyrics that cause listeners to pay close attention and remember better. Bring examples to class to support your ideas. What elements of song lyrics that make them interesting and memorable could be transferred to public speeches?

Elements of lyrics that might catch listeners' attention include repetition, alliteration (using like-sounding consonants in a phrase), and appeals to listeners' emotions. Encourage students to bring in song lyrics that demonstrate these characteristics, among others.

2. As a team, conduct a search of the Internet using the keyword *listening*. Look for sites that report both problems and solutions associated with listening. Bring the results of your search to class, and share them with your classmates.

Suggest that students search online for organizations that promote listening (such organizations may encourage effective listening in organizational settings and within personal relationships as well as present research on listening). This activity can also be used to research such topics as ways of identifying credible sources online and correctly citing references obtained online.

3. Form a group of four to six people. Devise a "Listening Challenge," much like Jeopardy, College Bowl, or Twenty Questions, that focuses on listening. Create the rules, procedures, questions, answers, and so on. Have your classmates act as participants. Make it challenging so that the more the participants demonstrate their knowledge of listening, the greater their rewards.

Such an activity could be useful in reviewing material that will appear on an exam. The questions asked could be generated by the students themselves and be based on what they think will be covered on the next exam. Form teams within the class, and promote a friendly competition among them. This activity could then be expanded to include material from other chapters.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
 - quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. Listening involves selective perception, which is influenced by several factors. List and define these factors.
 - **Selective perception:** the process by which people pay attention to certain messages and ignore others.
 - People pay attention to information they feel is important.
 - People pay attention to information that touches their experience and background.
 - People sort and filter new information on the basis of what they already know.
 2. List and explain the barriers to active listening.
 - **Inattention and distraction:** external distractions and internal distractions.
 - **Scriptwriting and defensive listening:** thinking about what you will say next and deciding that you won't like what the speaker is going to say.
 - **Laziness and overconfidence:** thinking that you already know, or don't need to know, what the speaker is going to say.
 - **Cultural barriers:** different dialects or accents, nonverbal cues, word choices, or appearance.
 3. What are the strategies for active listening?
 - Set listening goals.
 - Listen for the speaker's thesis or main point.
 - Take notes.
 - Try to detect the organizational pattern.
 - Seek out main ideas in the introduction, transitions, and conclusion.
 - Watch for the speaker's nonverbal cues.
 - Take note of the speaker's body language, facial expressions, and gestures.

ACTIVITIES**Whisper Down the Lane**

Purpose: This old children's game can be used to illustrate the complexity associated with listening to a message and then passing it on. Poor listening skills hinder the accurate reception of a message.

Instructions: Instructors can use the entire class for this activity or select ten to fifteen students to participate. The students should stand or sit in a line. The instructor should come to class with a story of three or four sentences written on a piece of paper. The instructor will read the story to the first student. That student will turn to the next student, passing on the message that was just received. Each time the message is passed on, it should be repeated only once. When the last student receives the message, he or she will then repeat the story out loud to the rest of the class. The instructor then takes out the sheet of paper and reads the original message.

Example Story 1: Picky Vicky liked to eat her sticky, icky cinnamon buns. But sometimes, which were not fun times, when she licked her cinnamon bun she received a prickle that tickled her tongue.

Example Story 2: Students find statistics rather sadistic because of all the formulas they need to compute, like what is z , and how to get b , do I know the variability, and what is the comparability of r and r^2 ? Should I care?

Discussion: How does the final version differ from the original message? Where did the breakdown in communication take place? The instructor might ask each student what was said to him or her and then ask the person before that student if that is the message that was sent. Discussion could also include barriers to listening and ways to overcome them.

Additional Instructions: After discussing active listening skills, students can repeat the activity. The instructor can use another story and see if students tell a more accurate final version.

Listening Actively

Purpose: To illustrate the importance of listening actively and of refraining from making unsubstantiated inferences.

Instructions: The instructor reads the following story to the class. Students listen closely to the story and then answer a series of simple questions.

Story: At 5:00 P.M. on Saturday evening at the corner of Washington and Jefferson Streets, a man came staggering out of a bar. A second man approached the first, apparently to inquire whether there was a problem. An argument ensued. The second man pushed the first man. A crowd gathered to watch. One spectator left to get help. About fifteen minutes later, a person in uniform came and tried to break up the fight between the two men. The disagreement settled down, and first aid was administered to a spectator who was apparently overcome by a heart attack.

1. What time did the man come out of the bar?
2. Which man had been drinking?
3. Who started the fight? Who shoved whom first?
4. What were the two men arguing about?
5. Who had the heart attack?
6. How long was it before the person in uniform broke up the fight? (Was the person a man or a woman?)
7. Who administered first aid?
8. Where did the incident occur?

Source: Kearney, P., & Plax, T. G. (1996). *Public speaking in a diverse society*. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield.

Semantic Barriers to Listening

Purpose: To help students understand how attitudes about certain topics affect listening.

Instructions: Below is a list of words to which some people may have strong reactions. In the space provided, indicate your own reaction to or first impression of each of those words or phrases. Record your first response; work through your list quickly. Use the following scale: (5) highly favorable, (4) favorable, (3) neutral, (2) unfavorable, or (1) highly unfavorable.

- _____ Animal rights
- _____ College tuition
- _____ Affirmative action or quotas
- _____ Capitalism
- _____ Gun control/the Second Amendment
- _____ School prayer
- _____ Pornography
- _____ Violence on television
- _____ Undocumented aliens
- _____ Let me introduce “Mrs. Jane Doe.”

Discussion

1. To what extent do you think your reaction to each of these phrases would affect your ability to concentrate fully and listen actively to a speaker’s message?
2. In other words, based on your varied emotional responses to these phrases, how would each phrase tend to distract or assist you in listening actively to a speech on that topic?
3. What other words or phrases could a speaker use to replace or neutralize these phrases?
4. List alternatives next to each phrase.

Source: Adapted from Bethea, L. S., & Morris, M. M. (1996). *Public speaking in a diverse society: Student workbook*. Dallas, TX: Alliance Press.

I Spy: Identifying Good Listeners

Purpose: To identify effective and ineffective listening in the real world.

Instructions: Students should complete this assignment outside of class. The teacher should instruct students to (1) attend a speech or presentation in person, (2) observe individuals engaged in conversation, or (3) watch a television program or a movie/video and analyze an individual who is “supposedly” engaging in listening. The source can be audience members at a speech/presentation, a student in a class, a child listening to a parent, a boyfriend and girlfriend talking, employees in a meeting, or friends talking at a restaurant.

Students should answer the following questions:

1. Whom are you observing and in what type of situation?
2. Does the person appear to be an effective or ineffective listener? List the specific qualities, both verbal and nonverbal, that make the person a poor listener or a good listener.
3. Does the listener engage in any behaviors that interfere with the speaker (heckling, talking, making other noises, moving about, and so forth)?
4. What are the benefits of being a good listener? Does this listener appear to receive these benefits?

Discussion: Have students report their findings to the class and then discuss some of the more interesting and relevant ones. Instructors should focus the discussion on good and poor listening behaviors.

Additional Instructions: This assignment may also be used as a semester-long project. Students can keep a listener journal in which they must watch at least one speech (or similar speaking event) a week and then answer the preceding analytical questions.

Mystery Sounds

Purpose: To give students an opportunity to practice being active listeners, and to help them improve their listening skills.

Materials: A cassette tape, a tape recorder, and a little imagination.

Instructions: Tape-record ten to fifteen sounds that you hear every day. Leave at least five seconds between each sound. Sounds should range from easy to difficult to identify. Some examples are water dripping, a door creaking, a toilet flushing, paper running through a computer printer, a barking dog, and the wind blowing.

During class students will listen to the tape and try to identify the sounds. This can be completed in one of two ways: the instructor can (1) make up a tape or (2) assign student(s) to create a tape. This may take some extra time and thought, so instructors may want to give it as an extra-credit assignment or a makeup assignment to student(s) who might have missed some previous work.

Students will listen to the tape during class and try to identify each sound. Students need to write down their answers. Then the originator of the tape will provide the correct answers so that students can check theirs. Although it will be hard for the instructor to grade this type of assignment, the student with the most correct answers could be rewarded in some way.

Listen to What I Am Not Saying

Purpose: To give students the opportunity to reflect on their own listening skills and the emotions they feel as they listen.

Materials: Students will need a cassette tape, a tape recorder, and a little imagination.

Instructions: Make up a story without using words. Use background sounds, music, gibberish, noises, and the like to tell the story. This assignment can be completed in one of two ways: the instructor can (1) either make up a tape or (2) assign student(s) to create a tape. This may take some extra time and thought, so instructors may want to assign this for extra credit or as a makeup assignment.

During class students will listen to the tape, write down the feelings the sounds evoke in them, and describe the story they think is being told.

Discussion: Ask students to talk about the feelings they experienced and about the story they believed was being told. Then ask the originator of the tape to tell the audience what feelings he or she was trying to communicate. Students may also discuss sounds that are used on television or in the movies to convey feelings.

What Color Do You Hear? Learning to Listen Using Color

Purpose: To help students practice active listening.

Materials: Flashlights, colored cellophane or plastic wrap, music, and something with which to play music.

Instructions: Bring several flashlights to class, and cover the ends with different-colored cellophane. Darken the room and play some type of music (instructor's or students' choice). Ask for as many volunteers as there are flashlights. While the music plays, ask the volunteers to respond to the music with their flashlights. For example, someone might use the flashlight with red light to travel up the wall as the pitch goes up, or use the blue light to go down the wall as the pitch descends. Students can respond to the volume, pitch, or rhythm of the music or to the various instruments. Switch volunteers and music as much or as little as you desire.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Adler, M. J. (1983). *How to speak, how to listen*. New York: Macmillan.
- Anastasi, T. E. (1982). *Listen! Techniques for improving communication skills*. CBI series in management communication. Boston: CBI.
- Borisoff, D., & Purdy, M. (1995). *Listening in everyday life: A personal and professional approach*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.
- Golen, S. (1990). A factor analysis of barriers to effective listening. *Journal of Business Communication*, 27, 25–36.
- Nichols, M. P. (1995). *The lost art of listening*. New York: Guilford.
- Steel, L. K. (1983). *Listening: It can change your life*. New York: Wiley.
- Wolff, F. I., & Marsnik, N. C. (1992). *Perceptive listening* (2nd ed.). Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Wolvin, A. D., & Coakley, C. (1992). *Listening* (4th ed.). Dubuque, IA: William C. Brown.

4 *Types of Speeches*

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **There are three types of presentations.**
 - A. An *informative speech* provides an audience with new information, new insights, or new ways of thinking about a topic.
 - B. A *persuasive speech* is intended to influence the attitudes, beliefs, values, or acts of others.
 - C. A *special occasion speech*, also called a *ceremonial speech*, is prepared for a specific occasion and for a purpose dictated by that occasion.

KEY TERMS

informative speech a speech providing new information, new insights, or new ways of thinking about a topic. The general purpose of an informative speech is to increase the audience's understanding and awareness of a topic.

persuasive speech a speech whose goal is to influence the attitudes, beliefs, values, or acts of others.

special occasion speech a speech that is prepared for a specific occasion and for a purpose dictated by that occasion.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. A brief overview of the speechmaking process

- A. Begin by selecting a speech topic that you find interesting. It is also important to keep in mind how interesting your topic will be to your audience.
- B. Analyze your audience, especially those factors that will influence receptivity. In addition, you should consider how the audience will react to your approach.
- C. Determine the general and specific purposes of your speech.
- D. Use the specific purpose of your speech to create a thesis statement.
- E. Organize the speech around two or three main points.
- F. Research to gather supporting materials for the main points of the speech. This step is important because it influences the credibility of the message.
- G. Outline the speech in order to examine your thought processes and to better organize the main points of the speech.
 - 1. The major speech parts in an outline include the introduction, the body, and the conclusion.
- H. Practicing the speech allows you to become comfortable with what you plan to say and to address any problems that might arise during the speech.
 - 1. Speakers need to focus on vocal delivery as well as nonverbal delivery such as eye contact and gestures.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTION

Briefly describe the steps in putting together a speech.

The steps involved in preparing a speech include (1) selecting a topic, (2) analyzing the audience, (3) stating the speech purpose, (4) developing the thesis and main points, (5) gathering supporting materials, (6) outlining the speech, and (7) rehearsing the speech.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Why is it important to follow a specific overview in constructing a speech? Why not just write whatever comes naturally?

Although creativity is an important attribute of speechwriters, constructing your first speech can be a terrifying experience. Following the procedures outlined in this chapter will help you stay on track and create a fully developed speech. Also, a speech that follows the guidelines presented in this chapter is more likely to be easily comprehensible to the audience.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. After students have selected their speech topics, write a brief outline using the material from this chapter as a guide. Remember to include a discussion of each step of the speech preparation. After the speeches, refer back to the original outlines and discuss how well students followed their plans.

Be sure to ask which parts of the guidelines were most difficult for students to complete, and why.

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. To decrease potential apprehension associated with the first speech, have students form small groups. Ask group members to work together and go through the steps of speech preparation discussed in this chapter. Talk to each group about its strategies for preparing the speech.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may help you illustrate important points in the chapter and facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. List each of the steps in the speechmaking process.
 - Select a topic.
 - Analyze the audience.
 - State the speech purpose.
 - Develop the thesis and main points.
 - Gather supporting material.

-
- Outline the speech.
 - Practice delivering the speech.
2. Ask students to practice the preceding steps with different topics they might give speeches about.
 3. How would you practice delivering a speech?
 4. Name at least three places where you could gather supporting material.
 - library
 - Internet
 - personal interview
 - television
 - movies/videos

ACTIVITIES

As Mothers Always Say: You Never Get a Second Chance to Make a First Impression

Purpose: One of the major factors related to fear of public speaking is evaluation. Students are afraid that their classmates and/or instructor will perceive them negatively. This activity provides students with the opportunity to gain a better understanding of the ways in which we present ourselves to others and how we can create favorable impressions.

Instructions: Because audiences quickly form impressions of speakers, it's a good idea to plan ahead for the kind of impression you would like to make on your audience. Students should provide written responses to the following statements and questions:

1. What image of yourself would you like to project?
2. Exactly what impression would you like to make?
3. What is your self-image?
4. Identify nonverbal strategies you can use to reproduce the images you listed above. What nonverbal behaviors, clothing, or artifacts would you use to accomplish those first impressions with your audience?
5. Identify and list the verbal strategies you can use to initiate a positive first impression.

Discussion: Instructors can use these responses to generate discussion during class. Instructors should point out that nervousness and apprehension are normal before and during a public presentation. There are ways in which students can make their “extra energy” work for and not against them. Instructors should provide the following advice,* either orally or in writing, to students as helpful hints for controlling anxiety:

1. Keep the physical responses in a reasonable, manageable range. Sleep and eat well before your speech. Take care of your health in general. As you prepare for your speech, do yoga, exercise, sing, or do whatever helps you relax when you feel your anxiety increasing. Right before your speech, do something physical; take a walk or a run. Take a deep breath before your speech. Relax your arms and facial muscles. Have a drink of water before you begin.
2. Keep your thoughts positive. As you prepare for the speech, visualize yourself giving your speech in a confident manner. Counter negative thoughts with positive ones. For example, “I have nothing interesting to say” can be eliminated with “I have done enough research to make this an interesting presentation.” Before the speech, label your physical sensations positively as “psyched-up excitement” rather than as “paralytic fear.”

*Adapted from Bridges, T. M., & Crowell, T. L. (1999). *Instructor's resource manual to accompany Public Speaking: Challenges and choices*. Boston: Bedford.

3. Keep your focus on the audience and your message, not on yourself. Audience members want you to succeed. They are sympathetic and appreciative of your feelings. They are not the enemy.
4. Pick a topic that interests you, and let your enthusiasm show. Make scrupulous preparations: thorough research, a clear outline, and lots of evidence. Practice adequately. Practice with real people, and, if possible, practice in the room in which the speech will be delivered. Prepare a strong introduction, and know it well.
5. Act as though you are confident, even if you are not. The audience seldom perceives you to be as nervous as you know you are, so bluff a little. Here are some helpful behaviors you can adopt to project confidence:
 - Walk to the podium confidently. Arrange your notes and visual aids exactly as you want them.
 - Place your feet squarely on the floor before you begin.
 - Establish eye contact with the audience, and pause before starting.
 - Speak slowly and clearly.
 - Use gestures that feel natural.
 - Do not memorize your speech.
 - If you make a blunder, simply pause and regain your composure. Don't draw attention to the fact that you messed up by facial expressions, laughing, or saying you forgot.

Baptism by Fire

Purpose: To help students overcome some of their initial fear of public speaking and become more comfortable with preparing their first speeches. Instructors should use this activity long before the first speech is assigned.

Materials: The instructor should bring a small ball or Koosh ball to class.

Instructions: Ask each class member to go to the board and write down the name of a person, place, or thing. Then ask one student to volunteer to go first. Toss the ball to that student and instruct him or her to pick a word from the board. Once the student has chosen the word (the instructor should cross off each word after it is used), he or she should start telling a story and incorporate the word that was picked. After about thirty seconds, the student should toss the ball to a classmate. That student picks another word to incorporate into the story and then continues the story. This process should go on until every student has had a chance to contribute to the story.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Ayres, J., & Hopf, T. (1989). Visualization: Is it more than extra attention? *Communication Education, 38*, 1–5.
- Ayres, J., & Hopf, T. (1993). *Coping with speech anxiety*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Axtell, R. E. (1992). *Do's and taboos of public speaking: How to get those butterflies flying in formation*. New York: Wiley.
- Beatty, M. J. (1988). Situational and predispositional correlates of public speaking anxiety. *Communication Education, 37*, 28–39.
- McCroskey, J. C. (1977). Oral communication apprehension: A summary of recent theory and research. *Human Communication Research, 4*, 79–96.
- Motley, M. T. (1995). Public speaking anxiety qua performance anxiety: A revised model and alternative therapy. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 5*, 85–104.
- Richmond, V. P., & McCroskey, J. C. (1995). *Communication: Apprehension, avoidance, and effectiveness* (4th ed.). Scottsdale, AZ: Gorsuch Scarisbrick.
- Rose, H. N., Rancer, A. S., & Crannell, K. C. (1993). The impact of the basic course in oral interpretation and public speaking on communication apprehension. *Communication Reports, 6*, 54–60.
- Tobias, S. (1986). Anxiety and cognitive processes of instruction. In R. Schwarzer (Ed.), *Self-rated cognitions in anxiety and motivation* (pp. 35–54). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

6

Managing Speech Anxiety

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. What causes public speaking anxiety?

- A. Lack of experience can contribute to high anxiety levels, especially considering the natural anticipation that results from new experiences.
- B. Feeling different from others, and being overly sensitive to these perceived differences, can increase speaking anxiety.
- C. Being the center of attention, and thus feeling conspicuous, can cause a speaker to focus on the “me,” thereby increasing sensitivity and anxiety.

II. Pinpointing the onset of nervousness

- A. Some people will experience anxiety the moment they learn that they must give a speech. This is known as *pre-preparation anxiety*.
- B. *Preparation anxiety* occurs when a person is actually beginning to prepare a speech.
- C. *Pre-performance anxiety* occurs at the point a person realizes that he or she will be giving a speech—usually during the rehearsal for the speech.
- D. *Performance anxiety* often affects people who are generally confident in communication and is most likely to occur during the introduction of a speech.

III. Strategies to boost your confidence

- A. Preparing and practicing build confidence. Knowing that you are adequately prepared allows you to feel confident and secure that you will not forget what you wish to say.
- B. Modify your thoughts and attitudes on public speaking. View public speaking as a valuable, worthwhile, and challenging activity. Seeing public speaking as a method for communicating ideas rather than as a “performance” allows the speaker to relax.
- C. *Visualization*, or mentally seeing yourself give a successful speech, will build confidence.
- D. Using relaxation techniques before and during the speech gives the speaker a sense of control over physical manifestations of anxiety.
 - 1. *Stress-control breathing* begins with the speaker inhaling and allowing the abdomen to expand. The air is exhaled while the abdomen is contracted. While breathing rhythmically, the speaker should focus on a single soothing word, such as *calm*.
 - 2. The practice of incorporating natural gestures takes the speaker’s focus off the self and places it on the message.
 - 3. Movement, such as walking around the room, helps to relieve the speaker’s tension and holds the audience’s attention.

- E. Enjoy the occasion. Think of giving a speech as an opportunity to influence others.
- F. Learning from the objective evaluations of others can help the speaker do better in the next speech.

KEY TERMS

public speaking anxiety (PSA) fear or anxiety associated with a speaker's actual or anticipated communication to an audience.

pre-preparation anxiety feeling of anxiety experienced when a speaker learns he or she must give a speech.

preparation anxiety a feeling of anxiety that arises when a speaker begins to prepare for a speech, at which point he or she might feel overwhelmed at the amount of time and planning required.

pre-performance anxiety a feeling of anxiety experienced when a speaker begins to rehearse a speech.

performance anxiety a feeling of anxiety that occurs the moment one begins to perform.

visualization an exercise for building confidence in which the speaker, while preparing for the speech, closes his or her eyes and envisions a series of positive feelings and reactions that will occur on the day of the speech.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What is public speaking anxiety? What are some of the common fears associated with it?

Public speaking anxiety (PSA) is the fear or dread of giving a speech in front of an audience. Researchers have identified several factors that cause people to feel anxious about public speaking. These include lack of experience, feeling different from members of the audience, and uneasiness about being the center of attention. Understanding these fears is the first step in overcoming them.

When does nervousness occur in the speechmaking process?

Nervousness can occur at different times during the speechmaking process. For some people it occurs immediately upon learning that they will give a speech sometime in the future (**pre-preparation anxiety**). For others it sets in as they begin to prepare for the speech (**preparation anxiety**). Some people become anxious once they start rehearsing the speech (**pre-performance anxiety**), while others don't get the jitters until they reach the podium (**performance anxiety**).

What strategies does this chapter offer for gaining confidence as a public speaker?

Gaining confidence as a public speaker comes about primarily through preparation and practice. Helpful techniques for boosting confidence include:

(1) modifying thoughts and attitudes, (2) visualizing success, (3) using relaxation techniques, (4) depersonalizing the speech evaluation, and (5) seeking pleasure in the occasion.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why is public speaking a source of anxiety for most people?

Public speaking may be a major source of anxiety because of such factors as low self-esteem, experiencing an audience member's evaluation as a personal attack, negative past experiences with public speaking, or simply a lack of speaking experience. This last factor is especially important; many people are nervous simply because of the uncertainty or lack of familiarity they feel regarding the public speaking situation. In this case, it may be helpful to familiarize students with the assignment and with what will happen on "speech day" (e.g., ordering of speakers, time limits). For the other factors, it may be helpful to have students vent their frustrations or fears. Hearing their peers voice their anxieties might give some students the assurance that they are not the only ones who feel anxious or nervous about speaking in public. You may also want to address the common fears mentioned previously and answer those fears (e.g., assuring students that evaluations are not meant as personal attacks, that everyone has anxiety about public speaking from time to time).

2. It has been said that practice makes perfect. How can this adage be applied to gaining confidence as a public speaker?

Ask students to recall occasions when they gained confidence in other activities because of practice (e.g., riding a bicycle, mastering a difficult piano piece). Help students draw parallels between these past experiences and public speaking. Also, remind students that increased familiarity with the speech and its content, as a result of practice, will help them build confidence. Practice will also decrease the chance of forgetting the speech as well as help students feel more knowledgeable, and thus more credible, about the speech.

3. In your experience, which strategies for gaining confidence as a speaker do you find most helpful? Why?

Have students share their own strategies and then write them on the board. Encourage students to link their own strategies with the ones listed in the chapter. You may also want to organize students into groups and have them brainstorm experiences. Each group could then present its ideas to the class. Finally, ask students to pretend that they are instructors and have them give advice to students about gaining confidence as public speakers. This may serve as a paper or as a small group, in-class assignment.

4. Assume that a friend who has not had a course like this one tells you that she is expected to give a presentation in one of her major classes, and that she's "scared to death." What will you tell her?

This may be beneficial as a group activity. Have students form groups, pretend that they are instructors, and write down things an instructor would say to help

alleviate students' fears. You may also want to direct two students to role-play for the class, with one student as the scared student and the other playing the friend (ask them to incorporate material from the chapter). This discussion issue would also be a good topic for a paper or an in-class assignment.

5. How can following the general procedures for planning a speech help a speaker become more confident?

Students might generate ideas for each of the following guidelines:

- *Manage your time wisely.* Construct a timeline for the preparation of the speech. Assign more time for the more important or challenging aspects of the preparation.
- *Don't skimp on the research.* Be familiar with all sources of information, such as computer databases, journals, and newspapers. Consult people who know something about the topic.
- *Discover as much about the audience and the speaking environment as you can.* Know the attitudes, values, and beliefs of the audience. Observe the temperature, lighting, or physical layout of the room.
- *Rehearse delivering your speech.* This will help with familiarity. Rehearsal will also help students decide how they can use body movements or gestures most effectively.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. List five experiences that give you the most anxiety. State how the anxiety you associate with these experiences compares with the level of public speaking anxiety that you feel.

A serious look at anxieties about such events as death, illness, loss of financial security, or failing a class may help students put their fears in perspective and even downplay the anxieties associated with public speaking. More specifically, have students brainstorm the worst that could happen to them while delivering a speech, and, as an instructor, address each of those imagined fears as if you were desensitizing students to them. It may even be helpful to convince students (without attacking their self-concept, of course) that some of those fears are far-fetched or unrealistic. Hopefully, actually listing these fears will help students realize that their anxieties will not result in major catastrophes and may even result in some positive experiences.

2. Describe occasions during which you felt especially confident. What was it about yourself, the situation, the tasks, or other people involved that promoted your confidence?

This activity can improve students' confidence by having them recall past successes. Asking students to list the circumstance, people, and situation involved may help them pinpoint the sources of self-confidence. Make sure students have an opportunity to share these successes with the rest of the class.

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. It is common for speakers to feel more nervous than they appear. See if this observation holds true for you and your classmates. Make a pact with two or three classmates to observe apparent indications of nervousness (jittery movements, shaky voice, blocked thoughts, etc.) in each of your speeches. After each speech, discuss with one another how nervous you felt in comparison to what was observed. Share stories about each speech experience, starting with how you felt upon hearing about the assignment and ending with the feeling you had once it was all over. Talk to one another about which strategies for gaining confidence seemed to work best for you.

Students may start off in groups by simply telling a short story or a joke, with teammates observing their behaviors. Along with giving feedback on nervousness, teammates should be encouraged to give positive or encouraging feedback (i.e., listing some good qualities about the person's nonverbal or verbal behaviors). This initial storytelling might also give teammates an indication of students' baseline (i.e., normal) behavior when speaking informally. Then teammates can compare behaviors during speeches with this baseline behavior.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may help you illustrate important points in the chapter and facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
 - quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. Why do people get nervous about speaking in public?
 - lack of experience
 - feeling different
 - being the center of attention
 2. Identify and define the four types of anxiety that people experience during the speechmaking process.
 - **Pre-preparation anxiety:** Fear or anxiety associated with a speaker's actual or anticipated communication to an audience.
 - **Preparation anxiety:** A feeling of anxiety that arises when a speaker actually begins to prepare for a speech, at which point he or she might feel overwhelmed at the amount of time and planning required.
 - **Pre-performance anxiety:** A feeling of anxiety experienced when a speaker begins to rehearse a speech.
 - **Performance anxiety:** A feeling of anxiety that occurs the moment one begins to perform.

ACTIVITIES**Overcoming Your Fear with Style**

Purpose: To help students overcome their fears by having them identify the strengths and weaknesses of their speaking style.

Instructions: Give students the following statements and questions, and have them prepare a written response to each item.

1. List your anxieties or fears about public speaking.
2. Self-description: Describe yourself as a speaker by selecting five descriptive words that come to mind.
3. Identify three major strengths about your own speaking abilities and skills.
4. Identify weaknesses about your own speaking abilities and skills; that is, what would you like to improve on in this class?

Discussion: Instructors can use these responses to generate discussion with students. The instructor should point out that many students have the same fears and weaknesses and that they can learn from other classmates' strengths. You may wish to hold on to this assignment until the end of the semester, at which point you may ask students to fill it out again. Students could then compare their two versions to see where they've improved and where they still need work.

Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow: Self-Diagnosis and Future Goals

Purpose: To gain a better understanding of the ways in which speech mannerisms can get in the way of the speaker's message, to identify mannerisms that students would like to change, and to consider how they might go about making those changes.

Instructions: Give students the following statements and questions, and have them prepare a written response to each item.

1. What speech mannerisms do you find particularly annoying about speakers you have observed over the years? List them.
2. What speech mannerisms do you engage in that others might find annoying? List those you would like to work on.
3. How do you plan to change these behaviors in the future?

Discussion: Instructors might point out that many students display the same mannerisms. Next, provide pointers on how to help them overcome these mannerisms. Again, instructors can hold on to this assignment until the end of the semester, and then ask students to fill it out again. Students can then compare their two versions to see where they've improved and where they still need work.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Ayres, J., & Hopf, T. (1989). Visualization: Is it more than extra attention? *Communication Education, 38*, 1–5.
- Ayres, J., & Hopf, T. (1993). *Coping with speech anxiety*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Axtell, R. E. (1992). *Do's and taboos of public speaking: How to get those butterflies flying in formation*. New York: Wiley.
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- Motley, M. T. (1995). *Coping with speech anxiety*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
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- Rose, H. N., Rancer, A. S., & Crannell, K. C. (1993). The impact of the basic course in oral interpretation and public speaking on communication apprehension. *Communication Reports, 6*, 54–60.
- Tobias, S. (1986). Anxiety and cognitive processes of instruction. In R. Schwarzer (Ed.), *Self-rated cognitions in anxiety and motivation* (pp. 35–54). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

7

Analyzing the Audience

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. Audience analysis

- A. *Audience analysis* is the process by which a speaker gathers and analyzes information about the audience to discover the listeners' needs and interests to the fullest extent possible.
 - 1. The explicit aim of audience analysis is to enable the speaker to adjust or adapt the speech to meet the needs and interests he or she discovers.
 - 2. This is the single most critical aspect of speech preparation.
- B. Maintaining an **audience-centered approach** to all phases of the speech preparation process allows a speaker to communicate a meaningful message to the audience.

II. Identify audience members' attitudes, beliefs, and values

- A. People tend to evaluate messages in terms of their own attitudes, beliefs, and values.
 - 1. *Attitudes* reflect a predisposition to respond to people, ideas, objects, or events in evaluative ways. Attitudes are based on beliefs and guide actions.
 - 2. *Beliefs* refer to our level of confidence about the very existence or validity of something. Beliefs are the ways in which people perceive reality; they are our conceptions of what is true and what is false.
 - 3. Both attitudes and beliefs are shaped by *values*, people's most enduring judgments about what is good and bad, as shaped by their culture and experiences.
- B. Regardless of the goal of the speech, it's important to engage in perspective-taking; that is, trying to uncover the audience's feelings toward the *topic*, the *speaker*, and the *speech occasion*.
 - 1. The speaker then adjusts or adapts the speech according to the way the audience feels toward the topic.
 - a. If the topic is new to the audience, show them its relevance and relate the topic to familiar issues and ideas they feel positive about.
 - b. If the audience knows relatively little about the topic, stick to the basics, steer clear of jargon, and define unclear terms.
 - c. If an audience is negatively disposed toward the topic, appeal to your listeners' concerns by beginning with areas of agreement, building rapport, and offering evidence from sources acceptable to the audience.

- d. With an audience that holds positive attitudes toward the topic, tell stories that reinforce their attitudes.
- e. With a captive audience, keep track of time and focus on what's most relevant to the listeners.
2. Audience members' *feelings toward the speaker* have considerable bearing on their attentiveness and responsiveness to the message.
 - a. Speakers who are well liked can gain at least an initial hearing from an audience. We trust people we like.
 - b. Generally, you can inspire positive attitudes by being a credible speaker (e.g., knowing the subject, showing goodwill toward the audience, and displaying integrity of character in your words and actions).
 - c. Establish a feeling of commonality, or identification, with listeners by stressing mutual bonds.
 1. Read the audience as you speak and respond to signs of interest and disengagement. Adjust your speech by changing the pace or asking questions to reengage listeners.
3. *Feelings toward the occasion* occur because people bring different sets of expectations and emotions to a speech event.
 - a. The audience's attitudes toward the occasion should be one of the speaker's key considerations in planning and delivering the speech.

III. Adapting to audience demographics

- A. *Demographics* are statistical characteristics of a given population or group.
 1. Six characteristics are typically considered in the analysis of a speech audience: age, gender, ethnic or cultural background, socioeconomic status (including income, occupation, and education), religion, and political affiliation.
 2. Any number of other traits, such as physical disability or group membership, may be important to investigate as well.
 3. Awareness of demographics will help you identify your *target audience*—those you are most likely to influence in the direction you seek.
- B. Being aware of the audience's *age range*, including generational identity, in which people associate with a given stage of life, allows the speaker to develop points that are relevant to the experiences and interests of the widest possible portion of the audience.
- C. The more public speakers are aware of *ethnic and cultural variations* in the audience, the more effective their speeches will be.
 1. Speakers should also be aware that some audience members may belong to a co-culture whose perspectives may differ significantly from that of the speaker.
- D. *Socioeconomic status* is made up of an individual's income, occupation, and education.

1. *Income* has a pervasive influence on people's lives and often determines their exposure to certain experiences and environments.
 2. *Occupation* is closely related to a person's identification, interests, attitudes, beliefs, and goals.
 3. *Level of education* influences people's ideas, perspectives, and ranges of ability.
- E. Being aware of an audience's general *religious orientation* can be especially helpful to a speaker when the speech topic is potentially controversial on religious grounds.
- F. A speaker should never make unwarranted assumptions about an audience's *political affiliation*. Many topics automatically raise political questions—and, if the speaker isn't careful, listeners' hackles. Thus a speaker should make a continuous effort to steer clear of audience members' sensitivities unless they are the focus of the speech.
- G. Consideration of *gender* is important both in developing a topic's key points and in the manner in which the speech is presented.
1. *Gender stereotypes*—oversimplified and often severely distorted ideas about the innate nature of men or women—as well as other forms of sexism should be avoided in all public speeches.
 2. When analyzing the gender-relevant characteristics of an audience, consider age as well.

IV. Adapting to cultural differences

- A. The speaker should look for information about the audience members' *culture-specific values* in order to make the speech relevant and meaningful to the entire audience.
1. *Identifying value dimensions* involves looking at major cultural patterns in various countries, and evaluating your content and mode of presentation in light of this information.
 2. *Individualistic* cultures emphasize the needs of the individual over those of the group. *Collectivist* cultures emphasize the group's identity, needs, and desires over the identity, needs, or desires of any single individual.
 3. *High-uncertainty avoidance* cultures structure life more rigidly and formally for their members. *Low-uncertainty avoidance* cultures are more accepting of uncertainty in life; thus they allow more variation.
 4. *Power distance*, the extent to which a culture values social equality versus tradition and authority, also marks cultural differences. Cultures with *high levels of power distance* tend to emphasize rigid hierarchical lines and authority. Cultures with *low levels of power distance* tend to emphasize social equality.
 5. *Masculine versus feminine traits* are viewed on a continuum on which cultures value certain behaviors associated with one style or the other.

V. Methods of gathering information

- A. *Survey methods* of audience analysis allow you to gather information from a larger pool of respondents by administering a questionnaire that contains open-ended and closed-ended questions.

1. *Open-ended questions* seek no particular response and allow the respondents to elaborate as much as they wish.
 2. *Closed-ended questions* are designed to elicit a small range of specific answers supplied by the interviewer.
 3. *Scale questions* can be used to measure how important listeners judge something to be or how frequently they engage in a particular behavior.
- B. Another way to gather information is to conduct *interviews*. An interview is person-to-person communication with a basic information-gathering purpose.
1. Interviews can be conducted one-on-one or in a group, in person, by telephone, or via e-mail.
 2. An interview should contain both open-ended and closed-ended questions.
 3. Be sure to prepare questions ahead of time.
 4. Questions should be worded carefully.
 - a. Avoid vague questions and leading questions.
 - b. Aim for *neutral questions*, which don't lead the interviewee to a desired response.
 5. Open the interview carefully by explaining its purpose.
 6. Allow the interviewee to speak without interruption.
 7. Paraphrase answers when appropriate and ask for clarification and elaboration when necessary.
 8. End the interview by rechecking and confirming.
- C. Investigate *published polls* and other sources.
1. Published sources include both online and print sources such as Web sites, online articles, brochures, newspaper articles, organizational bylaws and charters, annual reports, and reference books such as industry guides and agency abstracts.

VI. Assess the speech setting

- A. The *size of the audience* and the *physical setting* in which a speech occurs can have a significant effect on the speech outcome.

KEY TERMS

- audience analysis** the process of gathering and analyzing demographic and psychological information about audience members.
- audience centered** an approach to speech preparation in which each phase of the speech preparation process is geared toward communicating a meaningful message.
- attitude** our general evaluations of people, ideas, objects, or events.
- beliefs** the ways in which people perceive reality or determine the very existence or validity of something.
- perspective taking** the identification of audience members' attitudes, values, beliefs, needs, and wants and the integration of this information into the speech context.

- identification** a feeling of commonality with another. Effective speakers attempt to foster a sense of identification between themselves and audience members.
- demographics** statistical characteristics of a given population. Characteristics typically considered in the analysis of audience members include age, gender, ethnic or cultural background, socioeconomic status (including income, occupation, and education), and religious and political affiliation.
- target audience** those individuals within the broader audience who are most likely to be influenced in the direction the speaker seeks.
- co-culture** a community of people whose perceptions and beliefs differ significantly from those of other groups within the larger culture.
- socioeconomic status (SES)** a demographic variable that includes income, occupation, and education.
- gender stereotype** oversimplified, often severely distorted ideas about the innate nature of men or women.
- questionnaire** a written survey designed to gather information from a large pool of respondents. Questionnaires consist of a series of questions designed to elicit information and contain a mix of open- and closed-ended questions.
- closed-ended question** a question designed to elicit a small range of specific answers supplied by the interviewer.
- fixed-alternative question** a closed-ended question that contains a limited choice of answers, such as “Yes,” “No,” or “Sometimes.”
- scale question** a closed-ended question that measures the respondent’s level of agreement or disagreement with specific issues.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are audience demographics, and what can they reveal about an audience?

A **demographic** is a statistical characteristic of a given population. **Audience demographics** focus on roughly six such characteristics: age, gender, ethnic or cultural background, socioeconomic status (including income, occupation, and education), religion, and political affiliation. Audience demographics provide important information about audience members’ interests and concerns. Armed with this knowledge, a speaker can better plan a speech that hits home with audience members, meets their needs, and is relevant to them.

What factors are important to know about an audience?

Attitudes are predispositions to respond to people, ideas, objects, or events in evaluative ways. **Beliefs** are the ways in which people perceive reality or determine the very existence or validity of something.

Values are people’s enduring judgments about what is good and bad in life. A speaker should try to identify how audience members feel—what their attitudes, beliefs, and values are—in relation to the topic, occasion, and speaker. Knowledge of

these factors will provide the speaker with greater insight for shaping his or her specific purpose, researching the topic, crafting key points and arguments, and establishing credibility with the audience.

What are some methods of audience analysis?

Interviews and surveys are most useful when it is possible for representative members of the audience to answer questions that reflect their attitudes and beliefs about the speech topic. Written sources of information are useful when the audience represents a particular group or organization for which written documents exist, such as those that state the group's mission, operations, and achievements.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Which would be most advantageous to conducting an audience analysis of classmates—interviews, surveys, printed material about them, or talks with others who have delivered speeches to them? Why?

Because classmates are accessible, both interviews and surveys are realistic possibilities. Reliance on printed material seems remote. In terms of which is most advantageous, it depends on a number of factors, including the nature of the topic, the time frame for the research, and the availability of subjects. The text describes the benefits and drawbacks of both kinds of tools. It also notes that the best route to analysis often involves a combination of methods.

2. Why would it matter that an audience may be made up of more women than men, or more Asian Americans than Hispanics, or more argumentative people than nonargumentative people? How would this information affect the way you choose to prepare for and deliver a speech?

Point out that the composition of the audience, based on either demographic or psychographic variables, will affect reactions to the speaker's treatment of a speech topic. Provide examples of speech topics, and ask what reactions would emerge, based on certain characteristics of an audience.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Prepare a survey to conduct an audience analysis of your class. Include both closed-ended and open-ended questions to determine audience members' age, gender, socioeconomic status, ethnic or cultural background, and religious and political affiliation. Also include some questions that will give an idea of where listeners stand in terms of argumentativeness and receiver apprehension.

You may have students bring copies of their surveys to class to exchange with other students. Once the surveys have been exchanged, have students evaluate each other's work for purposes of feedback. It is also a good idea to have

students complete their own surveys to get an idea of how effectively their surveys were constructed. Survey construction may be incorporated into an overall speech-assignment grade.

2. Consider the topic you plan to pursue for your next speech. Decide which of the factors included in your audience-analysis survey are most pertinent to the development of your speech. Write a rationale explaining why these factors should be considered in planning the speech.

Have students include this as one of the preparation steps for their next speech assignment, and ask them to turn in their work so that you can give them feedback. This is also a good way for the instructor to examine the progress of a student's speech assignment in terms of audience analysis.

3. Construct a set of interview questions based on your speech topic and purpose. Select a sample of five members of the class who represent the demographic and dispositional qualities obtained in your survey analysis. Interview these individuals. Make notes about which aspects of your topic seem most relevant and interesting to these people.

Suggest this activity early in a speech assignment. Once students have interviewed the five classmates, they can change or improve their surveys for use when analyzing the entire class.

4. Consider the features of your classroom and the kinds of presentation equipment that are available. Write a brief proposal to the instructor suggesting improvements in facilities and equipment that would benefit audience receptivity to speeches in your classroom.

This activity empowers students by giving them an opportunity to control their own speaking environment. It would be a good idea to solicit students' proposals before they give their speeches. This activity is also beneficial in that it requires preparation on the students' part.

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. The classroom provides an excellent laboratory for practicing audience analysis. Like the larger world, the classroom contains people from a variety of socioeconomic, ethnic and cultural, and religious backgrounds. It likely contains both men and women who represent different age groups. Values, beliefs, and political opinions may also diverge widely. How well do you think you know the audience demographics of the classroom? To find out, try to answer the following questions. Next, compare your answers with those of your classmates.

1. What is the age range of your class? _____
What is the average age? _____
2. What are most of your classmates?
_____ freshmen _____ sophomores _____ juniors _____ seniors
3. What is the ratio of men to women?
_____ 1:1 _____ 1:2 _____ 1:3 _____ 1:4 _____ 1:5 _____ other

4. What percentage of your classmates anticipates pursuing a graduate degree?
 under 10% 11–30% 31–50% 51–75%
 over 75%
5. What percentage of your class holds a part-time or full-time job?
 under 10% 11–30% 31–50% 51–75%
 over 75%
6. Which religious category do you think most of your classmates would identify as their own?
 Christianity Judaism Islam Buddhism
 Other None
7. Which political party do you think is most represented in your class?
 Republican Democrat Independent Other
8. List three issues that you consider to be of great importance to your classmates:

How do your answers compare with those of your classmates? In what ways can this profile of your class be useful in preparing your next speech assignment? How likely are you to get an accurate profile of an audience without conducting a well-planned audience analysis?

Students can work individually or in groups when anticipating classmates' answers to the survey. When groups compare anticipated answers with actual answers, have them discuss why there were differences as well as similarities. Discuss the implications of utilizing false assumptions of an audience when preparing a speech.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of the material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
 - quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. What is audience analysis?
 - **Audience analysis:** the process by which a speaker discovers the needs and interests of a particular audience regarding the speech topic.
 2. What types of information can you obtain about your audience?
 - **Demographic data:** age, gender, ethnic or cultural background, socioeconomic status (i.e., income, occupation, education), religion, political affiliation.

- **Audience analysis:** attitudes, beliefs, values, feelings toward the topic, feelings toward the speaker, and feelings toward the occasion are all important factors.
3. Define and give an example of attitudes, beliefs, and values.
 - **Attitudes:** predispositions to respond to people, ideas, objects, or events in evaluative ways.
 - **Beliefs:** the way in which people perceive reality; conceptions of what is true and what is false.
 - **Values:** people's most enduring judgments about what is good and bad in life.
 4. List at least three ways to obtain information about your audience.
 - interviews
 - surveys
 - written sources
 5. Interviews use at least two types of questions. Cite them, and give an example of each.
 - **Open-ended questions:** questions that seek no particular response and allow respondents to elaborate as much as they wish.
 - **Closed-ended questions:** questions that elicit a small range of specific answers supplied by the interviewer or surveyor.
 6. Using the text guidelines for survey questions, generate a four- to five-question survey on a topic of your choice.

ACTIVITIES**Investigating Values**

Purpose: To help students learn to identify values.

Instructions: Students get together in groups of three or four. Each student writes down two or three values. Then the group as a whole compiles a list of values that represent the entire group (similar concepts may be collapsed into one broad category). Once this is done, one person from each group will go to the board and write the list. From these lists, the class can compile one final list that best represents the values of the entire class. At the end there will be group lists and a final list. Both of these lists provide students with important information about their classmates. Students may refer to the lists when choosing speech topics during the semester.

Evaluating Audience Analysis in a Completed Speech

Purpose: To see the result of audience analysis through completion of an entire speech.

Instructions: Assign students to select a speech from television or radio in which they believe the speaker did a good job of appealing to his or her audience. Have them prepare a brief analysis of their selected speeches in which they answer the following questions:

1. Can you identify instances in which the speaker is targeting his or her message to the audience? What techniques does the speaker use to appeal to the audience?
2. Does the speaker note any relationships between the topic and the audience? Provide specific instances.
3. Can you identify instances in which the speaker appears to be adjusting the topic to meet audience expectations?
4. Does the speaker adjust the message to the occasion of the speech?
5. Does the speaker acknowledge any relationship between himself or herself and the audience?
6. Overall, does the speaker appeal to his or her audience?

Creating Questionnaires

Purpose: To learn to construct effective questionnaires.

Instructions: Either the instructor or the students should generate a list of five controversial topics. These topics could be potential future persuasive speech topics. Divide students into five groups, and give each group a topic. Then have each group develop an audience-analysis questionnaire appropriate to its topic. Questionnaires should include questions that will uncover demographic and psychographic information relevant to the students' target audience.

Discussion: Once each group has completed the questionnaires, initiate a classroom discussion on the appropriateness and relevance of each question. Did students include open-ended questions?

Class Collage

Purpose: To use visual aids to learn about audience analysis.

Materials: Pictures cut out of magazines, glue, and a three-foot by five-foot sheet of paper.

Instructions: Students should bring three to five cutouts of pictures that represent their values, attitudes, and beliefs. The instructor will provide a large sheet of paper as well as glue. Students will glue their pictures to the paper.

Discussion: Once all cutouts have been attached to the sheet of paper, the “class collage” is complete. The collage should be used to generate discussion about the students’ values, attitudes, and beliefs. The instructor can point out items in the collage and ask students to explain them. The class should generate a list of demographics and psychographics.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- The American freshman: National norms for fall 1997*. Available from the Higher Education Research Institute, Graduate School of Education and Information Studies, University of California at Los Angeles, 3005 Moore Hall, Mailbox 951251, Los Angeles, CA 90095-1521 (Tel.: 310-825-1925).
- Clevenger, T. (1966). *Audience analysis*. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.
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- Menner, P. (1987, July). Audience appreciation: A different story from audience members. *Journal of the Market Research Society*, 241–63.
- National Opinion Research Center, general social survey, cumulative codebook*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Stewart, C. J., & Cash, W. B. (1988). *Interviewing: Principles and Practice*. Dubuque, IA: William C. Brown.
- World Almanac Book of Facts* (1996). Mahwah, NJ: World Almanac Books.
- Younger generations are more diverse. (February 1996). *Marketing Power*, 4.
- Note:* For activities and more information on audience analysis, see past editions of the *Speech Communication Teacher*.

SUGGESTED WEB SITES**OBTAINING INFORMATION ON AUDIENCES**

- Who Where? (<<http://www.whowhere.com>>)
- World Pages (<<http://www.worldpages.com>>)
- Government Statistics (<<http://www.fedstats.gov>>)
- United Nations (<<http://www.un.org>>)
- Library of Congress (<<http://lcweb.loc.gov>>)
- National Science Foundation (<<http://www.nsf.gov>>)
- Smithsonian Institution (<<http://www.si.edu>>)
- Statistical Abstract of the United States* (<http://www.census.gov/stat_abstract>)

8

Selecting a Topic and Purpose

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Decide where to begin.**
 - A. Select a topic you are interested and enthusiastic about.
 - B. There are many ways to find a topic.
 1. *Grassroots topics* affect the audience directly. Consider issues specifically connected to school, community, and state.
 2. *Current events* gleaned from daily and weekly newspapers, magazines, and online publications are another rich source of public speaking topics.
- II. **Consider the audience.**
 - A. A good speech topic must engage audience members' interest and pique their curiosity, as well as your own. A good speech is appropriate to the occasion and relevant to listeners.
- III. **Avoid overused and trite topics.**
 - A. Avoid topics that your audience might be tired of hearing about. Also be careful to avoid highly charged topics that appeal to values and deeply held beliefs. Instead, seek subject matter that can yield fresh insights.
 - B. *Brainstorming*, a technique that involves the spontaneous generation of ideas, is one of the most popular ways to select a topic.
 1. *Word associations* help a speaker generate topics by thinking of words or phrases in sequences.
 2. *Topic mapping* is a more graphic method of brainstorming ideas related to a topic.
- IV. **Identify the general purpose of the speech.**
 - A. The *general purpose* for any speech answers the question, "Why am I speaking on this topic to this particular audience on this occasion?" Speeches fall into one of three general purposes:
 1. *Informative speeches* increase the audience's awareness by imparting knowledge.
 2. *Persuasive speeches* influence the attitudes, beliefs, values, and behaviors of audience members.
 3. *Special occasion speeches* entertain, celebrate, commemorate, inspire, or set a social agenda.
- V. **Narrowing the topic**
 - A. *Narrowing a topic* involves focusing on specific aspects of the topic that interest you the most. You should carefully evaluate your interests in terms of the audience's interests, knowledge, and needs.

1. Two additional considerations are time and research constraints.
- B. The *specific speech purpose* expresses both the topic and the general purpose in action form and in terms of the speaker's objectives.
 1. The specific purpose focuses more closely than the general speech purpose on the goal of the speech.

VI. Composing a thesis statement

- A. A *thesis statement* is a single statement that expresses the theme or central idea of the speech and serves to connect all parts of the speech. The thesis statement *makes a claim* about the speech, whereas the specific purpose states in action form what the speaker wants to achieve with the speech.
 1. Postpone the development of main points until after you have fully developed the speech purpose and thesis.
- B. Making the topic and thesis statement relevant to audience members helps maintain their interest and enthusiasm, which, in turn, will motivate them to listen.

KEY TERMS

general speech purpose a declarative sentence of the broad speech purpose that answers the question, “Why am I speaking on this topic to this particular audience on this occasion?” Usually the general speech purpose is to inform, to persuade, or to celebrate or commemorate a special occasion.

brainstorming a problem-solving technique that involves the spontaneous generation of ideas. Among other techniques, you can brainstorm by making lists, using word association, and topic mapping.

word association brainstorming technique in which one writes down ideas as they come to mind, beginning with a single word.

specific speech purpose a refined statement of purpose that, in a single declarative sentence, zeros in more closely than the general purpose on the goal of the speech.

topic mapping a brainstorming technique in which words are laid out in diagram form to show categorical relationships among them; useful for selecting and narrowing a speech topic.

thesis statement the theme or central idea of a speech that serves to connect all the parts of the speech in a single, declarative sentence. The main points, supporting material, and conclusion all relate to the thesis.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are the various sources a speaker can use to select a topic?

In most cases it may be best to start with what you already know or are most familiar with, such as personal interests. This will give your speech a sense of authenticity and enthusiasm. Other sources for topics may be found in current events

or controversial issues. Whether the speech is informative or persuasive, controversial topics can generate audience interest simply because most people have strong opinions on these issues. Take advantage of certain issues that reflect your own concerns as well as those of the audience. It may also be helpful to think of the local or regional community. Finally, little-known or unusual information and facts provide an excellent source for topics.

What is brainstorming, and how is it used to generate ideas for topics?

Brainstorming can be done individually or in a group. Write down anything that you know something about or that may capture your interest—the key here is quantity. Then narrow the list to two or three topics that can be researched. You also can try **word association**, in which you first write down a single word that interests you. Then write down the next thing that comes to mind. Repeat this process until you have a satisfactory topic.

What kind of techniques can be used to narrow the topic?

A topic is just a general idea. When you narrow a topic, you focus on specific aspects of it that you want the audience to remember. You need to reduce the topic to include aspects you believe are relevant and also to fit time and research constraints. You can do this by brainstorming the various categories that represent the topic. Then, from this list, choose the categories that you are most interested in or that you can research adequately.

How can a speaker clearly state a specific speech purpose?

A specific speech purpose expresses both the topic and the general purpose in action form and in terms of the speaker's specific objectives (main points). The **specific purpose** answers the question, "What is it about my topic that I want my audience to know?"

What are some ways of composing an effective thesis statement in support of the topic?

The thesis statement is even narrower than the specific speech purpose, because the thesis statement conveys the theme or central idea of the speech. The thesis is a single, declarative sentence that connects all parts of the speech. Remember that the thesis statement is a claim you are making to the audience, and it represents the arguments or main points that you are going to develop.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How would you describe the difference between the specific purpose statement and the thesis statement?

The general speech purpose stops at expressing the broad goal of the speech, whether it be to inform, persuade, or in some way commemorate or celebrate an occasion. The specific speech purpose expresses both the topic and the general purpose in action form and in terms of the speaker's specific objectives. It answers the question, "What is it about my topic that I want the audience to learn/do/reconsider/agree with?" Have students brainstorm topics,

and form groups to generate a specific purpose statement and thesis statement for each topic. Students can turn in these statements to fulfill an in-class writing assignment.

2. What ethical considerations figure in selecting a topic and a speech purpose?

For discussion, students should be able to identify such issues as potentially offending an audience or whether a topic directly or indirectly results in physical or psychological harm. For a short writing assignment, have students talk about their speech topics by addressing these and other ethical considerations listed in the chapter.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Using the word-association brainstorming technique, generate a list of fifteen to twenty speech topics that are suitable for an informative speech. Start with some of the following general topics, and see where they lead: hobbies, passions, campus issues, personal weaknesses.
2. Write five different thesis statements for five different topics. Be prepared to report your work to the class.

In small groups, have students write five topics generated by using word association. Write a thesis statement for each of the topics. Groups can turn in their work for an in-class assignment.

3. Describe those elements of an audience's characteristics that affect topic selection (e.g., age, gender, religion). How do these elements affect audience outcomes?

Students should list such things as age, sex, religion, and so forth. Have them discuss each audience characteristic and how it affects topic selection. For example, older audiences may have less interest in topics that relate to popular culture than would a younger audience; some topics, such as sexual harassment, may be viewed differently by women than by men in terms of relevance or controversy; and a topic about Rosh Hashanah, though very familiar to most Jewish audience members, would require more explanation to those who are not Jewish.

4. Start searching online or browsing with general keywords or topics; then narrow your search to more specific topics. Make notes of how these topics lead to other sources about topics that interest you. Share them with your classmates during class discussions.

One option for this activity is to reserve a computer room or lab on campus and have students conduct an online search during class. Another option is to have students conduct an online search outside of class and write a short report on what they did—keywords and search engines used, paths taken, narrowing of search to include more specific topics, and so on. Have students turn in their reports for class credit.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. In a group of four or five people, list ten current events or local issues that would make interesting speech topics for your class. Identify topics that could be used to inform, to persuade, and to celebrate or commemorate a special occasion. Identify at least one topic for each speech purpose.

To help the class with this activity, bring in newspapers or newsmagazines (e.g., *Time*, *Newsweek*) to browse or have students bring their own periodicals. Or you can have the groups list four or five current-events topics and then think of ways each topic could be used to fulfill all three general purposes.

2. Try brainstorming a topic in a group of three to four people. One person should write down the first word or phrase that comes to mind. That person then passes the paper to someone else, who, through word association, writes down the next word or phrase that comes to mind. The paper should be passed around so that everyone has a chance to write something. This method of brainstorming allows members in a group to provide one another with ideas and feedback.

This brainstorming activity should be done so that each person in a group contributes to the list at least five times. As students pass the paper around, have them keep a running list so they can jot down ideas as they engage in this activity. To gain informal feedback on their topics, at the end of this activity have students share their personal lists with group members.

3. In a group of three to four people, formulate a questionnaire to be circulated throughout the class asking for demographic information about the audience (e.g., sex, academic major, ethnic or racial background, age, hobbies). The questionnaire can be altered by each group member in order to obtain specific information that may relate to each person's speech topic.

The assumption of this exercise is that a group's input will produce a much better product (i.e., questionnaire) than would an individual's. When students engage in this activity, make sure each member has the opportunity to provide input; this will result in a better, more thorough questionnaire. Have group members make copies of the questionnaire so they can use them to personalize their own questionnaires, based on the speech topic each person selects.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. When selecting a topic, what things should you consider?

personal interests, audience concerns and interests, current events and controversial issues, local issues, little-known or unusual information

2. Give an example of each of the factors in item 1 that should be considered when selecting a topic.
3. What is brainstorming? Give an example of a brainstorming technique.

An individual or group problem-solving technique that involves the spontaneous generation of ideas. Word association.

4. What are some factors to consider when narrowing a topic?

- those aspects of the topic that most interest you
- the audience's interests, knowledge, and needs
- the general speech purpose
- time limits
- research constraints

5. What is a specific speech purpose? Give an example of a general purpose and a specific purpose.

The specific speech purpose expresses both the topic and the general purpose in action form and in terms of the speaker's objectives; it focuses more closely than the general speech purpose on the goal of the speech.

General purpose: To inform.

Specific purpose: To inform my audience about what it was like to live with food rationing for several years in Mississippi during World War II.

6. What is the difference between a thesis statement and a specific purpose? Give an example of a general purpose, a specific purpose, and a thesis statement.

A thesis statement is a single statement that expresses the theme or central idea of the speech and serves to connect all the parts of the speech. The specific purpose states in action form what the speaker hopes to accomplish with the speech.

General purpose: To persuade.

Specific purpose: To move the audience to raise money on behalf of the American Cancer Society.

Thesis: A donation to the American Cancer Society is the best charitable gift you can give.

7. What does it mean to make your thesis statement relevant?

Making the thesis statement relevant means expressing it in a way that will motivate the audience to listen. Speakers need to point out the relevance of the topic to the audience.

Thesis with relevance: If you want to make money work for you instead of the reverse, you should know the six steps to investing in the stock market.

ACTIVITIES**Visual Brainstorming**

Purpose: To help spur students' creativity during the topic selection process.

Instructions: Instructors should bring in an interesting object (e.g., small sculpture, piece of high technology) and place it in front of the class. Using the object as a takeoff point, ask students to generate topic ideas.

What Are Your Personal Interests?

Purpose: To help students generate a list of potential speech topics.

Instructions: Have students use the brainstorming techniques listed in the textbook (lists, word association, topic mapping) to generate potential speech topics. They can use the following questions to help guide them:

1. What are your interests?
2. What are your hobbies, or what do you do in your spare time?
3. Where are you from, and what is unique about this location?
4. What places have you traveled to? Where would you like to go?
5. What issues are you passionate about?
6. What do your parents do?
7. Do you have any siblings? What do they do?
8. Think of a funny, sad, happy, silly, weird, or inspirational moment in your life.
9. What types of food do you like?
10. What types of entertainment do you like?
11. What is your major?
12. If you work, what is your job? What is your ideal job?

I Don't Have a Topic

Purpose: To get students thinking about a speech topic and to compile a list of potential speech topics.

Instructions: This should be done as a homework assignment so that students will have time to think about it. Students should generate a list of ten topics for each of the three general speech purposes (speaking to inform, speaking to persuade, and the special occasion speech). Instruct them to be specific about their topics and to type out a list. After students turn in their lists, the instructor can weed out any inappropriate topics, combine similar ones, and type up a master list of potential speech topics. The instructor can also add his or her own contribution to the list. Each student should get a copy of the list.

Brainstorming

Purpose: Learning the guidelines to brainstorming and using creativity and teamwork to solve problems.

Instructions: This assignment can be divided into three stages, each of which can be a separate activity. Alternatively, all three stages can be combined into one large activity/project. If instructors do decide to assign all three stages, the project can be turned into a speaking assignment or group presentation that counts as one of the students' major or minor speaking requirements.

Stage 1: Arrange students in groups of four or five. Each group should generate a list of current problems or issues that its members face as students. These problems can involve social, personal, ethical, political, environmental, or professional issues. As they generate the list, students should follow these guidelines:

1. Designate one person in the group to write down all the topic ideas, using any appropriate subheadings to organize the list.
2. Avoid any sort of criticism during the idea-generation stage. No idea should be deemed impractical, implausible, illegal, or crazy.
3. Once the list has been completed, the group should evaluate the suggested topics: How relevant is the topic to the audience as a whole (all class members)? Is the topic interesting, substantive, meaningful, and important? Can it be dealt with within the allotted time? At this time, topics that do not meet the above considerations should be eliminated or modified.
4. Compile a final list of topics.

Stage 2: Each group will select one of the problems or issues from the list compiled in stage 1. Groups should then engage in the same process of brainstorming to generate solutions for these issues. This group should use the same guidelines as before.

Stage 3: Groups (or individuals) should pick one of these solutions and create a short presentation or speech describing it. These presentations should identify the problem, offer an overview/introduction to the solution, describe the features and benefits of the solution, and describe the specifics of adapting the solution.

Fact or Fiction: Unusual Information

Purpose: To provide students with the opportunity to learn about something that is unusual or little known as well as to generate potential speech topics.

Instructions: Students can choose any of the topics that emerged from the preceding activities “What Are Your Personal Interests?” and “I Don’t Have a Topic.” Using library sources or the Internet, during class time or as a homework assignment, ask students to research information about the little-known topic. Students should find two additional “unusual topics” and report on them. The unusual topics can be a spin-off from their other topics or something altogether different. Using a search engine such as Yahoo! or Google, they are bound to come across new or unusual information. Students should prepare a report on what they’ve found and present it to the class. Students can also turn in this information as a writing assignment or sketch out an outline for a speech, thus gaining practice in writing outlines.

Topic, Purpose, Thesis: Knowing All the Pieces

Purpose: To understand and be able to identify and generate a topic, a purpose statement, a thesis statement, and a thesis statement with relevance.

Instructions: Provide students a list of five to ten topics (these can come from lists generated from the preceding activities, or instructors can provide a list). Instruct students to generate a purpose statement, a thesis statement, and a thesis statement that is relevant to each of the topics.

Discussion: The instructor should ask students to read their examples. He or she should point out that the same topic can have many different thesis statements and that the purpose(s) influence(s) the thesis statement. At this time, the instructor can reiterate the importance of the relevance of the topic to the audience.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Beacon, D. C. (1989, December). Brainstorming with your computer. *Nation's Business*, 34.
- Duffy, S. (1980, Summer). Using magazines to stimulate topic choices for speeches. *Speech Communication Teacher*, 2–3.
- Gunther, M. (1980). When you need a nonfiction idea. In A. S. Burack (Ed.), *The writer's handbook* (pp. 328–32). Boston: The Writer.
- Hooper, J., & Dick, T. (1989, April). Brain stretches: Exercises, games, and apparatus for brain training. *Health*, 55–67.
- Hugenburg, L. W., & O'Neil, D. J. (1987). Speaking on critical issue topics in the public speaking course. *Speech Communication Teacher*, 12–13.
- Rubin, R. B., Rubin, A. M., & Piele, K. J. (1993). *Communication research: Strategies and sources*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Sherwood, H. (1991). *The New York Public Library book on how and where to look it up*. New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Smith, R. E. (1993, Winter). Clustering: A way to discover speech topics. *Speech Communication Teacher*, 6–7.
- Woodside, D. (1992). Choosing topics for speeches: A breath of fresh air (earth, water, and fire). *Speech Communication Teacher*, 1–2.

SUGGESTED WEB SITES**SELECTING A PURPOSE**

(<<http://www.geocities.com/Area51/Lair/8462/speechs1.html>>)

SELECTING A TOPIC

(<<http://www.geocities.com/Area51/Lair/8462/speechs2.html>>)

BRAINSTORMING

(<<http://www.imagist.net/services/design2.htm>>)

(<<http://www.cms.dmu.ac.uk/General/hci/hcibib>>)

(<<http://www.screamingsuccess.com>>)

(<<http://www.jpb.com/creative/brainstorming.html>>)

(<<http://www.brainstorming.org>>)

(<<http://www.delphi.com/brainstorming>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Supporting material gives substance to the speech's thesis or central idea.**
 - A. *Examples* illustrate, describe, or represent things. Their purpose is to aid understanding by making ideas, items, or events more concrete and by clarifying and amplifying meaning.
 - 1. A *brief example* offers a single illustration of a point.
 - 2. An *extended example* offers a multifaceted illustration of the idea, item, or event being described.
 - 3. A *hypothetical example* illustrates something that could happen in the future if certain events were to occur.
 - B. Stories (or *narratives*) tell either real or imaginary tales.
 - 1. Stories can take the form of fairy tales, legends, religious narratives, or myths.
 - 2. As supporting material, stories may be brief and simple descriptions of short incidents or relatively drawn-out accounts that constitute most of the presentation.
 - 3. Personal experiences can be the basis of powerful stories.
 - 4. One popular type of brief story is the *anecdote*, a short story of an interesting, often humorous real-life incident.
 - C. *Testimony* is firsthand findings, eyewitness accounts, and people's opinions.
 - 1. *Expert testimony* is provided by professionals who are trained to evaluate or report on a given topic.
 - 2. *Lay testimony* is supporting evidence provided by nonexperts who have witnessed or experienced events related to the subject.
 - 3. In either case, the credibility of the source is important, and it is up to the speaker to establish that credibility.
 - a. When using testimony in a speech, always cite the source's name, title, and relevance to the topic.
 - D. *Facts* are documented occurrences that include events, dates, times, people involved, and places.
 - 1. Most people require some type of evidence, usually in the form of facts and statistics, before accepting someone else's claims or position.
 - 2. Facts are truly factual only when they have been independently verified by someone other than the source.
 - E. *Statistics* quantitatively summarize, compare, and predict things.

1. A *frequency* is a count of the number of times something occurs.
 - a. Frequencies help listeners see comparisons between two or more categories, indicate size, or describe trends.
2. A *percentage* is the quantified portion of the whole.
 - a. Percentages clearly show how similar or different categories are.
3. An *average* describes information according to its typical characteristics. There are three types of average.
 - a. *Mean* is the sum of the scores divided by the number of scores.
 - b. *Median* is the center-most score in a distribution.
 - c. *Mode* is the most frequently occurring score in the distribution.
- F. To present statistics ethically, take care to avoid even unintentional inaccuracies.
 1. Use only trustworthy and reputable sources, and present statistics in their proper context.
 2. Avoid presenting data as absolute by presenting it as tentative information.
 3. Avoid *cherry-picking*, or selectively presenting data that support your point.
 4. Identify the source of your information and provide a context for accurate interpretation.

KEY TERMS

example an illustration whose purpose is to aid understanding by making ideas, items, or events more concrete and by clarifying and amplifying meaning.

brief example a single illustration of an idea, item, or event being described.

extended example multifaceted illustration of the idea, item, or event being described, thereby getting the point across and reiterating it effectively.

hypothetical example an illustration of something that could happen in the future if certain events were to occur.

narrative a story based on personal experiences or imaginary incidents.

anecdote a brief story of an interesting, humorous, or real-life incident that links back to the speaker's theme.

testimony firsthand findings, eyewitness accounts, and opinions by people, both lay (nonexpert) and expert.

expert testimony any findings, eyewitness accounts, or opinions by professionals who are trained to evaluate or report on a given topic; a form of supporting material.

lay testimony firsthand findings, eyewitness accounts, or opinions from non-experts.

facts documented occurrences, including actual events, dates, times, places, and people involved.

statistics quantified evidence; data that measure the size or magnitude of something, demonstrate trends, or show relationships with the purpose of summarizing information, demonstrating proof, and making points memorable.

cherry picking selectively presenting only those facts and statistics that buttress one's point of view while ignoring competing data.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are the best types of supporting material for speeches?

Supporting material includes examples, narratives, testimony, facts, and statistics. **Examples** illustrate or describe things. Their purpose is both to aid understanding by making ideas, items, or events more concrete, and to clarify and amplify meaning. A **narrative** is a story. Narratives tell tales, both real and imaginary. As supporting material, narratives can be brief, simple descriptions of short incidents worked into the body of the speech, or relatively drawn-out accounts that constitute most of the presentation. **Testimony** is firsthand findings, eyewitness accounts, and opinions by people, both lay (nonexpert) and expert. **Facts** include actual events, dates, times, people involved, and places. Facts represent documented occurrences; that is, it is assumed that they can be backed up with supporting evidence. **Statistics** express data in numerical form. Usually, statistics prove the existence of a trend or a relationship.

What is the purpose of a narrative, and when should I use it?

Personal experiences can be the basis for powerful narratives. The speaker may tie the topic to a personal experience that sheds light on the topic. It is effective to use tales or stories to broaden the listeners' imagination and let them vividly experience the topic in a different manner. Narratives may be used to begin or end the speech, or they may be worked into the body of the speech.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What are the most important features of a source that contribute to its credibility? When people are used as sources, would being famous be the only requirement? Consider talk-show hosts. Would they be considered credible experts on the topics discussed on their shows? What about their guests?

Some important features of a source's credibility are expertise, goodwill, proper use of sources, and trustworthiness. Famous people who are used as sources may be offering only their fame as support, and may know nothing about the topic being addressed. Truly credible people who happen to be famous should be connected to the topic. Have students think of examples of talk-show hosts who are famous or controversial. Examine each host, and use the criteria for credibility discussed in the book to assess each host's credibility. In terms of their guests, discuss whether it was revealed where these guests came from or why they were invited to the show. These factors affect the credibility of the guests.

2. When you listen to speeches, how much supporting material do you expect to hear? What type of speeches require the most supporting material? Are some topics more dependent on support than others? Give some examples. Can a speech ever have too much supporting material? If so, when?

Information (e.g., ideas, theories, facts) that does not come directly from the speaker needs to be supported; this is a good general rule to apply in

determining how much supporting material is needed. All types of speeches require support material, and the amount of material really depends on the claims or main points the speaker wants to make. Topics that are new, unusual, or little known may require more research; have students brainstorm topics that include facts that are not well known or taken for granted (e.g., alternative medicine, less-than-popular hobbies). A speech can have too much supporting material when it overshadows the main point of the speech, does not maintain the interest of the audience, or is repetitive.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Develop a list of data sources with which you are currently familiar. Include as many print and electronic sources as possible.

This would be a good in-class exercise in which students list all possible sources on the board. Students also can be assigned to list the data sources available for researching their own speech topics.

2. Make a list of sources that you think are not credible, unethical, or both. Explain why each one falls into this category.

This is a good in-class activity in which not credible or unethical sources are listed on the board and the characteristics of these types of sources are listed underneath each title. This will help students see some commonalities among several types of sources that are considered unethical or not credible.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. In a group of four or five people, tape-record and critically analyze the supporting material found in a few speeches delivered on C-Span. What types of sources does each speaker use? Think about how the speakers use facts and statistics, personal narratives, and examples. As a group, be prepared to give a short oral report to the class explaining your analysis.

Before doing this exercise, generate with the class a list of criteria with which to evaluate supporting material. There should be criteria for each of the types of supporting material discussed in the chapter. Students' oral reports can be structured around the previously generated criteria.

2. In a small task force of four or five class members, decide which forms of support (e.g., examples, narratives, testimony, facts, statistics) would be best for the following speech topics. Do this exercise for two different types of audiences. Your task force can either select its own audiences or choose from the options given with each of the following topics. Be prepared to justify your decisions.

- *Helping the Homeless* (audience: local Rotary Club; student government association at your college)

- *The Joy of NASCAR Racing* (audience: horseback riding club; Boy Scout troop)
- *Selecting an Academic Major* (audience: recent high-school graduates; nontraditional, returning students)
- *Corrective Surgery for Nearsightedness* (audience: American Association of Retired Persons meeting; student pharmacy club meeting)
- *Reasons for Becoming Bilingual* (audience: church/synagogue group; training class for those applying for U.S. citizenship)
- *Developing a Career before Marriage* (audience: League of Women Voters meeting; local college fraternity)
- *Starting Your Own Business* (audience: your speech class; vocational counseling class)

This exercise would be most helpful if students used topics generated for a current speech assignment. Have students disclose their topics to their group members, decide which forms of support to use, and generate these forms for two different audiences. This version of the exercise, which would allow students to gain valuable feedback from their peers, is really a form of audience analysis, because they are consulting one another about their own topics.

3. Working with a small group of four to five people, develop a short survey that can be conducted among the other members of the class. Choose a topic, develop a goal, construct some questions, and distribute your survey. Tally and analyze the results.

This exercise demonstrates the importance of careful research and appropriate use of statistics. The reporting of the results itself can serve as a public speaking exercise. Ask students whether the data are descriptive or inferential. What implications does this have for potential uses of the data?

4. Use the checklist to discuss specific examples students have selected for their own speeches.

Referring to the chapter's discussion of the use of examples to support a speech, this checklist notes that selecting the right example requires some critical thinking. Does the example truly illustrate or prove the necessary point? Is it suitable to the audience's background and experiences, or would another illustration be more appropriate? As the text explains, a brief example offers one illustration, whereas an extended example uses multifaceted illustrations.

Speakers should select examples to which the audience can relate. If an example is not very well known, it may require some explanation. An explanation is appropriate unless it extends the example in ways that overshadow the point a speaker is trying to make.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. What are the five types of supporting material?

examples, narrative, testimony, facts, and statistics

2. What is a narrative? What purpose does it serve? Give an example of a narrative that you might use in an upcoming speech.

Narrative: A story or tale, either real or imaginary. A speaker can employ the use of a brief or simple description of short incidents worked into the body of the speech, or relatively drawn-out accounts that constitute most of the presentation to illustrate his or her point.

3. What is testimony? Identify the two types of testimony, and give an example of each.

Testimony: Firsthand findings, eyewitness accounts, and opinions that directly support a fact or an assertion.

Expert testimony: Findings, eyewitness accounts, and opinions by experts that directly support a fact or an assertion.

Lay testimony: Testimony by nonexperts who have witnessed or experienced events related to the subject under consideration.

4. What are facts? Identify the two types of statistics, and give an example of each.

Facts: Documented occurrences that include events, dates, times, people involved, and places.

Statistics: Data expressed in numerical form.

Descriptive statistics: Data or information that characterizes a group or classification.

Inferential statistics: Data collected from a sample or representative group and generalized to a larger population.

ACTIVITIES**Remember That Time ...**

Purpose: To help students focus on relevant personal experiences and examples that might be used in constructing a speech.

Instructions: This activity may be done as an in-class assignment or as a homework assignment. Have students brainstorm to create a list of brief and extended examples for use in their speeches.

1. Based on your speech topic, what types of examples might be relevant?
2. How can a brief example be expanded into an extended example to illustrate a theme, an idea, or an event that might help the audience understand and remember the speech topic?
3. Which examples might be extended through the creation of hypothetical examples for use in the speech?

Make a list of each, and be prepared to report your findings to the class.

Prove It! Using Evidence

Purpose: To help students understand the importance of using evidence to support claims as well as gain experience in incorporating evidence into speeches.

Instructions: This exercise may be done as an in-class assignment or as a homework assignment. Students should choose a magazine article or an advertisement that uses statistics to support a claim. They then need to analyze the claim(s) that the article or advertisement makes based on the evidence or lack of evidence provided.

Students should use the following questions to help guide their analyses:

1. What types of statistics are used in the article?
2. Does the article include information about the source of the statistics (who compiled them)?
3. Does the article effectively use the statistics to develop an argument? Why or why not?
4. Are there any problems associated with making claims without evidence to back them up?

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Kahane, H. (1984). *Logic and contemporary rhetoric: The use of reason in everyday life*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Kazoleas, D. C. (1993). A comparison of the persuasive effectiveness of qualitative versus quantitative evidence: A test of explanatory hypotheses. *Communication Quarterly*, 41, 40–50.
- Kirk, E. (1997). Evaluating information found on the Internet. Retrieved from <http://milton.mse.jhu.edu:8001/research/education/net.html>.
- Krapp, J. V. (1988, January). Teaching research skills: A critical-thinking approach. *School Library Journal*, 32–35.
- Langellier, K. M. (1989). Personal narratives: Perspectives on theory and research. *Text and Performance Quarterly*, 9, 243–76.
- Vital Speeches of the Day* is a good source for examples of speeches that use the five types of supporting material mentioned in this chapter.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. Locating supporting material

- A. You can find supporting material by conducting primary or secondary research, or by using a combination of both.
1. *Primary research* is original, or firsthand, research—for example, interviews and surveys conducted by the speaker.
 2. *Secondary research* is the vast body of information gathered by others.

II. Secondary resources: Print and electronically stored sources

- A. The most likely sources of secondary research include books, newspapers, periodicals, encyclopedias, almanacs, government publications, biographical reference works, books of quotations, and atlases. Online databases may also provide useful information.
1. The reference desk provides a helpful starting point in discovering both print and electronic sources.
 2. The card or online catalog describes what the library owns.
 3. Books explore topics in depth.
 4. In addition to reporting on the major issues and events of the day, newspapers also include detailed background or historical information.
 5. A periodical is a regularly published magazine or journal.
 6. Government publications include all information collected and produced by federal agencies.
 7. Reference works include encyclopedias, almanacs, books of quotations, poetry collections, and atlases.
 - a. Encyclopedias summarize knowledge found in other sources.
 - b. Almanacs provide facts and statistics in support of a topic.
 - c. Biographical resources contain information about famous or noteworthy people.
 - d. Books of quotations are helpful in constructing introductions and conclusions, as well as the body of a speech.
 - e. Speakers often use lines of poetry from poetry collections to introduce and conclude speeches and to illustrate points in the speech body.
 - f. Atlases are collections of maps, text, and accompanying charts and tables. They are especially helpful when the topic involves a geographical location.

- g. Multicultural reference works also provide information on minority and ethnic groups.

III. Recording references

- A. Maintain a working bibliography. Develop a system to organize your research and keep track of your sources.

IV. Critically evaluating sources

- A. Examine the author's background, the reliability of data or statistical information, and the recentness of the information.

KEY TERMS

primary research original or firsthand research, such as interviews and surveys.

secondary research published facts and statistics, texts, documents, and any other information not originally collected and generated by the researcher.

reference librarian a librarian trained to help library users locate information resources.

periodical a regularly published magazine or journal.

encyclopedia a reference work that summarizes knowledge found in original form elsewhere and provides an overview of subjects.

general encyclopedia a reference work that attempts to cover all important subject areas of knowledge.

specialized encyclopedia a reference work that delves deeply into one subject area, such as religion, science, art, sports, or engineering.

almanac a reference work that contains facts and statistics in many categories or on a given topic, including those related to historical, social, political, and religious subjects.

fact book a reference work that includes key information on a given topic, such as facts about the geography, government, economy, and transportation system of a given country.

atlas collection of maps, texts, and accompanying charts and tables.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What is secondary research? Where can you find secondary sources?

Secondary research is the vast body of information gathered by others. The most likely sources of secondary research are books, newspapers, periodicals, encyclopedias, almanacs, government publications, biographical reference works, books of quotations, and atlases. In the past, these sources appeared only in print. Increasingly, however, the information they contain is being stored simultaneously on CD-ROMs or in online databases, as well as in print.

How is supporting material critically evaluated?

You can evaluate supporting material by reviewing it in light of the following questions: What is the author's background—his or her experience, training, and

reputation—in the field of study? How credible is the publication? Who is the publisher? Is the person or organization reputable? How reliable are the data, especially the statistical information? How recent is the reference?

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the purpose of locating supporting material? Identify the two types of research that you can conduct to obtain this material. The purpose of finding supporting material is to substantiate the speech thesis.

Primary research: Research that is original, or firsthand; it includes such research as surveys and interviews conducted by the speaker.

Secondary research: The vast body of information gathered by others and used by the speaker.

2. How much time should you spend locating, analyzing, and organizing supporting material for a five- to seven-minute speech?

To help determine time, students might construct a timeline for the entire speech process, including researching, outlining, writing, and practicing. Seeing this timeline might put research in the proper perspective and give students a sense of what needs to be prioritized.

3. What factors should affect the construction of a time frame?

Although there is no specific number of days or weeks required for research, the research should be conducted early in the process, and it should take no more time than the other phases of the project.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Find two examples of primary and secondary research used as supporting material in a magazine or newspaper article.

This activity would work as an assignment that can be turned in as a report. Students may also be assigned different types of sources (e.g., quotations, government publications).

2. Develop a list of data sources with which you are familiar; then discuss how you might go about locating each source. Include as many print and electronic sources as possible.

This would be a good in-class exercise in which students list all possible sources on the board. Students could also list the data sources available for researching their own speech topics.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Take a class field trip to your school's library, and meet with a librarian who works at the reference desk.

Prepare a list of references available in your library based on your discussions with the reference librarian. Be sure to note the locations of various secondary sources in your library. Which periodicals in your library are most popular? Does your library have a collection of government documents?

2. Divide students into groups of four or five, and ask each group to bring an encyclopedia to class. Have each group use an encyclopedia to look up the same set of topics. Compare similarities and differences in the types of information included and excluded in the descriptions of each topic.

Discuss the potential for discrepancies in information from secondary sources. How does information gathered from different books affect students' understanding of the topic? Does there appear to be any bias in the information from one source to another? Why or why not?

ACTIVITIES**Scavenger Hunt**

Purpose: To help students acquire information for a speech. This activity provides students with the opportunity to become familiar with a large number of the facilities available at the campus library. The more information students obtain, the easier it will be for them to create a strong case for their presentation.

Instructions: Students must find the following items and answer the questions.

1. **Journal article**
 - a. Cited in APA format
 - b. Call number
 - c. Where is the journal located in the library?
 - d. Write a one-paragraph abstract of the article.
 - e. If a student wants an article in a journal that the library does not own, how would he or she get a copy of it?
2. **Book**
 - a. Cited in APA format
 - b. Call number
 - c. Where is the book located in the library?
 - d. One direct quote from the book
3. **Magazine article**
 - a. Cited in APA format
 - b. Call number
 - c. Where is the magazine located in the library?
 - d. Attach a photocopy of the article (or first page, for lengthy articles).
4. Where else could you get information on the topic? Provide names, addresses, and/or contact people at different organizations and service or public institutions that can provide this type of information.
5. Give the name of an expert source who can be *interviewed* for valuable information on your topic. List three questions you would ask this person if you could interview him or her.
6. Provide at least one example of a *fact* that you found from a written source on your topic.
7. Provide examples of *statistics*:
 - a. descriptive
 - b. inferential
8. Provide an example of all three types of *testimony*:
 - a. expert
 - b. prestige
 - c. lay

-
9. Provide one example of each of the following types of *examples*:
 - a. brief
 - b. extended
 - c. factual
 - d. hypothetical
 10. Provide an example of a *narrative*.

Library Assignment

Purpose: To familiarize students with the general layout of their school's library and with its online computer system.

Instructions: Students must use the school's library and online system to answer the questions.

1. **Current periodicals:** Go to the current periodicals section of the library, and photocopy the front cover of a magazine that interests you.
2. **CD-ROM:** Search Psychlit or the Expanded Academic Index, and locate a journal article on Communication Apprehension (the fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication). Answer the following questions with regard to the article:
 - a. What is the name of the journal?
 - b. In which year was the journal article published?
 - c. What is the volume number of the journal?
 - d. On what pages does the research appear?
 - e. What is the title of the journal article?
 - f. Name the author(s) of the journal article.
 - g. What is the call number of the journal?
 - h. Where in the library is the journal located?
 - i. Provide a photocopy of the journal article.
 - j. Correctly cite the journal article according to APA format.
 - k. Abstract the journal article in one paragraph.
3. **Interlibrary loan:** If journal articles are unavailable, what other options do you have? Explain how interlibrary loan works.
4. **Online computer system:** Photocopy and highlight the answers to the following questions. Don't forget to cite the sources in the APA documentation format.
 - a. Find a magazine article that provides a direct quote from the current president of the United States.
 - b. Find a startling statistic regarding victims of crime.
 - c. Find the most current statistic on the number of part-time workers in the United States.
 - d. Provide a startling statement (from an expert source) or statistic about snack consumption in the United States.

Selecting, Narrowing, and Researching a Topic

Purpose: The purpose of this activity is threefold: (1) to help students select substantive speech topics, (2) to teach students how to narrow topics in order to make them more manageable, and (3) to expose students to library resources for researching their topics.

Instructions: Students are to choose a partner with whom they will be able to conduct library research. Groups should research and complete each of the following searches:

1. **Author search**

a. Find a book by James C. McCroskey, Gerald Miller, or Julia Wood. Provide the call letters: _____

b. Use the proper bibliographic form to cite the book by following this example:

Author's last name, first initial. middle initial. (date). Title, underlined, with only the first word, proper nouns, and the first word of the subtitle capitalized. City of publication: Publishing Company.

2. **Subject search**

a. Book. Subject: intercultural communication. Call letters: _____

b. Cite properly, using the pattern for citation given in item 1.

3. **Magazine or journal article**

a. Subject: safe sex.

b. Follow this citation format:

Author's last name, first initial. middle initial. (year, month [day]). Title—capitalized as in item 1. Magazine title underlined, volume number underlined, page number(s).

4. **Newspaper article**

a. Subject: media violence.

b. Follow this citation format:

Author's last name, first initial. middle initial. (year, month day). Title. Newspaper title underlined, page number(s).

5. **Electronically stored data**

a. Find a television program on some recent political issue.

b. Follow this citation format:

Last name, first initial. middle initial. (Producer), & last name, first initial. middle initial. (Director). (date). Title underlined. [Television program]. Company.

6. Internet

- a. Find an article or summary on a recent health-related issue.
- b. Follow this citation format:

Title. (year, month). Retrieved Month day, year, from <http://address of Web site>

7. Reference section

- a. Write the title of the most obscure dictionary you can find—for example, *New Dictionary of Okie Sayings* or *A Dictionary of Philosophy*.
- b. Give an interesting fact from an almanac (something you did not know before).
- c. What does an encyclopedia say about the keyword? _____
- d. Find an interesting line of poetry from *Granger's Index to Poetry*.
- e. Find an exotic place by a sea located in a world atlas.
- f. Copy down a quote by a famous person.
- g. Look in a government publication to find the number of students who graduate from college every year.

What Happened on Your Birthday?

Purpose: To give students practice in doing research and in learning how to use secondary resources.

Instructions: Direct students to the library to research what occurred on the day (or in the week in which) they were born. Students should review four or five sources: a national newspaper such as the *New York Times* or *Washington Post*, newsmagazines such as *Time* or *Newsweek*, local papers, fashion magazines or popular recreational magazines, almanacs, or government publications. Students should try to discover what occurred in the political arena, in state and local politics, sports and entertainment events, and so forth. Students should write a description of what they found, identifying each type of supporting material: facts, statistics, testimony, narratives, examples.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Berkman, R. I. (1987). *Find it fast: How to uncover expert information on any subject*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Booth, W. C., Colomb, G. G., & Williams, J. M. (1995). *The craft of research*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Crossen, C. (1994). *Tainted truth: The manipulation of fact in America*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Frances, P. (1994). Lies, damned lies. . . . *American Demographics*, 16, 2.
- Henricks, M. (1997, January). Encyclopedias on CD-ROM. *Kiplinger's Personal Finance Magazine*, 157–60.
- O'Keefe, D. J. (1990). *Persuasion: Theory and research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Reinard, J. C. (1988). The empirical study of the persuasive effects of evidence: The status after fifty years of research. *Human Communication Research*, 15, 25.
- Reinard, J. C. (1991). *Foundations of argument*. Dubuque, IA: William C. Brown.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. Balancing print and online sources is important in order to correct any weaknesses either might contain.**
 - A. Library holdings offer many benefits to researchers that are not available through Web sources.
 - 1. Sources in library holdings are selected by highly trained professionals, ensuring the quality of the information.
 - 2. Libraries order and classify resources according to well-defined standards.
 - 3. Libraries allow you to trace previous versions of a source.
 - 4. Libraries offer access to many print documents, journals, and books that are not yet available electronically.
 - B. Despite the pitfalls of Web research, the Web offers certain things the library does not.
 - 1. Time-sensitive documents can be posted online instantaneously and exclusively.
 - 2. The Web provides access to previously unavailable or hard-to-locate resources.
 - 3. Online forums such as list-servs and blogs provide access to computer-mediated communications.

- II. Critically evaluating Internet sources**
 - A. Each time you examine a document, ask yourself who put the information there, why they did it, and where similar information could be found.
 - 1. Identify the author or sponsor organization for the site.
 - 2. Examine the domain, or suffix, at the end of a Web address.
 - 3. Check the date the information was placed on the Web page.
 - 4. Check whether the site credits sources.
 - B. Distinguish between information from propaganda, misinformation, and disinformation.
 - 1. *Information* is data that is understandable and has the potential to become knowledge.
 - 2. *Propaganda* is information represented in such a way as to provoke a desired response. The purpose of propaganda is to instill a particular attitude and to encourage you to think a particular way.
 - 3. *Misinformation* refers to something that is not true.
 - 4. *Disinformation* is the deliberate falsification of information.

III. To locate information on the Internet efficiently, be familiar with the function of search engines, human directories, library gateways, and specialized databases.

- A. *Search engines* index the contents of the Web using powerful software programs that scan up to billions of documents searching for key words or phrases.
 - 1. *Individual search engines* compile their own databases of Web pages.
 - 2. *Meta-search engines* scan a variety of individual search engines simultaneously.
 - 3. *Specialized search engines* are devoted to one specific topic; Usenet files contain a collection of public discussion groups and mailing lists.
- B. A *subject (Web) directory* is a searchable database of Web sites that have been submitted to that directory and then assigned by a human editor to an appropriate category.
- C. When deciding whether to use a search engine or subject directory, determine what it is you are looking for.
 - 1. If you are looking for a list of reputable sites on the same subject, use a subject directory.
 - 2. If you are looking for a specific page within a site or specific terms, facts, figures, or quotations that may be buried within documents, use a search engine.
 - 3. If you want to locate a wide variety of materials related to your search, use a directory first and then use a search engine.
- D. Watch out for commercial influences on your search results, which can result in listings that appear solely because advertisers paid for it.
 - 1. *Paid placement* is the practice some search engines engage in of charging for guaranteed higher rankings.
 - 2. *Paid inclusion* is the practice of charging companies for inclusion in a search engine without a guarantee of ranking.
- E. *Gateways, or portals*, are entry points into large collections of research and reference materials that have been selected and reviewed by experts.
 - 1. Virtual libraries are gateways that offer links to an array of trustworthy sources.
 - 2. Much of the information contained in virtual libraries and other portals is considered part of the invisible Web. Since search engines fail to find this portion of the Web, avoid relying on a single search engine.
- F. Creating an online search strategy involves starting with basic information about your goal for the project and familiarizing yourself with search commands.
 - 1. The search tools you select help enhance results.
 - a. Quotation marks help you find exact phrases.
 - b. Boolean operators include AND, OR, and NOT.
 - c. Pluses and minuses before or after a word tell the search engine to include or exclude certain words.

2. Use field searching to narrow results further. A field search option can include key words, language, country, file format, domain, and date.

IV. Citing and recording Internet sources is as important as citing traditional sources.

- A. Be sure to follow a documentation style (APA, MLA, Chicago style).
 1. Style formats require information such as the name of the author or editor, publication information, date of publication, title of the Web site or homepage, retrieval date statement, and URL address.
 2. When taking notes, indicate whether material is a direct quotation, a paraphrase, or a summary of information.
- B. When recording sources, be sure to indicate whether material is a direct quotation, a paraphrase, or a summary of information.

KEY TERMS

domain the suffix at the end of a Web address that describes the nature of the Web site: educational (edu), government (gov), military (mil), nonprofit organization (org), business/commercial (com), network (net).

information data set in a context for relevance.

propaganda information represented in such a way as to provoke a desired response.

misinformation information that is false.

disinformation the deliberate falsification of information.

paid placement search engine a search engine that retrieves information paid for by commercial sponsors.

specialized search engine a search engine that searches for information only on specific topics.

subject (Web) directory a searchable database of Web sites organized by category (e.g., Yahoo! Directory) that have been submitted to that directory and then assigned by an editor to an appropriate category, such as Reference, Science, and Arts and Humanities.

gateway (information portal) an entry point (such as a library's home page) into a large collection of reference materials that have been selected and reviewed by experts.

library gateway an entry point into a large collection of research and reference information that has been selected and reviewed by librarians.

virtual library a collection of library holdings available online.

subject-specific database (vortal) an electronic database in which subject specialists, including but not limited to librarians, point to specialized databases created by other subject specialists.

invisible Web the portion of the Web that includes pass-protected sites, documents behind firewalls, and the contents of proprietary databases. General search engines usually fail to find this portion of the Web.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What is the difference between search engines and meta-search engines?

Search engines are indexes for the contents of the Web. They use powerful software programs to access large amounts of information about available Web sites. Meta-search engines scan a variety of individual search engines simultaneously. Their results give a searcher a list of sites gathered from several search engines.

How can I critically evaluate Internet sources?

The first step is to identify the author or sponsor organization for the site. Next, check whether the site credits sources and examine the domain, or the suffix, at the end of the Web address. Third, check the date on which the information was placed on the Web page. This will tell you if it is current. Finally, check any mission statement or company information provided on the site.

How can I give proper credit to sources?

Make sure you give proper credit to other people's ideas, opinions, and theories. Also, attribute direct quotes to their sources, and make sure paraphrased information represents the author's original intent. Finally, facts and statistics should always be cited to the proper source.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the purpose of locating supporting material on the Internet? What do I need to know in order to use the Internet for research?

The Internet provides an accessible, useful approach to gathering supporting material for a speech, surveys, or interviews conducted by the speaker. Using the Internet correctly requires an understanding of the types of search engines and subject directories that are available.

2. What is the difference between a search engine and a human directory? What are some examples of each?

Search engines index the contents of the Web using powerful software programs. Some examples of commonly used search engines are AltaVista, HotBot, FAST, Lycos, AOL Search, and Google. Human directories are searchable databases of Web sites that have been submitted to that directory and then assigned by a human editor to an appropriate category. Examples of subject directories include Yahoo!, Excite, LookSmart, and Magellan.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Give each student the name of a famous person from history or current events. Have students locate and print all the relevant information about

the person they can find on the Internet. Students should record and evaluate the types of sources they find.

This activity helps students understand some of the strengths and weaknesses of various search engines and subject directories. Ask students whether they got sidetracked while completing this assignment. Discuss strategies for staying on task while searching the Internet. Students may also be assigned different types of sources to locate on the Internet (e.g., quotations, government publications).

2. Develop a list of search engines that students commonly use, or use the list in the text. Discuss how you might go about using each search engine. How are they the same? How are they different?

This would be a good in-class exercise if you have access to the Internet for instruction. Students can call out search engines, and you can visit them as a class to discuss their relative merits for research. Alternatively, students can print out and turn in the results of several search engines for their own speech topics. This is a good way to assess the types of search engines they are using.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Take a class field trip to your school's library, and meet with a reference librarian who has a good knowledge of the online databases available through your library.

Prepare a list of databases available through your library based on your discussions with the reference librarian. Be sure to note the location of various secondary sources in the library. Which databases in the library are most popular? Does your library have a CD-ROM collection? How is it different from data found on the Internet?

2. Put students in groups of four or five, and ask each group to use a search engine to find sources on a topic. Each group should use a different search engine, but all groups should research the same topic.

Discuss how the sites each group finds are different from one another. Which search engines find the same sites? Which search engines find the most sites? Compare similarities and differences in the types of information included and excluded in the results from each search engine.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes

- in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. What is the difference between a search engine and a meta-search engine? Give an example of each.

A **search engine** is an index of the contents of the Web using powerful software programs.

A **meta-search engine** scans a variety of individual search engines simultaneously.

Many examples of search engines can be found on pages 62–66 of the text. Meta-search engines include Dogpile and Ask Jeeves.

ACTIVITIES**Online Scavenger Hunt**

Purpose: To help students acquire information for a speech. This activity provides students with the opportunity to become familiar with a large number of search engines, as well as with some of the problems associated with trying to locate credible information on the Internet.

Instructions: Students must locate the following items and answer the questions.

1. Find a *journal article* from an academic journal. On what page numbers is this article found in the printed copy of the journal? (If an article is to be cited according to APA format, page numbers are required.)
2. Find the full-text version of an *academic book online*. Where did you find it? How is it the same as—or different from—a printed version of the book?
3. Find an *online magazine article* related to your speech topic. Where did you find the magazine? How would you cite this reference in APA format? Attach a photocopy of the article (or of the first page for a lengthy article).

Practice Makes Perfect: Practicing and Learning to Research

Purpose: To help students acquire research skills and better understand the research process.

Instructions: For this activity, students will need to find as many of these items as they can on the Internet. Each answer should be accompanied by a URL address to verify the source. This activity will give students an opportunity to become familiar with online systems.

1. the lyrics of a song that mentions the word *America*
2. a television program that features an African American or an Asian American in a prominent role
3. a recent newspaper article that uses the term “safer sex” or “AIDS”
4. a magazine article that provides a direct quote from the president of the United States
5. a dramatic quotation (from a well-known source)
6. a startling statistic regarding victims of crime
7. the voting rate of Americans by ethnicity
8. current statistics on the number of homeless people in the United States
9. an example of a television commercial that uses gender-based stereotypes
10. a comparison of the annual incomes of men and women in the United States (ten years ago and currently)
11. the rate of divorce and extramarital affairs during the last decade
12. the percentages of the male and female populations that are overweight

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Berkman, R. I. (1987). *Find it fast: How to uncover expert information on any subject*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Booth, W. C., Colomb, G. G., & Williams, J. M. (1995). *The craft of research*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Courtright, J. A., & Perse, E. M. (1998). *The Mayfield quick guide to the Internet: For communication students*. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield.
- Crossen, C. (1994). *Tainted truth: The manipulation of fact in America*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Frances, P. (1994). Lies, damned lies. . . . *American Demographics*, 16, 2.
- Henricsk, M. (1997, January). Encyclopedias on CD-ROM. *Kiplinger's Personal Finance Magazine*, 157–60.
- Maloy, T. (1996). *The Internet research guide*. New York: Allworth.
- Morris, E. (1996). *The book lover's guide to the Internet*. New York: Fawcett Columbine.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Speeches require a skeleton, or underlying structure.**
 - A. A well-crafted speech contains three main parts: introduction, body, and conclusion.
 1. The *introduction* establishes the purpose of the speech and shows its relevance to the audience. It serves as a preview of things to come.
 2. The *body* presents the main points intended to fulfill the speech purpose, with their underlying supporting points arranged similarly.
 3. The *conclusion* ties together the main points and the speech purpose.
 - a. The conclusion brings closure to the speech by reminding listeners of what they just learned or heard, what was important, and what—if anything—they should do with the information.
 - B. *Main points* are the key ideas and major themes of the speech. Supported by facts and grounded in sound reasoning, main points provide the statements or claims to prove a thesis.
 1. You can use the specific speech purpose and thesis statement as guideposts to help generate main points.
 - a. The specific purpose statement expresses the goal of the speech.
 - b. The thesis statement expresses the theme or central idea of the speech.
 2. In terms of the number of main points, three main points are sufficient for almost any speaking occasion, even though research has shown that audiences can process between two and seven.
 3. In terms of form, main points should never introduce more than one idea or topic. All of the main points should be presented in parallel form, or in a similar grammatical form and style.
 - a. In addition to helping listeners understand and retain speech topics and ideas, parallel form adds power, authority, and familiarity to the speech and its delivery.
 - C. *Supporting points* are the evidence and material presented to justify the main points and lead the audience to accept the speech purpose.
 1. In an outline, supporting points appear in a subordinate position to main points.
 2. Supporting points should be arranged in order of their importance or relevance to the main point and should be indicated by indentation.
 3. The most common format is the Roman numeral outline; it uses indentation among main and supporting points to clearly indicate the

- direction of a speech, helping the speaker recollect points and making it easier to follow an outline as he or she speaks.
- D. Well-organized speeches are characterized by unity, coherence, and balance.
1. A speech contains *unity* when it contains only those points that are implied by the purpose and thesis statements.
 2. A *coherent* speech is one that is logically organized.
 - a. You can ensure coherence by adhering to the principle of subordination and coordination—that is, the logical placement of ideas relative to their importance to one another.
 3. The principle of *balance* suggests that appropriate emphasis or weight be given to each part of the speech relative to the other parts and to the theme.
- E. *Transitions* are words, phrases, or sentences that tie the speech ideas together and enable the speaker to move smoothly from one point to the next.
1. Full-sentence transitions move from one main point to another; signposts are words or phrases that move between supporting points.
 2. Transition statements are often posed in the restate-forecast form.
 3. Transitions can also be stated as rhetorical questions.
 4. Internal previews and internal summaries also serve as transitions.

KEY TERMS

introduction the first part of a speech, in which the speaker establishes the speech purpose and its relevance to the audience and previews the topic and main points.

body the part of the speech in which the speaker develops the main points intended to fulfill the speech purpose.

conclusion the part of the speech in which the speaker reiterates the speech purpose, summarizes the main points, and leaves the audience with something to think about or act upon.

main points the key ideas and major themes of a speech; statements that are used to make claims in support of the thesis.

parallel form the statement of equivalent speech points in similar grammatical form and style.

supporting points the supporting material or evidence (examples, narratives, testimony, facts, and statistics) gathered to justify the main points and lead the audience to accept the purpose of a speech; used to substantiate or prove the thesis.

Roman numeral outline an outline format in which main points are enumerated with Roman numerals, supporting points with capital letters, third-level points with Arabic numerals, and fourth-level points with lowercase letters.

unity quality of a speech in which only those points implied by the purpose and thesis statements are included. Nothing is extraneous or tangential. Each main point supports the thesis; each supporting point provides evidence for the main points.

- coherence** clarity and logical consistency within a speech or an argument.
- coordination and subordination** the logical placement of ideas relative to their importance to one another. Ideas that are coordinate are given equal weight. An idea that is subordinate to another is given less weight.
- balance** a principle that suggests that appropriate emphasis or weight be given to each part of a speech relative to the other parts and to the theme.
- transition** a word, phrase, or sentence that ties speech ideas together and enables the speaker to move smoothly from one point to the next.
- full-sentence transition** a signal to listeners, in the form of a declarative sentence, that the speaker is turning to another topic.
- signpost** a conjunction or phrase that indicates transitions between supporting points.
- restate-forecast form** a type of transition in which the speaker restates the point just covered and previews the point to be covered next.
- rhetorical question** a question that does not invite an actual response, but is used to make the listener or audience think.
- internal preview** an extended transition that alerts audience members to ensuing speech content.
- internal summary** an extended transition that draws together important ideas before proceeding to another speech point.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What is the function of main points? How are they generated?

Main points express the key ideas and major themes of a speech. Their function is to make statements or claims in support of the thesis. The first step in creating main points is to identify the central ideas and themes of the speech. What are the most important ideas you seek to convey? As you review your research, what major ideas emerge? What ideas can you substantiate with supporting material? Each of these ideas and themes should be expressed as a main point.

How can the specific purpose and thesis statements help generate main points?

Because the **specific purpose statement** expresses the goal of the speech and the **thesis statement** expresses the theme or central idea of the speech, the main points should flow directly from them. These two statements can therefore serve as guideposts in generating main points.

What is the function of supporting points?

Supporting points represent the supporting material or evidence gathered to justify the main points. In an outline, supporting points appear in a subordinate (i.e., indented) position to main points. Main points are enumerated with uppercase Roman numerals, supporting points are enumerated with capital letters, and third-level points are enumerated with Arabic numerals.

What are transitions, and how are they used in speeches?

Transitions are words, phrases, or sentences that tie together the speech ideas and enable the speaker to move smoothly from one point to the next. Speakers use transitions to move listeners from one main point to the next (**full-sentence transition**), from main points to supporting points, and from one supporting point to another supporting point (**signpost**).

How do the principles of unity, coherence, and balance apply to the organization of a speech?

A well-organized speech is characterized by unity, coherence, and balance. A speech exhibits **unity** when it contains only those points that are implied by the purpose and the thesis statements. Each main point supports the thesis, and each supporting point provides evidence for the main points. A **coherent** speech is one that is logically organized. The body should follow logically from the introduction and the conclusion should follow logically from the body of the speech. Within the body itself, the main points should follow logically from the thesis statement and the supporting points should follow logically from the main points. The principle of **balance** suggests that appropriate emphasis or weight be given to each part of the speech relative to the other parts and to the theme.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why is it important that speeches be organized in a coherent and meaningful way?

The audience's understanding of the speech is directly linked to how well it is organized. Organization allows the audience to logically follow the speech and remember key points. Listeners' knowledge of the main points helps them process the speech so they may accurately draw their own meaning from the information presented to them.

2. Why is it important that transition statements be used in the body of speeches?

Transitions help an audience conceptualize the logical flow and direction of the speech. Also, transitions help the audience see the relationship among the points presented. Basically, transitions are like road signs; they tell us where we have been and where we are going next.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Assume that you have been asked to deliver a speech to incoming freshmen on the topic of social life at your college. Write a specific purpose statement for this speech that reveals three main points.

Before students write their specific purpose statements, it may be helpful for the entire class to brainstorm several aspects of college life as well as to review the discussion of specific purpose statements in Chapter 5 of the text. Then ask

students to pick three of these aspects to use as the main points of a speech. The three aspects of college life should reflect what each student thinks is important and what a first-year college audience may want to hear.

2. Each student should receive a fortune cookie. Write three main points for a speech on the topic of the fortune found in the cookie. Then develop fictitious evidence for supporting points to back up each main point.

Students may be creative in their responses to this assignment. The three main points should be relevant to the topic from the fortune cookie, but the supporting evidence does not have to be real. Encourage students to think about possibilities for supporting evidence. Where might they look to find evidence for their supporting points?

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Together with four or five of your classmates, view a speech broadcast on television or borrow a videotape from your library. Working individually, try to outline the speech, beginning with elements of the introduction. Note the main points, supporting ideas, and transitions used by the speaker. Compare your findings with those of your classmates. What similarities and differences are evident in your observations?

This activity can be used as an in-class writing assignment. Some speeches are organized well enough to lend themselves to an outline. This type of speech can be used as an assignment to assess how well students recognize the basic organizational structure of a speech. Have students write down descriptions of how the speaker used transitions to get from one main point to the next.

2. Have each student write down a speech topic of his or her choice. Then have students form groups of four or five, and ask them to blend their topics into one speech through the use of creative transitions. Have each group of students make a list of the original speech topics and the transitions they create to get from one topic to the next.

When every group has finished, ask students to present their "blended speech" to the class. How difficult was it to create transitions from one topic to the next? How might this task be made easier when writing transitions for the main points of a speech on one topic?

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. What are main points? What can you use to develop main points? How many main points should you use? What grammatical form should they be in?

Main points: Express the key ideas and major themes of a speech; used to make statements or claims in support of the thesis.

Purpose and thesis as guideposts: You can lay out what the speech is about based on your purpose and thesis; your main points should flow directly from these two things.

Number of main points: Audiences can comfortably take in from two to seven main points, but listeners are more apt to recall the points at the beginning and the end of a speech than those made in between. Depending on time constraints, topic, and amount of material to be covered, three main points should be sufficient for almost any speech.

Form of main points: Main points should not introduce more than one idea and should be in parallel form—for example, state main points in similar grammatical form and style.

2. It is not enough for speakers to simply state the main points. What other two items need to be present in the body of the speech?

Supporting points: The material or evidence presented to justify the main points.

Evidence: The use of facts, example, testimony, narratives, and statistics to support the subpoints and main points.

3. What are transitions? Give two examples of transitions.

Transitions are words, phrases, or sentences that tie the speech ideas together and enable the speaker to move smoothly from one point to the next.

Examples are a full-sentence transition, a sentence that moves from one main point to another, and **signposts** are transitional words or phrases that move between supporting points.

- Now that we have established the problem with engaging in unprotected sexual activity, let us look at ways in which individuals can engage in safer sexual practices.
- In addition to helping the environment, recycling can save you money.
- Does eating healthier cost too much? Well, actually the cost of eating a healthier diet...

4. What are the four principles of organizing main and supporting points? Give an example of a speech or speeches that do *not* follow these principles.

Unity: Characteristic of a speech that contains only those points that are implied by the purpose and thesis statements.

Coherence: Clarity and logical consistency; a coherent speech is logically organized.

Subordination and coordination: The logical placement of ideas relative to their importance to one another in a speech.

Balance: Involves giving appropriate emphasis or weight to each part of a speech relative to the other parts and to the theme.

ACTIVITIES**The Rule of Three**

Purpose: To help students understand the rule of three when designing presentations.

Instructions: Either provide students with a list of five to ten topics or have them choose their own. Provide students with the following information about the rule of three, and then have them generate a list of three points for each of the topics. This activity can be done in class individually, with partners, or as a homework assignment.

Rule of Three:

- The first item basically sets up the situation.
- The second item shows the pattern of expectation.
- The third item either completes the action or, more often, veers unexpectedly in an opposite direction to produce surprise.
- Remember parallel form. State main points in similar grammatical form and style.
- Don't forget subpoints, the material or evidence gathered to justify the main points.

Bonus: Give other examples that use the rule of three.

Be Supportive: Subpoints

Purpose: To provide students with an opportunity to implement supporting materials, including examples, narratives, testimony, facts, and statistics.

Instructions: Either provide students with a list of five to ten topics or have them choose their own. Provide students with information about the rule of three, and then ask them to generate a list of three points for each of the topics (and the subpoints for each). Have students identify which supporting materials (examples, narrative, testimony, facts, and statistics) would be best for each of the main topics. You can also ask them where they might find each of the suggested supporting materials. This activity can be done in class individually, with partners, or as a homework assignment.

Once Upon a Time ... Transitions

Purpose: To become familiar with transitions when writing a speech outline and presenting a speech.

Instructions: Write transition words on the board or put them on a transparency. Following is a list of some transitions that you can use. Ask one student to volunteer to go first. Either give this student the starting line of a story or have the student make one up (e.g., “Once upon a time there was a princess and a frog”; “I was walking along a beach when I found a bottle, rubbed it, and a genie appeared”; “A long time ago, there were three children who just got new shoes, and their first trip with those shoes was to . . .”). Direct students to continue the story for two or three lines; then ask them to use a transitional word from the list and pass the story on to another student. The next student then picks up the story (after the transition) and continues for two or three lines; he or she uses another transitional word or phrase and passes the story to another classmate. This can continue for as long as the instructor desires.

Transitional Words:

To add to a point: in addition, moreover, furthermore, besides, not only . . . but also, accordingly, equally important, another, as well as, similarly, likewise

Summarizing: therefore, finally, in short, as stated, thus, in brief, in conclusion, as a result, as shown, as said, to sum up, in other words

Results: as a result, thus, because, since, hence, accordingly, therefore, consequently

Emphasizing: surely, certainly, to be sure, undoubtedly, indeed, truly, in fact, above all, by all means, of course, overwhelmingly, without question, as a matter of fact, significantly

Examples: for example, for instance, as proof, specifically, as an illustration, in particular, specifically

Contrasting ideas: but, however, on the contrary, notwithstanding, though/although, on the other hand, otherwise, while this may be true, still/yet, nevertheless, after all, even though, unlike, in contrast, conversely, rather/instead

Comparing ideas: in the same way, similarly, likewise, in comparison, have in common, in relation to, also/too, either . . . or, despite, furthermore, as well as, the same, equally important, at the same time, just as, in like manner, granted, both/and

Conclusion: in short, in conclusion, in summary, in closing, as a result

Occurring in time: first, second, then, next, last, meanwhile, shortly, immediately, earlier, previously, following, as soon as, seldom/usually, before/after, meanwhile, occasionally, subsequently, never/always

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Bower, G. H. (1970). Organizational factors in memory. *Cognitive Psychology*, 1, 18–46.
- Foss, S. K. (1989). *Rhetorical criticism: Exploration and practice*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland.
- Hoffman, R. M. (1992). Temporal organization as a rhetorical resource. *Southern Communication Journal*, 57, 194–204.
- Kaplan, R. B. (1987). Cultural thought patterns revisited. In U. Connor & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 9–21). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Mino, M. (1991). Structuring: An alternative approach to developing a clear organization. *Speech Communication Teacher*, 5, 14–15.
- Payne, L. V. (1969). *The lively art of writing*. New York: Mentor.
- Sharp, H., & McClung, T. (1966). Effects of organization on the speaker's ethos. *Speech Monographs*, 33, 182ff.
- Smith, R. G. (1951). Effects of speech organization upon attitudes of college students. *Speech Monographs*, 18, 292–301.
- Thompson, E. (1960). An experimental investigation of the relative effectiveness of organization structure in oral communication. *Southern Speech Journal*, 26, 59–69.

SUGGESTED WEB SITE

Auditory Organization of Speech (<<http://www.icsi.berkeley.edu/audorg>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **The five main and two alternative types of organizational arrangement are chronological, spatial, causal, problem-solution, topical, narrative, and circle.**
- A. *Chronological pattern of arrangement* is useful when main points follow a natural sequential order.
 - 1. Topics that describe a series of events in time or develop in line with a set pattern of actions or tasks should be organized according to this pattern.
 - B. The *spatial pattern of arrangement* should be used when the speaker wants to describe the physical arrangement of a place, a scene, an object, or a geographical region.
 - 1. The main points should appear in order of physical proximity or direction to one another.
 - C. The *causal (cause-effect) pattern of arrangement* is used when the main points of a speech have a cause-effect relationship.
 - D. The *problem-solution pattern of arrangement* organizes the main points to demonstrate the nature and significance of a problem and then to provide justification for a proposed solution.
 - E. Arranging speech points *topically* is a good approach when all main speech points have roughly equal levels of importance and all are subtopics of the speech topic.
 - F. The *narrative organizational pattern* consists of stories or a series of short stories that include characters, settings, plot, and vivid imagery.
 - 1. A speech built upon a story is likely to incorporate elements of other patterns.
 - G. The *circle organizational pattern* consists of the development of one idea which leads to another, which leads to a third, and so forth to develop the speech thesis.
 - 1. This pattern is useful when you want listeners to follow a line of reasoning.

KEY TERMS

topical pattern of arrangement a pattern of organizing main points as subtopics or categories of the speech topic; of all organizational patterns, offers the most freedom to structure speech points as desired.

chronological pattern of arrangement a pattern of organizing speech points in a natural sequential order; used when describing a series of events in time or when the topic develops in line with a set pattern of actions or tasks.

spatial pattern of arrangement a pattern of organizing main points in order of their physical proximity or direction relative to one another; used when the purpose of a speech is to describe or explain the physical arrangement of a place, a scene, or an object.

causal (cause-effect) pattern of arrangement a pattern of organizing speech points in order first of causes and then of effects or vice versa; determined after the cause-effect relationship has been well established.

problem-solution pattern of arrangement a pattern of organizing speech points so that they demonstrate the nature and significance of a problem first, and then provide justification for a proposed solution.

narrative pattern of arrangement a pattern of organizing speech points so that the speech unfolds as a story with characters, plot, and setting. In practice, this pattern often is combined with other organizational patterns.

circle pattern of arrangement a pattern of organizing speech points so that one idea leads to another, which leads to a third, and so forth until the speaker arrives back at the speech thesis.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are the main types of organizational patterns described in this chapter?

This chapter describes five main types of organizational arrangement: **chronological**, **spatial**, **causal**, **problem-solution**, and **topical**. Two alternative organizational methods are also offered: **narrative** and **circle**. Selection of a certain pattern of arrangement depends largely on the inherent characteristics of the topic and the main points.

What are the differences between the five main patterns of organization?

Chronological patterns of arrangement are used to reflect the natural sequential order of the main points. **Spatial patterns of arrangement** are used when the main points are arranged in order of their physical proximity or direction relative to one another. **Causal (cause-effect) patterns of arrangement** are used when the main points of a speech compare something that's known to be a cause with its effects. **Problem-solution patterns of arrangement** are used when the main points are organized to demonstrate the nature and significance of a problem and then to provide justification for a proposed solution. **Topical patterns of arrangement** are used when each of the main points of a topic is of roughly equal importance, and when these points can be presented in any order relative to the other main points without changing the message.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How does the choice of main points affect the organizational structure that should be used to present a speech?

It is essential for students to understand that formulation of main points is necessary before they can decide on the arrangement of those main points. Sometimes the arrangement of main points depends on the type and nature of information one finds for the speech. For example, the information found may be topical rather than chronological and therefore may not follow a linear pattern.

2. How does audience analysis factor into choosing an organizational pattern?

Audience analysis is important in determining a pattern that will be easily recognized and followed. For example, some audience members do not think in a linear fashion, as is done in Western cultures.

Once students select an organizational pattern for the main points, make sure they understand that they can change this pattern. Changes may be necessary if the current arrangement does not convey the information effectively or if students find additional information that does not fit well into the existing pattern. Students should learn to be flexible at this stage, as with any stage, of the speech-preparation process.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Give an example of a topic that can be presented according to each of the following types of arrangement: chronological, spatial, causal, problem-solution, topical.

Explanations and examples of topics under each category:

- Chronological speeches are those that convey points in progression or things that happen in time relative to one another. Examples include advances in technology, historical accounts, or the lives of historical figures.
- Spatial speeches arrange main points according to their placement relative to one another. Examples include layouts of cities, parts of machines or equipment, or vacation spots to visit.
- Causal speeches illustrate cause-effect relationships among main points. Examples include how viruses or diseases are contracted or the development of natural phenomena such as hurricanes.
- Problem-solution speeches use the main points to argue a problem and to propose a solution. Examples include solving the national debt or preventing illness.
- Topical speeches are used when all main points are of relatively equal importance or are presented to show a relationship among the points. Examples include college majors and places or cities in which to live.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Together with four or five of your classmates, take a speech topic and think about what kind of main points might be used for the topic using a spatial

organizational pattern. How might those main points be different if you used a chronological pattern?

This activity can be used as an in-class oral or writing assignment. Either ask groups of students to present the three main points for a spatial and chronological organizational pattern, or have them write a mini-outline using each organizational structure. Have students write down descriptions of how the speaker will use transitions to get from one main point to the next.

2. Divide into five groups, and think of one speech topic. Each group will be assigned one organizational pattern (chronological, spatial, causal, problem-solution, or topical) to brainstorm. Use the same speech topic for all five groups. Each group should prepare a three- to five-minute speech that demonstrates its assigned organizational pattern, then choose one member to present the speech to the class.

Discuss the similarities and differences among the speeches. Which organizational pattern was most effective for the topic? Which pattern did not seem to work well for the topic? Why?

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTION

The following question may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of the material. This question can be used as:

- homework
- a quiz
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- a topic to generate discussion
- a question-and-answer session between instructor and students

1. Identify and explain the five types of organizational arrangement.

Chronological pattern of arrangement: Used to reflect the natural sequential order of the main points.

Spatial pattern of arrangement: Used when the main points are arranged in order of their physical proximity or direction to one another.

Causal (cause-effect) pattern of arrangement: Used when the main points of a speech compare something that's known to be a cause with its effect (or vice versa).

Problem-solution pattern of arrangement: Used when the main points are organized to demonstrate the nature and significance of a problem and then to provide justification for a proposed solution.

Topical pattern of arrangement: Used when each of the main points of a topic is of relatively equal importance, and when these points can be presented in any order relative to the other main points without changing the message.

ACTIVITIES**Getting Organized**

Purpose: To allow students to practice choosing organizational patterns for speeches.

Instructions: Write the name of the organizational pattern best suited to a speech on each of the following topics. In addition to listing the organizational pattern, give three main points that might be used to develop the topic. Remember to choose main points that match the organizational pattern selected.

1. how to change a tire
2. the federal budget
3. violence on children's television
4. teenage pregnancy
5. multicultural education
6. how to pack for a camping trip

What Does the Audience Expect?

Purpose: To help speakers consider the audience before choosing an organizational pattern.

Instructions: Make a list of students' chosen speech topics and organizational patterns on the board. As a class, consider the following questions for each topic:

1. Does the organizational plan you have selected convey the information listeners expect or need in a way that they will be able to grasp?
2. How much does the audience know about this topic?
3. How likely is the audience to accept the planned conclusion for the speech?
4. What level of complexity is appropriate for this audience? What special considerations should be made to explain specific terms related to this topic?
5. Does the arrangement move the speech along in a logical and convincing fashion?
6. Do the ideas flow naturally from one point to another, leading to a satisfying conclusion?
7. Does the organizational pattern lend the speech momentum?

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Bower, G. H. (1970). Organizational factors in memory. *Cognitive Psychology*, 1, 18–46.
- Foss, S. K. (1989). *Rhetorical criticism: Exploration and practice*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland.
- Hoffman, R. M. (1992). Temporal organization as a rhetorical resource. *Southern Communication Journal*, 57, 194–204.
- Kaplan, R. B. (1987). Cultural thought patterns revisited. In U. Connor & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 9–21). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
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SUGGESTED WEB SITE

Auditory Organization of Speech (<<http://www.icsi.berkeley.edu/audorg>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Outline speech material to organize your speech, reveal any weaknesses, and create a blueprint for presentation**
 - A. *Working outlines* are rough, preparatory outlines that help students refine and finalize the specific purpose statement, organize main points, and develop supporting points.
 1. *Sentence outlines* are generally used for working outlines. These outlines reflect exactly what the speaker intends to say and how he or she wants to say it.
 - a. Sentence outlines state each main and supporting point as a full declarative statement.
 - b. Preparing a working outline in sentence form is important: it forces the speaker to pay attention to the underlying logic of each idea and its relationship to other ideas in the speech; it also previews how the speaker will deliver main points in the actual speech.
 - B. *Speaking outlines*, also called *delivery outlines*, are used when practicing and presenting the speech. These outlines are brief and contain the ideas in condensed form.
 1. *Phrase outlines*, often used in speaking outlines, express each main and supporting point with a partial construction of the sentence form. These abbreviated constructions consist of only a few words associated with each point that will remind the speaker of what to say.
 2. *Key-word outlines*, also used in speaking outlines, convey each main and supporting point with the smallest possible units of understanding, such as a single word or a very brief phrase.
- II. **Prepare a working outline, then transfer your ideas to a speaking outline.**
 - A. Preparing the working outline will give you confidence that you've adequately worked out your ideas.
 1. Prepare the body of the speech first and keep the introduction and conclusion separate from the main points.
 2. Clearly mark where speech points require source edits.
 3. Finally, assign the speech a title that clearly communicates the essence of your speech.
 - B. Prepare the speaking outline by condensing the full sentences into key words or phrases.
 1. Include and highlight any delivery cues that will be part of the speech.
 2. Practice your speech often until you are comfortable speaking from a key-word outline.

KEY TERMS

- working outline** a preparation or rough outline in which the speaker refines and finalizes the specific purpose statement, firms up and organizes main points, and develops supporting points to substantiate them.
- speaking outline** a delivery outline used when practicing and actually presenting a speech.
- sentence outline** an outline in which each main and supporting point is stated in sentence form and in precisely the way the speaker wants to express the idea; generally used for working outlines.
- phrase outline** a delivery outline that uses a partial construction of the sentence form of each point, instead of using complete sentences that present the precise wording for each point.
- key-word outline** the briefest form of outline; uses the smallest possible units of understanding associated with a specific point to outline the main and supporting points.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are the main types of outlines described in this chapter?

This chapter describes five main types of outlines: **working outlines**, **speaking outlines**, **sentence outlines**, **phrase outlines**, and **key-word outlines**. Each outline has a unique function in speech preparation.

What are the differences between these five types of outlines?

Working outlines are rough outlines that help you to refine and finalize the specific purpose statement, brainstorm many points, and develop supporting points. A **speaking outline** is used when practicing and actually presenting a speech. **Sentence outlines** state each main and supporting point as full declarative sentences. **Phrase outlines** express each main and supporting point with a partial construction of the sentence form. **Key-word outlines** convey each main and supporting point with the smallest possible units of understanding, such as a single word or a very brief phrase.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Of sentence, phrase, and key-word outlines, which is generally the most conducive to effective speech delivery? Why?

Which outline is most conducive to effective speech delivery may depend on several factors—for example, the expectations of the audience, the skills of the speaker, or the amount of time a speaker has to prepare a speech. In general, it can be argued that a key-word outline is best because it provides prompts that allow a speaker to avoid memory lapses and at the same time does not hinder such delivery techniques as eye contact. Also, if a speaker is sufficiently familiar

with the content of the speech and does not need to read the outline, he or she will appear more credible to the audience, and this credibility will manifest itself in the delivery.

2. What is it like to attend a presentation at which the speaker reads the entire speech from his or her notes? As an audience member, how did the presentation make you feel?

There is a rule that if a speaker has the entire speech written down while speaking, despite the best intentions, he or she will use it. That is why a key-word outline is best. Many students feel apprehensive about the key-word outline, yet they do not believe that it is the written-out speech that causes the most anxiety. Reading a speech is the worst way to communicate with an audience.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Use the Checklist on p. 99 of the text to review the steps for creating a working outline.

Each student should turn in a working outline that is labeled with each of the eight steps in the Checklist. This activity helps reinforce the importance of a clear strategy for outlining.

2. Put your speaking outline on notecards prior to giving a speech. Turn in the cards so that your instructor can give you feedback on your outline. Make appropriate changes in the outline prior to giving the speech.

This activity is a good way to check students' speaking outlines prior to their speaking day. Discuss the importance of making notecards neat and easy to refer to during the speech.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Together with four or five of your classmates, take an article from a recent magazine and create a sentence outline of the article. Present your work to the class.

This activity can be used as an in-class oral or writing assignment. Ask the groups to present their outlines to the class, or have them write their responses and turn them in.

2. Divide the class into five groups, and think of one speech topic. Each group will be assigned one of the speech-outline types covered in this chapter (working outline, speaking outline, sentence outline, phrase outline, or key-word outline).

Use the same speech topic for all five groups. Each group should prepare a three- to five-minute speech that demonstrates the assigned organizational pattern, then choose one member to present the speech to the class.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can also be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. Why are key-word outlines the preferred speaking outlines?

Key-word outlines allow the greatest amount of eye contact, which increases the audience's involvement.

2. Identify and explain the five types of outlines covered in the chapter.

Working outlines are rough outlines that help students refine and finalize the specific purpose statement, brainstorm many points, and develop supporting points. **Speaking outlines** are used when practicing and actually presenting a speech. **Sentence outlines** state each main and supporting point as a full declarative sentence. **Phrase outlines** express each main and supporting point with a partial construction of the sentence form. **Key-word outlines** convey each main and supporting point with the smallest possible units of understanding, such as a single word or a very brief phrase.

ACTIVITIES**Narrowing Down an Outline**

Purpose: To allow students to practice converting (1) a sentence outline into a phrase outline and (2) a phrase outline into a key-word outline.

Instructions: Use the sentence outline for the three main points below to create a phrase outline and a key-word outline. Note why you select certain phrases and key words to help you remember the topic. Write the phrases and key words for each sentence on the lines below the sentence.

Topic: Dogs Are Good Pets**Main Point 1:**

Dogs are excellent pets for people who enjoy the outdoors because dogs usually like to play outside and enjoy going on walks.

- Phrase for outline _____

- Key word for outline _____

Main Point 2:

Large dogs do best in homes that have backyards, but smaller dogs can be good pets for people who live in apartments.

- Phrase for outline _____

- Key word for outline _____

Main Point 3:

Dogs are loyal, can warn their owners of danger, and are friendly companions.

- Phrase for outline _____

- Key word for outline _____

What's My (Out)Line?

Purpose: To allow students to understand the relationship among a sentence outline, a phrase outline, and a key-word outline.

Instructions: Use the key words below to create a phrase outline and a sentence outline. Think about sentences that each key word might represent. After completing your outlines, present them to the class. How does each person's sentence outline differ? What does that say about the word associations we make in our own minds?

Key Words:

1. ice cream

Phrase: _____

Sentence: _____

2. disco

Phrase: _____

Sentence: _____

3. happiness

Phrase: _____

Sentence: _____

4. football

Phrase: _____

Sentence: _____

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Bower, G. H. (1970). Organizational factors in memory. *Cognitive Psychology*, 1, 18–46.
- Foss, S. K. (1989). *Rhetorical criticism: Exploration and practice*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland.
- Hoffman, R. M. (1992). Temporal organization as a rhetorical resource. *Southern Communication Journal*, 57, 194–204.
- Kaplan, R. B. (1987). Cultural thought patterns revisited. In U. Connor & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 9–21). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Mino, M. (1991). Structuring: An alternative approach to developing a clear organization. *Speech Communication Teacher*, 5, 14–15.
- Payne, L. V. (1969). *The lively art of writing*. New York: Mentor.
- Sharp, H., & McClung, T. (1966). Effects of organization on the speaker's ethos. *Speech Monographs*, 33, 182ff.
- Smith, R. G. (1951). Effects of speech organization upon attitudes of college students. *Speech Monographs*, 18, 292–301.
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SUGGESTED WEB SITE

Auditory Organization of Speech (<<http://www.icsi.berkeley.edu/audorg>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. Functions of the introduction

- A. Gaining attention is the first function of the introduction. There are several techniques a speaker can use to capture the audience's attention.
 - 1. A good quotation culled from literature, poetry, film, or the statements of notable people is not only an attention-getter, but it also helps the speaker gain credibility.
 - 2. Stories are "surefire attention-getters."
 - a. Stories make ideas concrete and colorful.
 - b. Stories personalize issues, encouraging audience identification with the speaker, and make the topic relevant.
 - c. Most important, stories entertain. For example, an *anecdote* is a brief story about an interesting, humorous, or real-life incident.
 - 3. Speakers can capture attention by posing a *rhetorical question*, or one designed to make the audience think.
 - a. When you use a rhetorical question, always let the audience know your speech will attempt to answer it.
 - b. If done carefully, posing questions that seek response also sparks interest.
 - 4. Startling statements based on unusual or incredible information can stimulate listeners' curiosity and make them want to hear more.
 - a. Speakers frequently base their startling statements on statistics.
 - 5. Humor can spark interest, put the audience at ease, and boost speaker credibility.
 - a. The speaker should use humor with caution, making certain it is relevant, tasteful, and appropriate.
 - b. Speech humor should always fit the occasion.
 - 6. Introducing a speech by referring to the occasion can establish goodwill with the audience.
 - a. Such references make listeners feel involved.
 - b. People are generally curious about the meaning the speaker assigns to the occasion.
 - 7. Another tactic is to create common ground with the audience.
 - a. Audience members are more likely to trust and find credible speakers who they believe have their best interests in mind.
 - b. Focusing on the audience demonstrates interest and respect.

- B. A second function of the introduction is to identify the topic and purpose. The speaker should declare what the speech is about and what he or she hopes to accomplish.
 - C. The introduction should also preview the main points, and do so in the order in which the speaker will address them.
 - 1. Previewing the main points then helps the audience mentally organize the speech.
 - D. Finally, the introduction should motivate the audience to accept the speaker's goals. The speaker can accomplish this by making the topic relevant and by establishing credibility as a speaker.
 - 1. One way to make the topic relevant is to describe the practical implications it has for the audience.
 - 2. During the introduction, audience members assess the speaker's credibility.
- II. The conclusion provides the speaker with a final opportunity to leave the right impression, drive the purpose home, and reinforce the main points.**
- A. The first function of the conclusion is to alert the audience that the speech is coming to a close.
 - 1. Use signpost words and phrases to cue the audience to where you are.
 - B. The second function of the conclusion is to summarize the main points and goals of the speech so that listeners will remember the key elements.
 - 1. Recap what you've told your listeners by summarizing the main points.
 - C. Reiterate the topic and purpose of the speech.
 - D. Finally, the conclusion should challenge the audience.
 - 1. One way to conclude is to challenge the audience to respond.
 - E. As in the introduction, the speaker can close with a quotation, a story, or a rhetorical question to make the conclusion memorable.
 - 1. Quotations can be drawn from many sources, including famous people, popular culture, or poetry.
 - 2. Stories can bring the entire speech into focus by helping the audience visualize the speech.
 - a. One technique is to pick up a story you left off in the introduction.
 - 3. Just as rhetorical questions focus attention on the introduction, they can drive home the theme in the conclusion.

KEY TERMS

-
- anecdote** a brief story about an interesting, humorous, or real-life incident that links back to the speaker's theme.
- rhetorical question** a question that does not invite an actual response, but is used to make the listener or the audience think.
- preview statement** statement included in the introduction of a speech in which the speaker identifies the main speech points; often used in the introduction, this technique helps the audience mentally organize the speech.

call to action a challenge to audience members to act in response to a speech, see the problem in a new way, change their beliefs about the problem, or change both their actions and their beliefs with respect to the problem; placed in the conclusion of a speech.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are the functions of introductions?

Introductions serve four functions: They arouse the audience's attention, introduce the topic and purpose, motivate the audience to accept the speaker's goals, and preview the main points.

What are some of the most effective ways to capture an audience's attention?

Introductions must first gain the attention of the audience. Some of the most effective ways of capturing attention include using quotations, telling a story, using imagery, bringing in humor, posing questions, expressing interest in the audience, referring to the occasion, and saying something startling.

What are the functions of conclusions?

Conclusions serve three functions: They alert the audience that the speech is coming to an end, summarize the key points, and leave the audience with something to think about.

How does a speaker alert an audience that the speech is about to end?

Audiences like to know whether the speaker is at the beginning, middle, or end of the presentation. Just as you use **transition words, phrases, and statements** to cue in the audience to shifts within the body of the speech, you can use them to conclude the speech. **Signpost words and phrases** include *finally, looking back, in conclusion, in summary, as I bring this to a close, and let me close by saying*. All of these phrases signal closure.

Why is it important to challenge the audience to respond to the speech?

A **concluding challenge** is important because it shows listeners that the problem or issue that has been addressed is real and is personally relevant to them. In the introduction, part of the goal is to show listeners how the topic is relevant to them; the call to action is a necessary part of completing that goal in the conclusion.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How often do you think people listen only to the introduction of a speech and tune out the rest? If they tune out the body of the speech, shouldn't the introduction be especially effective?

Whether the audience tunes out the body of the speech may depend on the effectiveness of the introduction and conclusion, or it may simply be due to extraneous factors (e.g., environment, factors attributable to the audience). However, speakers have the responsibility to do their best to keep audience attention throughout the speech, and that responsibility includes generating effective introductions and conclusions.

2. How can speakers develop introductions that interest audience members enough to make them listen all the way through a speech? What clever strategies can you think of?

This is a good opportunity for students to incorporate what they have learned from the chapter into an in-class or take-home writing assignment. Strategies may include using rhetorical questions, making startling statements, or telling a story. Have students think about their individual speech assignments and brainstorm techniques they can use in their own speeches. Have them share these techniques in class or in small groups in order to gain constructive feedback.

3. Think about the best introductions to television shows or movies that you have seen. What made these introductions so effective? Discuss as many features as you can think of. How could these techniques be applied to a speech introduction?

Have students view several openers of television shows in class and identify the strategies used in these programs. In addition to identifying the specific techniques, have students discuss exactly how these techniques accomplished what they were intended to accomplish.

4. To what extent does a speaker's personal style affect the type of conclusion he or she selects? Should a serious person try a humorous conclusion or stick with a quotation or a rhetorical question instead? Should someone who has a keen sense of humor take advantage of it or try something like a somber story or an anecdote instead?

Students might try to remember speakers they have heard and the types of introductions and conclusions they used. Did these strategies jibe with the speaker's personal style?

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Practice writing introductions based on narratives or stories for each of the following speech topics:
 - drunk driving
 - illegal immigration
 - health care in the United States
 - financial aid for college students
 - your favorite vacation spot

(This could be repeated or changed for each of the kinds of introduction in this chapter.)

2. Think of two of your personal hobbies or interests. If you were to write a speech about them, how would you build credibility in the introduction? List statements you might make for each to support your credibility.

Encourage students to take an inventory of their expertise or knowledge of their chosen hobbies or interests. Students often do not see their own expertise unless it is pointed out to them or they are encouraged to write those things down.

3. Get students into groups to share their speech topics, after which they could write sample conclusions for each topic. This may provide students with ideas on how to write their own introductions and conclusions.
4. Think of two current events or news stories. If you were to write a persuasive speech about them, how would you create an appropriate conclusion? List several ideas for a conclusion.

Encourage students to take an inventory of their expertise or knowledge of the chosen news stories or current events. Then have them think of various ways to end a speech on the selected topic based on material presented in this chapter.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. In a group of three or four people, find copies of three or four speeches from a speech archive such as *Vital Speeches of the Day* or by searching the Internet. Isolate the introductions for each speech. In a paragraph, describe the type of introduction used in the speech: a story? quotations? humor? Did the speaker select appropriate opening material for the occasion and audience? Be prepared to discuss your findings with the class.

This activity could serve as an in-class report to fulfill an assignment. Have groups of students generate a report on the introductions they analyze.

2. Working individually, write a paragraph describing a funny incident that has happened to you. Next, divide into groups of four or five students, and take turns telling your stories to the group. Were you comfortable using humor? Why or why not? Were the audience members comfortable with your use of humor? Why or why not?

As a supplement to this activity, encourage students to use humor as an attention-getting device in their introductions, conclusions, or both. Have group members comment on the effectiveness of the humor.

3. As part of a small group exercise, tune in to C-Span and watch a few speeches delivered by members of the Senate or the House of Representatives. Make a list of the most common methods of introducing a speech in Congress. Do these speakers use effective introductions and conclusions?

Why or why not? In a short report, give examples that support your conclusions.

Encourage students to make a list of characteristics they should look for in any introduction or conclusion. This list will serve as a guideline when they report on the congressional speeches.

4. Form a small group of students, and have each member separately observe a speaker on campus, at a community center, or at a religious gathering. Have the group meet and discuss how each speaker uses introductions to gain attention. How do the speakers use conclusions to reinforce the message? Collaboratively write your answers in a short essay.

Students can use this activity as a way to persuade other students to observe the same speakers. As an alternative to this activity, have students prepare a short presentation highlighting the speakers observed and encouraging others to see these speakers in the future.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
 - quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. What are some functions of an introduction?
 - to arouse the audience's attention
 - to introduce the topic and purpose
 - to motivate the audience to accept the speaker's goals
 - to preview the main points
 2. The text mentions techniques that are designed to win the audience's attention. Please identify some of them.
 - using a quotation
 - telling a story
 - posing questions
 - saying something startling
 - using humor
 - referring to the event or occasion
 - expressing interest in the audience
 3. Provide an example of introducing the purpose and topic within the introduction of a speech.

4. Provide an example of previewing the main points. You can use the same topic that you used in the previous question.
5. How do you motivate the audience to accept your goals? Cite an example of how you would do this.

Speakers need to make the topic relevant to the audience. A good introduction demonstrates why audience members should care about your topic.

6. In the introduction, the audience needs to be given a reason to believe the speaker. What should the speaker do in the introduction in order to achieve this goal?

A speaker needs to build his or her credibility in the introduction. The speaker needs to make a simple statement of his or her qualifications for speaking on the topic at the particular occasion and to the specific audience.

7. What are the three functions of a conclusion?
 - to alert the audience that the speech is coming to an end
 - to summarize the key points
 - to leave the audience with something to think about

8. What are some of the techniques a speaker can use to give closure to a speech? What is one technique a speaker can use in a conclusion?

Quotations, stories, imagery, humor, and rhetorical questions can be used by a speaker to give closure to a speech. A call to action, a challenge to the audience to respond, is one such technique.

9. Explain what a call to action is, and provide an example of ending a speech with one.

Call to action: a concluding statement in which a speaker challenges the audience to act in response to the speech.

ACTIVITIES**Starting Out Right**

Purpose: To gain experience in writing introductions.

Instructions: In the space provided, write a creative introduction for each of the following speech topics using the strategy specified in parentheses.

1. something unusual or extraordinary that you have done (personal story)
2. practicing safe sex (humor)
3. extramarital affairs and cheating (startling facts or statistics; you may make up “data” for this activity)
4. presenting an award (quotation)
5. how to make something (rhetorical question)
6. the future or the past (illuminating with images)
7. some aspect of your school (express interest in the audience)

Two Heads Are Better Than One: Developing Introductions

Purpose: To help students prepare for their upcoming speeches.

Instructions: Students should come to class with their speech topics in mind. Organize students in groups of four or five and ask them to brainstorm appropriate attention-getters for each of the group members' topics. Following this, the groups should present their ideas to the class. The class then selects the introduction it feels is especially effective for each topic.

Motivating Your Audience

Purpose: To give students practice in making topics relevant and in establishing credibility.

Instructions: Instructors should provide students with ten possible speech topics; these topics may be picked up from other class activities or taken from the following list of topics. Students should briefly describe how they would make this topic relevant to the audience as well as how they would establish credibility.

Speech topics: drunk driving, deception, illegal immigration, English as the official U.S. language, funding to support the arts, health care in the United States, your favorite vacation spot, safer sexual practices, recycling, nutrition, and exercise.

Discussion: The instructor can ask students to read their answers, discussing how well or how poorly they succeeded in meeting the objectives of the assignment.

What's Hot and What's Not?

Purpose: To give students an opportunity to practice developing introductions and to find out what students think are currently important topics or people.

Instructions: Ask students to think of recent events and people who are in the public eye. Generate a list of all the hot events and people that students mention. This will get discussion and class participation going. Then narrow the list down to one event and one person. Next, construct two speeches, one for the event and one for the person. Students should do this exercise together as a class.

The instructor should provide a blank speech outline on the board. The class should then fill in each of the parts of the speech—introduction, body, and conclusion—for both topics. Class members should discuss and select the types of attention-getters that would be most appropriate for the topic. Students should also write down the completed outline in their notebooks so they can use it as a reference when they write their own outlines.

How Does It End?

Purpose: To gain experience in creating conclusions.

Instructions: In the space provided, write a creative conclusion for each of the following speech topics using the specific strategy specified.

1. my favorite U.S. president (famous quotation—you make up a quote for this activity)
2. drunk driving (challenge the audience to respond)
3. volunteering (ask a rhetorical question)
4. cooking for one (humor)

Conclusions Workshop

Purpose: To help students prepare for their upcoming speeches.

Instructions: Students should come to class with their speech topics in mind. Organize students in groups of four or five and ask them to brainstorm appropriate conclusions for each of the group members' topics. Following this, the groups should present their ideas to the class. The class then selects one conclusion that it believes is especially effective for each topic.

I Spy: Identifying Good Conclusions

Purpose: To identify effective and ineffective conclusions.

Instructions: For completion outside of class. Students need to find a speech in *Vital Speeches of the Day*, in another printed source, or on a video or audio recording. Ask students to evaluate the effectiveness of the speech's conclusion. Students can use the following questions to help guide their evaluations:

1. Who is the speaker, and what is the topic he or she is speaking about?
2. Did the conclusion achieve the three functions described in the chapter (alert listeners to the end of the speech, summarize key points, leave them with something to think about)?
3. Assuming the speaker did leave the audience with something to think about, how was this accomplished?

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Bartlett, J. (1992). *Familiar Quotations*. Boston: Little, Brown.
Closing and Summaries (1994). Dayton, OH: Executive Speaker.
 Coles, R. (1989). *The Call of Stories*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
 Fuller, E. (1980). *2500 Anecdotes for All Occasions*. New York: Avenel Books.
 Langellier, K. M. (1989). Personal narratives: Perspectives on theory and research. *Text and Performance Quarterly*, 9, 243–276.
 Qubein, N. R. (1997). *How to Be a Great Communicator*. New York: Wiley.
 Sarnoff, D. (1970). *Speech Can Change Your Life*. Garden City, NY: Doubleday.

For an examination of introductions and conclusions, see speeches in the following sources:

Vital Speeches of the Day; Executive Speaker; Voices of Multicultural America: Notable Speeches Delivered by African, Asian, Hispanic and Native Americans; Lend Me Your Ears: Great Speeches in History.

SUGGESTED WEB SITES

WEB SITES ON INTRODUCTIONS

- Deciding on and Writing an Introduction (<http://www.executive-speaker.com/spkop_m.html>)
 Openings, Quotations, Speechmaking, Speechwriting, Speeches, Rhetoric, Communication (<http://www.executive-speaker.com/spkop_m.html>):
1. General-purpose one-liner attributed to Groucho Marx
 2. Witty observation on brevity by William Sloane Coffin
 3. Jack Benny anecdote
 4. Aphorism on gratitude and brevity of speeches
 5. One-liner wisdom on speeches and a reference to the endurance of speakers
 6. Creative approach to a speech on quality
 7. Executive humor, anecdotes, and conversational language
 8. Baker's dozen one-liners on brevity
 9. Bright, engaging opening for a speech about multimedia
 10. Quotes, imagery, open motivational remarks on attitude
 11. More brevity
 12. Advice from Charlton Heston on speechmaking

WEB SITES ON QUOTATIONS

- Bartlett, John. 1901. *Familiar Quotations* (<<http://www.bartleby.com/100>>)
 CHA's Quotations about Communication
 (<http://www.cha4mot.com/quo_comm.html>)
 CHA's Quotations about Change (<http://www.cha4mot.com/quo_chng.html>)
 CHA's Quotations about Ideas (<http://www.cha4mot.com/quo_idea.html>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. Writing for the ear

- A. Choosing the right words is critical to connecting with your audience.
 - 1. *Style* is the specific word choice.
 - 2. *Rhetorical devices* are techniques of language used by the speaker.
- B. Successful speakers write for the ear to make their message clear to the audience.
 - 1. Be straightforward. Use easy-to-follow syntax, frequent transitions, and a clear organizational pattern.
 - 2. Strive for simplicity in word choice.
 - a. Avoid *jargon*, the specialized language of an activity or group; terms should be translated for the layperson.
 - 3. Be concise. Strive to get your point across effectively, using as few words as possible.
 - 4. Use *repetition* of key words and phrases to create a distinct rhythm that implants important ideas in listeners' minds.
 - 5. Use personal pronouns such as *we*, *I*, and *you* to draw your audience into your message.

II. Choosing language that encourages shared meaning

- A. Always avoid *biased language* that relies on unfounded assumptions, negative descriptions, or stereotypes based on religion, race, age, class, gender, disability, or ethnicity.
 - 1. Biased language includes any terminology that is sexist, ageist, or homophobic.
 - 2. Speakers should avoid the use of sexist pronouns when referring to both men and women.
 - 3. Be culturally sensitive by avoiding or offering explanations when using colloquial expressions or idioms.
- B. Use *concrete words*—words that are specific, tangible, and definite. *Abstract language*—general, nonspecific words—should be avoided.
- C. Vivid imagery enhances meaning by making ideas concrete and by evoking feelings and associations.
 - 1. You can evoke vivid imagery by using words that are colorful and concrete. Countless adverbs and adjectives are available to make language colorful and concrete.
 - 2. You can evoke imagery by appealing to the senses, creating images that awaken the sense of smell, taste, sight, hearing, or touch.

3. You can evoke vivid imagery by using *figures of speech*—forms of expression that create striking comparisons to help the listener visualize, identify with, and understand the speaker's ideas.
 - a. A *simile* explicitly compares one thing to another, using *like* or *as*.
 - b. A *metaphor* also compares two things but does so by describing one thing as actually being the other.
 - c. An *analogy* is an extended metaphor or simile that compares an unfamiliar concept or process to a more familiar one to help the listener understand the unfamiliar one.

III. Choosing language to build credibility

- A. Speakers must be correct in usage and truthful in expression.
 1. Steer clear of slander and avoid *malapropism*, the inadvertent use of a word or phrase in place of one that sounds like it.
 2. As a rule, speakers should strive to uphold the conventional rules of grammar and usage associated with Standard English.
 - a. The more diverse the audience, and the more formal the occasion, the closer you will want to stay within these boundaries.
 - b. When the audience is more homogeneous, it may be appropriate to mix casual language, regional dialects, or even slang into your speech.
- B. Language that expresses confidence enhances credibility. This is best accomplished by using the active voice and personal pronouns.
 1. Speaking in the active rather than passive voice makes statements clear and assertive instead of indirect and weak.

IV. Choosing language that creates a lasting impression

- A. *Repetition* involves repeating key words or phrases. This creates a distinct rhythm that implants important ideas in listeners' minds.
 1. Repetition is often used to create a thematic focus.
 - a. Repeating a key word, phrase, or sentence throughout the speech stimulates and captures attention and brings the speaker closer to listeners.
 - b. *Anaphora* is a type of repetition in which the speaker repeats a word or a phrase at the beginning of successive phrases, clauses, or sentences.
- B. *Alliteration* is the repetition of consonant sounds in two or more neighboring syllables. It lends speech a poetic, musical rhythm that can create a lasting impression.
- C. *Parallelism* refers to the arrangement of words, phrases, and sentences in similar form. It helps the speaker emphasize important ideas and can create a sense of steady or building rhythm.
 1. Orally numbering points is one use of parallel language.
 2. Parallelism within individual sentences, in the form of pairs and triads, creates a powerful effect.
 - a. Pairs take two ideas, phrases, or words to create a powerful idea; triads take three.

KEY TERMS

- style** the specific word choices and rhetorical devices (techniques of language) that speakers use to express their ideas.
- rhetorical device** a technique of language to achieve a desired effect.
- cultural sensitivity** a conscious attempt to be aware of and acknowledge beliefs, norms, and traditions that differ from one's own.
- biased language** any language that relies on unfounded assumptions, negative descriptions, or stereotypes of a given group's age, class, gender, disability, and geographic, ethnic, racial, or religious characteristics.
- jargon** specialized terminology developed within a given endeavor or field of study.
- abstract language** language that is general or nonspecific.
- figure of speech** an expression, such as a metaphor, simile, analogy, or hyperbole, in which words are used in a nonliteral fashion.
- simile** a figure of speech used to compare one thing to another with the word *like* or *as* (e.g., "He works like a dog").
- metaphor** a figure of speech used to make implicit comparisons without the use of *like* or *as* (e.g., "Love is a rose").
- analogy** an extended metaphor or simile that compares an unfamiliar concept or process to a more familiar one in order to help the listener understand the one that is unfamiliar.
- malapropism** the inadvertent use of a word or phrase in place of one that sounds like it.
- denotative meaning** the literal or dictionary definition of a word.
- connotative meaning** the individual associations that different people bring to bear upon a word.
- voice** a feature of verbs that indicates the subject's relationship to the action; can be active or passive.
- repetition** a technique that speakers use to stress key points; the speaker repeats words, phrases, or sentences at various intervals throughout a speech to create a distinctive rhythm.
- anaphora** a rhetorical device in which the speaker repeats a word or phrase at the beginning of successive phrases, clauses, or sentences.
- alliteration** the repetition of the same sounds, usually initial consonants, in two or more neighboring words or syllables.
- parallelism** the arrangement of words, phrases, or sentences in similar grammatical and stylistic form. Parallel structure can help the speaker emphasize important ideas in the speech.
- antithesis** a type of parallelism in which two ideas are balanced in opposition to each other to create a powerful effect.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

How can you ensure that your language is culturally sensitive and unbiased?

Speakers can be **culturally sensitive**—considerate of cultural beliefs, norms, or traditions that are different from their own—by adapting their language for a diverse audience. Speakers who are culturally sensitive steer clear of **biased language**—that is, any language that relies on unfounded assumptions; negative descriptions; or stereotypes of a given group's age, class, gender, disability, and geographic, ethnic, racial, or religious characteristics.

Why is it important that speech language be simple and concise?

Successful speakers strive for **simplicity** and **conciseness**. To ensure that they get their message across, they avoid complex words and jargon that may not be shared by everyone. They also pay attention to sentence length. Striving for more concise language also includes the use of contractions, phrases, and sentence fragments, all of which make speaking more conversational.

What is concrete language?

Concrete language is specific, tangible, and definite. In contrast, **abstract language** is general and nonspecific. Abstract words such as *power* and *peace* do not have a specific reference and could mean many things to a listener. However, concrete words such as *statistic* and *dollar* call up specific images for the listener. Concrete language is most effective in describing real objects and real experiences. Abstract language is often the most effective way to communicate the broad characteristics and values of an issue.

How can you create vivid imagery in your speeches?

Vivid imagery can be created through concrete and colorful words and through **figures of speech** such as similes, metaphors, and analogies. A **simile** explicitly compares one thing to another, using *like* or *as* to do so. A **metaphor** also compares two things but does so by describing one thing as actually being the other. An **analogy** is an extended metaphor or simile that compares an unfamiliar concept or process to a more familiar one to help the listener understand the unfamiliar one. Similes, metaphors, and analogies help a speech come alive for the audience, help maintain the audience's interest in the subject, and help generate a theme.

How can you use language to build credibility?

Speakers can build credibility with their audiences by using words appropriately, accurately, grammatically, and with confidence and conviction. Being appropriate means using language that is suited to the audience, the occasion, and the topic; it also means refraining from using inflammatory and libelous language.

How can you use language to create a lasting impression?

Three effective strategies for using language to make speeches memorable are the rhetorical devices of repetition, alliteration, and parallelism. **Repetition** involves repeating key words or phrases at various intervals to create a distinct rhythm and thereby implant important ideas in listeners' minds. Repetition is often used to create a thematic focus. **Alliteration** is the repetition of the same sounds, usually initial

consonants, in two or more neighboring words or syllables. When it is done well, alliteration lends a speech a poetic, musical rhythm or cadence. **Parallelism** is the arrangement of words, phrases, or sentences in similar form. Parallel structure can help the speaker emphasize important ideas in the speech. Like repetition, it creates a sense of steady or building rhythm.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why is it so important to consider the connotative meanings of words in appealing to an audience? How can an analysis of audience attitudes, values, and beliefs be used to evaluate the connotative implications of certain words?

Connotative meanings are created in the context in which words are used, not in the words themselves. Because individuals communicate in a variety of contexts and situations, it may be difficult for the speaker to anticipate which context or experience an audience is referring to when interpreting certain words or phrases. Therefore, speakers should have knowledge of the audience (i.e., through audience analysis) before assuming that their audiences will interpret certain meanings from words. This knowledge can be obtained by learning the value or belief systems an audience possesses.

2. Think of three or four instances in which you could incorporate slang or regional or ethnic terms into a speech in a way that would be appropriate to the audience, the occasion, and the topic. Be ready to discuss these in class.

This activity could serve as a group exercise. When students are generating appropriate situations, encourage them to incorporate examples from their speech assignments. Remember that an audience should be made aware of the meaning of slang terms as well as why they are used in particular contexts.

3. How skillful are you at selecting words that have just the meaning you seek? Many people use a printed thesaurus or one that is part of their word-processing package. *Roget's Thesaurus* is available in print as well as online at <http://humanities.uchicago.edu/forms_unrest/ROGET.html>.

Type in a keyword, and note the comprehensive listing of alternative words. Be prepared to discuss your findings with the class.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Choose an ordinary object in the room around you. Without explicitly naming the object, write a paragraph describing it in detail. Read your description to a classmate, and see if he or she can guess what the object is.

This activity, especially helpful in demonstrating denotative and connotative meanings, may also provide students with an opportunity to work on effective language use by helping them use language that is more descriptive and vivid.

2. Review the paragraph you wrote for item 1, looking for use of metaphors, similes, and analogies. If you have not used them, try to describe the object using these figures of speech.
3. Select a piece of recent writing you have done—a speech, a term paper, or other work—and edit it for conciseness. Can certain words and sentences be deleted to make the message clearer and more concise? Try using a thesaurus to substitute simple words for unwieldy ones.

This activity can be used with previous speech assignments that students have worked on in class. Have students list the language concepts from the chapter, including vividness, conciseness, abstraction/concreteness, alliteration, and avoiding bias and other language barriers. Have students edit their previous writing using this list as a set of guidelines.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. As part of a class activity, work in groups of five to generate five to ten sensitive words for which more appropriate language can be substituted. Each group should report its results to the class. To spur your thinking, consider the following substitutions:

Instead of Saying ...

janitor
 repairman
 congressman
 handicap

Consider ...

maintenance worker
 repair person
 senator, representative
 disability

To apply this activity to real-life situations, find examples of writing or speeches that use biased terms such as those just listed. Have the groups identify the inappropriate terms and think of substitutes for them.

2. In groups of three to five classmates, read aloud from one classmate's speech. Evaluate how he or she has handled language in terms of the following: simplicity and conciseness; vividness of imagery; accuracy of word usage, including connotative meanings; transitions; sentence structure; length and completeness of sentences; and use of personal pronouns.

This activity provides an excellent opportunity for students to practice developing effective language for their speech assignments before they are due. By providing feedback early in the process, students will have more knowledge about which techniques to incorporate as well as what the instructor will look for when evaluating language use in the actual assignment. When reading a portion of a student's speech in class, encourage the class to identify how that student has handled the language and to provide additional feedback on how the language could be further developed and made more effective.

3. In a team of four or five people, look through some newspaper or magazine articles and select one that could be appropriately used as spoken language in a speech. Next, find a text that would be ill-suited for use as spoken language. Report your results to the class.

Selections that are more appropriately read include writings that already have their own vivid language (e.g., alliteration, metaphors) and that can help readers conjure their own visualizations of what is written. Selections that are more appropriate for oral delivery include those that require the effective use of non-verbal cues to convey the message, or selections with more difficult or abstract ideas that require the use of multiple channels to convey the correct meaning or message. When students make their own selections, have them discuss their results in terms of why one form of language is better read while another form is better heard.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. Explain what the text means by *style*.

Style: the specific word choices and rhetorical devices that speakers use to express their ideas. A speech is a mixture of substance and style. A speaker's style is his or her choice of words and sentence structure. It is the specific language a speaker selects and the techniques he or she uses to express it.

2. The textbook discusses how speakers can use language to share meaning—by being *culturally sensitive* and by avoiding *biased language*. Explain these terms.

Cultural sensitivity: a conscious attempt to be considerate of cultural beliefs, norms, or traditions that are different from one's own.

Biased language: any language that relies on unfounded assumptions; negative descriptions; or stereotypes of a given group's age, class, gender, disability, or geographic, ethnic, racial, or religious characteristics.

3. The text talks about using language that is *simple* and free of *jargon*, *concise*, and *concrete*. Explain, and give examples of, each of these terms.

Simplicity: speakers say what they mean in short, clear sentences. They can translate **jargon**—the specialized language of a given group or profession—into commonly understood terms.

Conciseness: as a rule, speakers should strive to use as few words as possible to express their thoughts. Being concise means eliminating unnecessary conjunctions between sentences, as well as ridding remarks of "vocal fillers."

Concreteness: concrete language consists of words that are specific, tangible, and definite. Speeches that contain a majority of concrete words and

phrases have a better chance of succeeding in getting a message across than do speeches that rely solely on abstract language.

4. What is abstract language? Give two or three examples to demonstrate how you can make an abstract word more concrete.

Abstract language: words that are general and nonspecific.

Abstract	Less Abstract	Concrete
summer	hot weather	sweltering heat
congestion	traffic jam	gridlock

5. Another way to use language to share meaning is through vivid imagery. Speakers can make stories come alive for listeners by selecting words that are colorful and concrete and by appealing to the audience's senses. Give examples of vivid imagery that uses colorful and concrete words and imagery to appeal to the senses.
6. Define *figure of speech*. Define three types of figures of speech, and give an example of each.

Figure of speech: form of expression that creates a striking comparison to help the listener visualize, identify with, and understand the speaker's ideas.

Simile: an explicit comparison of one thing to another using *like* or *as*.

Metaphor: a direct comparison of two things in which one thing is described as actually being the other.

Analogy: an extended metaphor or simile that compares an unfamiliar concept or process to a more familiar one to help the listener understand the unfamiliar one.

7. To build trust and credibility, language must be accurate. When considering accuracy, a speaker must consider the meaning of words. Explain the denotative and connotative meanings of words, and give an example of each.

Denotative meaning: the literal, or dictionary, definition of a word. Sometimes more concrete words have mainly denotative meaning (e.g., surgery and saline).

Connotative meaning: the special associations that different people bring to bear upon a word; for example, someone may like to be called "slender" but not "skinny," or "thrifty" but not "cheap."

8. What two things can a speaker do to convey confidence and conviction? Give examples of each.
 - Use the active voice.
 - Use personal pronouns: *I, me, my, we, us, our*.
9. The way in which words are arranged in a speech can make the speech more memorable. What three things should speakers take into consideration when arranging their language?

- **Repetition:** the repetition of key words or phrases at various intervals to create a distinct rhythm.
- **Alliteration:** the repetition of the same sounds, usually initial consonants, in two or more neighboring words or syllables.
- **Parallelism:** the arrangement of words, phrases, or sentences in a similar form.

ACTIVITIES**Confidence, Conviction, and Lasting Impression**

Purpose: To help students identify the active voice, personal pronouns, repetition, and parallelism in speeches.

Instructions: Ask students to review recent issues (perhaps three) of *Vital Speeches of the Day*. Ask them to select from one to three speeches in which they can identify the following: active voice, personal pronouns, repetition, and parallelism. Students should be prepared to discuss their findings in class.

Identifying Biased Language

Purpose: To help students understand how to use bias-free language.

Instructions: Class members should read the following passage. They should then be instructed to identify biased language and choose bias-free replacements for those words. Replacement words should not change the overall meaning of the passage. Also, students should identify the words that imply stereotypical behavior. After every student has completed the assignment, the instructor should ask one student to volunteer to write the biased words and their replacements on the board.

Discussion: The instructor can ask other students if they used any other words as replacements. Also, discuss the stereotypes that were used to describe individuals' behaviors.

Read the following passage:

Chris Jones is an African American male medical student who went to Johns Hopkins University. One day at the hospital, he received a page over the intercom: "Dr. Jones, please come to the ER, stat." When Dr. Jones arrived at the ER, he spotted a young girl screaming about a car wreck and pointing to an old geezer and a young boy. Dr. Jones told the young girl to calm down, that she was behaving like a child. Dr. Jones quickly approached the two patients and took control of the situation. Although the older patient was conscious, Dr. Jones didn't talk to him because he thought he was probably deaf. Instead, he turned to the fragile young girl, lowered his voice, patted her on the head, and said, "Don't worry, all mankind will be safe with me around." He told her that he would perform surgery on both patients because the only other doctor available was Katie Morris, who is a woman, and women cannot handle this amount of blood and gore.

Gender-Based Communication Styles

Purpose: To explore differences in feminine and masculine communication styles.

Instructions: Half of the students should bring to class a videotape of a man (e.g., news anchor, actor in a movie, politician) who represents the masculine communication style. The other half should bring a videotape of a woman who represents the feminine style of communication. Answer questions 1 and 2 after viewing each tape. Answer questions 3 to 5 after the class has seen all the tapes.

1. Which style of communication does this speaker use? (Remember, not all males use the masculine style, and not all females use the feminine style.)
2. What characteristics of this individual's speaking style led you to think this?
3. Which style of communication commands more respect from the audience?
4. Which style invites relational closeness or friendship?
5. Which style do students prefer? Why?

Cultural Sensitivity

Purpose: To help students understand cultural differences and how to adapt to individuals who may have different cultural beliefs, norms, or traditions.

Instructions: During class, show students clips from movies that depict various intercultural encounters, including male-female ones. Examples of some films are *Gung Ho*, *Mr. Baseball*, *When Harry Met Sally*, *The Joy Luck Club*, *Seven Years in Tibet*, and *Amistad*. As a class, students should discuss the following questions:

1. How did the two cultures differ?
2. What communication problems did this create?
3. Were the communication difficulties resolved? If not, how could the speaker have changed his or her communication style to try to overcome these difficulties?
4. Were the speakers culturally sensitive?
5. Did the speaker use biased language?
6. Were the individuals from the two cultures changed by their encounter? If so, did communication play a role in this change? How?

Additional instructions: This activity also works well with newspaper or magazine stories. Stories in books can also be used; authors such as Robert Fulgram and Jack Canfield have written short stories involving communication and intercultural differences.

The Meanings of Words: Denotative and Connotative

Purpose: To familiarize students with denotative and connotative meanings.

Instructions: Have students identify the denotative and connotative meanings of each of the following words. Then have them come up with five of their own words and give both meanings for each.

1. girl or boy
2. gay
3. thrifty
4. skinny
5. drugs—high
6. bitch
7. surfing

Meanings Are in People, Not in Words

Purpose: To help students become aware of how much language is connotative.

Instructions: Have students answer the following questions:

1. What is the most beautiful word you know?
2. What is the softest or gentlest word?
3. What is the ugliest word?
4. What is the most frightening word?
5. What is the harshest or sharpest word?
6. What word makes you feel lonely?
7. What word makes you feel angry?
8. What is the most overused or trite word?
9. What word makes you feel happiest?

Discussion: As a class, discuss students' answers, illustrating how many students provided different words for each meaning.

Keep It Simple

Purpose: To help students learn to use language concisely.

Instructions: This activity needs to be completed outside of class. Have students evaluate a speaker (either live or on tape) outside of class. Students should identify sections in the speech where the speaker overloads the listener with unnecessary words and long sentences. Ask students to create a more concise way to communicate the speaker's message. This can be assigned as homework and then used to facilitate classroom discussion.

Additional instructions: If instructors have examples (written, visual, or audio) of individuals giving a speech or a presentation, this activity can be done as a class during class time.

Abstract Language and Vivid Imagery

Purpose: To help students understand the difference between abstract and concrete language and to help them use more concrete language and vivid imagery in their presentations.

Instructions: Use the text to discuss and explain concrete language and vivid imagery. Then have students work in small groups (four to five members) to come up with at least five examples of each. As an aid, students can create a level-of-abstraction chart. They can also pick five topics and then develop two or three examples of using imagery to appeal to listeners' senses.

Discussion: One person from each group can read his or her answers to the class. A brief discussion can focus on the effectiveness of these examples.

Figures of Speech: Similes, Metaphors, and Analogies

Purpose: To give students practice in constructing metaphors, similes, and analogies.

Instructions: Have students construct similes, metaphors, and analogies for the following:

- **Metaphors**

- Provide a metaphor for your life.

- Provide a metaphor for what you think about love.

- Provide a metaphor for what you think about education.

- Provide a metaphor for what you think about death.

- Provide a metaphor about justice.

- **Similes**

- "Being in college is like ..."

- "Eating apple pie is like ..."

- Provide two similes using *as*.

- **Analogies**

- Use an analogy to describe some process that you engage in as a student or at your job.

- Research an analogy used by a famous public figure.

- Provide an analogy to help someone understand what it feels like to give a speech.

- Provide an analogy to explain the bonds of friendship or brotherhood/sisterhood.

Discussion: As a class, students can share their answers with one another. Also, students can generate other examples and create even more metaphors, similes, and analogies.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Andrews, J. R. (1973). *A choice of worlds: The practice and criticism of public discourse*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Battles, H. K., & Packard, C. (1984). *Words and sentences*, Book 6. Lexington, MA: Ginn.
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- Corbett, E. P. (1990). *Classical rhetoric for the modern student* (3rd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Lederer, R. (1991). *The miracle of language*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Lutz, W. (1996). *The new doublespeak*. New York: HarperCollins. (On the abuse of language.)
- Miller, C., & Swift, K. (1991). *Words and women: New language in new times*. New York: HarperCollins.
- Orwell, G. (1950). Politics and the English language. In *Shooting an elephant and other essays* (pp. 96–97). London: Secker & Warburg.
- Osborn, M. (1976). *Orientations to rhetorical style*. Chicago: Science Research Associates. (On the five powers of language.)
- Raspberry, W. (1984, May). Any candidate will drink to that. *Austin American Statesman*, 11, A10. (“The Whiskey Speech” defuses an issue with humor.)
- Safire, W. (1980). *On language*. New York: Longman.
- Zizik, C. (1995, Summer). Powerspeak: Avoiding ambiguous language. *Speech Communication Teacher*, 9(4), 8–9.

SUGGESTED WEB SITES

- Merriam-Webster Dictionary Online (<<http://www.m-w.com/netdict.htm>>)
- Roget’s Internet Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases
(<<http://www.thesaurus.com/thesaurus>>)
- University of Illinois Language Learning Lab (<<http://www.lll.uiuc.edu>>)

17 *Choosing a Method of Delivery*

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. Qualities of effective delivery

- A. An effective delivery is natural, enthusiastic, confident, and direct.
 - 1. The speaker's delivery should be natural; it should seem like a normal conversation, although a bit more forethought will be necessary.
 - 2. The speaker's enthusiasm for his or her topic will capture and hold the audience's attention and focus it on the message.
 - 3. Confident speakers appear composed and convey certainty and comfort; their manner focuses the audience's attention on the message rather than on specific speaker behaviors.
 - 4. An effective delivery is direct in that it requires the speaker to connect personally with listeners by building rapport.
 - a. Eye contact, a friendly tone of voice, animated facial expressions, and close physical positioning help establish the speaker's direct connection to audience members.

II. Methods of delivery

- A. *Speaking from manuscript* involves reading the speech from prepared written text that contains the entire speech, word for word.
 - 1. Manuscript delivery can negatively impact the speaker's presentation because it may appear boring or monotonous.
 - 2. It is most useful when very precise messages are required.
- B. *Speaking from memory*, called *oratory*, occurs when presenters memorize entire speeches, word for word.
 - 1. Speaking from memory is not a natural way to present a message; it stifles enthusiasm and threatens a relaxed delivery.
- C. *Speaking impromptu* means speaking without prior preparation.
 - 1. To succeed in impromptu speaking you should always be prepared; think about your listeners, listen to what others around you are saying, and, when you do speak, make it brief.
- D. *Speaking extemporaneously* occurs when speakers deliver a prepared and practiced speech without memorizing it or reading from a text.
 - 1. This type of speech is extremely flexible because the speaker can adapt to the situation and the audience.
 - 2. Generally, speakers use key-word or phrase outlines to guide them; this outline should include only key words or phrases, be kept to a minimum, and be prepared on small notecards.

KEY TERMS

speaking from manuscript a type of delivery in which the speaker reads the speech verbatim—that is, from a prepared written text (either on paper or on a TelePrompter) that contains the entire speech, word for word.

speaking from memory a type of delivery in which the speaker puts the entire speech, word for word, into writing and then commits it to memory.

oratory in classical terms, the art of public speaking.

speaking impromptu a type of delivery that is unpracticed, spontaneous, or improvised.

speaking extemporaneously a type of delivery that falls somewhere between impromptu and written or memorized deliveries. Speakers delivering an extemporaneous speech prepare well and practice in advance, giving full attention to all facets of the speech—content, arrangement, and delivery alike. Instead of memorizing or writing the speech word for word, they speak from an outline of key words and phrases.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are the four general qualities of effective delivery?

Today's scholars of public speaking agree that a natural style of delivery is most effective. **Effective delivery** is natural, enthusiastic, confident, and direct.

What are the four methods of delivery described in this chapter?

The four methods of delivering a speech are (1) speaking from manuscript, (2) speaking from memory, (3) speaking impromptu, and (4) speaking extemporaneously. Speakers who deliver a **speech from manuscript** read the entire speech, word for word, from a prepared manuscript. Speakers who deliver a **speech from memory** put the entire speech, word for word, into writing and then memorize it. An **impromptu speech** is one that is delivered without prior preparation. Finally, speakers who deliver a speech **extemporaneously** speak from an outline of key words and phrases. They have prepared well and practiced in advance, giving full attention to all facets of the speech—content, arrangement, and delivery alike.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. In what ways is a speech like a conversation? What are some differences between conversations and speeches? What implications do these differences have for understanding speaker delivery?

Have students identify the differences and similarities by making lists on the board, one for public speaking and one for conversation. Point out that the similarities between both types of communication are important because qualities that feel natural in conversation can be incorporated into the public speaking realm, and thus make public speaking seem a more enjoyable or less

scary experience. It is also important to recognize the qualities that set public speaking apart from conversation because public speeches addressed to large groups need to be treated appropriately. The context is more formal and professional, and planning is essential.

2. Why is enthusiasm important to effective delivery? How might too much enthusiasm be detrimental to a speech?

The right amount of enthusiasm conveys a speaker's interest and excitement for the topic. This adds dynamism to the delivery and enhances the speaker's credibility. Conversely, excessive enthusiasm gives the appearance of being fake and makes the speaker seem untrustworthy.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Speaking extemporaneously occurs when speakers deliver a prepared and practiced speech without memorizing it or reading from a text. Give extemporaneous speeches in class.

Use the campus newspaper to generate topics for the speeches, or have students generate topics for a partner. Discuss how students felt while giving the speech. How did they prepare mentally?

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. If you have access to the Internet, go to a chat room where participants discuss the U.S. president and other national and international leaders. Initiate a discussion concerning what people like or dislike about the way a selected leader presents himself or herself to the media and the public. Among these likes and dislikes, what might be attributed to the person's delivery? Discuss your findings with a small group of classmates.

Students can report their findings from the Internet discussions to their groups, or they can turn in a short report. Before assigning this activity, have students generate a list of questions they will ask before going online.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITY

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. What is effective delivery, and what are the four qualities of an effective delivery?

Effective delivery: in a speech or presentation, the skillful application of natural conversational behavior in a way that is relaxed, enthusiastic, and direct. Effective delivery is natural, enthusiastic, confident, and direct.

2. Identify and explain each of the four methods of delivery.
 - **Speaking from manuscript:** reading the speech from a prepared text.
 - **Speaking from memory:** delivering a speech after memorizing it word for word.
 - **Speaking impromptu:** delivering a speech without prior preparation.
 - **Speaking extemporaneously:** delivering a prepared and practiced speech without memorizing it or reading it word for word from a text.

ACTIVITY**Identifying Methods of Delivery**

Purpose: To become familiar with the four methods of delivering a speech.

Instructions: This exercise should be given after the instructor has completed the lecture on the different methods of delivery. Have students select partners. Instruct students to think of and write down all of the different presentations they have given or attended. Then have them identify which method of delivery was used and which method should have been used (i.e., which was the most appropriate); these two methods may or may not differ.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Ayres, J. (1996). Speech preparation processes and speech apprehension. *Communication Education, 45*, 228–35.
- Bradley, B. (1967). *Speech performance*. Dubuque, IA: William C. Brown.
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- Malloy, J. T. (1975). *Dress for success*. New York: Warner.
- McCroskey, J. C. (1993). *An introduction to rhetorical communication* (6th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall. (For an extensive and excellent review of research on the effects of speaker delivery.)
- McCroskey, J. C., Sallinen, A., Fayer, J. M., Richmond, V. P., & Barraclough, R. A. (1996). Nonverbal immediacy and cognitive learning: A cross-cultural investigation. *Communication Education, 45*, 200–11. (On the importance of vocal variety in speechmaking.)
- Segrin, C. (1993). The effects of nonverbal behavior on outcomes of compliance gaining attempts. *Communication Studies, 44*, 169–87.
- Winans, J. A. (1925). *Public speaking*. New York: Century. (For an extensive and excellent review of the study of rhetoric.)

18 *Controlling the Voice*

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. Volume

A. *Volume* is the relative loudness of a speaker's voice.

1. Typically, the proper volume is slightly louder than normal conversation, but it depends on the size of the room, the number of people in the audience, the availability of a microphone, and background noise.

II. Pitch

A. *Pitch* describes the range of sound from high to low (or vice versa).

1. Pitch conveys your mood, reveals your level of enthusiasm, and expresses your concern for the audience.
2. Speakers should vary their pitch to avoid a monotonous delivery.

III. Rate

A. Speaking *rate* is the pace at which you convey speech. It is the most effective way to hold an audience's attention.

1. Speakers should strive to vary the rate of speech throughout their presentations.
2. The typical public speech occurs at a rate slightly below 120 words per minute, but there is no specific standard for the ideal, or most effective, rate.
3. Being alert to your audience's reactions is the best way to determine whether you are speaking too rapidly or too slowly.

IV. Pause

A. A *pause* can be used strategically within a speech to enhance meaning. It provides a type of punctuation and can be used to emphasize a point, draw attention to a key thought, or give listeners a moment to contemplate a point.

V. Vocal variety

A. *Vocal variety*, the use of multiple vocal cues, is important to achieving a successful delivery.

1. One key to achieving effective vocal variety is enthusiasm.
2. Be careful not to let enthusiasm overwhelm your ability to control vocal behavior.

VI. Pronunciation and articulation

- A. Speakers should pay special attention to *pronunciation* and *articulation*. The correct formation of words and the clarity and forcefulness of words so that they are individually audible and discernible are particularly important to holding the audience's attention.
1. A very common pattern of poor articulation is mumbling.
 - a. Sometimes the problem is lazy speech.
 2. Articulation problems can be overcome by unlearning the problem behavior.

VII. Using dialect (language variation)

- A. A *dialect* is a distinctive pattern of speech associated with a particular region or social group.
1. When speaking publicly, use general American English, which is most likely to be understood by audience members. Speakers using general American English are more likely to be perceived as competent.
 2. *Code-switching*, using dialect selectively in a speech, can help achieve a variety of positive rhetorical effects, provided the meaning is clear.
 3. Avoid *slang*, that is, informal, short-lived language.

KEY TERMS

volume the relative loudness of a speaker's voice while giving a speech.

lavalier microphone a microphone that attaches to a lapel or collar.

handheld or fixed microphone a microphone attached to a source of electrical power by a cord.

pitch the range of sounds from high to low determined by the number of vibrations per unit of time; the more vibrations per unit (also called *frequency*), the higher the pitch, and vice versa.

speaking rate the pace at which a speech is conducted. The typical public speech occurs at a rate slightly below 120 words per minute.

vocal fillers unnecessary and undesirable sounds or words used by a speaker to cover pauses in a speech or conversation. Examples include "uh," "hmm," "you know," "I mean," and "it's like."

pauses strategic elements of a speech used to enhance meaning by providing a type of punctuation, emphasizing a point, drawing attention to a key thought, or just allowing listeners a moment to contemplate what is being said.

vocal variety the variation of volume, pitch, rate, and pauses to create an effective delivery.

pronunciation the correct formation of word sounds.

articulation the clarity or forcefulness with which sounds are made, regardless of whether they are pronounced correctly.

mumbling slurring words together at low volume and pitch so they are barely audible.

lazy speech a poor speech habit in which the speaker fails to properly articulate words.

dialect a distinctive way of speaking associated with a particular region or social group.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are the elements of vocal delivery?

The elements of vocal delivery include volume, pitch, rate, pauses, pronunciation, and articulation. **Volume** is the loudness or softness of the speaker's voice. The proper volume for delivering a speech is somewhat louder than that of normal conversation. Just how much louder depends on three factors: (1) the size of the room and the number of people in the audience, (2) whether or not you will use a microphone, and (3) the level of background noise.

Pitch is the range of sounds from high to low made by the speaker's voice. Varying pitch, or using inflections to convey meaning, is a crucial part of effective vocal delivery.

The most effective way to hold an audience's attention, as well as to accurately convey the meaning of your speech, is to vary your **speaking rate**—that is, how rapidly or slowly you talk. **Pauses** are important strategic elements of a speech. They enhance meaning by providing a type of punctuation, emphasizing a point, drawing attention to a key thought, or just giving listeners a moment to contemplate what is being said. **Vocal variety** involves making use of each of these elements so that they work together to create an effective delivery.

The other element of vocal delivery involves correctly saying the words you speak. Few things distract an audience as much as improper pronunciation or unclear articulation of words. **Pronunciation** is the correct formation of word sounds. **Articulation** is the clarity or forcefulness with which the sounds are made, regardless of whether they are pronounced correctly.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Can you think of speakers you've heard whose vocal delivery impressed you? What did you find particularly appealing about these individuals' vocal quality? Consider pitch, rate, pauses, articulation, and pronunciation in your answer.

Show a videotape of a famous speaker on television or an exemplary student speaker from a previous semester, and have the class identify the vocal patterns mentioned above. Have students work in groups to identify the vocal characteristics; then ask them to report their findings in class.

2. Because we tend to excuse people's articulation and pronunciation errors in conversations, why should we expect them to be more accurate in public speaking?

Students should recognize that different communication needs require different modes of communication and that some levels of formality and accuracy are more appropriate in some contexts than in others. Have students

think of ways in which formal tone, accurate grammar, and a lack of speech errors positively or negatively affect conversation.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Select a favorite passage from a novel, a play, a poem, or another piece of writing. Read the passage silently to yourself several times, trying to get a sense of what it means. Next, read the passage aloud into a tape recorder. Then listen to yourself reading the passage. Does your voice convey the meaning you think the writer intended? How accurate are your pronunciation and articulation? How would you assess your pitch, rate, and volume? Is every word clearly audible? Record another reading of the passage, this time trying to improve the way you convey its meaning. Listen again. Now, identify your strengths and weaknesses in vocal delivery. How might these help or hinder your delivery of a speech?

Have students complete this activity outside of class and turn it in as a report. Suggest that students conduct a full “diagnostic” evaluation of their vocal delivery, identifying their strengths and weaknesses. Discuss how they will work on their weaknesses. Have students conduct another diagnostic evaluation a month or two later and note in their report any changes—positive or negative—in their vocal delivery.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Divide the class into four groups and give each group a piece of paper on which is written one of the following elements of delivery: Volume, Rate, Pitch, or Pauses. Each group should think of an example speech topic and devise a plan to demonstrate inappropriate use of their assigned aspect of delivery.
2. Use the text to discuss commonly mispronounced words. Divide students into groups, and ask each group to create a list of words that tend to be mispronounced.

This activity alerts students to the pronunciation of commonly used words that might be included in a presentation. It is easier to go over these mistakes as a group than to speak individually with students who tend to mispronounce the words.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students’ learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions

- quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. When speakers have inadequate control over their voices, they may lose their audiences' attention. Speakers can learn to control vocal delivery by practicing seven different elements. Identify and discuss each of these elements.

Volume: the relative loudness of a speaker's voice while giving a speech.

Pitch: the range of sounds from high to low (or vice versa).

Rate: the speed at which a speaker talks; it should vary during a speech depending on the mood or emotion the speaker wants to convey.

Pauses: strategic elements of a speech that enhance meaning by providing a type of punctuation, emphasizing a point, drawing attention to a key thought, or just giving listeners a moment to contemplate what is being said.

Vocal variety: the varied use of multiple vocal cues to achieve effective delivery.

Pronunciation: the correct formation of word sounds.

Articulation: clarity or forcefulness in saying words so that they are individually audible and discernible.

2. Provide an example of each of the elements of vocal delivery. Think of examples you have been exposed to or have seen in the media.

ACTIVITIES**Vocal Variety**

Purpose: To gain a better understanding of the ways in which individuals express emotion through tone of voice.

Instructions: The instructor writes a sentence on the board. For example, “A pig fell in the mud” or “A frog jumped out of the water.” Alternatively, students can suggest a sentence or two. (This activity can be repeated a couple of times, especially with a large class.) Ask for a student to volunteer to come up to the board and read the sentence out loud in a normal tone. Then have the student pick one of the emotions listed below, but do not tell the class which one. The student should then read the sentence again, trying to express the emotion he or she picked. The audience will try to guess this emotion. Once the class has correctly identified the emotion, the student picks someone else to come up and trade places with him or her. After each emotion is used, it should be crossed off so that it is not repeated. Students should use their vocal qualities to express one of the emotions listed below.

Emotions: anger, reverence, disgust, relief, love, uncertainty, hate, surprise, jealousy, joy, boredom, pain, passion, guilt.

Discussion: Following this exercise, discuss the importance of using vocal expressiveness in presenting a speech. Also discuss the difference between the first time a student said the sentence (without emotion) and the second time (with emotion).

The Voice in Delivery

Purpose: To provide students with an understanding of the different elements of vocal delivery.

Instructions: Ask for six volunteers. If students are apprehensive, have them pick numbers to determine who participates. Give each student one of the following sentences with instructions on how to read it. After each student reads the sentence, the rest of the class will guess which of the elements the student was illustrating.

Sentence: “When giving a speech, it is very important for a speaker to engage in vocal variety.”

Instructions:

Volume: Whisper the sentence.

Pitch: Say the sentence like Mickey Mouse.

Rate: Say the sentence as fast as you can.

Pause: Pause for a few seconds between every word.

Pronunciation: Instead of *important* say *importance*, and instead of *speech* say *speech*.

Articulation: Say the sentence in a muffled voice; do not enunciate all the words.

Vocal variety: Say the sentence in a monotone.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

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19 *Using the Body*

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Audience members pay attention to the speaker's body language during a speech.**
 - A. *Body language* includes facial expressions, eye behavior, gestures, and general body movement.
 - B. The speaker's *facial and eye behaviors* convey emotion; these behaviors help listeners determine how the speaker feels about the speech and the audience.
 1. Few behaviors are as effective at building rapport with an audience as smiling.
 - a. A smile is a sign of mutual welcome, comfort, interest, and goodwill.
 - b. Smiling can help the speaker relax.
 - C. *Eye contact* lets listeners know that they are recognized.
 1. Poor eye contact is alienating; good eye contact maintains the quality of directness in the delivery.
 2. Eye contact indicates acknowledgment and respect, and signals that the speaker sees the audience members as unique individuals.
 3. Speakers should scan the audience or move their gaze from one listener to another, pausing to make eye contact.
 4. Choosing three members of the audience from various sections of the room as anchors helps the speaker scan effectively.
 - D. *Gestures and body movements* help clarify the meaning of the speaker's words.
 1. Speakers should use their hands and arms to gesture, filling in gaps.
 - E. *Dress and objects* influence the audience's perceptions of the speaker.
 1. The speaker's clothing is the first thing that listeners notice.
 2. Speakers should consider the audience's expectations and the nature of the speech occasion when choosing what to wear.
 3. The speaker should avoid holding objects that are unnecessary, because they might distract the audience.
- II. **Practicing the delivery**
 - A. Practice is essential to effective delivery.
 1. The purpose of the speech is to get the message across.
 - B. There are several tips for practicing your speech:

1. Plan ahead and practice often.
2. Record or videotape your speech.
3. Be prepared to revise your speaking notes.
4. Practice under realistic conditions.
5. Time your speech.

KEY TERMS

scanning a technique for creating eye contact in large audiences; the speaker moves his or her gaze across an audience from one listener to another and from one section to another, pausing to gaze briefly at each individual.

talking head a speaker who remains static, standing stiffly behind a podium, and so resembles a televised shot of a speaker's head and shoulders.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

How does the speaker's body language—face, eye, and body movements—affect the way audiences receive the spoken message?

By our facial expressions, audiences can gauge whether we are excited, disenchanted, or indifferent about our speech and about the audience to whom we are presenting it. Head, arm, hand, and even leg **gestures** are often critical in helping clarify the meanings we try to convey in words.

Why is practicing the delivery so important? What are some key points to remember when practicing a speech?

Practicing a speech is critical to effective delivery. Practice decreases anxiety and allows you to become comfortable with your material. Practice is most effective when you focus on the message, tape-record your speech, and practice under realistic conditions. Practice your speech about six times for maximum effectiveness.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why is eye contact critical to effective delivery?

Students should know by now that eye contact connects the speaker and the audience, conveys expertise and goodwill, enhances a speaker's credibility, shows interest in the audience, and so forth. Generate a list of the benefits of eye contact on the board.

2. When selecting clothes to wear for your next speech, should comfort or appropriateness be your first consideration? Why?

Have students engage in a debate on this issue and generate arguments for both comfort and appropriateness. Make sure students address the issue of being audience-oriented, as well as when professionalism for the sake of the audience should outweigh a speaker's need to be comfortable, and vice versa.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Videotape yourself giving a speech. Perhaps your instructor videotapes class speeches, or a friend or relative can videotape your practice of an upcoming speech assignment. Evaluate your physical delivery in terms of how natural, relaxed, enthusiastic, and direct your nonverbal behavior is. Pay particular attention to your facial expressions and eye contact, gestures and body movements, and your attire and use of objects. Which elements are used effectively, and how? Which elements are potentially distracting, and why? Specify what you could do to overcome the distracting behaviors.

Have students conduct a visual diagnostic and watch themselves on videotape at different time periods, noting the positive and negative changes in their visual delivery. An alternative is to have students note patterns in their facial expressions only; then, at other times, pay attention to hand gestures and so on.

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. Discuss the attire worn by your instructors. Is it suitable for the tasks they perform in your classes? Have there been occasions when you caught yourself thinking about your instructors' clothes instead of attending to their instructions or message? Share the best and worst examples. What implications do differences in clothing have for what you remember about these instructors' communication?

It is best that students discuss the attire of instructors in classes other than yours, and that they avoid disclosing the names of these instructors. Generate a list of "effective" and "ineffective" attire on the board, and have students list the differences between these two types of instructors' attire. Have each group report for discussion the effects of both types of instructors' attire.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITY

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. What can facial and eye behavior communicate?

Facial expressions convey emotions: sadness, happiness, surprise, boredom, fear, contempt, compassion, anger, interest, surprise.

Smiling: smiling is effective in building rapport with the audience.

Scanning: moving your gaze from one listener to another, pausing briefly to make direct eye contact; usually used when the audience is relatively large and it is impossible to look at everyone.

2. When practicing delivering a speech, a speaker should be concerned with which two elements?

- **Focus on the message:** the clarity of your message should be your primary concern.
- **Practice under realistic conditions:** try to simulate the actual speech setting when you practice.

ACTIVITY**Three Strikes and You're Out!: The Importance of Nonverbal Communication**

Purpose: To illustrate to students the prevalence of nonverbal communication and to emphasize the various functions that nonverbal behaviors fulfill.

Instructions: Choose three students to participate in this activity. (Try to choose students who are not apprehensive about speaking in front of the class.) Ask each student to think about a funny, scary, exciting, or infuriating personal experience and to share this experience with the class. The students should not be permitted to use anything but their voices to tell the story. While the three students are thinking about the story, inform the rest of the class that the speakers are not permitted to use any nonverbal gestures or cues. The class members are to act as referees, and cry "Strike" whenever the speaker uses a nonverbal gesture. When the speaker gets three strikes, he or she is out.

Discussion: After all three students have told their stories, the class should discuss the difficulty of communicating without the use of nonverbal expressions. The students who told stories should give their personal accounts of these difficulties. The audience members should discuss the effectiveness of the presentation with and without nonverbal gestures. If time allows, ask students to tell their stories again, this time using nonverbal forms of expression.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

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CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Understanding the functions of presentation aids**
 - A. Presentation aids help listeners process and retain information.
 - B. Verbal and visual aids promote interest and motivation.
 - C. Presentation aids build credibility.
- II. **Types of presentation aids**
 - A. *Props* are live or inanimate things that illustrate the actual subject of a speech or one of its main points. These props can add substance and authenticity to a speaker's descriptions. *Models* are three-dimensional, scale-size representations of an object.
 - B. *Graphs* represent numerical data in visual form. They are useful in speeches because they neatly illustrate relationships among components or units and demonstrate trends.
 - 1. A *line graph* displays one measurement, usually plotted on the horizontal axis, and units of measurement or value, plotted on the vertical axis.
 - 2. A *bar graph* shows bars of varying lengths to compare quantities or magnitudes.
 - 3. A *pie graph* depicts the division of a whole.
 - 4. A *pictogram* shows comparisons in picture form.
 - C. *Charts* visually organize complex information into compact form.
 - 1. A *flow chart* is a diagram that shows step-by-step progression through a procedure, relationship, or process.
 - 2. A *diagram*, or *schematic drawing*, is a picture that explains how something works, is constructed, or is operated.
 - 3. A *table* systematically groups data in column form, allowing viewers to examine and compare information quickly.
 - D. *Audio aids* are clips or short recordings of sound, music, or speech.
 - 1. Many topics can benefit from audio clips to illustrate key points.
 - 2. Always follow copyright laws when using audiotaped material.
 - E. *Video*—including movies, television, and other recording segments—combines sight, sound, and movement to illustrate speech concepts.
 - 1. Always follow copyright laws when using videotaped material.
 - F. *Multimedia presentation aids* combine several forms of media (voice, video, text, and data) into a single production.
 - 1. The idea behind multimedia is that the more senses you evoke, the more memorable the event will be. This is confirmed by research

showing that the visual and auditory reinforcement of multimedia helps people learn and master information more quickly than through conventional means.

2. Though popular, multimedia requires more planning than other aids and is more time-consuming.

III. Choosing a method of display

- A. An *overhead transparency* is an image on a transparent background that can be viewed by transmitted light, either directly or through projection onto a screen or a wall.
 1. Transparencies are one of the most common presentation media.
 - a. Most facilities have overhead projectors.
 - b. Transparencies are inexpensive to produce.
 - c. Overhead projection is flexible.
 - d. Projection permits easy interaction with the audience, allowing speakers to face listeners.
- B. *Computer-generated graphics* may be projected directly from a computer through the use of an *LCD panel/projector* to allow speakers to customize their presentations and to present large, high-resolution, crisp color images using computer technology.
 1. *LCD* stands for liquid crystal diode.
 2. An LCD panel, which connects to a computer, or an LCD projector, which comes with a light source, replaces the need for an overhead projector.
 3. Another alternative is a video projector.
- C. A *flip chart* is simply a large (27 to 34-inch) pad of paper on which visual aids are drawn.
 1. The flip chart is one of the least expensive of presentation aids, but it does require that the writing and images aren't sloppy and awkward.
- D. A *poster* is generally a large, stiff, paper board that contains text, data, and/or pictures.
- E. *Handouts* are used to convey information that is (1) impractical to give the audience in another manner or (2) intended to be kept by audience members after the presentation.
 1. To avoid distractions, wait until you have finished speaking to give the audience handouts.

IV. Rehearsing

- A. A rehearsal is essential to speech success.
 1. Rehearse the full speech text at least twice.
 2. If possible, record your rehearsal and view it as your audience might.

KEY TERMS

presentation aids objects, models, pictures, graphs, charts, video, audio, or multimedia.

prop any live or inanimate object used by a speaker as a presentation aid.

- graph** a graphical representation of numerical data. Graphs neatly illustrate relationships among components or units and demonstrate trends. Four major types of graphs are line graphs, bar graphs, pie graphs, and pictograms.
- chart** a method of representing data and their relationship to other data in a meaningful form. Several different types of charts are helpful for speakers: flow charts, organization charts, and tabular charts (tables).
- flow chart** a diagram that shows step-by-step the progression through a procedure, relationship, or process.
- diagram** a schematic drawing that explains how something works or how it is constructed or operated; used to simplify and clarify complicated procedures, explanations, and operations.
- table** a systematic grouping of data or numerical information in column form.
- multimedia** a single production that combines several media (stills, sound, video, text, and data).
- overhead transparency** an image on a transparent background that can be viewed by projection. The images may be written or printed directly onto the transparency or handwritten during the presentation.
- LCD (liquid crystal display) panel** a device connected to a computer used to project slides stored in the computer.
- DLP (digital light processing) projector** a projector designed for computer images that is equipped with an illumination, or light source, in its own case, thereby eliminating the need for an overhead projector.
- flip chart** a large (27–34 inch) pad of paper on which a speaker can illustrate speech points.
- poster** a large (36" x 56"), bold, two-dimensional design incorporating words, shapes, and, if desired, color, placed on an opaque backing; used to convey a brief message or point forcefully and attractively.
- handout** a page-sized item that conveys information that is either impractical to give to the audience in another manner or is intended to be kept by audience members after a presentation.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are presentation aids? What role do they play in the speech?

Presentation aids include **props, models, pictures, graphs, charts, handouts, video, audio,** and **multimedia**. Each of these elements, used alone or in combination, helps listeners see relationships among concepts and elements, store and remember material, and critically examine key ideas. Presentation aids also help listeners process and retain information and increase interest and motivation; they help speakers inform and persuade, create a professional image, reduce speech anxiety, and save time.

What are some of the ways to present or display a presentation aid to the audience?

Options include slides, transparencies, overhead projection, and computer projection and display technology.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the best way to use props in presentations for large audiences of one hundred or more. Make recommendations for small, medium, and large props.

Large audiences usually require a large room. Therefore, a large audience requires props that can be seen from the back of the room, which can be a great distance. If you have a relatively small object that you want to present, it would be best to project an image of the object on an overhead transparency or slide so that everyone can see it. The only other feasible option would be to pass the object around in the audience, but this method usually distracts from the speaker. Medium-size props that are simple and do not have a lot of intricate details can be shown to a large audience. Such props could be a soccer ball or a globe (if no specific parts of the globe are highlighted in the speech). If the medium-size object has intricate details, or if certain parts of it are discussed, it would be best to project an image of it on an overhead or a slide. Large props are most easily seen by large audiences, provided they are not difficult to handle or take to the presentation room.

2. What types of speeches do not require presentation aids?

It is arguable that *any* type of speech would benefit from the use of presentation aids, because they can clarify, quantify, or enhance the subject. However, there may be cases in which presentation aids seem redundant, as in speeches that define or discuss a concept. Also, some presentation aids can be distracting, for example, live animals or controversial props such as firearms or controlled substances.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Think back to the last presentation you attended. Write a brief description of the aids used in the presentation, and evaluate the speaker's choice of aids. Do you think these were good choices for the topic? What aids would you use for the same topic?

Try showing videotapes of speeches given in previous semesters and have students watch these speeches in class. They will need to consider the type of visual aid (e.g., graph, chart) used, its visibility, its appropriateness for the audience, and so on. If students are asked to turn in written evaluations of presentation aids, make sure their reports include these elements. In groups, have students consider the topic of the speech they viewed in class and brainstorm different presentation aids that could have been used for a given topic. For example, a speech about a person could incorporate a photograph or a diagram of a time line that captures the person's life. A speech about a place could include photographs, graphs, or charts that portray certain statistical facts about the place.

2. Suppose you were asked to give a twenty-minute presentation on differences in crime rates between major cities. Make a list of the kinds of pres-

entation aids you would probably use. Next to each item, write a few words explaining why the item is on the list. Would your choice of presentation aids vary according to your audience (i.e., presenting to a national meeting of law-enforcement agencies versus presenting to your classmates)?

This activity would work as a group or as an individual assignment. Possible presentation aids to portray the crime rates of cities would include a pie chart showing which cities have what percentage of a total crime rate, a bar graph to compare different cities' crime rates, or a pictogram that shows the comparisons in picture form (e.g., number of people affected by crime). For each type of aid, have students indicate the audience for which it would be most appropriate. Finally, students may want to consider how complex or simple the aid is in relation to the audience's educational level, age, or need for visual stimulation.

3. What kind of presentation topic is likely to be appropriate for each of the following types of aids? Generate a short list of presentation topics that would be likely to include the use of each.

This activity effectively helps students generate topics as well as ideas for presenting topics they may already have.

- *Props*: how balls for various sports are made, ceramics, sneakers
- *Graphs*: AIDS-related deaths, extinction of animals, opinions about capital punishment
- *Diagrams*: hierarchical structure of a university, car engines
- *Computer projection and display technology*: designing Web pages, lasers
- *Slides*: the architecture of ancient Greece, postmodern art
- *Models*: U.S. military fighter planes, anatomy of the eye, frogs

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Suppose your presentation on tourist attractions in the Southwest requires the use of many slides. You do not have your own equipment and have been told that the equipment in the facility where you are to speak is unreliable. The presentation is taking place tomorrow. In a small group, discuss possible backup strategies in the event the equipment fails either before or during your presentation.

This is a good activity for acquainting students with troubleshooting and dealing with public speaking crises. If students opt not to use the slides at all, possible alternatives for presentation aids could include (1) computer-mediated presentation materials (e.g., LCD projector), for which images can be scanned via the computer, or (2) enlarging the images onto poster board. These strategies could serve as an alternative in case the slide equipment fails.

2. Obtain some examples of actual presentation aids that have been used in past presentations. Working in groups of three to four people, critique them. If you know the topic for which they were used, evaluate the appropriateness of each aid for the topic. If you do not know what the topic was, make a guess based on the clarity of the aid itself.

Critiques of the visual aids should touch on such aspects as vividness, color, font, graphics, size, and appropriateness for the audience (if this information is available). Refer to Student Activity 3 to help with judging whether materials are appropriate for the topic. If the topic is unknown, students should be able to look at the visual aid and guess the general topic (though they may not be able to determine the specific purpose of the main points); that is, provided the visual aid has the effective components listed previously.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
 - quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. What are some functions of visual aids?
 - They help listeners process and retain information.
 - They promote interest and motivation.
 - They save time.
 2. What are some options the text outlines for displaying presentational aids?
 - flip chart: large pad of paper on which visual aids are drawn; you should have some artistic talent so the drawings aren't sloppy or awkward.
 - overhead transparency: often used because most facilities have overhead projectors; they are inexpensive, easy to operate, and flexible.
 - LCD panel
 - LCD projector
 - video projector

ACTIVITIES**What Type of Presentation Aid Should I Use?**

Purpose: To learn which types of presentation aids might be effective for various types of public speeches.

Instructions: Based on the criteria for using presentation aids outlined in your text, what types of aid would be best suited for each of the following topics? Be specific, indicating both the type of aid and what should be included with it.

1. divorce rates in the United States over the last fifty years
2. the number of employees represented in each department of an organization
3. levels of management in the university
4. number of violent crimes by type of weapon (gun, knife, club, poison, etc.)
5. membership in health clubs by region
6. variation in chocolate consumption in the United States within the last ten years
7. alcohol consumption by the general public
8. three ways to lose weight
9. getting around your university
10. the history of movies
11. why rock and roll is the greatest music
12. recipe for Grandma's homemade apple pie
13. where your money goes
14. fashion trends in the United States

Bonus: Give one example of the presentation aid that is best suited to that topic.

Impromptu Presentation Aids

Purpose: To provide students with an opportunity to simultaneously practice speaking and using presentation aids.

Instructions: Gather a variety of items from the office and home into a large box. As students come into the room, have each take one item. Instruct students that they will be required to give a 1- to 2-minute presentation using the item as a visual aid. Students will need to come up with a topic that incorporates the object. Students will have 5 to 10 minutes to prepare the speech.

Additional Instructions: Another way this activity can work is by having students make up an alternative use for the item, and then give a 1- to 2-minute demonstration or marketing presentation on the new use of the item.

The Dos and Don'ts of Presentation Aids

Purpose: To create an awareness of the effective use of presentation aids.

Instructions: This activity should be used at the beginning of the chapter (prior to the instructor's lecture and discussion of the text). Students should create a list of the dos and don'ts of using presentation aids. This can be done individually, in small groups, or as a class. Ask students to make a list of the worst presentation aids they have seen, citing specific mistakes made.

Discussion: After students have read the chapter and you have discussed it, ask them to revisit the list and include additional elements from the text.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Currid, C. (1995). *Make your point: The complete guide to successful business presentations using today's technology*. Rocklin, CA: Prima.
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21 *Designing Presentation Aids*

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Designing presentation aids involves general design principles.**
 - A. Presentation aids should be as simple and uncomplicated as possible.
 - 1. Rather than using full sentences, state your points in short phrases.
 - 2. Construct your text in active verb form.
 - 3. Follow the eight-by-eight rule: Don't use more than eight words in a line or eight lines on one presentation aid.
 - B. To help maintain continuity, carry any key design elements—color, font, uppercase and lowercase letters, styling (boldface, underlining, italics)—throughout each aid.
 - C. Integrating typefaces and fonts effectively is important in designing presentation aids. Several general rules apply in this regard.
 - 1. Most text for on-screen projection should be a minimum of 18 points or larger. Titles should be 36 points or larger.
 - 2. Check that the lettering stands apart from the background.
 - 3. Use a typeface (font) that is easy to read and doesn't distract from the message.
 - 4. Don't overuse boldface, italics, or underlining. Use them sparingly to call attention to important items.
 - 5. Use both uppercase and lowercase type.
 - D. The following brief guidelines can help you incorporate color effectively:
 - 1. Use bold, bright colors to emphasize important points.
 - a. Warm colors such as yellow, red, and orange move to the foreground of a field and thus are useful for highlighting.
 - 2. Use softer, lighter colors to de-emphasize less important areas of a presentation.
 - 3. Keep the background color of the aid constant.
 - a. The best background colors are lighter, more neutral colors, such as tan, blue, green, and white.
 - b. For typeface and graphics, use colors that contrast rather than clash with the background color.
 - 4. Limit the number of colors you use. Two or three are sufficient for simple presentation aids.
 - 5. Software packages often provide templates in which the color is pre-selected.

KEY TERMS

eight-by-eight rule rule of design according to which the speaker does not include more than eight words on a line and eight lines on one Microsoft PowerPoint slide or other kind of visual aid.

typeface a specific style of lettering, such as Arial, Times Roman, or Courier. Typefaces come in a variety of fonts, or sets of sizes (called *point size*), and upper and lower cases.

font a set of type of one size or face.

serif typeface a typeface that includes small flourishes, or strokes, at the top and bottom of each letter.

sans serif typeface a typeface that is blocklike and linear and is designed without tiny strokes or flourishes at the top and bottom of each letter.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are some of the factors to consider when preparing a presentation aid?

Many considerations are important in constructing an effective visual aid. Size, shape, color, proper labeling, simplicity, and continuity are all important. Preparation of the aid as a part of, instead of as an addition to, the presentation helps maintain a close fit between the presentation and the aid. **Presentation aids should be as simple and uncomplicated as possible.**

What are some tips for using color?

The use of color in a presentation helps audience members see comparisons, contrasts, and emphasis. Pay particular attention to potential cultural meanings and the subjective interpretations of particular colors. Also, **use bright, strong colors to emphasize important points and soft, lighter colors for less important points.**

II. DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. What are your own personal challenges in preparing and using presentation aids?

This is a good question to ask when you want students to express their anxieties about public speaking. The main challenge students may recognize is the time it takes to prepare presentation aids. Therefore, a time constraint is one challenge students may have to overcome. Another challenge may be their lack of familiarity with certain multimedia tools. Students can overcome this challenge if they are not afraid to ask other students or the instructor for help, or if they are willing to educate themselves about software packages or the mechanics of presentation equipment. Using presentation aids comes with its own set of challenges—for instance, posters that do not stand up or computer equipment that fails. The key to this obstacle is preparation; students must

become familiar with the equipment or materials they are using, and they must practice using these materials in their speeches.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. View a video of a sample speech in which the speaker uses presentation aids. Write a brief description of the aids used in the presentation, and evaluate the speaker's choice of aids. Could you read the font and typeface? Do you remember anything about the colors that were used? Do you think these were good choices for the topic? Which aids would you use for the same topic?

Show videotapes of speeches given in previous semesters, and have students watch them in class. Things they need to consider are the type of visual aid (e.g., graph, chart) used, its visibility, its appropriateness for the audience, and so on. If students are asked to turn in written evaluations of presentation aids, make sure their reports include elements learned in Chapters 20 and 21 of the text.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Have students form groups to watch a famous speech or a video from a previous class. The speech viewed should not include a presentation aid. Each group should then create a presentation aid for the speech it views, paying particular attention to the typeface styles, font sizes, and colors selected. Let other class members critique the newly created visual aids based on information learned in Chapters 20 and 21.

This activity could be assigned one class period before groups give their presentations. The visual aid should be relevant to the speech and appropriately designed according to guidelines in the text. These presentation aids may be good to save for examples in future classes.

2. Prior to presenting content material from Chapter 21 of the text, students should form pairs or groups. Hold up a series of colored crayons. Ask each group to discuss its interpretation of the meaning of the colors shown. Have group members write down their thoughts. After you have presented several crayons, ask each group to share its ideas on the cultural meaning of the colors. How are group members' ideas shaped by American culture? Would these ideas be different if students were from another country? How?

This activity is a simple icebreaker to initiate discussion of Chapter 21. It works best when you display the colors red, black, and white, which have multiple meanings. However, using more obscure colors may generate creative answers.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTION AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTION

The following question may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. This question can be used as:

- homework
- a quiz
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- a topic to generate discussion
- a question-and-answer session between instructor and students

1. What are some limitations on the use of presentation aids?

Presentation aids should be relevant, clear, and simple. Remember that you are giving a speech, not a slide show. Limit the number of slides used to present your ideas. Also, present only one idea in each aid. Use no more than eight words per line and eight lines per aid.

ACTIVITIES**The Ideal Presentation Aid**

Purpose: To help students brainstorm presentation aids that they might use in their own speeches.

Instructions: Have students form groups of five. Ask them to decide what the ideal visual aid would be for the following speeches. Ask students to consider the various types of aids (videos, flow charts, graphs, slides, photographs, etc.) and to decide how they would present them in the context of each speech.

1. an informative demonstration speech that explains how to change a tire
2. an informative speech about the federal budget
3. a persuasive speech that opposes violent content in children's television programming
4. an informative speech about teenage pregnancy
5. a persuasive speech in favor of multicultural education
6. an informative demonstration speech that explains how to pack for a camping trip
7. an informative speech about the different wineries in Napa Valley
8. an informative speech on the structure of workers at IBM
9. a persuasive speech in favor of condom use over other forms of birth control
10. an informative speech on how to carve a pumpkin

The Dos and Don'ts of Presentation Aids

Purpose: To create an awareness of the effective use of presentation aids.

Instructions: This activity should be used at the beginning of the chapter (prior to the instructor's lecture/discussion on the text). Students should create a list of dos and don'ts for using presentation aids. This can be done individually, in small groups, or as a class. Ask students to list the worst presentation aids they have seen, citing specific mistakes made.

Discussion: After students have read the chapter and you have discussed it, ask them to revisit the list and include additional elements from the text.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Currid, C. (1995). *Make your point: The complete guide to successful business presentations using today's technology*. Rocklin, CA: Prima.
- Heinich, R., Molenda, M., & Russell, J. D. (1993). *Instructional media and the new technologies of instruction* (4th ed.). New York: Macmillan.
- Hoff, R. (1992). *I can see you naked*. Kansas City: Andrews McMeel.
- Holcombe, M. W., & Stein, J. K. (1983). *Presentation for decision-makers: Strategies for structuring and delivering your ideas*. New York: Lifetime Learning.
- Holmes, N. (1991). *Designer's guide to creating charts and diagrams*. New York: Watson-Guptill.
- Satterthwaite, L. (1976) *Graphics: Skills, media, and materials* (3rd ed.). Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.
- Wilder, C. (1994). *The presentations kit: Ten steps for selling your ideas*. New York: Wiley.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. A variety of presentation software packages offers public speakers powerful visual and auditory tools for creating and displaying professionally polished visual aids.
 - A. Use presentation aids to support your speech, not to replace your spoken words and physical presence.
 - B. Avoid “chartjunk” by keeping your slides few in number and succinct in content.
 - C. Limit the text in slides. Instead, use charts, diagrams, illustrations, photos, and video. Create handouts for lengthy textual messages.
 - D. Be prepared for technical glitches by:
 1. practicing with the equipment prior to your speech.
 2. checking for compatibility between equipment and software.
 3. backing up slides on a disk.
 4. bringing printouts of presentations in case of equipment failure.
 - E. The use of *Microsoft PowerPoint* is common in presentations today.
 1. PowerPoint’s presentation options include AutoContent Wizard, Design Template, and Blank Presentation.
 - a. *AutoContent Wizard* has predetermined organizational and design strategies that can be applied to the content of a presentation. Although this option offers the greatest degree of help, it also locks you into a decision that may not present your information optimally.
 - b. In the *Template* option, a speaker decides how to organize points and subpoints using one of forty-eight predetermined templates.
 - c. The *Blank Presentation* option allows users to customize every aspect of their slides.
 - d. Use the Open Presentation option to open, edit, and view existing PowerPoint slides.
 2. Becoming familiar with PowerPoint’s view options allows you to use the three different ways to view slides once they have been created.
 - a. In the latest versions of PowerPoint, they are *normal view*, *slide sorter view*, and *slide show view*.
 3. PowerPoint masters include a *Slide Master*, a *Title Master*, a *Handout Master*, and a *Notes Master*.
 4. PowerPoint’s text transition and animation effects are useful when creating multislide presentations.

- a. *Transition effects* add special motion and sound effects as you move from one slide to another.
 - b. *Animation effects* allow you to decide how to reveal text or graphics within a slide during the presentation.
5. Entering and editing text involves replacing a *placeholder* with your own text.
 6. Objects such as clip art, charts, tables, and worksheets may be inserted into slides to enhance their look.
 - a. Clip art offers drawings and artwork to insert into slides.
 - b. Movies and sounds can also be added.
 7. Running PowerPoint presentations involves using an on-screen slide show.

KEY TERMS

transition effects special motion and sound effects used when moving from one slide to the next in a presentation.

animation effects sometimes referred to as *builds*, animation effects allow the user to decide how to reveal text or graphics within a slide during a presentation. The user can reveal one letter, word, or paragraph at a time—for example, as each item is discussed. Or the user can make text or objects look dimmer or change color when another element is added.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTION

What are the benefits of presentation packages such as Microsoft PowerPoint?

Presentation software packages offer public speakers powerful tools for creating and displaying professionally polished visual aids. Presentation software allows users to import video and sound for a multimedia presentation and gives users the ability to modify and revise the aids up to the time the speech is delivered.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Have you ever been at a presentation at which the presenter used PowerPoint inappropriately? Describe what you most disliked about the presentation.

This is a good exercise to use prior to presenting the chapter material in order to initiate dialogue about guidelines for the use of PowerPoint. Contrast answers with students' positive experiences with PowerPoint presentations.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Choose a fictitious presentation topic and create a three-slide presentation. Either present the slides to the class or turn them in on a disk to be graded.

It would be especially helpful to assign this activity prior to presentations involving PowerPoint. It gives the instructor a chance to evaluate students' ability to create slides in advance. Students who have trouble with this assignment might be paired with more experienced PowerPoint slide creators to learn basic skills.

2. Ask a professor from another class to view an old slide show used in class. Give a brief report about the presentation based on what you have learned in this chapter.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Visit a computer lab on your campus or use other available computers to practice PowerPoint as a group.

Each group should turn in a printout of a sample clip art, PowerPoint template, and a chart. Discuss the experience in order to address potential concerns or questions about using PowerPoint for class assignments.

2. PowerPoint masters include a Slide Master, a Title Master, a Handout Master, and a Notes Master. Explore these features in order to become familiar with them.

Each group may prepare a book of printouts of the master documents to turn in after exploring PowerPoint. What did they like about each master? What did they dislike?

III. ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

That Picture Reminds Me of Me

Purpose: To help students learn the basics of PowerPoint.

Instructions: Visit Microsoft's Clip Gallery Live at <<http://dgl.microsoft.com>>. Each student should find one picture that he or she feels represents some aspect of his or her personality. Students should then create a PowerPoint slide using the clip art, including two or three basic reasons for choosing the picture.

(Not a) PowerPoint Masterpiece

Purpose: To help students gain experience in creating PowerPoint slides.

Instructions: Have students form groups of four or more. Ask each group to create a crazy slide show that ignores all the guidelines discussed in Chapter 21 of the text. For example, they might use too many transitions, too many fonts and colors, inappropriate sounds, and so on.

Each group of students should present its slide show for the class, noting all the mistakes and violated guidelines included. Discuss how each inappropriate use of PowerPoint could be improved to help the audience receive the message of the presentation more easily.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

Bacon, L. M. (1996). *Getting started with PowerPoint 4.0 for Windows*. New York: Wiley.

Hendricks, W. H., Holiday, R. M., & Steinbricker, K. (1996). *Secrets for PowerPoint Presentations*. Franklin Lakes, NJ: Career Press.

PowerPoint for Windows 95: Step by Step. Redmond, WA: Microsoft Press.

Reding, E. E. (1995). *Easy PowerPoint for Windows 95*. Indianapolis: Roland Elgy.

SUGGESTED WEB SITES**PHOTOGRAPHS AND OTHER STILL IMAGES**

<http://www.thefreesite.com/Free_Graphics>

<<http://www.cyberclips.com>>

<<http://www.photodisc.com>>

<<http://www.freefoto.com>>

<<http://www.PictureQuest.com>>

<<http://www.en-core.net>>

<<http://www.mcad.edu/AICT/html/index.html>>

DOWNLOADABLE MUSIC FILES

<<http://www.mp123.com>>

<<http://www.mp3.com>>

<<http://www.mp3.now.com>>

<<http://www.mp3.lycos.com>>

<<http://www.RioPort.com>>

<<http://www.4mp3audio.4anything.com>>

AUDIO CLIPS

<<http://www.wavsounds.com>>

<<http://www.dailywav.com>>

<<http://www.wavcentral.com>>

<<http://www.thefreesite/FreeSounds>>

<<http://www.4wavfiles.4anything.com>>

VIDEO CLIPS

CNN Video Select (<<http://www.cnn.com/video>>)

ABCNews Newsclips (<<http://www.abcnews.go.com>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. What is an informative speech?

- A. *Informative speeches* provide listeners with new information, new ideas, or new ways of thinking about a topic.
- B. The focus of informative speeches is to enlighten rather than advocate. Focus on building understanding and delivering knowledge rather than modifying audience attitudes.

II. Preparing your informative speech

- A. Identify listeners' informational needs.
 - 1. For an effective speech, show listeners how they can benefit from the information you give them.
 - 2. Investigate listeners' base knowledge, desire, and need to acquire more knowledge on the subject matter in order to establish relevance.
- B. Determine your speech type.
 - 1. Informative speeches may be about objects, phenomena, people, events, processes, concepts, or issues.
 - 2. Different types of speeches may require different organizational patterns.

III. Choosing a strategy for presenting content

- A. A *speech of definition* focuses on addressing the meaning of a new or complex concept.
 - 1. *Defining* can take at least five forms:
 - a. *Operational definition* defines what something does.
 - b. *Definition by negation* explains what something is not.
 - c. *Definition by example* provides examples of the subject under discussion.
 - d. *Definition by synonym* compares something to another term or ideal that has an equivalent or familiar meaning.
 - e. *Definition by etymology* illustrates a word's history by explaining its root origins.
- B. A *speech of description* offers a vivid portrayal of the subject.
- C. A *speech of demonstration* gives a step-by-step lesson on how to do something.
- D. A *speech of explanation* involves providing reasons or causes, demonstrating relationships, and offering interpretation and analysis.

III. Helping listeners follow, understand, and retain your information

- A. Preview the main points of the speech in your introduction.
- B. Use clear transitions to help your audience follow your points.
- C. Use vivid and concise language to help listeners visualize abstract concepts.
- D. Repeat the most significant ideas in the speech to reinforce the information presented.
- E. Present new and interesting information.

IV. Reducing confusion

- A. Audience members tend to find new information particularly hard to grasp when the information addresses:
 - 1. a *difficult concept* or *term*.
 - 2. a *difficult-to-envision process*.
 - 3. a *counterintuitive* idea.
- B. *Analogies* can help audience members relate to a new concept because they establish a common ground of understanding and enable the audience to relate the concept to something they already know.
- C. To help listeners understand a process, first acknowledge common misperceptions and then offer accurate explanations of underlying causes.
- D. Be alert to nonverbal signals that indicate a lack of focus, and invite questions accordingly.

V. Arranging main points in a pattern

- A. Arranging main points in a pattern appropriate to the topic will help listeners better understand the speech.
- B. Informative speeches can be organized in any pattern, depending on the topic, including the topical, chronological, spatial, problem solution, cause-effect, circle, and narrative patterns.

KEY TERMS

informative speech a speech providing new information, new insights, or new ways of thinking about a topic. The general purpose of an informative speech is to increase the audience's understanding and awareness of a topic.

operational definition defining something by describing what it does. For example: A computer is something that processes information.

definition by negation defining something by explaining what it is not. For example: Courage is not the absence of fear.

definition by example defining something by providing an example of it.

definition by synonym defining something by comparing it to another term that has an equivalent meaning. For example: A friend is a comrade or a buddy.

definition by etymology defining something by providing an account of a word's history.

analogy an extended metaphor or simile that compares an unfamiliar concept or process with a more familiar one in order to help the listener understand the one that is unfamiliar.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What is the general goal of informative speaking?

The goal of informative speaking is to increase the audience's understanding or awareness by imparting knowledge.

What four strategies or approaches for presenting information are available to the informative speaker?

To achieve the informative speaking goal of increasing understanding and awareness, informative speakers rely on definition, description, explanation, and demonstration. When you **define** information, you identify the essential qualities and meaning of something. You can define information (1) operationally, by what it does; (2) by negation, by what it is not; (3) by example; (4) by synonym, by comparison with something that has an equivalent meaning; and (5) by etymology, word origin. When you **describe** information, you provide an array of details that paint a mental picture of your topic. When you **explain** information, you provide reasons or causes and demonstrate relationships. When you **demonstrate** information, you actually show how something works or what it does.

How can a speaker help the audience comprehend the message?

Before we can retain information, we must be able to recognize and understand it. Adopting the principles and practices described in preceding chapters can help make your informative message understandable to an audience. These include: (1) illustrating and substantiating the speech with effective supporting materials, defining terms, and relating the unknown to the known; (2) selecting an appropriate organizational pattern; (3) providing introductions and conclusions; (4) using shared vocabulary, concrete words, and repetition; (5) focusing on the delivery features of repetition, pauses, and rate; (6) incorporating effective presentation aids; and (7) conducting a thorough audience analysis.

What are some key points to keep in mind while creating an informative speech?

Paying attention to informational strategies will help you create an effective informative speech. These include striving for balance, defining your terms, emphasizing your topic's relevance to the audience, reinforcing your message through repetition, relating old ideas to new ones, presenting new and interesting information, striving for clarity, using visualization, and incorporating presentation aids into the speech.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Do you think informative speaking lies in your future? If you have selected an academic major, relate it to possible situations in which you might give an informative speech. In what areas of your personal life might you be called upon to give an informative speech?

We speak informatively all our lives, whether it is to share interesting information or to give instructions. Therefore, almost anyone can count on giving an informative speech in the future. Students in business-related majors will have to present information that will influence money, or profit-related, decisions; people in academic professions will be expected to present their information to their peers for purposes of expanding the fields in which they write and conduct research. Also, most professions require their members to provide instruction to others in educational or professional settings. In more personal arenas, people speak at organizational meetings and at family gatherings. Ask students to brainstorm personal and professional situations that involve informative speaking.

2. What are some of the things you can do in an informative speech to help listeners understand and process your message?

By now, students should be able to list several topics that have been covered in the text. A few important topics include:

- *Audience analysis:* Finding out what the members of your audience already know or what they are capable of understanding is helpful in presenting information that will be clear.
- *Organization:* Clear structure, transitions, an introduction, and a conclusion provide a framework for the audience to follow and help audience members remember the key points of a speech.
- *Forms of support:* Examples, testimony, facts, and so forth supplement a speech's main ideas and provide several forms of proof that add credibility and enhance the acceptability of the speech.
- *Delivery:* A speaker can practice the speech to enhance effective nonverbal cues and to eliminate those that tend to be distracting. Also, certain delivery tactics are useful in accenting and complementing messages in a speech.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Imagine that you have been asked to give a short informative presentation about the Internet to a group of fourth graders. Write a few paragraphs on message requirements for this presentation. What kind of organizational pattern will you use? How much technical information will you include? (Remember, children often know as much—or more—about computers as many adults do.) What can you do to be direct and maintain clarity in your explanation?

It may be helpful for students to work in groups when generating these requirements. The first set of requirements should include audience analysis — figuring out what fourth graders already know about the Internet and determining what children their age are able to comprehend. Second, speakers need to formulate an organizational pattern with which to present the information. This pattern should have a relevant introduction, clear transitions,

and a simple conclusion that summarizes the speech. Within this part of the requirements, students should know what kind of language to use that will neither confuse members of the audience nor insult their intelligence. A presentation that involves a lot of presentation aids will also hold fourth graders' attention. Finally, speakers need to have a delivery style that is friendly, personal, and interesting in order to hold the attention of fourth graders.

2. Practice using visualization and descriptive language. Think of an everyday object, such as a chair or a kind of food, and describe it in as many ways as possible.

Bring objects to class, and have students work individually or in groups to generate descriptions of the objects. Students should describe size, color, uses of the object, or who would use the object. Also, get students to practice conveying meanings (if applicable) by having them generate examples, negations, and operational definitions.

3. Using the speech topic of welfare reform (an issue), how would you present the information to your classmates? What combination of definition, description, explanation, or demonstration would you select? What organizational pattern would you use?

This activity works well as a group assignment if it is done in class; otherwise, it can be assigned a day in advance as a solo assignment. Suggest that students choose one or more of the approaches (definition, description, explanation, and demonstration) before deciding on an organizational pattern.

- *Approach:* If students want to explain the nature of welfare reform, they may want to choose a combination of all four approaches. If they want to discuss the potential problems of welfare reform, then a combination of description and explanation may be beneficial.
- *Organizational approach:* If students are simply explaining what welfare reform is about, then a topical or chronological pattern would suffice. If they want to discuss the potential problems, as suggested above, they may choose a cause-effect or problem-solution pattern.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. In a small group of three to four people, listen to a speech on campus or in your community that you feel would be primarily informative. Conduct a meeting of your group after the speech to determine the type of informative speech you heard and its organizational pattern. What were the strongest features of the speech? The weakest? Report your findings to the class.

After listening to the speech, students may want to assess whether the speech was primarily informative in purpose. Sometimes speeches that appear to be informative turn out to be persuasive, commemorative, or otherwise. An assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the speech should touch on the appropriateness of the organizational pattern as well as the approach (definition,

explanation, description, or demonstration) used. Have students bring a written assessment of the speech they heard to class.

2. In a group of four to five classmates, compare the various sources you use for information (e.g., television, radio, newspapers, magazines, Internet sites). Brainstorm about different situations, topics, and audiences in which giving an informative speech (compared with the sources just listed) is the best way to provide information. Report your findings to the class.

The timeliness of the topic may necessitate the use of mass-mediated sources (e.g., television news broadcasts, current documentaries) because they can provide up-to-date information. However, more credible sources can include periodical publications that involve peer review of articles or writings. More credible sources may be used for controversial topics or for topics that are often misunderstood by the general public. When students brainstorm situations, topics, or audiences that require informative speaking, suggest that they consider the purpose of giving the speech—that is, whether to give instruction, to introduce interesting information, or to draw attention to issues that are problematic.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
 - quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. What is the goal of informative speaking? What is the goal of your informative speech?
Goal: to increase audience understanding and awareness by imparting knowledge.
 2. To accomplish the goal of informative speaking, you must analyze your audience. Your audience needs to identify with the topic and see why it is relevant. To ensure that this happens, what do you need to do?
 - Find out what the listeners want to know.
 - Find out what the context requires.
 3. According to the text, what's involved in defining information? Cite five ways in which you can define something.

Defining information involves identifying the essential qualities and meaning of something.

You can define information by the following:

- **operational definition:** defined by what it does.
 - **definition by negation:** explains what it is not.
 - **definition by example:** provides an example of the subject under discussion.
 - **definition by synonym:** compares something to another term that has an equivalent meaning.
 - **definition by etymology (word origin):** gives the word's history and explains the roots of the term in question.
4. Give an example in which you define something using each of the five methods mentioned above.
 5. According to the text, in addition to defining information, you can communicate information informatively in three other ways. Identify and briefly explain each.
 - **Describe information:** provide an array of details that paint a mental picture of your topic.
 - **Explain information:** provide reasons or causes and demonstrate relationships.
 - **Demonstrate information:** explain how something works or actually demonstrate it (e.g., "how to" shows).
 6. List the four types of informative speeches, and give specific examples of each.
 - speech of definition
 - speech of description
 - speech of explanation
 - speech of demonstration
 7. The text cites several tips for effective informative speeches. How many can you recall?
 - Strive for balance. Do not provide too much or too little information.
 - Define your terms.
 - Emphasize the topic's relevance to your audience.
 - Reinforce your message through repetition.
 - Relate old ideas to new ones.
 - Present new and interesting information.
 - Use visualization.
 - Incorporate presentation aids.

ACTIVITIES**What Holds Your Attention?**

Purpose: To introduce informative speaking and get students to think about interesting informative speeches.

Instructions: When you think about informative speeches or presentations, it's a good idea to reflect on situations in which you were absorbed by material being presented to you. Ask students to think of four or five times this has happened to them; ask students to write down what the speaker did that was good and why they think they were so absorbed by the speech. Specifically, identify what the speaker did to promote interest, understanding, and remembrance of the speech. Once students have completed their lists, they can share their examples with the class. This activity should be used at the beginning of the chapter, as a way to introduce the topic of informative speaking.

Information, Knowledge, Power

Purpose: To illustrate the importance of information.

Instructions: Have students form small groups (three to five members) and brainstorm about people they perceive to have power. Students should think of individuals in all areas of life: politics, law, work, school, family, close friends, acquaintances. They should address the relationship between information and power in each of these types of relationships. Does more information usually mean power? Why? Students can use both real and hypothetical examples.

Discussion: Students should be prepared to share and discuss their ideas with the class.

Putting Principles into Practice: Informative Speech Analysis

Purpose: To give students an opportunity to apply the concepts of informative speaking to actual student speeches.

Instructions: Using the sample informative speech in the chapter text, have students critique the speech in terms of the function(s) of informative speeches and the design(s) used to arrange main supporting ideas. Have students identify the differences and similarities between informative and persuasive speeches. Does the speech overstep the boundaries of informative speaking by advocating certain attitudes or beliefs, or by requesting that the audience engage in some sort of behavior? Students can even use the instructor's grading sheet to analyze the speech. This will help them become familiar with what the instructor will be looking for when grading their informative speeches.

Additional instructions: If you have access to informative speeches on tape, either by students or others, this assignment can be done in class individually, in small groups, or as a class. Class discussion can continue once viewing is completed.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Beighley, K. C. (1952). A summary of experimental studies dealing with the effects of organization and of skill of speaker on comprehension. *Journal of Communication*, 2, 58–65.
- Frandsen, K. D., & Clement, D. A. (1984). The functions of human communication in informing: Communicating and processing information. In C. C. Arnold & J. Waite Bowers (Eds.), *Handbook of rhetorical and communication theory*. Needham, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gruner, C. R. (1970, fall). The effect of humor in dull and interesting speeches. *Central States Speech Journal*, 160–66.
- Hamilton, C., & Parker, C. (1990). Informative presentations. In *Communication for results: A guide for business and professions* (3rd ed., pp. 315–48). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Johnson, J. R., & Szczupakiewicz, N. (1987, April). The public speaking course: Is it preparing students with work-related public speaking skills? *Communication Education*, 36, 131–37.
- Lindstorm, R. (1992, February). Facting facts. *Presentation Products*, 6.
- MacArthur, B. (1992). *The Penguin book of twentieth-century speeches*. New York: Penguin.
- Nicols, A. C. (1965). Effects of three aspects of sentence structure on immediate recall. *Speech Monographs*, 32, 164–68.
- Rowan, K. E. (1990). The speech to explain difficult ideas. *Speech Communication Teacher*, 4, 2–3.
- Rowan, K. E. (1995). A new pedagogy for explanatory public speaking: Why arrangement should not substitute for invention. *Communication Education*, 44, 236–50.
- Seiler, W. J., Baudhuin, E. S., & Schuelke, L. D. (1982). Information acquisition and transfer in organizations. In *Communication in business and professional organizations* (pp. 152–69). Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Thompkins, P. K. (1959, September). Organizing the speech to inform. *Communication Quarterly*, 21–22.
- Thompson, E. (1960). An experimental investigation of the relative effectiveness of organization structure in oral communication. *Southern Speech Journal*, 26, 59–69.

SUGGESTED WEB SITES**TOPICS DEALING WITH MULTICULTURAL ISSUES**

- Yahoo!: Society and Culture (<http://dir.yahoo.com/society_and_culture>)
- Hispanic Online (<<http://www.hispaniconline.com>>)
- African American Web Connection (<<http://www.aawc.com/aawc.html>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. What is a persuasive speech?

- A. *Persuasive speaking* is intended to influence the attitudes, beliefs, values, and acts of others.
- B. Several factors increase the odds that the speaker's efforts at persuasion will succeed.
 - 1. The message should be personally relevant to the audience. The listeners should think that changing will benefit them in some way.
 - 2. The persuader who seeks only minor changes is more successful than the speaker who seeks major changes.
 - 3. If a speaker can show that an attitude or a behavior might keep listeners from feeling satisfied and competent, he/she is likely to find the audience more receptive to change.
 - 4. The speaker is more likely to persuade audience members if his or her position is only moderately different from that of the audience.
 - 5. The speaker must establish credibility with the audience.

II. Balancing reason and emotion

- A. Persuasion is a complex psychological process of reasoning and emotion. *Emotion* gets the audience's attention and stimulates a desire to act; *reason* provides the justification for the action.
- B. *Logos* refers to persuasive appeals directed at an audience's reasoning on a topic. *Logos* makes use of arguments for or against an idea or issue through two main types of appeal: appeals to reason and appeals to logic.
- C. *Pathos* refers to persuasive appeals directed at the audience's emotions.
 - 1. There are two ways of invoking pathos: through vivid description and through emotionally charged words.
 - 2. When appealing to an audience's emotions, always do so on the basis of sound reasoning.
- D. *Ethos* refers to the nature of the speaker's moral character and personality. To build credibility speakers should:
 - 1. Demonstrate trustworthiness.
 - 2. Reveal personal moral standards.
 - 3. Stress expertise on a topic.
 - 4. Emphasize commonality with the audience.

5. Display high regard for the speech occasion.
- E. Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs has long been a basis for motivation-oriented persuasive speeches. Maslow suggested that each person has a set of needs (physiological, safety, social, self-esteem, self-actualization) that are hierarchically embedded. An individual's needs at the lower, essential level must be fulfilled before the higher-level needs can become important and motivating.
- F. Another way to persuade audience members is to encourage mental engagement.
 1. People who are motivated and able to think critically about a message are said to engage in *central processing*.
 2. People who see the message as irrelevant or too complex and thus don't pay close attention are said to engage in *peripheral processing*.

III. Constructing sound arguments

- A. A *claim* is simply the conclusion the speaker is attempting to prove. This claim often takes the form of a thesis statement.
- B. *Evidence* is material that provides grounds for belief. It may take the form of examples, narratives, testimony, or facts and statistics.
- C. Depending on the nature of the issue being addressed in the persuasive speech, claims can be classified as claims of fact, claims of value, or claims of policy. Different types of claims require different kinds of supporting evidence.
 1. *Claims of fact* focus on conditions that exist, once existed, or will exist in the future. Claims of fact usually address one of two kinds of questions: those for which two or more controversial, competing answers exist, or those for which an answer does not yet exist.
 2. *Claims of value* deal with issues of judgment, showing why something is right or wrong, good or bad, worthy or unworthy.
 3. *Claims of policy* recommend that a specific course of action be taken, or approved of, by an audience. A claim of policy speaks to an "ought" condition, proposing that certain better outcomes would be realized if the proposed condition were met.

IV. Using convincing evidence

- A. Every key claim must be supported by convincing evidence or supporting material, such as examples, narratives, testimony, and facts and statistics (see Chapter 9).
 1. The audience's knowledge and opinions can be used as evidence. In addition, the speaker should remember that listeners will be more open to information that affirms their beliefs and attitudes and that concerns a familiar topic.
 2. Arguments can sometimes be built on the basis of the speaker's own knowledge and opinions or expertise. But this will work only if the audience believes the speaker has the authority or credibility to address the matter.

V. Considering culture

- A. Responses to persuasion can be affected by audience members' cultural orientations, because culture influences values.
 - 1. Appeals that clash with the *core values* of a culture will prove unsuccessful.
 - 2. Appeals that run contrary to a group's *cultural norms* or rules of behavior usually will fail.
 - 3. Be mindful of the difficulty of challenging *cultural premises*, that is, culturally specific values about identity and relationship that listeners of a culture share.
 - 4. When using emotional appeals, focus on appealing to emotions that lie within the audience's "comfort zone."

VI. Avoiding fallacies in reasoning

- A. A *logical fallacy* is a false or an erroneous statement, or an invalid or deceptive line of reasoning.
- B. Speakers should be aware of several fallacies in order to avoid making them in speeches. Listeners should also be aware of fallacious arguments in order to be able to identify them in the speeches of others.
 - 1. *Begging the question* is a fallacy that states in an impressive-sounding way a claim that really has no substance at all. More specifically, the subject of a claim is defined in such a way that it cannot help but support the claim, thereby revealing a circular pattern of thought. The answer to the question raised by the claim simply restates the claim.
 - 2. *Bandwagoning* is the practice of assigning a claim greater substance by making it appear to be more popular than it is.
 - 3. An *either-or fallacy* poses an argument in terms of two alternatives only, regardless of other options.
 - 4. *Ad hominem arguments* attack an opponent instead of attacking the opponent's arguments; they attempt to incite an audience's dislike for an opponent.
 - 5. *Red herring* arguments rely on irrelevant information.
 - 6. *Hasty generalization* arguments use an isolated instance to make an unwarranted general conclusion.
 - 7. *Non sequitur* ("does not follow") arguments state conclusions that are disconnected from the reasoning.
 - 8. A *slippery slope* is a faulty assumption that one case will lead to a series of events or actions.
 - 9. *Appeal to tradition* arguments suggest that audience members should agree with a claim because that is the way it has always been done.

VII. Strengthening your case with organization

- A. *Organization* of the speech is affected by what the target audience knows about the topic and how the audience members stand in relation to it.
 - 1. A *refutation pattern* of organization can be used when addressing hostile audiences, such as those that strongly disagree, and critical and conflicted audiences.

2. A *narrative pattern* can be used to address sympathetic audiences, listeners who are already on your side.
- B. The most common organization for persuasive speeches is the *problem-solution pattern*, which first demonstrates the nature and significance of the problem and then provides justification for a proposed solution.
 1. A *problem-cause-solution pattern* addresses the nature of the problem, reasons for the problem, unsatisfactory solutions, and a proposed solution.
- C. *Monroe's motivated sequence* is made up of five steps: attention, need, satisfaction, visualization, and action.
 1. The *attention step* addresses listeners' core concerns, making the speech highly relevant to them.
 2. The *need step* isolates and describes the issue to be addressed; by showing audience members that they have a need the speaker can satisfy, the speaker gives them a reason to listen to the message.
 3. The *satisfaction step* identifies the solution to the problem; this step offers audience members a proposal to reinforce or change their attitudes, beliefs, and values regarding the need at hand.
 4. The *visualization step* entails the speaker presenting the audience with a vision of anticipated outcomes associated with the solution; this step invokes needs of self-esteem and self-actualization.
 5. The *action step* involves making a direct request of the audience to do or not to do some specific thing.
- D. The *comparative advantage pattern* of arrangement is most effective when the audience is already aware of the issue or problem.
 1. The speech is organized by favorably comparing your position to the alternatives. Thus, the first main point demonstrates the advantages over alternative 1, the second main point demonstrates the advantages over alternative 2, and so on.
- E. In a *refutation pattern* of organization, each main point is addressed and then refuted.
 1. The speech is organized by first stating the opposing position followed by a description of the implications of the opposing claim, and by then explaining your position and argument followed by a contrast between your position and the opposing claim in order to show the superiority of your position.

VIII. Considering audience attitudes

- A. Consider how much your audience knows about your topic when deciding how to arrange your speech. Different audiences will require different strategies and different organizational speech patterns.
 1. When addressing hostile audiences or those who strongly disagree, consider using the refutation pattern. Address audience members' opposing views, and stress areas of agreement.
 2. When dealing with critical or conflicted audiences, consider using the refutation pattern. Present strong, well-developed arguments and evidence.

3. When addressing sympathetic audiences, consider using the narrative or story-telling pattern. Reinforce positive attitudes and emphasize commonalities.
4. When addressing uninformed, less educated, or apathetic audiences, consider using a topical pattern. Focus on capturing the audience's attention, and on appearing likable and credible.

KEY TERMS

- persuasive speech** a speech whose goal is to influence the beliefs, attitudes, values, or acts of others.
- logos** a term used by the Greek rhetorician Aristotle to mean appeals to reason and logic. Such appeals provide the justification for audience action.
- argument** a stated position, with support, for or against an idea or issue; contains the core elements of claim, evidence, and warrants.
- pathos** a term used by the Greek rhetorician Aristotle to mean appeals to emotion. Such appeals can get the audience's attention and stimulate a desire to act but must be used ethically.
- ethos** the Greek word for "character." According to the ancient Greek rhetorician Aristotle, audiences listen to and trust speakers if they exhibit competence (as demonstrated by the speaker's grasp of the subject matter) and good moral character.
- speaker credibility** the quality that reveals that a speaker has a good grasp of the subject, displays sound reasoning skills, is honest and nonmanipulative, and is genuinely interested in the welfare of audience members; a modern version of *ethos*.
- hierarchy of needs** a model of human action developed by Abraham Maslow based on the principle that people are motivated to act on the basis of their needs.
- central processing** a mode of processing a persuasive message that involves thinking critically about the contents of the message and the strength and quality of the speaker's arguments. People who seriously consider what the speaker's message means to them are most likely to experience a relatively enduring change in thinking.
- peripheral processing** a mode of processing a persuasive message that does not consider the quality of the speaker's message, but is influenced by such non-content issues as the speaker's appearance or reputation, certain slogans or one-liners, and obvious attempts to manipulate emotions. Peripheral processing of messages occurs when people lack the motivation or the ability to pay close attention to the issues.
- claim** the declaration of a state of affairs, often stated as a thesis statement, in which a speaker attempts to prove something.
- evidence** supporting material that provides grounds for belief.
- claim of fact** an argument that focuses on whether something is or is not true or whether something will or will not happen.
- claim of value** a claim that addresses issues of judgment.

- claim of policy** a claim that recommends that a specific course of action be taken or approved by an audience.
- logical fallacy** a statement that is based on an invalid or deceptive line of reasoning.
- begging the question** a logical fallacy in which what is stated cannot help but be true, even though no evidence has been presented.
- bandwagoning** a logical fallacy that uses (unsubstantiated) general opinion as its (false) basis.
- either-or fallacy** a logical fallacy stated in terms of two alternatives only, even though there are additional alternatives.
- ad hominem argument** a logical fallacy that targets the person instead of the issue at hand in an attempt to discredit an opponent's argument.
- red herring** a logical fallacy in which the speaker relies on irrelevant information for his or her argument.
- target audience** those individuals within the broader audience who are most likely to be influenced in the direction the speaker seeks.
- problem-solution pattern of arrangement** a pattern of organizing speech points so that they demonstrate the nature and significance of a problem first, and then provide justification for a proposed solution.
- problem-cause-solution pattern of arrangement** a pattern of organizing speech points so that they demonstrate (1) the nature of the problem, (2) reasons for the problem, (3) unsatisfactory solutions, and (4) proposed solution(s).
- motivated sequence** a five-step process of persuasion developed by Alan Monroe.
- refutation organizational pattern** a pattern of organizing speech points in which each main point addresses and then refutes (disproves) an opposing claim to the speaker's position.
- comparative advantage pattern** a pattern of organizing speech points so that the speaker's viewpoint or proposal is shown to be superior to one or more alternative viewpoints or proposals.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are some key factors or principles that, when heeded, will increase the odds that efforts at persuasion will succeed?

Paying attention to the following principles will increase the odds that your efforts at persuasion will succeed: (1) A message should meet the psychological needs of the audience. People are unlikely to change unless they see that it will benefit them, and people are more likely to act on strong attitudes than on weak ones; (2) the persuader who seeks only minor changes is more successful than the persuader who seeks major changes; (3) speakers who establish a common ground between themselves and the

audience are more likely to persuade than those who fail to establish such identification; (4) if the speaker can show that an attitude or a behavior will satisfy people and make them feel competent, he or she will find them more receptive to change; (5) the speaker is more likely to persuade audience members if their position differs only moderately from his or hers; and (6) for change to endure, people must be convinced that they will be rewarded for making the change.

How can Abraham Maslow's five-level hierarchy of needs be used to appeal to an audience's needs and interests?

Maslow's model of needs has long been a basis for motivation-oriented persuasive speeches. Maslow maintained that each person has a set of basic needs ranging from the essential, life-sustaining ones to the less critical, self-improvement ones. Needs at the lower, essential levels must be fulfilled before the higher levels can become important and motivating. The principle behind the model is that people are motivated to act on the basis of their needs: thus, to best persuade listeners to adopt your suggested changes in attitudes, beliefs, or behavior, you should point to a need they want fulfilled and then give them a way to fulfill it.

Physiological needs manifest our very sense of survival and require regular, if not daily, fulfillment. Part of your planning for a speech is to know the physical surroundings in which the speech will take place. Make sure that adequate accommodations will be provided for your audience and yourself well in advance of the speech date. **Safety needs** are often used to convince people to take action against situations described by the speaker as dangerous. If you can relate your persuasive message to the significant **social needs** of the audience, you will have struck a central chord that will hold their attention and secure their careful consideration of your propositions. To appeal to the audience's **self-esteem needs**, concentrate on topics and purposes that make the listeners feel good about themselves. Show them how they will benefit from adopting your position. Finally, to appeal to listeners' **self-actualization** needs, stress how achieving various goals can make them feel fulfilled.

What are the various types of claims that can be posed in a persuasive speech?

A persuasive speech can focus on a claim of fact, a claim of value, or a claim of policy. **Claims of fact** focus on conditions that actually exist, once existed, or will exist in the future; the latter are **speculative claims**, or claims of future fact. **Claims of value** address issues of judgment. For example: Is assisted suicide ethical? Should doctors be in the business of helping patients to die as well as to live? Finally, speakers use **claims of policy** when recommending that a specific course of action be taken by, or approved of by, an audience. A claim of policy speaks to an "ought" condition, proposing that certain better outcomes would be realized if the proposed condition were met.

What are some of the fallacies that can weaken an argument?

Knowing the varieties of argument will help you avoid several fallacies that will weaken any speech in which they are identified. This text addresses the fallacies of

begging the question, bandwagoning, either-or fallacy, ad hominem argument, and red herring. A **logical fallacy** is a false or an erroneous statement, or an invalid or deceptive line of reasoning. When you **beg the question**, you define the subject of the claim in such a way that it cannot help but support the claim, revealing a circular pattern of thought. **Bandwagoning** involves assigning a claim greater substance by making it appear to be more popular than it is. The **either-or fallacy** poses an argument in terms of two alternatives only, even though there may be additional arguments to be made. **Ad hominem arguments** attack an opponent instead of attacking the opponent's argument. **Red-herring** arguments rely on irrelevant information to build an argument.

Why do you think Monroe's organizational plan is called the *motivated sequence*? List some occasions when this pattern might be useful for giving persuasive speeches.

Monroe's plan is motivated in that it not only provides the audience with a call to action, but it also suggests ways in which the audience might act. It also illustrates the short- and long-term consequences resulting from the audience's answering the speaker's call to action. This plan is effective in turning value-oriented issues (those that discuss the goodness or badness of something) into issues that argue for a particular action or policy, such as persuading consumers to purchase a particular product or convincing an organization to adopt a new statute or policy.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Which do you think is most important to achieving persuasive outcomes in a speech: logos, pathos, or ethos? Why?

This question requires students to be persuasive, in that they must argue convincingly for the superiority of one of the forms of proof over the others. In doing so, students should be aware of the benefits and strengths of each form. Logos is the form that deals with the reasoning and argumentative strategies of the speaker, whereas pathos allows the speaker to appeal to an audience's emotions. Ethos refers to the credibility or trustworthiness of the speaker. Students advocating one of the forms should convince others that their preferred form must exist before the others can be used. For example, a student may argue that an audience will listen only to a speaker who first establishes credibility.

2. List some needs that are common and salient to people your own age. Where do these needs fall among the categories on Maslow's hierarchy?

Assign this question as a short report that requires students to (1) do a serious inventory of their own needs and (2) discuss how these are common to others in their age group. Students should also be prepared to exhaust all levels of Maslow's hierarchy, and thus understand that although some needs are age-specific, others cut across several age groups. This question encourages students to think about which age-specific needs appeal to certain members of the class. If there are some classmates who lie outside the average age of the class, students should think about which needs apply to these individuals.

3. Which type of claim do you think is easiest to defend? Why?

It may be argued that claims of fact would be easiest to defend, as long as there are records or documentation to support whether something is or is not true. For example, to argue that George Washington was the first president of the United States may seem easy enough to defend as long as one consults historical documents, textbooks, or other literature to support the claim. Claims of value may be said to be very difficult to defend because the “goodness” or “badness” of something is often a matter of opinion and is often based on culturally driven values (i.e., what is valuable in one culture is not necessarily valuable in another). In addition, policy claims can be difficult to defend because arguing for a particular policy often involves arguing against the status quo, which places the burden of proof on the speaker’s shoulders. With this said, this question itself is an exercise in persuasion, in that students may be asked to take a position and use an argument to defend that position.

4. Explain Monroe’s motivated sequence. Be sure to identify all five steps in the correct order.

Monroe’s motivated sequence, an organizational pattern for planning and presenting persuasive speeches, involves five steps.

Step 1: Attention—gain audience’s attention.

Step 2: Need—problem or current state.

Step 3: Satisfaction—proposed solution.

Step 4: Visualization—anticipated outcomes associated with the solution.

Step 5: Action—making a direct request of the audience.

5. Take a topic, and apply each one of Monroe’s steps as if you were going to give a persuasive speech on the topic.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Consider an upcoming speech assignment for your class. State one or more claims that are the basis for the speech. Identify the type of claim each one is. State some body of evidence you have access to that will support your claim. Point out that the chosen topic may influence such decisions as types of claims (value, fact, or policy) made and order of evidence chosen.
2. When you deliver your next speech, ask a classmate to identify any fallacies in arguing that you commit. Discuss each fallacy with your classmate, and determine why it was committed and how it can be avoided in the future.

This activity can be done with pairs or in groups. If it is done with pairs, assign students to partners and have them work on their current speech assignment over a period of days or weeks. During this period, students should be encouraged to consult with their partners to solicit feedback regarding fallacies as well as any other argumentation issue. Have students discuss with each other

possible underlying causes for fallacies made; perhaps a lack of research or evidence led to some of the fallacies (e.g., overgeneralizations or begging the question). A little more research can often eliminate these fallacies.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. In a group of four or five classmates, take turns stating the needs each of you has that are especially sensitive to persuasive appeals. Consider television commercials or a recent election campaign as possible sources of persuasive appeals that have affected you.

This activity is effective if students view some examples of commercials or public service announcements (PSAs) in class. This will allow them to see needs expressed by their fellow students that are similar to or different from their own. Make sure students consider all five levels of needs as well as how many of these levels each commercial or PSA incorporates.

2. Discuss with classmates the aspects of persuasive messages that draw your attention away from the message itself, leading you to peripheral processing. On the basis of this discussion, choose some strategies that you could use to maintain your classmates' central processing of a persuasive message.

This activity may be extremely helpful, because research suggests that central processing of messages will lead to better recall of the message in the future. Recall that central processing requires a persuasive appeal to focus on the content of the message itself. This involves presenting such things as sound arguments and valid forms of support. Therefore, a message that is intended to be processed through the central route must downplay such non-content aspects as speaker credibility, physical appearance, and emotional appeals.

3. Ask a group in class to test your argument for fallacious reasoning. Once any kind of fallacy has been pointed out, discuss with your group how you can strengthen the argument to overcome the fallacy. Present your refined argument to the class.

Look for possible underlying causes for the fallacies committed. The group testing the argument could suggest ways to curtail some of the common underlying causes. When the group identifies the fallacies, members should be able to pinpoint which type of fallacy the argument contains based on the definition of that particular fallacy.

4. Spend 30 minutes of study time this week with four or five members of your class, watching a live telecast of a speaker or a political debate on C-Span. Listen carefully to the presenter's message. Take note of claims and evidence. Discuss your findings with one another, assessing the impact of the arguments on your own attitudes, beliefs, or actions.

Use this activity as a group writing assignment to be handed in. An additional option would be to have students present a clip of the telecast and speak to the class about the claims and evidence that are used. The presenters can then open

up discussion with audience members and solicit questions and input regarding the clip and the group's report.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
 - quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. What is persuasive speaking? Give an everyday example of persuasion.

Persuasive speaking: used in a speech intended to influence the beliefs, attitudes, values, and acts of others.
 2. Define and give personal examples of attitudes, beliefs, and values.

Attitudes: predispositions to respond to people, ideas, objects, or events in evaluative ways.

Beliefs: the way people perceive reality.

Values: people's most enduring judgments about what's good and bad in life.
 3. The text identifies five factors that increase the odds that your efforts at persuasion will succeed. List as many of them as you can.
 - A speaker who seeks only minor changes is more likely to be successful than a speaker who seeks major changes.
 - Establish a common ground between speaker and audience.
 - Make audience members feel satisfied and competent.
 - A speaker is more likely to persuade an audience member whose position is only moderately different from his or her own position.
 - People must be convinced that they will be rewarded in some way.
 4. Choose a topic for a persuasive speech, and then apply Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Bottom to top:	Physiological needs
	Safety needs
	Social needs
	Self-esteem needs
	Self-actualization needs
 5. Identify the three types of claims, and give an example of each.
 - claims of fact

- claims of value
- claims of policy

6. What is a fallacy? Identify five types of fallacies.

Fallacy: a false or erroneous statement, or an invalid or deceptive line of reasoning.

- **Begging the question:** stating in an impressive-sounding way a claim that really has no substance at all.
- **Bandwagoning:** assigning a claim greater substance by making it appear to be more popular than it is.
- **Either-or fallacy:** posing an argument in terms of two alternatives only.
- **Ad hominem argument:** attacking an opponent instead of the opponent's arguments.
- **Red herring:** relying on irrelevant information to build an argument.

7. Illustrate each of the five fallacies with an example.

ACTIVITIES**Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs**

Purpose: To allow students to become familiar with and understand Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Instructions: Using speech topics from a previous activity or another list of possible persuasive speech topics, apply Maslow's hierarchy of needs to as many topics as time allows. This can be done individually, in small groups, as a class, or as homework.

Additional instructions: Have students individually identify as many of their own needs as they can. As a class, students should discuss these needs and identify speech topics that would address some of these needs.

Discussion: Students can report and discuss their evaluation as a group.

Fact, Fiction, or Fallacy?

Purpose: To become familiar with different types of fallacies and practice identifying them.

Instructions: During class, have students provide personal examples of the following types of fallacies: begging the question, bandwagoning, either-or fallacy, ad hominem, and red herring. Then divide students into small groups of three to five people. Outside class, have each group find at least one example of each of these types of fallacies, along with one or two facts and one or two fictions. Have each group make up a quiz using these examples. The quiz can be written or given orally by the group members. (This usually depends on what the examples are.) During the next class period, have each group give its quiz to the class. The rest of the class will have to identify whether the example is fact, fiction, or fallacy and, if it is a fallacy, which type.

Practice Debating

Purpose: To provide students with the opportunity to practice basic argumentation.

Instructions: For this activity, students should pick a partner. Each team of two should be given a notecard with two comparable objects, events, or issues. With minimal preparation time, each student picks one of the two and argues convincingly why it is somehow better than the other. Each speaker has one minute to present his or her case.

Here are some sample comparisons to use:

rap vs. rock and roll
rural vs. city life
giving a gift vs. receiving a gift
hot weather vs. cold weather
beer vs. wine
telephone vs. e-mail
dieting vs. eating whatever you want
basketball vs. football
dirty vs. clean
New Year's Eve vs. your birthday
going to a movie vs. renting a video
cake vs. pie
living in the dorms vs. living off campus
dogs vs. cats
books vs. magazines
running vs. biking
the mountains vs. the beach

Persuasion in Advertisements

Purpose: To learn Monroe's motivated sequence and to apply it to advertisements.

Instructions: Students should form groups of five to seven. Each group should bring to class a videotaped television advertisement that persuasively attempts to sell a product. The class will view the videos, and each group will apply the five steps of Monroe's motivated sequence to its ad.

Monroe's Motivated Sequence

- Step 1: Gain the audience's attention.
- Step 2: Identify unfulfilled needs.
- Step 3: Propose a solution that satisfies those needs.
- Step 4: Visualize what satisfaction will mean.
- Step 5: Define specific action.

Discussion: Each group should be prepared to explain and discuss its advertisement and analysis of it.

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SUGGESTED WEB SITES

- Contacting your senator (<<http://www.senate.gov>>)
- Contacting your congressional representative
(<<http://www.house.gov/writerep>>)
- Population Research Institute (<<http://www.pop.org>>)
- Rhetoric on the Web (<<http://classics.mit.edu/Aristotle/rhetoric.html>>)
- Current facts and material (<<http://www.newslink.org>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. What is a special occasion speech?

- A. A *special occasion speech* is one that is prepared for a specific occasion and for a purpose dictated by that occasion.
 - 1. More so than in other kinds of speeches, special occasion speeches look to the speaker to fulfill specific functions dictated by the event.
 - 2. Special occasion speeches can be either informative or persuasive, but neither of these functions is the underlying goal.
- B. The underlying function of a special occasion speech is to entertain, celebrate, commemorate, inspire, or set a social agenda.
 - 1. Certain special occasion speeches, such as those for banquets, award dinners, and roasts, are given to *entertain* those in attendance.
 - 2. Often the function of a special occasion speech is to *celebrate* a person, a place, or an event, such as at weddings or anniversaries.
 - 3. A special occasion speech can *commemorate* a notable person, place, or event at memorial ceremonies.
 - 4. Some special occasion speeches, such as inaugural addresses and keynote speeches at conventions, are given to *inspire* the listeners.
 - 5. Another function of special occasion speeches is *social agenda-setting*, the promoting of goals and values held by the group sponsoring the event.

II. Types of special occasion speeches

- A. A *speech of introduction* is a short speech given to introduce a speaker and to motivate the audience to listen to the speaker.
 - 1. A speech of introduction should be brief.
 - 2. It must include a short background of the speaker and a brief preview of the speaker's topic.
 - 3. Briefly preview the speaker's topic and at the end ask the audience to welcome the speaker.
- B. A *speech of acceptance* is given to express gratitude for an awarded honor.
 - 1. The speech should be prepared ahead of time, if possible.
 - 2. It should express genuine humility and gratitude to the people giving the award and to all those who made its receipt possible.
 - 3. Accept the award gracefully, and be sure to end by expressing thanks.
- C. The presentation of an award calls for a *speech of presentation*.
 - 1. Its purpose is to communicate the meaning of the award and to explain why the recipient is receiving it.

2. Be sure to consider the physical presentation of the award: Hold it in the left hand, and use the right to shake hands.
 3. If possible, personalize the speech to bring further honor to the award and its recipient.
- D. A *roast* is a humorous tribute to a person in which a series of speakers poke fun at him or her. A *toast* is a brief tribute to a person or an event.
1. Be sure to prepare ahead of time.
 2. Highlight one or two traits that set the person apart.
 3. Keep your remarks brief, and keep the tone positive.
- E. A *eulogy* is a tribute to a deceased person.
1. Although giving a eulogy may involve intense emotions, try to deliver the speech without breaking down.
 2. Show respect to the family and commemorate the life, not the death, of the deceased.
- F. An *after-dinner speech* is a lighthearted and entertaining speech delivered before, during, or after a meal.
1. The topic should be chosen carefully; it should be serious enough to merit discussion but lighthearted enough to make jokes and entertain.
 2. Make sure the speech connects with the occasion.
 3. If the goal of the after-dinner speech is social agenda-setting, the speaker should focus more on the serious side of the subject.
- G. A *speech of inspiration* seeks to uplift the audience and to help listeners see things in a positive light.
1. The speaker must appeal to the audience's pathos and display positive ethos.
 2. Emotionally charged words, true stories, and a dynamic presentation can be important to a speech of inspiration.
 3. Be sure to keep the goal clear, possibly with the use of an organizing device.
 4. One of the best means of inspiring an audience is to use a dramatic ending.

KEY TERMS

special occasion speech a speech prepared for a specific occasion and for a purpose dictated by that occasion.

speech of introduction a short speech whose purpose is defined by two goals: to prepare or “warm up” audience members for the speaker and to motivate them to listen to what the speaker has to say.

speech of acceptance a speech made in response to receiving an award. Its purpose is to express gratitude for the honor bestowed on the speaker.

speech of presentation a speech whose purpose is twofold: to communicate the meaning of the award and to explain why the recipient is receiving it.

roast a humorous tribute to a person, one in which a series of speakers jokingly poke fun at the individual being honored.

toast a brief tribute to a person or an event being celebrated.

eulogy a speech whose purpose is to celebrate and commemorate the life of someone while consoling those who are left behind; typically delivered by close friends or family members.

after-dinner speech a speech that is likely to occur before, during, or after a formal dinner; a breakfast or lunch seminar; or other type of business, professional, or civic meeting.

canned speech a speech used repeatedly and without sufficient adaptation to the rhetorical speech situation.

speech of inspiration a speech whose purpose is to inspire or motivate the audience to consider positively, reflect on, and sometimes even to act on the speaker's words.

acronym a word, usually a noun, formed from the first letter of several words, such as WIN for *work, intensity, and no excuses*.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What is a special occasion speech? What are its five broad functions?

A **special occasion speech** is one that is prepared for a specific occasion and for a purpose dictated by that occasion. Depending on the nature of the occasion, the function of a special occasion speech is to entertain, celebrate, commemorate, inspire, or set a social agenda.

What are the different types of special occasion speeches?

Special occasion speeches include speeches of introduction, speeches of acceptance, award presentations, roasts and toasts, eulogies and other speeches of tribute, after-dinner speeches, and speeches of inspiration. A **speech of introduction** is a short speech with the twin goals of preparing listeners for the speaker and motivating them to listen to what he or she has to say. In the **speech of acceptance**, a recipient expresses gratitude for an honor bestowed upon him or her and acknowledges others who have contributed to his or her success. **Speeches of presentation** communicate the importance of an award and explain why the recipient is receiving it. A **roast** is a humorous tribute to a particular person. A **toast** is a brief tribute to a person or an event being celebrated. **Eulogies** pay tribute to the deceased. An **after-dinner speech** is a lighthearted and entertaining speech delivered before, during, or after a meal. **Speeches of inspiration** explicitly seek to uplift audience members and help them see things in a positive light.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What are some of the most noteworthy aspects of special occasion speeches that you have heard? Do poorly constructed and delivered special occasion speeches do more harm than good?

Some important aspects of special occasion speeches that students should be able to point out are consideration of audience expectations, effective use of

emotional appeals, and sufficient preparation. Ask students to talk about special occasion speeches they have heard recently or to bring in a videotape of a speech; then have them identify various aspects of the speech. Also talk about the importance of construction and delivery, as well as when poor construction and delivery do harm to the honored person or the audience. It may be that some people are good at speaking off-the-cuff and therefore do not require much preparation. In addition, there are a few people who have a natural knack for delivery. However, most of us, when called to honor an individual, need to take time to adequately prepare and practice a speech in order to avoid embarrassing the honoree or offending the audience.

2. If you were asked to develop and deliver one of the special occasion speeches discussed in this chapter, which one would you choose? Which one would you find less appealing than the others? Why?

What may be at issue here is the appropriate choice of speech, given the occasion or the purpose of the speech, not the speaker's personal preference. Remind students that a speaker needs to take the audience, the occasion, and the honoree into consideration when making decisions about the special occasion speech. What the speaker prefers may only work to detract from the occasion or the person being honored, which is something a speaker should take pains to avoid. In terms of what is preferable or appealing, it may be an issue of which speeches present more challenges, or which require greater preparation, emotional appeal, or consideration of the audience. Engage students in a discussion of the speeches that require more effort in terms of these aspects.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Research three eulogies delivered by well-known individuals. (See, for instance, Paul Theroux's *The Book of Eulogies*.) Do you see any commonality in their structures? What gives the eulogies power? Language usage? Personal stories?

Use this activity as a short writing assignment or as a group assignment. Groups or individuals should first choose three speeches that interest them or have considerable impact. Some common features of the three speeches may be level of emotional appeal, length of speech, the types of people to whom they pay tribute, and the attributes of the person who gave the eulogy. The power of the eulogy may depend on language use, visualization, vivid language, and other components. If students are to simply discuss and compare eulogies in class, have them work in groups to generate a list of features comparing and contrasting the eulogies.

2. Visit a guest speaker on your campus. How does the introducer capture your attention and add to the credibility of the speaker? What are the strengths and weaknesses of the introducer's presentation?

This activity may serve as a short report to be turned in during class. In the report, students will want to look for aspects of an effective speech of introduction, such as building the credibility of the keynote speaker or award recipient, the brevity of the speech, avoiding embarrassing or excessively personal remarks, how well or poorly the introducer motivated the audience to listen to the main speaker, and how well or poorly the introducer prepared the audience for the speaker. Use these criteria to encourage students to assess the strengths and weaknesses of the introducer.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Choose members of your class to hold an in-class awards banquet. Select a master of ceremonies, an introducer of the main speaker, a main speaker, an awards presenter, and an awards recipient. Give each person a strict time frame. Each speaker should prepare a speech and coordinate its delivery with the other speakers.

Including all the roles listed may take the entire class period, but the exercise will be worth the effort. This activity is a potentially enjoyable one that may be reserved for the end of the term or semester as a reward for students. Otherwise, to conserve class time, the roles may be limited to introducer and speaker and the students may be put into pairs, with one person being the introducer and the other being the speaker. Have the pairs take turns in acting out these roles.

2. Prepare a roast of your instructor. Allow everyone three minutes to pay tribute to the instructor's fine teaching. Practice your roast, coordinate with other speakers, and consider the other audience members. Is roasting a friend different from roasting an instructor? If so, how?

Although some students may welcome the opportunity to roast the instructor, others may feel uncomfortable with the idea. If this is the case, an alternative is to allow students to discuss how they would organize and execute a roast of the instructor, discussing the topics to be focused on, the use of emotional appeals and humor, and other aspects of the event.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. What is a special occasion speech? What is its main goal?

Special occasion speech: a speech prepared for a specific occasion and for a purpose dictated by that occasion.

Goal: to entertain, celebrate, commemorate, inspire, or set a social agenda.

2. Give an example of each of the five goals of special occasion speeches: to entertain, celebrate, commemorate, inspire, and set a social agenda.
3. What is a speech of introduction?

Speech of introduction: a short speech that prepares audience members for the speaker and motivates them to listen to what the speaker has to say.

4. What key elements make up a good speech of introduction?
 - Identify the speaker correctly, and describe the speaker's background.
 - Briefly preview the speaker's topic.
 - Be brief.
 - Ask the audience to welcome the speaker.
 - Practice good speaking habits.
 - Take the occasion into account.
5. Have you ever given or heard a speech of acceptance? If so, when? What is a speech of acceptance?

Speech of acceptance: a speech in which the recipient expresses gratitude for the honor bestowed upon him or her and acknowledges others who have contributed to his or her success.

6. What should a speaker include in a speech of acceptance? In the speech you gave or observed, were these elements included?

Prepare. If you know about it beforehand, always prepare.

React genuinely and with humility. Offering a sincere response shows your audience how much the award means to you.

Thank those who are giving the award. Express gratitude to the people giving you the award, whether it is a person, an organization, or other sponsors.

Thank others who helped you. For example, if the award represents a team effort, be sure to thank all the members. Thank the people who have inspired you, such as family members and friends, but do not make the acknowledgment of outside people too long.

Accept the award gracefully. Illustrate that you value the award and the people who gave it to you, but do not say that you do not deserve it.

End by expressing thanks. The overall goal is to express appreciation.

7. What is a speech of presentation? What are its guidelines? Can you think of one or more examples of a speech of presentation?

Speech of presentation: a speech in which the speaker communicates the importance of the award and explains why the recipient is receiving it.

Guidelines: Convey the meaning of the award; talk about the recipient of the award; consider the physical presentation; consider yourself.

8. What is a roast? A toast? Have you ever given either? For what occasion?

Roast: a humorous tribute to a person, one in which a series of speakers jokingly pokes fun at the person.

Toast: a brief tribute to a person or an event being celebrated.

9. What is a eulogy? What guidelines should you follow when delivering one?

Eulogy: a tribute to the deceased

Guidelines:

- Balance delivery and emotion.
- Refer to the family of the deceased.
- Commemorate life, not death.
- Be positive but realistic.

10. Think of giving an after-dinner speech. Consider a time and a place at which you may need to give this speech. Then outline the speech, balancing the two goals of this type of speech:

- to be lighthearted and entertaining
- to provide some insight into the topic at hand

To help accomplish these goals, the speaker must:

- choose the right topic
- avoid stand-up comedy
- recognize the occasion
- be in line with the setting of the occasion

11. What is a speech of inspiration? What should a speaker include in this type of speech? Can you think of a famous speech of inspiration?

Speech of inspiration: a speech that seeks to uplift listeners and help them see things in a positive light.

Guidelines: Appeal to the audience's emotions; use real-life stories; be dynamic; make your goals clear; use a distinctive organizing device; close with a dramatic ending.

ACTIVITIES**Impromptu Special Occasion Speech**

Purpose: To allow students the opportunity to practice public speaking, practice using creativity and humor, and become familiar with the different types of special occasion speeches.

Instructions: Each student will receive a piece of paper with one type of special occasion speech. The paper can merely specify the type of speech, or it can be more specific (e.g., a speech of introduction, or a speech to introduce Madonna at the Grammy Awards; a toast, or a toast at the wedding of Miss Piggy and Kermit the Frog). Each student will develop a 1-minute impromptu speech. Creativity and humor may be used to create a memorable and interesting speech.

Brainstorming Special Occasion Speech Topics

Purpose: To help students identify possible ceremonial speech topics.

Instructions: This activity should take place at the end of the chapter, once students have been introduced to the material. It can be done in small groups or as a class. Have students identify the different types of special occasion speeches: after-dinner speech, eulogy, roast, speech of acceptance, speech of inspiration, speech of introduction, speech of presentation, and toast. Write them on the board, and ask each student to go up to the board (one after the other or all at once) and write an example of each type of speech. Have students write this list in their notebooks.

Discussion: After the list has been compiled, discuss and expand on it as a class.

Your Eulogy

Purpose: To give students a chance to apply the concepts of special occasion speaking.

Instructions: When someone dies, eulogies celebrating the ideals and values of the deceased are usually presented. If you were to die tomorrow, what would you want said about you? Write your own eulogy, describing the essence of who you are, how you want to be remembered after you die, and even the person who you would like to deliver your eulogy. This can be done as an in-class activity or as a homework assignment.

Who You Are Makes a Difference

Purpose: To give students an example of an interesting special occasion speech.

Instructions: In Jack Canfield's book *Chicken Soup for the Soul*, there is a story about a teacher from New York who honored high-school seniors by telling them the difference each of them had made. Using a process developed by Helic Bridges of Del Mar, California, she called the students to the front of the classroom, one at a time. First, she told the class how each student had made a difference to her and to the class. Then she presented each student with a blue ribbon imprinted with gold letters that read "Who I Am Makes a Difference."

Each student should think of someone in his or her life who has made a difference, and then write a brief 1- to 2-minute speech. This speech should end with the student presenting a blue ribbon to let the person know that he or she has made a difference. If students actually present this speech, they should write up a brief reaction paper describing the recipient's reaction to the speech.

Additional instructions: Instructors can put all students' names into a hat or a bag and have each student draw a name. Students will have to write a brief speech telling how that classmate has made a difference in the class. This can be done in one class period, or students can present their speeches during the class period after they picked the names. If you choose the latter option, it is fun to have students bring in an item (a dollar or less in cost) to present to their subjects at the end of the speech. The item should somehow tie in with the speech.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- An angry charmer. (1995, October 30). *Newsweek*, 32–37.
- Cox, F. (1998). Introductions: Tips on how to introduce people in public. *PSA Journal*, 64, 40–41.
- Detz, J. (1991). *Can you say a few words?* New York: St. Martin's.
- Fuller, E. (1980). *2500 anecdotes for all occasions*. New York: Avenel.
- Gresham, P. E. (1985). *Toasts: Plain, spicy, and wry*. Ocoee, FL: Anna.
- Parret, G. (1993). *I love my boss and 969 other business jokes*. New York: Sterling.
- Speaking for the association: Here's how to put your foot forward as a spokesperson. (1977, January). *Association Management*, 49, 87–90.
- Speaking of race. (1995, December). *Commentary*, 100, 21–26.
- Straub, D. G. (1996). *Voices of multicultural America: Notable speeches delivered by African, Asian, Hispanic, and Native Americans*. New York: Gale Research.
- Theroux, P. (Ed.) (1997). *The book of eulogies*. New York: Scribner.

For examples of special occasion speeches: See *Executive Speaker and Toastmaster*.

SUGGESTED WEB SITES

- <<http://www.idea-bank.com>>
- <<http://www2.truman.edu>>
- <<http://www.drhumor.com>>
- <<http://www.speakeasyinc.com>>
- Presidential inaugural addresses (<<http://www.law.ou.edu/hist>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. Types of audiences in the working world

- A. Typical audiences for presentations include expert or insider audiences, colleagues within the field, lay audiences, and mixed audiences.
1. The *expert* or *insider audience* consists of a group of people who possess intimate knowledge of the topic, issue, product, or idea being discussed.
 2. *Colleagues within the field* need not be provided with background information, such as definitions or information that is common knowledge within the field.
 3. The *lay audience* brings to the presentation the least amount of information on the given field or topic and therefore requires the most background information.
 4. The *mixed audience* consists of a combination of people, some with expert knowledge and others with little knowledge of the topic or field.

II. A commonly assigned speaking task is a review of academic articles.

- A. Typically, you will be expected to identify the author's thesis, methods, findings, and theoretical perspective; evaluate the validity of the study and the credibility of the author's sources; and make suggestions for future research.

III. Oral presentations are a common part of a variety of college courses.

- A. *Team presentations* are oral presentations prepared and delivered by a group of three or more individuals.
1. Be sure to designate a team leader and assign group roles.
 2. Establish a consistent format and include transitions between speakers.
 3. Practice the presentation and determine how introductions will be made.
- B. In a *debate*, two individuals or groups consider or argue the point or issue in question from opposing viewpoints.
1. Debates can be in an *individual debate format* or a *team debate format*.
 2. The *pro* side (affirmative) tries to convince the audience that the topic needs to be addressed, whereas the *con* side (negative) tries to defeat the pro side's argument.
 3. An argument consists of a *claim*, *reasoning*, and *evidence* and is used in debate formats.

4. Debates are characterized by *refutation*, in which each side attacks the arguments of the other. This sometimes involves rebuilding arguments that have been refuted or attacked.
- C. *Poster sessions* present information about a study or an issue concisely and visually.
1. When preparing for a poster session, include an informative title, an abstract, and two or three key points for each section of the poster.
 2. Make type, figures, and diagrams large enough to view from a distance.
 3. Be prepared to provide brief descriptions and answer questions about your poster.

KEY TERMS

expert or insider audience an audience of persons with an intimate knowledge of the topic, issue, product, or idea being discussed.

colleagues within the field audience an audience of persons who share the speaker's knowledge of the general field under question but who may not be familiar with the particular topic under discussion.

lay audience an audience of persons lacking specialized knowledge of the general field related to the speaker's topic and of the topic itself.

mixed audience an audience composed of a combination of persons — some with expert knowledge of the field and topic and others with no specialized knowledge.

review of academic articles a type of oral presentation in which a speaker reports on an article or study published in an academic journal.

team presentation a type of oral presentation prepared and delivered by a group of three or more people.

individual debate format a debate in which one person takes a side against another.

team debate format a debate in which a team of two or more people opposes a second team, with each person having a speaking role.

claim the declaration of a state of affairs, often stated as a thesis statement, in which a speaker attempts to prove something.

reasoning logical explanation of a claim by linking it to evidence.

evidence supporting material that provides grounds for belief.

poster session a format for the visual presentation of posters, arranged on free-standing boards, containing a display summarizing a study or an issue for viewing by participants at professional conferences. The speaker prepares brief remarks and remains on hand to answer questions as needed.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What are some typical oral presentations used in college courses?

Oral presentations are a common part of a variety of college courses. Typical presentation formats include team presentations, debates, reviews of academic

articles, and poster sessions. **Team presentations** are oral presentations prepared and delivered by a group of three or more individuals. In a **debate**, two individuals or groups consider or argue the point or issue in question from opposing viewpoints. A **review of academic articles** is the presentation of a review of an academic article. **Poster sessions** present information about a study or an issue concisely and visually.

What are some typical audiences for these types of presentations?

Typical audiences for presentations include expert or insider audiences, colleagues within the field, lay audiences, and mixed audiences. **Expert or insider audiences** consist of a group of people who possess an intimate knowledge of the topic, issue, product, or idea being discussed. **Colleagues within the field** need not be provided with such background information as definitions or information that is considered to be common knowledge within the field. The **lay audience** brings to the presentation the least amount of information on the given field or topic, and therefore it requires the most background information. The **mixed audience** consists of a combination of people, some with expert knowledge and others with little knowledge of the topic or field.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Students often have personal experience giving presentations in other college courses. Conduct a panel discussion to explore experienced students' thoughts on their own presentations.

Organize a panel of students who have a variety of experiences from their own classes. After each student briefly discusses his or her experience, assign a 1-page response paper for audience members to compare and contrast the presentations. How are the presentation experiences similar? How are they different?

II. ADDITIONAL QUESTION AND ACTIVITY

QUESTION

The following question may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. This question can be used as:

- homework
- a quiz
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- a topic to generate discussion
- a question-and-answer session between instructor and students

1. What are the key components to winning a debate?

Speakers should always present the most credible and convincing evidence. Especially when participating in a debate, you should first describe your position

to listeners and tell them what they must decide. If you feel that your side is not popular among audience members, ask them to suspend their own personal opinion and judge the debate on the merits of the argument. It is important to be confident, point out the strong points of your argument, think quickly on your feet, and show your passion for your position.

ACTIVITY**Professor Interview**

Purpose: To learn what professors in other college courses expect from presentations in their classes.

Instructions: Each student should visit a professor in his or her major department to conduct a brief interview. Students should ask about the typical presentation in the professor's class and discuss the components of an effective presentation. A 1-page paper describing the interview should be completed.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Speaking in science and mathematics courses often centers on describing the results of research or the process by which the results were obtained.**
 - A. The *research presentation* describes original research you have done, either alone or as part of a team.
 - 1. Research presentations include an introduction, a description of methods, a results section, and a conclusion.
 - B. The *methods/procedure presentation* is an informative speech demonstrating a mathematical or experimental process.
 - 1. Methods presentations typically identify the conditions under which the process should be used, offer a detailed description of the process, and discuss the benefits and shortcomings of the process.
 - C. The *research overview presentation* serves to provide context and background for a research question or hypothesis.
 - 1. Research overviews often include an overview of relevant research, a discussion of key studies, and an analysis section.
 - 2. The format may be an individual presentation or a *panel discussion*.
 - D. The *extended research or field study presentation* can be delivered individually, in teams, or in a poster session.
 - 1. The extended research or field study presentation usually includes an overview, a methods description, an analysis of results, and a timeline for completion of the project.

- II. **Characteristics of effective presentations in science and mathematics courses**
 - A. Use observation, proofs, and experiments as evidence and support.
 - B. Avoid including too much detail; instead, selectively focus on aspects of the experiment or study.
 - C. Use analogies to associate what is unclear to listeners with what is familiar.
 - D. Use presentation aids to illustrate processes.

KEY TERMS

oral scientific presentation (research presentation) a type of oral presentation following the model used in scientific investigations, including an introduction, description of methods, results, and conclusion; commonly found in the disciplines of science and mathematics. Such a presentation can focus on original research or on research conducted by others.

methods/procedure presentation a type of oral presentation describing and sometimes demonstrating an experimental or mathematical process, including the conditions under which it can be applied; frequently delivered in scientific and mathematics-related fields.

research overview presentation a type of oral presentation in which the speaker provides context and background for a research question or hypothesis that will form the basis of an impending undertaking; typically delivered within the context of scientific and mathematical disciplines.

panel discussion a type of oral presentation in which a small group of persons (at least three and generally not more than nine) discusses a topic in the presence of an audience and under the direction of a moderator.

extended research or field study presentation a type of oral presentation typically delivered in the context of science-related disciplines in which the speaker provides (1) an overview of the field research, (2) the methods used in the research, (3) an analysis of the results of the research, and (4) a time line indicating how the research results will be used going forward.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTION

What are some typical oral presentations used in science and mathematics courses?

There are four types of oral presentations. In an **original research presentation**, the speaker describes his or her own research, either alone or as part of a team. Another type of presentation is the **methods/procedure presentation**, which is used to describe and sometimes demonstrate an experimental or mathematical process, including the conditions under which it can be applied. The **research overview presentation** provides context and background for a research question or hypothesis that will form the basis of an impending undertaking and is typically delivered within the context of scientific and mathematical disciplines. Finally, the **extended research or field study presentation** is an oral presentation that describes a field study project.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Discuss some of the characteristics of effective presentations in science and mathematics courses.

Characteristics of effective presentations in science and mathematics include using observation, proofs, and experiments as evidence and support; avoiding too much detail by selectively focusing on aspects of the experiment or study; and using presentation aids to illustrate processes.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Students often have personal experience giving presentations in other college courses. Conduct a panel discussion to explore experienced students' thoughts on their own presentations.

Organize a panel of students who have a variety of experiences from their own classes. After each student briefly discusses his or her experience, assign a 1-page response paper for audience members to compare and contrast the presentations. How are the presentation experiences similar? How are they different?

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. What kind of presentation topics are likely to be assigned in science and mathematics courses? Create a list of science and mathematics courses on the board; then brainstorm possible topics for presentations in these courses.

This activity helps students think about how they will use the material from this chapter to develop effective presentations in other courses in the future.

III. ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

Professor Interview

Purpose: To learn what professors in other college courses expect from presentations in their classes.

Instructions: Each student should visit a professor in his or her major department to conduct a brief interview. Students should ask about the typical presentation in the professor's class and discuss the components of an effective presentation. A 1-page paper describing the interview should be completed.

So You Do the Lecture This Week

Purpose: To provide students with an opportunity to create their own college lectures.

Instructions: Each student should prepare a lecture for a course in his or her major. Use the guidelines in the text to create a lecture that contains an overview, a statement of the thesis, a statement of the connection to previous work or topics covered, a discussion of main points, and a preview of the next assignment.

Pair up class members, and let them deliver their lectures to their partners. Have each student write a brief description of the strengths and weaknesses of his or her lecture.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Speaking in technical courses often relates to a specific project.**
 - A. Technical courses include presentations such as design reviews and requests for funding.
 - 1. A *design review* generally aims to provide information on the results of a design project.
 - a. Design reviews often incorporate a *prototype*, a model of the design.
 - b. Presentations typically include an overview of the design concept, a description of specifications of the design, a discussion of the experimental testing or results of the completed design, a discussion of future plans, and schedule, budget, and marketing issues.
 - 2. The architectural design review enables the audience to visualize the design and sell it.
 - a. Presentations include background on the site, discussion of the concept, and a description and interpretation of the design.
 - 3. The *request for funding* takes place when a team member or an entire team provides evidence that a project, proposal, or design idea is worth funding.
 - a. The request for funding usually includes an overview, an analysis of market needs, an overview of the design idea, projected costs, and the reasons the project should be funded.
- II. **Characteristics of effective presentations in technical courses**
 - A. Use visual diagrams and prototypes.
 - B. Be persuasive in design and sell ideas.
 - C. Rely heavily on numerical data and experimental results as evidence and support.
 - D. Be results-oriented by telling the audience the result first.

KEY TERMS

technical disciplines areas of study that include engineering, computer science, and design.

design review presentation a type of oral presentation that provides information on the results of a design project; frequently delivered in technical fields such as engineering, computer science, and architecture.

prototype a model of a design.

architecture design review a type of oral presentation that enables the audience to visualize the design and sells it; typically covers background on the site, discussion of the design concept, and description and interpretation of the design.

request for funding presentation a type of oral presentation providing evidence that a project, proposal, or design idea is worth funding; frequently delivered in technical fields such as engineering, computer science, and architecture.

mixed audience an audience composed of a combination of persons — some with expert knowledge of the field and topic and others with no specialized knowledge.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTION

What are some typical oral presentations used in technical courses?

There are two types of presentations in technical courses. The **design review** is an oral presentation that provides information on the results of a design project. The **request for funding** is an oral presentation providing evidence that a project, proposal, or design idea is worth funding. Both of these presentation types are commonly delivered in technical fields such as engineering, computer science, and architecture.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Discuss some of the characteristics of effective presentations in technical courses.

Characteristics of effective presentations in technical courses include using visual diagrams and prototypes, being persuasive in design and selling ideas, relying heavily on numerical data and experimental results as evidence and support, and telling the audience the results first.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Students often have personal experience giving presentations in other college courses. Conduct a panel discussion to explore experienced students' thoughts on their own presentations.

Organize a panel of students who have a variety of experiences from their own classes. After each student briefly discusses his or her experience, assign a 1-page response paper for audience members to compare and contrast the presentations. How are the presentation experiences similar? How are they different?

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. What kind of presentation topics are likely to be assigned in a technical course? Create a list of technical courses on the board; then brainstorm possible topics for presentations in these courses.

This activity helps students think about how they will use the material from this chapter to develop effective presentations in other courses in the future.

III. ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

Professor Interview

Purpose: To learn what professors in other college courses expect from presentations in their classes.

Instructions: Each student should visit a professor in his or her major department to conduct a brief interview. Students should ask about the typical presentation in the professor's class and discuss the components of an effective presentation. A 1-page paper describing the interview should be completed.

So You Do the Lecture This Week

Purpose: To provide students with an opportunity to create their own college lectures.

Instructions: Each student should prepare a lecture for a course in his or her major. Use the guidelines in the text to create a lecture that contains an overview, a statement of the thesis, a statement of the connection to previous work or topics covered, a discussion of main points, and a preview of the next assignment.

Pair up class members, and let them deliver their lectures to their partners. Have each student write a brief description of the strengths and weaknesses of his or her lecture.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. Students in the social sciences learn to evaluate quantitative and qualitative research.**
 - A. *Quantitative research* emphasizes statistical measurement.
 - B. *Qualitative research* emphasizes observing, describing, and interpreting behavior.

- II. Social science presentations aim to connect research results with predicting or explaining human behavior or social forces.**
 - A. Social scientific presentations focus on debating an issue, reviewing literature, explaining or evaluating research, and recommending policy.
 - 1. The *debate* often involves advocating a position that you do not support.
 - 2. The *review of the literature presentation* reviews the body of research on a particular topic or issue and offers conclusions about the literature.
 - a. Literature reviews often include a statement of the topic under review, a description of available research, an evaluation and conclusions, and suggested directions for future research.
 - 3. The *explanatory research presentation* often reports on attempts to explain social or psychological phenomena.
 - a. Explanatory research presentations include descriptions of the phenomenon and how it occurs, as well as an explanation or theory of why it occurs.
 - 4. The *policy/program evaluation report* seeks to measure the effectiveness of a program.
 - a. Policy/program evaluation reports typically discuss the program's mission, goals, and compliance with stated objectives.
 - 5. The *policy recommendation report* is an expert's attempt to offer advice based on the research of a problem.
 - a. It typically includes a definition of the problem, a set of recommendations, a plan for implementation, and a discussion of future needs.

- III. Characteristics of effective presentations in social science courses**
 - A. Illustrate the research question.
 - B. Refer to current research in the field to increase the acceptance of your presentation.
 - C. Use timely data to appear credible.

KEY TERMS

- qualitative research** research in which the emphasis is placed on observing, describing, and interpreting behavior.
- quantitative research** research in which the emphasis is placed on statistical measurement.
- review of the literature presentation** a type of oral presentation in which the speaker reviews the body of research related to a given topic or issue and offers conclusions about the topic based on this research; frequently delivered in social scientific fields.
- explanatory research presentation** a type of oral presentation focusing on studies that attempt to analyze and explain a phenomenon; frequently delivered in social scientific fields.
- policy/program evaluation report** a type of oral presentation offering an evaluation of a program or policy.
- policy recommendation report** a type of oral presentation offering recommendations to solve a problem or address an issue.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTION

What are some typical oral presentations used in social science courses?

There are four types of presentations used in social science courses. The **review of the literature presentation** provides a review of the body of research related to a given topic or issue and offers conclusions about the topic based on this research. The **explanatory research presentation** focuses on studies that attempt to analyze and explain a phenomenon. The **evaluation research presentation** reports on the effectiveness of programs developed to address various issues. Finally, the **policy recommendation report** offers recommendations to solve a problem or address an issue.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Discuss some of the characteristics of effective presentations in social science courses.

Characteristics of effective presentations in social science courses include illustrating the research question, using timely data to bolster credibility, and referring to current research in the field.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Students often have personal experience giving presentations in other college courses. Conduct a panel discussion to explore experienced students' thoughts on their own presentations.

Organize a panel of students who have a variety of experiences from their

own classes. After each student briefly discusses his or her experience, assign a 1-page response paper for audience members to compare and contrast the presentations. How are the presentation experiences similar? How are they different?

2. Suppose you are asked to give a 20-minute presentation in a social science course. Write a brief outline of your presentation.

This would work as a group or individual assignment. Either assign the various types of presentations for the social sciences, or let students choose one. Use the Features of Effective Social Scientific Presentations section on page 196 of the text to create an evaluation sheet for the assignment.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. What kind of presentation topics are likely to be assigned in social science courses? Create a list of social science courses on the board, then brainstorm possible topics for presentations in these courses.

This activity helps students think about how they will use the material from this chapter to develop effective presentations in other courses in the future.

2. Suppose you are asked to conduct a presentation in a social sciences course. The presentation calls for both quantitative and qualitative information.

Assign groups of three to five students to create an explanatory research presentation using a fictitious research project as the subject.

You may either choose topics for the research projects or let students generate their own topics. Encourage creativity in designing projects that seek to observe, describe, or interpret behavior. In addition, allow students to create statistical information for their presentations. After the groups give their presentations in class, discuss how well each presentation made use of the features of effective social science presentations outlined in the text.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTION AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTION

The following question may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. This question can be used as:

- homework
- a quiz
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- a topic to generate discussion
- a question-and-answer session between instructor and students

1. What are the key components of a good review of the literature presentation?

The **review of the literature presentation** reviews the body of research on a particular topic and offers conclusions about the literature. Literature reviews often include a description of available research, an evaluation and conclusions, and suggested directions for future research.

ACTIVITIES**Professor Interview**

Purpose: To learn what professors in other college courses expect from presentations in their classes.

Instructions: Each student should visit a professor in his or her major department to conduct a brief interview. Students should ask about the typical presentation in the professor's class and discuss the components of an effective presentation. A 1-page paper describing the interview should be completed.

So You Do the Lecture This Week

Purpose: To provide students with an opportunity to create their own college lectures.

Instructions: Each student should prepare a lecture for a course in his or her major. Use the guidelines in the text to create a lecture that contains an overview, a statement of the thesis, a statement of the connection to previous work or topics covered, a discussion of main points, and a preview of the next assignment.

Pair up class members, and let them deliver their lectures to their partners. Have each student write a brief description of the strengths and weaknesses of his or her lecture.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Speaking in arts and humanities courses often requires the speaker to interpret the meaning of a particular idea, event, person, story, or artifact.**
 - A. Presentations include informative speeches of explanation, presentations that compare and contrast, and debates.
 - 1. The *informative speech of explanation* describes the relevance of a historical or contemporary person or event, a school of thought, or a piece of literature, music, or art.
 - 2. Presentations might compare and contrast events, stories, people, or artifacts to highlight similarities or differences.
 - a. The *comparison-and-contrast presentation* usually includes a thesis statement, a discussion of main points, and a conclusion that evaluates the comparison.
 - 3. *Debates* may be assigned to allow students to consider the opposing ideas of historical figures or philosophical positions.
- II. **Effective presentations in arts and humanities courses help the audience think of the topic in a new way by providing an original interpretation of it.**

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. DISCUSSION QUESTION

- 1. How do arts and humanities presentations differ from other presentations?

Speaking in arts and humanities courses often requires the speaker to interpret the meaning of a particular idea, event, person, story, or artifact. Sample presentations include informative speeches of explanation, presentations that compare and contrast, debates, and classroom discussions. The **informative speech of explanation** is designed to describe the relevance of a historical or contemporary person or event, school of thought, or piece of literature, music, or art. Presentations might compare and contrast events, stories, people, or artifacts in order to highlight similarities and differences. The **comparison-and-contrast presentation** usually includes a thesis statement, a discussion of main points, and a conclusion that evaluates the comparison. **Debates** may be assigned to allow students to consider the opposing ideas of historical figures or philosophical positions.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Students often have personal experience giving presentations in other college courses. Conduct a panel discussion to explore experienced students' thoughts on their own presentations.

Organize a panel of students who have a variety of experiences from their own classes. After each student briefly discusses his or her experience, assign a 1-page response paper for audience members to compare and contrast the presentations. How are the presentation experiences similar? How are they different?

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. What kind of presentation topics are likely to be assigned in arts and humanities courses? Create a list of arts and humanities courses on the board; then brainstorm possible topics for presentations in these courses.

This activity helps students think about how they will use the material from this chapter to develop effective presentations in other courses in the future.

III. ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

Professor Interview

Purpose: To learn what professors in other college courses expect from presentations in their classes.

Instructions: Each student should visit a professor in his or her major department to conduct a brief interview. Students should ask about the typical presentation in the professor's class and discuss the components of an effective presentation. A 1-page paper describing the interview should be completed.

So You Do the Lecture This Week

Purpose: To provide students with an opportunity to create their own college lectures.

Instructions: Each student should prepare a lecture for a course in his or her major. Use the guidelines in the text to create a lecture that contains an overview, a statement of the thesis, a statement of the connection to previous work or topics covered, a discussion of main points, and a preview of the next assignment.

Pair up class members, and let them deliver their lectures to their partners. Have each student write a brief description of the strengths and weaknesses of his or her lecture.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Speaking in education courses typically involves teaching in the classroom.**
 - A. Education presentations include lectures, group activities, and classroom discussions.
 1. The *lecture* is an informative speech for an audience of students.
 - a. Lectures typically include an overview, a statement of the thesis, a statement of the connection to previous work or topics covered, a discussion of main points, and a preview of the next assignment.
 2. The *group activity presentation* is generally intended as a short introduction to a group activity that follows the primary lecture.
 3. The *classroom discussion presentation* takes place after the lecture has been completed and is guided by one or two general questions.
- II. **Characteristics of effective presentations in education courses**
 - A. Logical organization.
 - B. Integration of content to overall course content.
 - C. Use of audience-relevant examples and evidence.

KEY TERMS

- lecture** an informational speech to an audience of student learners.
- group activity presentation** an oral presentation that introduces students to an activity and provides them with clear directions for its completion.
- classroom discussion presentation** a type of oral presentation in which the speaker presents a brief overview of the topic under discussion and introduces a series of questions to guide students through the topic.
- preview statement** statement included in the introduction of a speech in which the speaker identifies the main speech points.
- transitions** words, phrases, or sentences that tie speech ideas together and enable a speaker to move smoothly from one point to the next.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTION

What are some typical oral presentations used in education courses?

There are three types of presentations used in education courses. The **lecture** is an informative speech prepared for an audience of student learners. The **group**

activity presentation is an oral presentation that introduces students to an activity and provides them with clear directions for its completion. The **classroom discussion presentation** is a type of oral presentation in which the speaker presents a brief overview of the topic under discussion and introduces a series of questions to guide students through the topic.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTION

1. Discuss some of the characteristics of effective presentations in education courses.

Characteristics of effective presentations in education courses include logical organization, integration of content to overall course content, and the use of audience-relevant examples and evidence.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Students often have personal experience giving presentations in other college courses. Conduct a panel discussion to explore experienced students' thoughts on their own presentations.

Organize a panel of students who have a variety of experiences from their own classes. After each student briefly discusses his or her experience, assign a 1-page response paper for audience members to compare and contrast the presentations. How are the presentation experiences similar? How are they different?

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. What kind of presentation topics are likely to be assigned in education courses? Create a list of education courses on the board; then brainstorm possible topics for presentations in these courses.

This activity helps students think about how they will use the material from this chapter to develop effective presentations in other courses in the future.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTION AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTION

The following question may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. This question can be used as:

- homework
- a quiz
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- a topic to generate discussion
- a question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. What are the parts of a lecture?

A **lecture** is an informative speech for an audience of new student learners. Lectures typically include an overview, a statement of the thesis, a statement of the connection to previous work or topics covered, a discussion of main points, and a preview of the next assignment.

ACTIVITIES**Professor Interview**

Purpose: To learn what professors in other college courses expect from presentations in their classes.

Instructions: Each student should visit a professor in his or her major department to conduct a brief interview. Students should ask about the typical presentation in the professor's class and discuss the components of an effective presentation. A 1-page paper describing the interview should be completed.

So You Do the Lecture This Week

Purpose: To provide students with an opportunity to create their own college lectures.

Instructions: Each student should prepare a lecture for a course in his or her major. Use the guidelines in the text to create a lecture that contains an overview, a statement of the thesis, a statement of the connection to previous work or topics covered, a discussion of main points, and a preview of the next assignment.

Pair up class members, and let them deliver their lectures to their partners. Have each student write a brief description of the strengths and weaknesses of his or her lecture.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. Business courses typically require business and professional presentations.**
 - A. The *case study presentation* is a detailed illustration of a real or hypothetical business situation.
 - 1. Case study presentations include the background of the case, problems and issues involved, extenuating circumstances, potential solutions, and final recommendations.
- II. Characteristics of effective presentations in business courses**
 - A. Understanding the requirements.
 - B. Giving equal attention to oral and written assignments.
 - C. Preparing for follow-up questions.
 - D. Conducting timed rehearsals.
 - E. Rehearsing as a team.

KEY TERMS

case study a detailed analysis of a real or hypothetical and realistic business situation.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

- 1. Students often have personal experience giving presentations in other college courses. Conduct a panel discussion to explore experienced students' thoughts on their own presentations.

Organize a panel of students who have a variety of experiences from their own classes. After each student briefly discusses his or her experience, assign a 1-page response paper for audience members to compare and contrast the presentations. How are the presentation experiences similar? How are they different?

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

- 1. What kind of presentation topics are likely to be assigned in business courses? Create a list of business courses on the board; then brainstorm possible topics for presentations in these courses.

This activity helps students think about how they will use the material from this chapter to develop effective presentations in other courses in the future.

III. ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

Professor Interview

Purpose: To learn what professors in other college courses expect from presentations in their classes.

Instructions: Each student should visit a professor in his or her major department to conduct a brief interview. Students should ask about the typical presentation in the professor's class and discuss the components of an effective presentation. A 1-page paper describing the interview should be completed.

So You Do the Lecture This Week

Purpose: To provide students with an opportunity to create their own college lectures.

Instructions: Each student should prepare a lecture for a course in his or her major. Use the guidelines in the text to create a lecture that contains an overview, a statement of the thesis, a statement of the connection to previous work or topics covered, a discussion of main points, and a preview of the next assignment.

Pair up class members, and let them deliver their lectures to their partners. Have each student write a brief description of the strengths and weaknesses of his or her lecture.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. **Speaking assignments in nursing and allied health courses typically range from reviews of research articles in professional journals to reports on community service projects in a clinical setting.**
 - A. The *community service learning project* requires students to learn about and address a need or problem in a community agency.
 1. Community service learning project presentations include a description of the agency and its client base, an overview of the project and the speaker's role, descriptions of the accomplishments and problems encountered, the link between the service learning and the course content, and a final summary of what was learned.
 - B. The *case conference* is a treatment plan used by health care professionals to evaluate patients' conditions and outline treatment plans.
 1. Case conferences include descriptions of the patient's status, an explanation of the disease process, steps for treatment, patient and family goals, patient home-care plans, review of financial needs, and assessment of available resources.
 - C. The *shift report* is a treatment plan presented to an oncoming caregiver that gives a concise overview of the patient's status and needs.
 1. Shift reports include patient name, location, reason for care, physical status, length of stay, pertinent psychosocial information, and care needs.
 - D. The *policy recommendation report* is used to recommend adoption of a new or modified health practice or policy.
 1. Policy recommendation reports review existing practices, describe proposed recommendations, review existing scientific literature on the recommendation, and propose a plan of action.
- II. **Effective presentations in nursing and allied health courses provide both scientific information and assessments of practical conditions.**
 - A. Use evidence-based practice in which decisions are made based on current research and best practices.
 - B. Apply concepts in the literature to patient work.
 - C. Evaluate the results of interventions.

KEY TERMS

- community service learning project** a project in which students learn about and help address a need or problem in a community agency.
- case conference** an oral report prepared by health-care professionals evaluating a patient's condition and outlining a treatment.
- shift report** an oral report by a health-care worker that concisely relays patient status and needs to incoming caregivers.
- policy recommendation report** a type of oral presentation offering recommendations to solve a problem or address an issue.
- evidence-based practice** an approach to medical treatment in which caregivers make decisions based on current research and "best practices."

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Conduct a panel discussion to explore experienced students' thoughts on their presentations in other college courses.

Organize a panel of students who have a variety of experiences from their own classes. After each student briefly discusses his or her own experience, assign a 1-page response paper for audience members to compare and contrast the presentations. How are the presentation experiences similar? How are they different?

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. What kind of presentation topics are likely to be assigned in nursing and allied health courses? Create a list of nursing and allied health courses on the board, then brainstorm possible topics for presentations in these courses.

This activity helps students think about how they will use the material from this chapter to develop effective presentations in other courses in the future.

III. ADDITIONAL ACTIVITIES

Professor Interview

Purpose: To learn what professors in other college courses expect from presentations in their classes.

Instructions: Have each student visit a professor in his or her major department to conduct a brief interview. Students should ask about the typical presentation in the professor's class and discuss the components of an effective presentation. A 1-page paper describing the interview should be completed.

So You Do the Lecture This Week

Purpose: To provide students with an opportunity to create their own lectures.

Instructions: Each student should prepare a lecture for a course in his or her major. Use the guidelines in the text to create a lecture that contains an overview, a statement of the thesis, a statement of the connection to previous work or topics covered, a discussion of main points, and a preview of the next assignment.

Pair up class members, and let them deliver their lectures to their partners. Have each student write a brief description of the strengths and weaknesses of his or her lecture.

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

I. Becoming an effective group participant

- A. Most of us will spend a substantial portion of our educational and professional lives participating in *small groups* (from three to twenty people).
- B. Effective group participants focus on the group's goals, avoid behavior that detracts from these goals, and follow an *agenda*.
 - 1. Adopt constructive group roles. Group members usually assume two types of roles within a group, both a task role and an interpersonal role.
 - a. *Task roles* relate directly to the accomplishments of the objectives and missions of the group.
 - b. *Interpersonal roles* are styles of interacting in the group.
 - c. Group members should avoid *counterproductive roles*, in which the focus is on individual instead of group needs.
- C. Productive conflict is *issues-based conflict*, in which members critically debate issues on the merits, rather than *person-based* conflict, in which members argue about one another, thereby wasting time and impairing motivation.
- D. Avoid *groupthink*. Group members should avoid the tendency to allow feelings of group loyalty to stand in the way of critically evaluating information and ideas.
 - 1. Groups prone to groupthink typically exhibit specific behaviors.
 - a. Participants reach a consensus and shun conflict to avoid hurting others' feelings, but they do so without genuinely agreeing.
 - b. Members who do not agree with the majority of the group are pressured to conform.
 - c. Disagreement, tough questions, and counterproposals are discouraged.
 - d. More effort is spent rationalizing or justifying the decision than testing it.

II. When leading a group, capable leadership is critical to the success of the group effort.

- A. The most effective type of leader is the *participative leader*, one who makes decisions with the group.

1. Other types of leaders are less effective:
 - a. Autocratic leaders make decisions and announce them to the group.
 - b. Consultive leaders make decisions after discussing them with the group.
 - c. Delegative leaders ask the group to make the decision.
- B. Group leaders should be a catalyst in setting group goals and ensuring that they are reached.
 1. Leaders should help the group identify the problem, map out a strategy, set a performance goal, identify the resources necessary to achieve the goal, recognize contingencies that may arise, and obtain feedback.
- C. Group leaders should encourage members' active participation.
 1. Leaders can encourage participation by directly asking members to contribute, by redirecting the discussion, by setting a positive tone, and by making use of *devil's advocacy* and *dialectical inquiry*.

III. Making decisions in groups

- A. Effective groups make decisions using a deliberate process that all participants understand and are committed to using. Group decision making is best accomplished through the six-step process suggested by Dewey.
 1. Identify the problem.
 - a. Each participant should share his or her perceptions of the problem.
 - b. The leader should summarize these and try to make them a cohesive whole.
 2. Conduct research and analysis.
 - a. The group may need to conduct research to gather information needed to analyze the problem or to investigate past solutions to similar problems.
 3. Establish guidelines and criteria.
 - a. This should be an interactive process that ends in a consensus.
 - b. The criteria should be written down for later use.
 4. Generate solutions.
 - a. Do not debate the merits of the proposals at this point.
 5. Select the best solution.
 - a. The members should develop a short list of alternatives and select the one that best fits their needs.
 6. Evaluate the solution.
 - a. The evaluation should include an assessment of the criteria used.

KEY TERMS

small group a collection of between three and twenty people.

productive conflict a form of group conflict in which members clarify questions, challenge ideas, present counterexamples, consider worst-case scenarios, and reformulate proposals.

person-based conflict conflict in which group members personalize conflicts over issues, thereby wasting time, detracting the group from its mission, and impairing motivation.

issues-based conflict conflict that allows group members to test and debate ideas and potential solutions. It requires each member to ask tough questions, press for clarification, and present alternative views.

collective mind a state of mind adopted by group members in which they determine that the group communication will be critical, careful, consistent, and conscientious.

participative leader a leader who facilitates a group's activities and interaction in ways that lead to a desired outcome.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTIONS

What makes an effective group participant?

Being an effective group participant requires keeping sight of the group's goals and avoiding behavior that detracts from these goals. Conflict should be handled productively, by focusing on **issues-based** rather than **person-based conflict**. To avoid **groupthink**, participants should rigorously apply critical thinking skills to the decision-making process. Group members should avoid counterproductive behaviors exemplified in **counterproductive roles** such as "hogging the floor," "blocking," and "recognition seeking." Instead, focus on productive **task roles** and **interpersonal roles** that promote cohesion and help the group achieve its goals.

What makes an effective group leader?

Good leaders organize, structure, guide, and facilitate a group's activities and interaction in ways that will lead to a desired outcome. One of the primary responsibilities of the leader is to **set goals** and ensure that they are met. To help the group meet its goals, the leader can engage in a process in which the group (1) identifies the problem, (2) maps out a strategy, (3) sets a performance goal, (4) identifies the resources necessary to achieve the goal, (5) recognizes contingencies that may arise, and (6) obtains feedback. Another important function is to encourage active participation among all members. The leader can do this in several ways: by directly asking members to contribute, by redirecting the discussion, and by setting a positive tone.

How can a group go about reaching a solution to a problem or issue that it has been charged with solving?

Group decision making is best accomplished through a six-step process: (1) identifying the problem, (2) conducting research and analysis, (3) establishing guidelines and criteria, (4) generating solutions, (5) selecting the best solution, and (6) evaluating the solution.

What are the four types of leaders? What type of leader is the most effective?

The four types of leaders include (1) **autocratic leaders**, who make decisions and announce them to the group; (2) **consultive leaders**, who make decisions after discussing them with the group; (3) **delegative leaders**, who ask the group to make the decision; and (4) **participative leaders**, who make decisions with the group. The most effective type of leader is the participative leader.

II. DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Explain one of your own experiences as a member of a group (a committee, campus club, dormitory government, or fraternity or sorority, for example). Describe the purpose of the group, the setting, and the other members. When making decisions, what roles did each of the members fulfill? Illustrate these roles with specific instances of behaviors or interactions.

Assign this activity as a short paper to be handed in during the next class period. Consider that describing the purpose of the group, the setting, and other members may be something that many students have never done before. In addition, students may have never thought about the roles they fulfill or the purpose of roles in their groups. Therefore, discovering these things may inform and enlighten students about their groups, the part they play in these groups, and the role of communication in this setting.

2. What are some ways in which individuals who assume counterproductive roles in groups negatively affect the ability of the group to work together and make decisions?

For one thing, counterproductive roles serve to frustrate the other members, thus causing the counterproductive individuals to be ostracized from the rest of the group. In turn, this eventually prevents many perspectives from being exposed simply because the counterproductive members are not encouraged to participate. Second, a great deal of time is lost because other group members must expend effort in dealing with the counterproductive individuals. Encourage students to list other negative effects of counterproductive roles.

3. Why is it important for a group to have a clear set of goals?

Articulating goals requires the group to identify the problem or issue that needs to be resolved, which can be beneficial. A set of goals builds cohesion among members, allowing them to form a common bond. In addition, the process of setting goals may lead to the establishment of criteria used to ensure that goals are met. Finally, clearly set goals provide the group with a sense of purpose, allowing its members to answer the question, "Why are we here?" Groups that are not able to answer this question will eventually dissolve.

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

1. Approximately how many times have you had the opportunity to serve as a group leader? How would you assess your leadership skills in these instances?

Were you able to effectively set goals and encourage active participation among group members? If you have never served as a group leader, do you look forward to that opportunity? Why or why not?

Have students think of one group in which they currently hold a leadership position. Remind students that leaders can be formal (*designated*) as well as informal (*emergent*). (These alternate terms are not used in the text.) Ask them whether that role was emergent or designated, and have them identify instances during which their leadership skills have led to the attainment of goals or important changes in their group's decision-making process. Have students share their stories with the class, which will help them realize that leadership opportunities are constantly present in the context of group communication.

2. Recall a situation in which a group you were part of was guilty of groupthink. Did you go along with the group decision even though you didn't agree with it just to avoid causing conflict? Or did you pressure others to go along with the decision to keep them from voicing dissent? Analyzing the decision in retrospect, was it the right decision?

Students should be able to identify symptoms of groupthink, such as avoiding conflict, taking in information without analyzing it, conforming to or instigating group pressure, and so on. Before engaging in this activity, students should identify the characteristics of groupthink through discussion.

II. GROUP ACTIVITIES

1. Not all tasks, projects, or activities in an organization are best performed by groups or teams; sometimes individuals working alone are most productive. Form a small group of four or five people, and list three different situations in which it would be productive for individuals to work alone. For each, explain why you think greater effectiveness and efficiency would result from individuals working alone.

Students should be able to brainstorm some situations, but it may help to start the discussion with a few examples. For instance, individual work may be more productive for projects that have a rapidly approaching deadline. This is because group work often takes more time and effort than does individual work. Also, individual work may be better suited to projects that are simple enough to be accomplished by one person or that do not necessarily require the critical analysis and planning that would be better accomplished in a group setting. Students should be able to add to this list during discussion.

2. Form a group of four or five people. Imagine that you are a group of employees who work for Nike. You have been given the responsibility of selecting a celebrity to endorse a new line of "youth turbolight" shoes. This person will be seen on television commercials and in newspaper and magazine advertisements. Using the group decision-making process, select a celebrity. While making your decision, consider what kind of image you

want the product to portray. Which celebrity will best help create that image and convey the right message to your audience?

Group members should recognize that they need to generate the overall goal, which pertains to the image Nike wants to project. Going through the process, members must conduct research and analysis by finding out such things as consumer demand or desires as well as which celebrities or figures are available for hire. Members then establish criteria for the ideal type of celebrity for the promotion. Subsequently, the group brainstorms a list of potential celebrities to consider. Using the established criteria, each candidate is assessed until the best person is chosen, yielding the group's decision or solution. Finally, group members must reflect on the decision they made and the process they went through to arrive at that decision. This final step requires members to identify the stages that were successful as well as aspects that could have been improved.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITIES

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
 - quizzes
 - in-class work (individually or in groups)
 - topics to generate discussion
 - question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students
1. List the four characteristics of groups that are prone to groupthink. Can you think of any event in history that may have resulted from groupthink? Has groupthink occurred in any group of which you were a member?
 - Participants reach a consensus and shun conflict to avoid hurting others' feelings, but they do so without genuinely agreeing.
 - Members who do not agree with the majority of the group are pressured to conform.
 - Disagreement, tough questions, and counterproposals are discouraged.
 - More effort is spent rationalizing or justifying the decision than testing it.
 2. What are task roles? Interpersonal roles? Counterproductive roles?

task roles: roles that directly relate to the accomplishment of the objectives of a group.

interpersonal roles: roles that facilitate group interaction.

counterproductive roles: negative interpersonal roles within the group setting in which participants focus on individual rather than group needs; these needs are usually irrelevant to the task and are not oriented toward maintenance of the group as a team.

3. Making group decisions can be very difficult. The best way to accomplish effective group decisions is through Dewey's six-step process. Identify the six steps.
 - Identify the problem.
 - Conduct research and analysis.
 - Establish guidelines and criteria.
 - Generate solutions.
 - Select the best solution.
 - Evaluate the chosen solution.

ACTIVITIES**Group Workshop**

Purpose: To give students an opportunity to work in a group and to illustrate some of the concepts in Chapter 34 of the text while also reviewing general public speaking concepts.

Instructions: Use the following guidelines:

1. Instructor divides students into three teams of ten (or fewer).
2. Students need to develop instruments and procedures for providing performance feedback to team members in order to enhance individual growth and group effectiveness.
3. Each team must design and manage a class workshop on specific concepts related to one of the following three major topic areas:
 - a. Team Workshop 1: Basic Public Speaking Skills and Obstacles
 - b. Team Workshop 2: Informing Diverse Audiences
 - c. Team Workshop 3: Persuading Diverse Audiences
4. Each workshop should include (a) a 1-page synopsis of the major conceptual issues, (b) a demonstration of key concepts, and (c) activities that involve members of the class.

Grading Sheet for Workshop

Team Workshop No. _____

Evaluation Category

1. Quality of handouts (e.g., summary of major conceptual issues)
2. Demonstration of key concepts
3. How well the workshop involved members of the class

Points

_____/

_____/

_____/

Comments:

Strong points

Weak points

Evaluating Your Group

Purpose: For students to become familiar with the terms and ideas involved with effective group participants and effective group leaders.

Instructions: This activity works well as an out-of-class activity, perhaps even as a homework assignment. It can be conducted in one of two ways:

1. Students pick a group to which they do not belong and observe or interview members.
2. Students pick a group to which they belong.

Note: These groups can be family, friends, classmates, co-workers, or even groups in this class.

Students should consider the terms and explanations for both **effective group participants** (issues-based rather than personal-based conflict, groupthink, counterproductive roles, tasks, and interpersonal roles) and **effective group leaders** (the four steps leaders can engage in to help the group meet its goals and ways to encourage participation). Using these terms and explanations, have students write up an evaluation of the group.

Leadership and Problem Solving

Purpose: To illustrate problem solving and leadership roles.

Materials: A box of straws and twist-ties.

Instructions: Divide students into groups of four or five, and give each group a large pile of both straws and twist-ties (about thirty to forty). Inform each group that its goal is to build the highest freestanding tower with the materials it has been given. The group with the tallest freestanding tower at the end of the allotted time wins (fifteen minutes is usually sufficient).

Note: Usually, the students and the instructor come to realize that it is not the highest tower that wins, because the students are so concerned with height that they forget to make sure it is freestanding.

Once students have completed the task, have each group use the six steps to decision making in the text (p. 206) to determine how well the group worked toward accomplishing the goal.

Discussion: Each group can report to the entire class about how well its members worked together, what each member's role was, and why the group did or did not succeed in accomplishing its goal.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Andrews, P. H., & Baird, J. E., Jr. (1995). *Communication for business and the professions* (6th ed.). Dubuque, IA: Brown & Benchmark.
- Dewey, J. (1950). *How we think*. Boston: D.C. Heath.
- Fisher, B. A. (1970). Decision emergence: Phases in group decision making. *Speech Monographs*, 20, 51–64.
- Hamilton, C., & Parker, C. (1990). *Communication for results: A guide for business and professions*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Hoffman, L. R., & Maier, N. R. F. (1964). Valence in the adoption of solutions by problem-solving groups: Concept, method, and results. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 69, 264–71.
- Johnson, J. R., & Szcupakiewicz, N. (1987, April). The public speaking course: Is it preparing students with work-related public speaking skills? *Communication Education*, 36, 131–37.
- Lesikar, R. V., Pettit, J. D., & Flatley, M. E. (1993). *Basic business communication* (6th ed.). Homewood, IL: Irwin.
- Moore, C. M. (1994). *Group techniques for idea building* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- O’Hair, D., Friedrich, G. W., & Shaver, L. D. (1998). *Strategic communication in business and the professions* (3rd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Quinn, R. E., Hildebrandt, H. W., Rogers, P. S., & Thompson, M. P. (1991). A competing values framework for analyzing presentational communication in management contexts. *Journal of Business Communication*, 28, 213–32.
- Rogers, P. S. (1988). Distinguishing public and presentational speaking. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 2, 102–15.
- Seiler, W. J., Baudhuin, E. S., & Schuelke, L. D. (1982). *Communication in business and professional organizations*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Wisner, R. D. (1989, July–August). Making an effective technical presentation. *Research-Technology Management*, 9–10.

SUGGESTED WEB SITES

- Resources for Financial Success (<<http://www.cyberhaven.com/booksforbusiness/pubspeaker.html>>)
- Professional Speaker.com (<<http://www.professionalspeaker.com>>)

CHAPTER CONTENT OUTLINE

- I. Presentational speaking**
 - A. Business presentations usually follow a traditional approach using specific, task-oriented, and management- or client-directed topics.
 - B. Audience participation occurs more frequently in business presentations than in traditional public speeches.

- II. Five types of business and professional presentations**
 - A. The *sales presentation* attempts to lead a potential buyer to purchase a service or a product described by the presenter.
 - 1. The audience depends on who has the authority to make the purchase under consideration.
 - 2. Sales presentations are most successful when the speaker clearly shows how the product or service meets the needs of the buyer.
 - 3. Monroe's motivated sequence should be used to organize a sales presentation (see Chapter 24).
 - B. The *proposal* persuades listeners to favor one course of action over another.
 - 1. The audience can vary from a single person to a large group.
 - 2. Brief proposals should state recommendations, provide an overview of the problem, and review the facts on which the recommendations are based.
 - C. The *staff report* informs managers and other employees of new developments that affect them and their work. This can involve a new plan or a report on the completion of a project or a task.
 - 1. The audience is usually a group, but it may be an individual.
 - 2. Formal staff reports typically include a statement of the problem or question under consideration, a description and discussion of pertinent facts, and a statement of conclusions followed by recommendations.
 - D. The *progress report* updates clients or principals on developments in an ongoing project.
 - 1. The audience can vary greatly, and questions are usually common.
 - 2. A progress report often begins with a brief overview of the progress; goes on to describe new developments, personnel changes, time spent on tasks, and supplies used and costs incurred; and provides an estimate of future tasks to be completed.
 - E. The *crisis-response presentation* reassures an organization's various audiences and restores its credibility in the face of potentially damaging situations.
 - 1. The presentation may target one, several, or multiple audiences, both inside and outside of the organization.

2. It may use a variety of organizational strategies ranging from denial to admitting responsibility and asking for forgiveness.
3. Depending on the issue and audience(s) involved, the problem-solution and refutation patterns of organization should be followed (see Chapter 24).

KEY TERMS

presentational speaking a type of oral presentation in which individuals or groups deliver reports addressing colleagues, clients, or customers within a business or professional environment.

sales presentation a type of oral presentation that attempts to lead a potential buyer to purchase a service or product described by the presenter.

motivated sequence a five-step process of persuasion developed by Alan Monroe.

proposal a type of business or professional presentation in which the speaker provides information needed for decisions related to modifying or adopting a product, procedure, or policy.

staff report a report that informs managers and other employees of new developments relating to personnel that affect them and their work.

progress report a report that updates clients or principals on developments in an ongoing project.

crisis-response presentation a type of oral presentation in which the speaker seeks to reassure an organization's various audiences ("publics") and restore its credibility in the face of potentially reputation-damaging situations.

business and professional ethics defines how individuals within a company or a profession integrate ethical ground rules into policies, practices, and decision making.

CHAPTER STUDY GUIDE

I. SUMMARY QUESTION

What are five common types of presentations that might be delivered in the business and professional arena?

Although there are countless types of business and professional organizations and related opportunities for speaking, you will probably find yourself, either individually or as part of a group, delivering one of five kinds of presentations. These are **sales presentations, proposals, staff reports, progress reports, and crisis-response presentations.**

CONTENT PRESENTATION IDEAS

I. STUDENT ACTIVITY

1. Consider the occupation you hope to work at after receiving your college degree. Which kinds of presentations do you think will be required in your job? Why?

The main goal of this activity is to encourage students to conduct research in their chosen field or major. It may help students to write a short paper describing the types of presentations they expect to make in the workplace. Some majors are sales-oriented, and therefore will require more sales presentations. People who aspire to managerial positions may anticipate giving staff reports. In addition, group work is common in today's workplace, and it requires employees to be able to create progress reports on the status of group projects for managers and clients. Have students list other scenarios in which certain types of presentations will be made.

II. GROUP ACTIVITY

1. Divide the class into groups of about five students, and assign a “brainstorm challenge.” Give each student a notecard, and ask students to write down the names of their prospective future professions. Group members should trade completed notecards with members of the group. Ask each group to conduct a brainstorming session and to make a list of interesting applications and challenges from course material for the professions written on the cards they receive. The group that comes up with the greatest number of interesting applications of course material wins.

III. ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS AND ACTIVITY

QUESTIONS

The following questions may be used by instructors to help illustrate important points in the chapter and to facilitate students' learning of this material. These questions can be used as:

- homework questions
- quizzes
- in-class work (individually or in groups)
- topics to generate discussion
- question-and-answer sessions between instructor and students

1. What is presentational speaking?

Rather than deliver a formal public speech, you may be called upon to address a small group of fellow employees, colleagues, or customers about business or professional issues. Such presentations are defined as *presentational speaking*.

2. Identify the five types of presentations, and give an example of each.
 - sales presentations
 - proposals
 - staff reports
 - progress reports
 - crisis-response presentations

ACTIVITY**Business Presentations**

Purpose: To provide students with the opportunity to work as a team and to become familiar with the five most common types of presentations in the business and professional arena.

Instructions: Divide students into small groups (three to five members), and assign each group one type of presentation: sales presentation, proposal, staff report, progress report, or crisis-response presentation. Then, as a class, come up with a type of company; it can be real or hypothetical. Again, as a class, develop some demographic information about the company: what the company does/makes/sells, how many people it employs, its location and current projects. Once these items have been established, each group will work together to develop its report and its presentation. This can be done as a brief in-class project or as a larger assignment that entails work outside class.

RECOMMENDED SUPPLEMENTARY RESOURCES

- Andrews, P. H., & Baird, J. E., Jr. (1995). *Communication for business and the professions* (6th ed.). Dubuque, IA: Brown & Benchmark.
- Dance, F. E. X. (1987). What do you mean presentational speaking? *Management Communication Quarterly*, 1, 260–71.
- Dewey, J. (1950). *How we think*. Boston: D.C. Heath.
- Fisher, B. A. (1970). Decision emergence: Phases in group decision making. *Speech Monographs*, 20, 51–64.
- Hamilton, C., & Parker, C. (1990). *Communication for results: A guide for business and professions*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
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- Moore, C. M. (1994). *Group techniques for idea building* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- O’Hair, D., Friedrich, G. W., & Shaver, L. D. (1998). *Strategic communication in business and the professions* (3rd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Quinn, R. E., Hildebrandt, H. W., Rogers, P. S., & Thompson, M. P. (1991). A competing values framework for analyzing presentational communication in management contexts. *Journal of Business Communication*, 28, 213–32.
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- Wisner, R. D. (1989, July–August). Making an effective technical presentation. *Research-Technology Management*, 9–10.
- Wolvin, A. D., & Corley, D. (1984). The technical speech communication course: A view from the field. *Association for Communication Administration Bulletin*, 49, 83–91.

SUGGESTED WEB SITES

- Resources for Financial Success (<<http://www.cyberhaven.com/booksforbusiness/pubspeaker.html>>)
- Professional Speaker.com (<<http://www.professionalspeaker.com>>)

Part 4

Additional Resources

The following are suggested additional resources. However, this list is by no means exhaustive. Therefore, the names and addresses of the following search engines are provided in case you need to find further supplementary materials.

SEARCH ENGINES

- Yahoo! (<<http://www.yahoo.com>>)
- Excite (<<http://www.excite.com>>)
- Lycos (<<http://www.lycos.com>>)
- Dogpile (<<http://www.dogpile.com>>)
- Electric Library (<<http://www.elibrary.com/id/2525/search.cgi>>)
- Infoseek (<<http://www.infoseek.com>>)

HELPFUL WEB SITES FOR TEACHERS AND STUDENTS

GENERAL INFORMATION

- Internet Public Library (<<http://ipl.sils.umich.edu>>)
- World Wide Web Virtual Library (<<http://lcweb.loc.gov>>)

FACTS AND STATISTICS

- Government Statistics (<<http://www.fedstats.gov>>)
- Factbook on Intelligence (CIA) (<<http://www.odci.gov/cia/publications/facttell/index.html>>)
- United Nations Web Server (<<http://www.un.org>>)

- Library of Congress (<<http://cweb.loc.gov>>)
- National Science Foundation (<<http://www.nsf.gov>>)
- Smithsonian Institution (<<http://www.si.edu>>)
- Statistical Abstract of the United States (<http://www.census.gov/stat_abstract>)

PUBLIC SPEAKING

- History Channel: Great Speeches (<<http://www.historychannel.com/speeches/index.html>>)
- MediaScope (<<http://www.mediascope.org>>)
- Freedom Forum First Amendment Center (<<http://www.fac.org>>)

STYLE SHEETS

These are good references for students:

- APA Frequently Asked Questions (<<http://www.apa.org/journals/faq.html>>)
- *APA Publication Manual* Crib Sheet (<<http://www.psychwww.com>>)
- MLA-Style Citations (<http://www.columbia.edu/cu/cup/cgos/idx_basic.html>)

TEACHING WITH VIDEOS

For information on using feature films in the classroom, refer to the following sources:

- Costanzo, W. V. (1992). *Twelve great films on video and how to teach them*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED342033).
- Gregg, V. R. (1995). *Using feature films to promote active learning in the college classroom*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED389367).
- Hinck, S. S. (1995). *Integrating media into the communication classroom as an experimental learning tool: A guide to processing and debriefing*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED399573).
- Moss, R. F. (1985). English composition and the feature film. *Journal of General Education*, 37, 122–43.
- Proctor, R. F. (1995). Teaching communication courses with feature films: A second look. *Communication Education*, 40, 393–400.

For examples of how feature films can be applied to specific communication courses:

- Alder, R. B. (1995). Teaching communication theories with *Jungle Fever*. *Communication Education*, 44, 157–65.
- Fisher, B. J. (1992). Exploring ageist stereotypes through commercial motion pictures. *Teaching Sociology*, 20, 280–84.
- Griffin, C. L. (1995). Teaching rhetorical criticism with *Thelma and Louise*. *Communication Education*, 44, 165–76.
- Griffin, K., & Sherriffs, E. (1994). *Teaching values through American movies*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED373543).

- Johnson, S. D., & Iacobucci (1995). Teaching small group communication with *The Dream Team*. *Communication Education*, 44, 177–82.
- Leland, P. (1994). Using student enthusiasm for contemporary film to improve thinking and writing skills. *Teaching and Change*, 2, 31–43.
- McGowan, L. (1993). *St. Elmo's Fire* as a tool for discussing conflict management. *Speech Communication Teacher*, 7, 12–13.
- O'Mara, J. (1991). *Teaching intercultural communication with feature films: An analysis of Witness*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED366765).
- Proctor, R. F. (1991). *Teaching group communication with feature films*. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED343175).
- Proctor, R. F. (1993). Using feature films to teach critical thinking: Multiple morals to the stories. *Speech Communication Teacher*, 7, 11–12.
- Raby, M. J. (1995). "I lost it at the movies": Teaching culture through cinematic doublets. *French Review*, 68, 837–45.

ORDERING EDUCATIONAL PUBLIC SPEAKING VIDEOS

- Summit Consulting Group, Inc.: services, speaking topics, books, videos, and audiocassettes (<<http://www.summitconsulting.com>>)
- Hathaway, Patti, CSP: motivational speaker, specializing in resistance to change in the workplace; offers topical speaking engagements, articles, newsletters, books, and videos (<<http://www.thechangeagent.com>>)
- Pew Center Videos (<<http://www.pewcenter.org/doingcj/videos/index.html>>)
- Broadcast Education Association (<<http://www.beaweb.org>>)

Part 5

Sample Speeches for Analysis and Discussion

Free the Children Address before the U.S. Congressional Subcommittee on International Relations and Human Rights by Craig Kielburger

Eulogy for Princess Diana by Earl Spencer

Commencement Address at Drew University by Wendy Kopp

Testimony against Legalized Gambling before the U.S. House Judiciary Committee by the Reverend Tom Grey

Live Longer and Healthier: Stop Eating Meat! by Renzi Stone

Making Dreams Reality by Amber Mixon

Address at the Time Magazine 75th Anniversary Celebration by President William Jefferson Clinton

Late-Night Reflections of a College President: A Virtual University by Nancy S. Dye

Free the Children Address before the U.S. Congressional Subcommittee on International Relations and Human Rights **by Craig Kielburger**

Craig Kielburger's work as an advocate for Free the Children has offered him the opportunity to deliver hundreds of persuasive speeches to enlist the support of individuals, organizations, and governments to protect children from exploitation. In the following speech, Kielburger faces a formidable challenge as a thirteen-year-

old addressing the U.S. Congressional Subcommittee on International Relations and Human Rights. He proves his competence and eloquence early on, earning his audience's attention while using both his youthful perspective and his expertise to great effect throughout the speech. As you read Kielburger's words, keep in mind what you have learned about developing persuasive arguments.

June 11, 1996

Mr. Chairman, Members of the Committee, Ladies and Gentlemen:

I am pleased to be here today to represent children. Child labor affects children—children are being exploited and denied their basic rights, children are being abused. I believe that children must be heard when speaking about child labor—I believe that we must be part of the solution.

I recently spent seven and a half weeks traveling through South Asia to meet with working and street children. I wanted to better understand their reality—to ask them what they wanted so that we would not be imposing our Western culture on them.

I can tell you stories of what I saw—stories which would shock you. I met children as young as four years old, working in brick kilns making bricks seven days a week from dawn to dusk, children working 14 hours a day loading dangerous chemicals into fire-cracker tubes, children working in metal and glass factories, children physically and verbally abused. Some children I'll never forget—like Nagashar, who worked as a bonded laborer in a carpet factory. He had scars all over his body, including his voice box, where he had been branded with red hot irons for trying to escape. Or the nine-year-old boy with a deep scar that ran across the top of his head where he was had [sic] been hit with a metal bar for making a mistake on the job. Then there was Muniala, the eight-year-old girl who worked in a recycling plant taking apart used syringes and needles gathered from hospitals and the streets. She wore no shoes and no protective gear. No one had ever told her about AIDS. These are the working children.

Not just facts and statistics but real children.

Some of you may say, "Well, these children are poor. Don't they have to work to help their families survive?" Studies by UNICEF, the ILO and other nongovernmental organizations have shown that child labor is actually keeping Third World countries poor, because a child at work means an adult out of work. Factory owners prefer to hire children because they are cheaper labor, easily intimidated and won't organize trade unions. Kailash Satyarthi, who last year won the Robert Kennedy International Award for Human Rights, heads 150 nongovernmental organizations working with child laborers in South Asia. He stresses that India has 50 million child workers, but 55 million adults unemployed. And because these children are not able to go to school they remain illiterate, and the cycle of poverty continues. Child labor keeps people poor.

As consumers, we bear part of the responsibility. Is it fair for children to be sitting on the ground for 12 hours a day, for pennies a day sewing famous brand name soccer balls—which they will never get to play with—soccer balls shipped to countries like ours for your children, your grandchildren, or for me?

It is simply a question of greed and exploitation—exploitation of the most weak

and vulnerable. These greedy people include companies going into the Third World countries contracting out work to the cheapest factories which will produce goods up to standard. This only encourages factory owners to seek out the cheapest labor—underpaid workers and children. Poverty is no excuse for exploitation. Poverty is no excuse for child abuse.

We, the children of North America, have formed an organization called Free the Children. Free the Children is a youth movement dedicated to the elimination of child labor and the exploitation of children. Most of our members are between 10 and 15 years old. We now have groups in provinces across Canada and chapters quickly spreading throughout the United States—in Washington, San Francisco, Maryland, Idaho, Iowa. Calls are coming in from all over the world—from young people, from children, who want to help. You don't need a lot of committee meetings to understand that exploiting children in child labor is wrong. We may be young, but it is very clear to us that this child abuse must stop.

We believe that children must be removed from factories, and jobs [must be] given to adult members of the family—adults who can negotiate for better rights and working conditions.

We believe that companies which go into Third World countries for cheap labor must pay their workers a just wage so that children will not have to work to supplement their parents' income. These same countries should also be willing to put money back into the country to help in the education and the protection of children.

We have consumers calling our Free the Children office from all over North America, telling us that they don't want to buy products made from the suffering children.

That is why a labeling system with independent monitoring, which clearly identifies items not made by child labor, is necessary. Another solution is to hold importers responsible for making sure that the products they are importing into North America have not been made from the exploitation of children. Consumers have a right to know who made the products they are buying.

In May 1995, UNICEF set an example with a no-child-labor clause in its buying policy based on the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child.

I have been told that the United States has a Tariff Act passed in 1930. Section 3:07 prohibits products being made from prison or unindentured labor from coming into the United States. If this is true, then why are carpets, soccer balls, brickwork and other items made by children in bonded and slave labor not banned from coming into the United States under this law?

Child labor should not be used, however, as an excuse to stop trade with a developing country. We are advocating selective buying, not a boycott of all products, which could harm children even more.

I don't know why anyone would oppose laws which protect the children of the world. Maybe companies, sports and TV personalities, maybe consumers, might have said until recently that they don't know about child labor and the exploitation of workers in Third World countries, but now they do. There is no excuse anymore. We have all been educated. Knowledge implies responsibility. You and I, all of us, are now responsible to help these children.

Eliminating child labor comes down to a question of political will. Why are countries with a high incidence of child labor spending on average 30 times more on the

military than on primary education? How serious are world leaders about helping these children? Where is the social conscience of multinational corporations?

I have hundreds of pictures of children which I could have shown you today. I have brought only one. When I was in Calcutta, I participated in a rally with 250 children who marched through the street with banners chanting, "We want freedom. We want an education." Children should not work in hazardous industries. Never again. Today I am here to speak for these children, to be their voice. You are an influential nation. You have the power in your words, in your actions and in your policy making to give children hope for a better life.

What will you do to help these children?

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the general purpose of this speech? What is the specific purpose and thesis?

The general purpose of this speech is persuasive. The specific purpose is to persuade the audience to participate in remedying child exploitation. The speaker's thesis is "Child labor affects children—children are being exploited and denied their basic rights, children are being abused."

2. What plan for organizing persuasive speeches best fits the way Craig Kielburger structures his argument?

Monroe's motivated sequence fits the organizational pattern of Kielburger's argument. He gains the audience's attention, presents a need (a problem), suggests a means of satisfying that need (or a solution to the problem), uses visualization to enforce his message, and concludes with a direct call to action.

3. How does Kielburger capture the audience's attention?

Kielburger captures the audience's attention with shocking personal stories of what he witnessed in his travels through South Asia. For example, he talks about 4-year-olds working in brick kilns, children working with dangerous chemicals, and other forms of abuse suffered by these children.

4. How does the speaker establish his own credibility?

Kielburger establishes his credibility in two ways: he asserts his seriousness by (1) stating that children (like himself) should be involved in discussing child labor and developing solutions to the problem, and (2) offering firsthand knowledge of the tragic results of child labor.

5. What specific satisfaction to this need, or solution to this problem, does Kielburger offer?

First, Kielburger describes the Free the Children organization and cites the increasing international support for its goals. These goals include two specific solutions: (1) Hold importers responsible for how their merchandise is produced so they don't take advantage of child labor, and (2) create a labeling system that allows consumers to identify products made without exploiting children. Second, satisfaction of the need to abolish child exploitation is illustrated by

Kielburger's argument that if consumers can easily identify products made without child labor, they will make the socially responsible choice and purchase those products.

6. Describe the visual imagery that Kielburger uses to drive his message home.

At the end of the speech, he describes a photograph of a rally in Calcutta in which children marched through the street with banners, chanting, "We want freedom. We want an education."

7. What specific action does Kielburger request of his audience?

He notes that the United States is an influential nation and that its citizens have power in their words, their actions, and policy making. He asks what the audience will do to help these children. Thus, he specifically asks audience members to act by wielding the power they possess.

Eulogy for Princess Diana by Earl Spencer

In the summer of 1997, the sudden death of Diana, princess of Wales, in an automobile accident in Paris shocked the world and inspired a tremendous outpouring of grief. Considering how difficult it is to deliver any eulogy, imagine the added complexity that Earl Spencer, Diana's brother, faced in addressing a worldwide audience about a well-loved international celebrity.

I stand before you today the representative of a family in grief, in a country in mourning before a world in shock.

We are all united not only in our desire to pay our respects to Diana but rather in our need to do so.

For such was her extraordinary appeal that the tens of millions of people taking part in this service all over the world via television and radio, who never actually met her, feel that they, too, lost someone close to them in the early hours of Sunday morning. It is a more remarkable tribute to Diana than I can ever hope to offer her today.

Diana was the very essence of compassion, of duty, of style, of beauty. All over the world she was a symbol of selfless humanity, a standard-bearer for the rights of the truly downtrodden, a truly British girl who transcended nationality, someone with a natural nobility who was classless, who proved in the last year that she needed no royal title to continue to generate her particular brand of magic.

Today is our chance to say "thank you" for the way you brightened our lives, even though God granted you but half a life. We will all feel cheated that you were taken from us so young and yet we must learn to be grateful that you came along at all.

Only now you are gone do we truly appreciate what we are now without and we want you to know that life without you is very, very difficult.

We have all despaired at our loss over the past week, and only the strength of the message you gave us through your years of giving has afforded us the strength to move forward.

There is a temptation to rush to canonize your memory. There is no need to do so. You stand tall enough as a human being of unique qualities not to need to be seen as a saint. Indeed, to sanctify your memory would be to miss out on the very core of your being, your wonderfully mischievous sense of humor with the laugh that bent you double, your joy for life transmitted wherever you took your smile, and the sparkle in those unforgettable eyes, your boundless energy which you could barely contain.

But your greatest gift was your intuition, and it was a gift you used wisely. This is what underpinned all your wonderful attributes. And if we look to analyze what it was about you that had such a wide appeal, we find it in your instinctive feel for what was really important in all our lives.

Without your God-given sensitivity, we should be immersed in greater ignorance at the anguish of AIDS and HIV sufferers, the plight of the homeless, the isolation of lepers, the random destruction of land mines. Diana explained to me once that it was her innermost feelings of suffering that made it possible for her to connect with her constituency of the rejected.

And here we come to another truth about her. For all the status, the glamour, the applause, Diana remained throughout a very insecure person at heart, almost childlike in her desire to be good for others so she could release herself from deep feelings of unworthiness of which her eating disorders were merely a symptom.

The world sensed this part of her character and cherished her for her vulnerability whilst admiring her for her honesty. The last time I saw Diana was on July the first, her birthday, in London, when typically she was not taking time to celebrate her special day with friends but was the guest of honor at a charity fund-raising evening.

She sparkled, of course, but I would rather cherish the days I spent with her in March when she came to visit me and my children in our home in South Africa. I am proud of the fact that apart from when she was on public display meeting President [Nelson] Mandela, we managed to continue to stop the ever-present paparazzi from getting a single picture of her.

That meant a lot to her.

These are days I will always treasure. It was as if we'd been transported back to our childhood, when we spent such an enormous amount of time together, the two youngest in the family.

Fundamentally she hadn't changed at all from the big sister who mothered me as a baby, fought with me at school and endured those long train journeys between our parents' homes with me at weekends. It is a tribute to her level-headedness and strength that despite the most bizarre life imaginable after her childhood, she remained intact, true to herself.

There is no doubt that she was looking for a new direction in her life at this time. She talked endlessly of getting away from England, mainly because of the treatment she received at the hands of the newspapers.

I don't think she ever understood why her genuinely good intentions were sneered at by the media, why there appeared to be a permanent quest on their behalf to bring her down. It is baffling. My own, and only, explanation is that genuine goodness is threatening to those at the opposite end of the moral spectrum.

It is a point to remember that of all the ironies about Diana, perhaps the greatest is this: that a girl given the name of the ancient goddess of hunting was, in the end, the most hunted person of the modern age.

She would want us today to pledge ourselves to protecting her beloved boys, William and Harry, from a similar fate. And I do this here, Diana, on your behalf. We will not allow them to suffer the anguish that used regularly to drive you to tearful despair.

Beyond that, on behalf of your mother and sisters, I pledge that we, your blood family, will do all we can to continue the imaginative and loving way in which you were steering these two exceptional young men, so that their souls are not simply immersed by duty and tradition but can sing openly as you planned.

We fully respect the heritage into which they have been born, and will always respect and encourage them in their royal role. But we, like you, recognize the need for them to experience as many different aspects of life as possible, to arm them spiritually and emotionally for the years ahead. I know you would have expected nothing less from us.

William and Harry, we all care desperately for you today. We are all chewed up with sadness at the loss of a woman who wasn't even our mother. How great your suffering is we cannot even imagine.

I would like to end by thanking God for the small mercies he has shown us at this dreadful time; for taking Diana at her most beautiful and radiant and when she had so much joy in her private life.

Above all, we give thanks for the life of a woman I am so proud to be able to call my sister: the unique, the complex, the extraordinary and irreplaceable Diana, whose beauty, both internal and external, will never be extinguished from our minds.

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DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the general purpose of this speech? What is its specific purpose and thesis?

The general purpose is to commemorate. Because this is a eulogy, the speech is intended to commemorate, or celebrate, the life of an individual—specifically, Princess Diana. Earl Spencer's thesis is "We are all united not only in our desire to pay our respects to Diana but rather in our need to do so."

2. Where does Spencer establish his own credibility to deliver Diana's eulogy?

In his very first sentence, when he states, "I stand before you today the representative of a family in grief. . . ."

3. Your text suggests four guidelines for giving a eulogy (balance delivery and emotions, refer to the family of the deceased, commemorate life rather than death, and be positive but realistic). How well does Spencer follow each of these guidelines?

With respect to balancing delivery and emotions, Spencer begins Diana's eulogy with a simple, yet powerful, expression of grief. Rather than an overly emotional display of his own grief, however, Spencer switches points of view at various junctures to control the delivery of his main points regarding Diana's character and her significance to the world's population. He effectively refers to the family of the deceased in his first sentence, as well as later on when he refers

to her children, Prince William and Prince Harry, and to her mother and sisters, her blood family.

In addition, the content of Spencer's speech focuses on Diana's life: her character, her accomplishments, and her vulnerabilities. Only in the introduction and conclusion does Spencer allude to her death as the reason for this celebration of Diana's life. Finally, with respect to being positive but realistic, Spencer discusses not only the admirable qualities of his sister Diana but also her vulnerabilities (e.g., her eating disorders).

4. Spencer's condemnation of the media, which constantly pursued Diana for photographs and new stories, and his critical comments about the "duty and tradition" of the royal family caused public controversy at the time he delivered this eulogy. Do you believe that a eulogy is an appropriate forum for expressing these emotions?

Although there are many opinions and positions on the actual content of this speech, the purpose of a eulogy is to commemorate the life of an individual rather than to set a social agenda. With his comments about both the media and the royal family, Spencer addresses social issues for the British royalty and for the media and the paparazzi.

Commencement Address at Drew University by Wendy Kopp

Wendy Kopp came up with the idea of Teach for America while writing her senior thesis at Princeton University. Once Kopp graduated, she turned her dream into a reality by creating a successful organization through which several thousand college graduates have already been sent to teach in needy public schools across the country. In the commencement address that follows, delivered at Drew University on May 20, 1995, Kopp explains that she and others were able to make Teach for America a success because they all believed that the organization's goals justified a great investment of work, time, and sacrifice. Ultimately, her message is meant to inspire audience members to dedicate themselves to pursuing their own convictions and finding a way to make a difference.

I'm honored to have the chance to talk with you all on this important occasion, and I'm truly excited to have a few minutes to share what I have learned since graduating from college six years ago.

At that time, back in May of 1989, I was still a college senior just two weeks away from my own graduation. I remember very clearly what I was thinking and doing.

I was obsessed with the idea of a national teacher corps—a corps of recent college graduates who would commit two years to teach in urban and rural public schools suffering from persistent teacher shortages. I imagined thousands of the nation's most talented graduating seniors from all different academic majors clamoring to be a part of a movement to build our nation's future. I imagined hundreds of them working in schools across the country going above and beyond to motivate their students to fulfill

their true potential. I imagined an ever-expanding force of leaders who would advocate throughout their lives for educational excellence and equity. I envisioned this national teacher corps changing lives and deepening the conscience of our nation.

I was determined to make Teach for America a reality, and luckily I was uncommonly naive—so naive that I believed that this could happen. The plan was to recruit 500 people in the first year, train them together during a summer, place them in five or six sites across the country and support the entire effort on grants from corporations and foundations.

I began by writing letters to 30 CEOs at randomly selected corporations, hoping that one of them would give me a seed grant. Miraculously, one of the letters reached an executive at Mobil who took the time to read my proposal, thought it was a great idea, and decided to give me the \$26,000 necessary to spend my summer working to get Teach for America off the ground.

I knew I could not create Teach for America alone, and so I began searching for a group of other recent college graduates who would dedicate themselves full-time to this mission. Within a few months, some phenomenal individuals had come together. Many of them would devote 16 or more hours a day, for two or three or four or five years even, to see through the creation of Teach for America.

Our first step was to find a student on each of 100 college campuses to spread the word about Teach for America. One hundred students across the country determined that this had to happen and took the personal initiative to distribute flyers, to hold events, to encourage their peers to commit two years to teach in the nation's most under-resourced public schools.

In response to this call to action, 2,500 individuals applied to Teach for America in a four-month period. Of these, 500 charter corps members committed to Teach for America. We organized an eight-week summer training program for them, and then they traveled to school districts in five different places across the country. They assumed teaching positions in school districts where someone—a superintendent or a personnel director—had understood our vision, believed in it, and decided to help us make it a reality. By the end of the year, corporations and foundations had committed more than \$2 million to us to pay all the expenses we incurred.

Over the past six years, we have inspired 18,000 individuals to compete to enter Teach for America. As of this coming fall, we will have trained and placed more than 3,000 of them in 15 communities across the country. At any given time, 1,000 Teach for America corps members everywhere from South Central Los Angeles to the rural South to the South Bronx are going above and beyond to help their students excel. And each year, the force of alumni who have been fundamentally shaped by this experience and who are acting on this experience expands by 500.

I tell this story in such great detail because I want to convey how and why Teach for America actually came to be. Teach for America came to be because people with strong convictions—convictions fundamentally based on compassion for others and on an ambitious sense of the possible—were willing to take difficult steps to act on those convictions. Teach for America is here today because of the executive at Mobil, because of the recent college graduates who devoted themselves to our staff, because of the 100 college students who committed to inspire their peers to apply, because of the 500 charter corps members, because of the district superintendents, because of the people

who committed funds. It would have been easier for the executive at Mobil to have not made that grant. It would have been easier for the people who joined our staff to remain in their other jobs. It would have been easier for those 500 recent college graduates to take positions with organizations that had proven records and offered more security. But for all these people, it wasn't an option to do what was easier.

I know I'm speaking here today because I'm a young person who has started an organization, but I didn't want you all to come away from this thinking that the way to make a difference is to go start your own organization. That might be the right thing for some people, but it won't be for everyone. I do believe, however, that all of us owe it to ourselves and to the world to spend our lives searching for what we believe, searching constantly for what's "right." We owe it to ourselves and to the world to base our convictions on compassion for others—whether that means to us compassion for members of our families or communities or nation. We owe it to ourselves and to the world to operate on the assumption that positive change can happen. We owe it to ourselves and to the world to make the daily choices—always—to act on our beliefs.

There's no excuse for living life any other way, but there are many people who do. There are people whose reason for being is to shoot down what other people believe. There are people whose sole purpose in life is to be well liked. There are others who are guided by cynicism and doubt, some who live simply to get by, and still others who simply don't have the personal confidence to act on their beliefs. It's easier for people to live this way, but ultimately it's less fulfilling and less meaningful.

The coming years have the potential to be the most broadening, expanding, enlightening years of your lives. I hope you will use them to engage yourself in a constant search for what is right. Put yourselves in foreign situations, in challenging situations, in situations which will deepen your empathy for others, your understanding of others, your concern for others. I hope that as we learn, we'll hold on to our sense of possibility. We'll certainly learn about lots of obstacles to change, but in spite of those obstacles we must hold on to the belief that positive change can happen—because it is that belief that will give us the purpose and the strength to act on what we believe is right. Then it's simply a matter of refusing to compromise the convictions we form.

I want to leave you with a short story that illustrates the power of this approach to life. Two Teach for America corps members in the Rio Grande Valley in Texas wrote me last week to tell me about a student of theirs. Juan is, they wrote, "at once, the callous-handed field worker who helps his family pay for a small, two-room house by picking citrus fruit or pulling onions, and the wide-eyed, book-toting genius who insatiably absorbs knowledge and ideas before throwing that knowledge back to a teacher with questions—questions that demonstrate not only a comprehensive understanding of the material but also a profound desire and ability to challenge it and make it his own." Our corps members described their dream that Juan would attend summer school at Oxford University, where he would learn from Rhodes Scholars and university professors, and where he would continue his unbelievably rapid intellectual growth. Now Juan has been accepted to a highly competitive program there, and his two teachers are working furiously to raise [the] \$5,500 necessary to enable him to go. These teachers didn't have to notice Juan's potential, they wouldn't have had to encourage him to apply to the Oxford program, and now they wouldn't have to go to extraordinary effort to raise the necessary funding. But their conviction, compassion, their sense of possibil-

ity, and their determination to do what is right has led them down this path. Juan's life may very well be different because of it.

I wish you all the best. Thank you very much.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the general purpose of this speech? What is its specific purpose?

This is a special occasion speech that has an inspirational purpose. More specifically, Wendy Kopp's purpose is to inspire the members of her audience to dedicate themselves to pursuing their own convictions and to finding a way to make a difference.

2. How does Kopp establish her credibility in this commencement address?

She establishes credibility by relating to the audience her success in instituting a national teacher corps. She very specifically narrates the process and her involvement to illustrate to the audience that she understands that achieving one's goals is hard work but that it can be done.

3. How does the speaker target her message and adapt to the audience?

First, Kopp begins her speech by noting that she graduated six years ago, thereby suggesting to her listeners that they have something in common—a common starting place. Her message is intended to inspire the audience rather than to persuade the audience to do exactly what she did: "I know I'm speaking here today because I'm a young person who has started an organization, but I didn't want you all to come away from this thinking that the way to make a difference is to go start your own organization. That might be the right thing for some people, but it won't be for everyone." Thus, she targets her message to her listeners' ambitions and individual desires and talents.

4. What technique does Kopp use to end her speech with impact?

She uses a short story about Juan, the field-worker, whom two Teach for America corps members encouraged to apply to the Oxford program. This story privileges pathos; it appeals to the audience's emotions.

Testimony against Legalized Gambling before the U.S. House Judiciary Committee by the Reverend Tom Grey

The Reverend Tom Grey was the executive director of the National Coalition against Legalized Gambling (NCALG). By speaking with passion and eloquence and supporting his arguments with convincing hard data, Grey helped many communities defeat efforts to expand legalized gambling. On September 29, 1995, Grey delivered this persuasive speech while testifying before the U.S. House Judiciary Committee in support of a bill to fund a national study on the effects of gambling. As you read his words, note how he frames the issue of gambling expansion as a battle between (1) well-funded gambling promoters with hidden political connec-

tions and (2) ordinary citizens trying to protect their communities. He supports his claims by citing a combination of independent studies, statistics, and specific examples. Which arguments do you find most convincing? Are Grey's arguments based on public policy or personal morality? Which kind of argument do you think is more effective?

Chairman Hyde and distinguished Members of the Committee:

A battle is raging across our country. Ambitious gambling promoters have been invited into our communities by some state and local officials under the guise of prosperity, economic development, jobs, and a painless new source of government revenue.

Armed with unlimited capital and hidden political connections, these gambling promoters insist that gambling is productive, that it meets the desires of the public, and that the growth of gambling throughout America is inevitable. They pledge that by the year 2000, every American will live within a two-hour drive of a gambling casino.

Ladies and gentlemen, these gambling interests are wrong.

The recent, rapid spread of gambling was never the result of a popular movement. Rather, it was driven by self-interested gambling pitchmen with money, high-priced lobbyists, and pie-in-the-sky promises. Cash-starved municipalities and legislatures, eager for a way to increase revenue while avoiding voter backlash, were vulnerable to the prospect of something-for-nothing.

Individual citizens questioned whether this "free lunch" program could rationally achieve its promise. And as the guarantees of economic prosperity evaporated, state and local groups spontaneously sprang up across the nation to oppose the further spread of gambling. In 1994, these varied citizen groups created the National Coalition against Legalized Gambling (NCALG).

What is the National Coalition against Legalized Gambling? NCALG is a grassroots movement. Our members span the entire political spectrum from conservative to liberal. Our coalition encompasses both business and labor, both religious and secular, with concerned citizens in every state.

Our arguments against the expansion of legalized gambling are based on public policy, sound economics, and quality of life within our communities, not on personal morality.

I have attached to my written testimony references to objective, academic studies showing that the expansion of gambling is bad for families and businesses. These studies show that:

- gambling enterprises cost more jobs than they create;
- gambling misdirects prudent government investment away from sound economic development strategies;
- gambling sucks revenues from local economies;
- gambling establishments tend to attract crime; and
- gambling addiction destroys individuals, undermines families, and weakens our business community.

If the members of NCALG were to base our opposition to gambling on personal morality, we would lose in the political arena. After all, a majority of Americans gamble.

But because our arguments are based on cold, hard facts, our organization and its affiliates have consistently beaten the gambling interests on ballot questions and in state legislatures over the past year—winning fifteen major battles and only narrowly losing the remaining two.

Turning the political tide.

In November 1994, the issue of gambling was on more state ballots than any other issue. Of ten statewide referenda, NCALG won six at the ballot box (Colorado, Florida, Minnesota, Oklahoma, Rhode Island and Wyoming) and two in the courts (Arkansas and New Mexico). Most of our victories were by landslide margins.

After their November debacle, the casino companies targeted legislatures in seven states. But this year we completely shut them out. The casinos lost major battles in Alabama, Illinois, Maryland, Pennsylvania, Texas, Virginia and West Virginia.

Virginia illustrates the dynamics of the current gambling debate. In Richmond this year, over a dozen casino companies pushed to legalize riverboat gambling. They hired more than 50 lobbyists, bought newspaper ads, and even aired television commercials. While the casinos spent over \$800,000 on direct lobbying in Richmond and millions more on indirect lobbying across the state, thousands of citizens, armed with the facts, mobilized at the grassroots level against the casinos. When the smoke cleared, the gambling bill was crushed in committee.

The political tide has turned. What had been forecast as inevitable has now become undesirable. But why?

The tide turned not simply because all of the major conservative Christian groups oppose the expansion of gambling, although they do. It is not simply because mainline churches—liberal, conservative and moderate—are almost universally opposed to more gambling, although they are. Resistance to government-sponsored gambling is growing because voters from every walk of life recognize that legalized gambling is, based on the facts, poor public policy.

Gambling feeds voter cynicism.

For the past three years, I have traveled across the nation and talked to countless thousands of Americans about this issue. You know that voters are angry and cynical about government. Let me tell you, the expansion of legalized gambling has fed that anger and cynicism.

To many Americans, government's promotion of gambling is a cop-out and a double cross. We see public officials sacrificing our communities to a predatory enterprise—for money. Citizens see government living off gambling profits, taken from the poorest and weakest of our citizens, instead of facing up to rational choices regarding budgets and taxes.

We see massive amounts of money pumped into pro-gambling lobbying efforts. Public officials have been answering to these outside monied interests while ignoring the voices of their own constituents. This leaves citizens to wonder who government really represents.

Worse, people see scandals like the one unfolding in Louisiana, where lawmakers are being investigated for taking bribes from gambling promoters. The payoff was made not merely to usher in gambling, but to prevent a voters' referendum to keep gambling out.

When the right of the people to be heard is bought and sold, we become convinced

that the bedrock foundation of democracy—a government of the people—is under attack.

Now, I believe strongly in democracy. I fought for it as an infantry captain in Vietnam, and I continue to protect it as an active member of the Army Reserve. But in order for democracy to work, you as elected officials have to win back the trust of average citizens. And you can start here.

Enact H.R. 497.

H.R. 497 is a very modest measure. Twenty years ago—when the contagion of casino gambling was quarantined to two geographic areas—a federal commission conducted a study of legalized gambling. An enormous amount has changed since then—the contagion has spread. It's time for a fresh inquiry.

The National Coalition against Legalized Gambling supports H.R. 497, as well as S. 704, because we believe that a national study will allow citizens to make an informed decision about the expansion of gambling in America.

And frankly, we are astonished by the opposition to this bill by the American Gaming Association. If they believe that the spread of gambling enhances our national economy, then what is it about an objective study that makes them afraid?

When everyone is fully informed, we're glad to let this issue be decided the good, old-fashioned American way, at the ballot box.

Mr. Chairman, thank you.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the general purpose of this speech? What is the specific purpose? What is the thesis?

The general purpose of Reverend Tom Grey's speech is to persuade; the specific purpose is to persuade the U.S. House Judiciary Committee to enact H.R. 497. The thesis, or his claim, in this persuasive speech is that "the expansion of gambling is bad for families and businesses."

2. Does Grey adequately gain his audience's attention in the introduction of this speech?

He gains the audience's attention by characterizing legalized gambling as a battle between well-funded gambling promoters with hidden political agendas and ordinary citizens trying to protect their communities. He uses visual language to characterize and exaggerate the characteristics of the bad guys—the gambling promoters.

3. What type of claim (fact, value, policy) does the speaker argue?

The speaker's claim that H.R. 497 should be passed is a policy claim. Recall that speakers use claims of policy when recommending that a specific course of action be taken or approved of by an audience. As is common with claims of policy, Grey's argument also involves claims of fact and value. His claims of fact involve focusing on the effects of gambling, and his claim of value is that legalized gambling is bad. This is a judgment, even though Grey denies that it is a moral judgment.

4. Do you think there are any logical fallacies in Grey's reasoning and arguments?

Bandwagoning is one possible area that one might argue is fallacious in Grey's reasoning. The speaker assigns a claim greater substance by making it appear more popular than it really is. This speaker asserts that voters from every walk of life recognize that gambling is poor public policy. Apparently this is not true in all states, for all voters, or for all types of gambling, because many constituents are voting for particular types of gambling. For instance, Grey notes that Virginians opposed casinos on riverboats; however, he fails to note that Virginians previously voted for a state lottery but voted down a racetrack in Hampton Roads.

***Live Longer and Healthier: Stop Eating Meat!* by Renzi Stone**

While he was a student at the University of Oklahoma, Renzi Stone delivered this persuasive speech to his public speaking class. The speech is noteworthy because of its strong, attention-grabbing introduction. To persuade his audience to listen to his claims about the benefits of vegetarianism, Stone first refutes several stereotypes about vegetarians. Why do you think he starts the speech this way? How convincing are his arguments in support of vegetarianism?

What do Steve Martin, Dustin Hoffman, Albert Einstein, Jerry Garcia, Michael Stipe, Eddie Vedder, Martina Navratilova, Carl Lewis, and 12 million other Americans all have in common? All of these well-known people were or are vegetarians. What do they know that we don't? Consuming a regimen of high-fat, high-protein flesh foods is a sure-fire prescription for disaster, like running diesel fuel through your car's gasoline engine. In the book, *Why Do Vegetarians Eat Like That?*, David Gabbe asserts that millions of people today are afflicted with chronic diseases that can be directly linked to the consumption of meat. Eating a vegetarian diet can help prevent many of those diseases.

In 1996, 12 million Americans identified themselves as vegetarians. That number is twice as many as in the decade before. According to a recent National Restaurant Association poll found in *Health* magazine, one in five diners say they now go out of their way to choose restaurants that serve at least a few meatless entrees. Obviously, the traditionally American trait of a meat-dominated society has subsided in recent years.

In discussing vegetarianism today, first I will tell how vegetarians are perceived in society. Next, I will introduce several studies validating my claim that a meatless diet is extraordinarily healthy. I will then show how a veggie diet can strengthen the immune system and make the meatless body a shield from unwanted diseases such as cancer and heart disease. Maintaining a strict vegetarian diet can also lead to a longer life. Finally, I will put an image into the audiences' mind of a meatless society that relies on vegetables for the main course at breakfast, lunch, and dinner.

Moving to my first point, society generally holds two major misperceptions about vegetarians. First of all, society often perceives vegetarians as a radical group of people with extreme principles. In this view, vegetarians are seen as a monolithic group of

people who choose to eat vegetables because they are opposed to the killing of animals for food. The second major misconception is that because vegetarians do not eat meat, they do not get the proper amounts of essential vitamins and minerals often found in meat.

Here is my response to these misconceived notions. First of all, vegetarians are not a homogeneous group of radicals. Whereas many vegetarians in the past did join the movement on the principle that killing animals is wrong, many join the movement today mainly for its health benefits. In addition, there are many different levels of vegetarianism. Some vegetarians eat nothing but vegetables. Others don't eat red meat, but do occasionally eat chicken and fish.

Secondly, contrary to popular opinion, vegetarians get more than enough vitamins and minerals in their diet and generally receive healthier nourishment than meat eaters. In fact, in an article for *Health* magazine, Peter Jaret states that vegetarians actually get larger amounts of amino acids due to the elimination of saturated fats, which are often found in meat products. Studies show that the health benefits of a veggie lifestyle contribute to increased life expectancy and overall productivity.

Hopefully you now see that society's perceptions of vegetarians are outdated and just plain wrong. You are familiar with many of the problems associated with a meat-based diet, and you have heard many of the benefits of a vegetarian diet. Now try to imagine how you personally can improve your life by becoming a vegetarian.

Can you imagine a world where people retire at age 80 and lead productive lives into their early 100s? Close your eyes and think about celebrating your 70th wedding anniversary, seeing your great-grandchildren get married, and witnessing 100 years of world events and technological innovations. David Gabbe's book refers to studies that have shown a vegetarian diet can increase your life expectancy up to 15 years. A longer life is within your reach, and the diet you eat has a direct impact on your health and how you age.

In conclusion, vegetarianism is a healthy life choice, not a radical cult. By eliminating meat from their diets, vegetarians reap the benefits of a vegetable-based diet that helps prevent disease and increase life expectancy. People, take heed of my advice. There are many more sources of information available for those who want to take a few hours to research the benefits of the veggie lifestyle. If you don't believe my comments, discover the whole truth for yourself.

Twelve million Americans know the health benefits that come with being a vegetarian. Changing your eating habits can be just as easy as making your bed in the morning. Sure it takes a few extra minutes and some thought, but your body will thank you in the long run.

You only live once. Why not make it a long stay?

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the general purpose of this speech? What is its specific purpose?

The general purpose of this speech is to persuade; the specific purpose is to persuade the audience to become informed about the benefits of becoming a vegetarian.

2. What persuasive model can best be applied to Renzi Stone's speech?

Monroe's motivated sequence is the model that this speech is based on. First, the speaker establishes a need for improving the perception of vegetarianism. Then he offers the health benefits of vegetarianism as a means of satisfying this need.

3. What are the two main ideas that Stone uses to establish a need for improving the image of vegetarians?

His first idea is that the general public believes that you don't get minimum amounts of essential vitamins and minerals without consuming meat. The second point Stone offers to establish need is the idea that the vegetarian lifestyle is too inclusive—that it is an all-or-nothing venture based on principle rather than on health needs.

4. In the satisfaction stage of the sequence, what does Stone argue?

He argues that vegetarians get more than enough vitamins and minerals and better amino acids. Second, he argues that there are many different types of vegetarianism to accommodate all levels of interest.

5. Describe the visual imagery Stone uses to drive his point home.

Stone has his listeners imagine what their future will be like, how much longer they will live, and how much they will enjoy spending that time with their families.

6. What specific action does Stone request of his audience?

He simply asks that people take a few hours to access sources of information and to seriously consider changing to vegetarianism based on the benefits noted in the research.

Making Dreams Reality by Amber Mixon

Amber Mixon delivered this informative speech to her public speaking class at the University of Oklahoma. Note how Mixon effectively introduces her speech topic by asking her classmates to think about world hunger in terms of how much money a typical college student spends on food each day. She goes on to clearly explain how an organization called Feed the Children is addressing world hunger and related problems, and how students can volunteer their time and energy to support this cause.

Did you know that 20 percent of children in the United States under eighteen years of age are hungry? Consider for a moment the amount of money that you as a college student spend in a single day on food alone. Did you know that 1.3 billion people worldwide live on less than one dollar a day? Have you ever volunteered your time to

help the hungry? When some students think of volunteering, they focus on the benefits that it brings to their standing in a school organization or the status it earns them on their resumé rather than thinking about how important it is to help those less fortunate than they are.

However, even if people choose to ignore the hunger problem in our world, one organization has dared to bridge the gap between the impoverished and those unaware of these circumstances. That organization is Feed the Children. Though I don't volunteer often, I have been lucky enough to experience the fulfillment FTC workers experience every day when I volunteered once during Christmas for our church's annual Feed the Children stocking stuffing event.

Today, I would like to tell you about how FTC began, then discuss different outreach divisions that FTC has created, and finally inform you about ways you can contribute your time or money to make a difference. I will begin by sharing with you a quick overview of how Feed the Children began. I gathered most of the information about this organization from the Web site they have established, as well as by talking with several volunteers.

Feed the Children began with a simple "down-home feeling" that has continued to thrive in the hearts of its workers throughout its nearly twenty-year history. The founder, Larry Jones, first realized this global hunger problem when he took a trip to Haiti in 1979. After witnessing the devastating effects of poverty, hunger, and poor medical care, he decided to start an organization to address the needs of victims, particularly helpless children. The driving statement behind FTC was quickly put into motion: "Feed the Children is an international, nonprofit, Christian organization providing food, clothing, medical equipment and other necessities to people who lack these essentials because of famine, drought, flood, war, or other calamities."

Today FTC has grown to an incredible size. The organization now ministers to the needs of seventy-four countries, including the United States. FTC has also acquired its own fleet of semi trucks in order to increase the efficiency and timeliness of each delivery. They are also the head of a vast network of volunteer associations throughout the world.

It is clear that through the perseverance and dedication of many individuals, this organization has met with success. To aid as many people as possible, Feed the Children has four separate divisions that respond to specific problems: feeding the impoverished, providing relief during emergencies, offering personal assistance, and providing medical assistance. By specializing how each division responds to problems, FTC is particularly effective in delivering the critical necessities people need at the time they most need them.

Of Feed the Children's four goals, the most well-known aspect of FTC is its overwhelming adeptness at distributing food and necessity items. In 1996, sixty million pounds of food and supplies were delivered by FTC. Feed the Children has also proven its helpfulness in delivering emergency aid. In the United States, FTC responded quickly and provided assistance to victims of the 1998 Florida tornadoes as well as to the bombing of the Murrah Federal Building in Oklahoma.

Beyond providing emergency supplies and relief in times of need, Feed the Children also attempts to solve long-term problems. Feed the Children stands strong behind its belief that education helps reduce poverty rates. Therefore, FTC created a pro-

gram, called Hope for Kids, that provides essential learning tools for America's poorest school systems, thus giving kids a chance to succeed.

Ultimately, Feed the Children meets needy people at the source of their needs, be it hunger, emergency assistance, personal help, or medical assistance. Running a large, global relief organization requires tremendous effort from a lot of dedicated staff as well as volunteers. Feed the Children encourages assistance from volunteers because it helps the organization reach more needy people. On a financial level, Feed the Children accepts tax-deductible donations, consisting of cash, new toys, new household items, and so on. FTC also encourages community fund-raising projects such as recycling, bake sales, and garage sales that generate funds for FTC programs. People can also help out by donating time at their Oklahoma City headquarters. Volunteers can help in many ways, from working in public relations to cleaning to stuffing food boxes. Aiding FTC can even be as easy as attending a Garth Brooks concert and donating a few cans of food.

As you can see, helping out this organization is not difficult at all. It could be as in-depth as spending a Saturday sorting food boxes, or as easy as putting a check in the mail. Now that we have taken an overall look at Feed the Children, I will conclude with a few final ideas.

Today, I began by presenting to you the history of the Feed the Children organization and how it is divided into four functional divisions—medical, personal self-help, food provision, and emergency relief. I also shared several ways in which people, even busy college students, can get involved in this organization. Reflecting back on what I said in my introduction, it's easy to see what a big difference even one dollar used by FTC can make to someone who lives on only one dollar a day. As FTC stated in a press release: "Feed the Children isn't just an organization—it's people helping people."

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the general purpose of this speech? What is its specific purpose?

The general purpose of this speech is to persuade; more specifically, the speaker seeks to persuade the audience to contribute time or money to help the organization Feed the Children address hunger and other basic needs at an international level.

2. How does Amber Mixon capture the audience's attention?

She captures the audience's attention with startling statistics and figures. In addition, she captures attention and establishes relevance to her audience by rhetorically asking how much the college students in the audience spend on food in a single day and by asking audience members if they realize that 1.3 billion people live on less than one dollar a day.

3. Does Mixon effectively establish a need to address the problem of children going hungry? In what other ways could she have accomplished this?

Mixon uses a few statistics (e.g., 20 percent of children in the United States under 18 years of age are hungry, and 1.3 billion people worldwide live on less than a dollar per day) to establish that there is a problem with children in the

world going hungry. Other, possibly more effective ways to establish need in the introduction of this speech would be to include more statistics to illustrate the problem with hunger, to use personal stories and examples of individual children to illustrate their hunger, or to paint word pictures of what it means to be a hungry child and what far-reaching effects hunger has on a child's life.

4. In describing how the Feed the Children organization provides satisfaction to the need of hunger, what four specific main points does Mixon highlight?

She breaks her satisfaction stage down into the four functions that Feed the Children serves. First, she describes how, in the short term, this organization distributes food and other necessary supplies to the hungry. Second, she shows how this organization addresses long-term problems with hunger through education. The other two points she develops are the medical attention and emergency relief the organization offers.

5. With respect to the visualization stage of Monroe's motivated sequence, does Mixon effectively use visual imagery to reinforce her argument that the Feed the Children organization satisfies a need?

Although Mixon effectively argues for the benefits that this organization provides to hungry children, she does not use imagery to illustrate how these children's lives will change as a result of this form of intervention. She does, however, help listeners visualize the contributions they might make in the effort to eradicate children's hunger by supporting this organization.

6. Does Mixon request a specific action on the part of the audience?

No, she does not ask or persuade the audience to do any one thing specifically. Rather, she simply informs the audience members of a multitude of possible ways in which they might help. She would be better served by asking the audience to choose one thing to contribute that would make her request specific.

Address at the Time Magazine 75th Anniversary Celebration by President William Jefferson Clinton

On March 3, 1998, *Time* magazine hosted a celebration at New York's Radio City Music Hall to commemorate seventy-five years of reporting on world events. From President Clinton and Mikhail Gorbachev to Toni Morrison and Steven Spielberg, newsmakers from all walks of life gathered to honor the magazine and the people and events it had been covering for nearly eight decades. In the speech that follows, President Clinton pays tribute to former President Franklin Delano Roosevelt. Political analysts often note Clinton's effectiveness as a public speaker, referring especially to his eloquence and his mastery of the language. As you read the speech, pay attention not only to the way Clinton defines the values and achievements that

made Roosevelt such an important figure but also to how he suggests that those values can be applied to the challenges Americans face today. Clinton spins a strong narrative that weaves together the past, the present, and the future.

Thank you very much. Thank you, Walter, Gerry Levin, and all the people at *Time*. Tonight, *Time* has paid tribute to the time it not only observed but helped to create—the stunning years your founder, Henry Luce, so unforgettably called the American Century.

To me, one man above all others is the personification of our American century: Franklin Delano Roosevelt. Now, that choice might have pained Henry Luce, but surely he would not be surprised. The story of this century we're about to leave is really many stories—of the ascendance of science and technology; the rise of big government and mass media; the movements for equality for women and racial minorities; the dynamic growth and disruptive force of the Industrial Age.

But when our children's children look back, they will see that above all else, the story of the twentieth century is the story of the triumph of freedom. Freedom, the victory of democracy over totalitarianism, of free enterprise over state socialism, of tolerance over bigotry and ignorance. The advance of freedom has made this the American century; for in this century, America has made freedom ring. The embodiment of the triumph, the driving force behind it, was Franklin Delano Roosevelt.

Today, with the happy outcome known to all, it is tempting to look back and say the victory was assured, inevitable—but it wasn't. In the face of the twentieth century's greatest crisis, decisively, irrevocably, President Roosevelt committed America to freedom's light. Because of that commitment and its embrace by every American leader since, today we can say, for the very first time in all of human history, a majority of the world's people live under governments of their own choosing in freedom.

Winston Churchill said that Franklin Roosevelt's life was "one of the commanding events in human history." He was born to privilege, but he understood the aspirations of farmers and factory workers and forgotten Americans. My grandfather came from a little town of about 50 people. He had a fourth-grade education. He believed Franklin Roosevelt was his friend, a man who cared about him and his family and his child's future. Polio put him in a wheelchair, but he lifted our troubled nation to its feet and he got us moving again.

He was a patrician who happily addressed the Daughters of the American Revolution as "my fellow immigrants." He was a master politician, a magnificent commander-in-chief. Yes, his life had its fair share of disappointments and failures, but they never broke his spirit or his faith in God or his people. Because he always rose to the occasion, so did we. FDR was guided not by the iron dictates of ideology, but by the pragmatism by what he called bold persistent experimentation. If one thing doesn't work, he said, try another thing; but above all, try something. It drove his critics crazy, but it worked.

He brought joy and nobility to public service as he completed the mission of his kinsman, Theodore Roosevelt, forging a progressive government for the Industrial Age, taming the savage cycle of boom and bust, giving our citizens the economic security and the skills they needed to build the great American middle class.

In our century's struggle for freedom, President Roosevelt won two great victories. By confronting the gravest threat capitalism had ever faced—the Great Depres-

sion—he strengthened economic liberty for all time, teaching us that free markets require effective government, one in which individual initiative and the call of community are not at odds, but instead are woven together in one seamless social fabric.

By confronting and defeating the gravest threat to personal and political liberty the world has ever faced, he forever committed America to the front lines of the struggle for freedom. He taught us that even the expanses of two great oceans could not shield America from danger or absolve America from responsibility. He taught us that our destiny, forever, is linked to the destiny of the world, that our freedom requires us to support freedom for all others, that humanity's cause must be America's cause.

Now we know what came of Roosevelt and his generation's "rendezvous with destiny." What will come of ours? To this generation of the millennium, in President Roosevelt's words, "much has been given" and "much is asked."

When Roosevelt ran for President in 1932, he said, "new times demand new responses from government." He saved capitalism from its own excesses, so it could again be a force for progress and freedom. Now we work to modernize government, saving it from its excess of debt, so that again it is a force for progress and freedom in a new era.

As Roosevelt gave Americans security in the Industrial Age, now we work to give Americans opportunity in the Information Age. As Roosevelt asked us to meet the crushing burden of the Depression with bold persistent experimentation, now we must bring the same attitude to the challenges and unrivaled opportunities of this era to our schools, our streets, our poorest neighborhoods, to the fight against disease, the exploration of space, the preservation of the environment.

As Roosevelt established that security and opportunity for ordinary Americans required our leadership and cooperation with like-minded people throughout the world, now we must commit ourselves to the common struggle against new threats to the security and prosperity of ordinary people everywhere. For even more than in President Roosevelt's time, our prospects are bound to the world's progress.

Like FDR, we look around us and see a world that is not yet fully free. The advance of democracy has been steady, but it isn't irreversible.

For our generation, what does "freedom" mean? Well, at least the long-delayed achievement of President Roosevelt's dream of a Europe undivided, democratic and at peace for the first time in history. What does "freedom from fear" mean? Well, at least, freedom for our children from the worry of nuclear, chemical or biological weapons. What does "freedom from fear" or "freedom from want" mean? Well, at least, for the world, a fair chance for people in every land to develop their minds, find reward in honest labor, and raise their children in peace according to the dictates of their conscience.

America must work to secure this kind of freedom with our allies and friends whenever possible, alone if absolutely necessary. We work today through the United Nations, which FDR helped to create and which he named. I salute Secretary General Kofi Annan tonight for what he has done. Bearing an unequivocal message from the international community, backed by the credible threat of force, the Secretary General obtained Iraq's commitment to honor United Nations resolutions on weapons inspection. Now the Security Council clearly and unanimously has supported the agreement. Iraq must match its words and its deeds, its commitment with compliance.

In the tradition of FDR, America and its partners must make sure that happens. And in the tradition of FDR, America must support the United Nations and other institutions for global security and prosperity, and that means we ought to pay our fair share.

In the darkest hours of the Second World War, Franklin Roosevelt proclaimed, "We have faith that future generations will know that here in the middle of the twentieth century, there came a time when men of goodwill found a way to unite and produce and fight to destroy the forces of ignorance and intolerance and slavery and war."

More than any other twentieth-century American, Franklin Roosevelt fulfilled the mandate of America's founders. When everything was on the line, he pledged our lives, our fortunes, our sacred honor to the preservation of liberty, the pursuit of happiness, the creation of a more perfect union.

The next century is now barely 700 days away. It will be many things new: a time of stunning leaps of science; a century of dizzying technology; a digital century; an era in which the very face of our nation will change.

Yet in all the newness, what is required of us still is to follow President Roosevelt's lead, to strengthen the bonds of our union, widen the circle of opportunity, and deepen the reach of freedom. That is the tribute we ought to pay to him. God willing, we will. And if we do, we will make the 21st century the next American century—and the happy warrior will be smiling down on us.

Thank you and God bless you.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the general purpose of this speech? What is its specific purpose and thesis statement?

The general purpose of this speech is to celebrate; the specific purpose of the speech is to celebrate *Time* magazine's seventy-five years of reporting by commemorating one of the people it covered: Franklin Delano Roosevelt. President Clinton's thesis statement is "To me, one man above all others is the personification of our American century: Franklin Delano Roosevelt."

2. How does President Clinton capture the audience's attention and make the speech relevant to each member of that audience?

Clinton captures the audience's attention with a list of the stories that have shaped our nation during the past century: the ascendance of science and technology, the rise of big government and mass media, the movements for equality for women and racial minorities, and the dynamic growth and disruptive force of the Industrial Age. This list makes the topic of this speech relevant to the audience because all of the major milestones he lists affect every American citizen in the present and will have an impact on how Americans live their lives in the future.

3. What rhetorical strategy does President Clinton use to structure his message?

His appeals are based on pathos; he appeals to the audience's sense of patriotism. The way in which Clinton repeats the word *freedom* and voices the ideals of the founding articles of our nation for life, liberty, and happiness instills in listeners a pride in being American.

***Late-Night Reflections of a College President: A Virtual University* by Nancy S. Dye**

As the president of Oberlin College, Nancy Dye is committed to addressing the formidable challenges of delivering a top-notch education to students. In the persuasive speech that follows, which was delivered to the Cleveland City Club on July 11, 1997, Dye ruminates on the current trend in American higher education to proclaim the virtues of the virtual university—that is, a campus that exists only in cyberspace. Her speech is well organized and easy to follow, and she uses the phrase “late at night” as an effective refrain to maintain continuity throughout the various parts of the speech. As you read Dye’s words, pay close attention to how she frames her argument against the virtual university by focusing on how actual colleges and universities provide the best learning environment for students through human interaction. Do you find her claims convincing?

A few months ago, I was leafing through an issue of *Forbes* magazine, when words seemed to leap off the page. The words were Peter Drucker’s, and this is what he had to say: “Thirty years from now, the big university campuses will be relics. Universities won’t survive. . . . Higher education is in deep crisis. The college won’t survive as a residential institution. Today’s buildings are hopelessly unsuited and totally unneeded.”

What Peter Drucker and many others are talking about is the so-called “virtual university.” Education, they believe, can, should, and will take place completely off campus and online. Students can go to college on the Internet. They will be served by institutions like the University of Phoenix, which already enrolls thousands of individuals who complete course work and degrees via computer.

Over the past year or so, I don’t think that a day has passed that I have not read about the coming of the “virtual university,” or heard the prediction that distance learning will completely re-invent colleges and universities as we know them. I am exhorted to get on the bandwagon. Listen, for example, to the advice to college presidents from Lewis Perelman, author of the new book *School’s Out*. “If I were a college president,” he tells me, “I would get rid of all the old buildings and bricks and mortar and grounds, and go virtual.”

If you haven’t heard yet about the virtual university, you will very soon. It’s hot.

Now distance learning is not new: It has been central to the efforts of universities’ extension divisions over most of the twentieth century. And picking up a magazine and reading that higher education is in crisis is not a new experience for me. It happens all the time. But Peter Drucker’s assertion that the demise of colleges’ physicality is inevitable still comes as a shock. So does his and others’ belief that the vast and richly varied enterprise of American higher education, so envied throughout the world, can be replaced easily by an electronic substitute.

So, late at night, I find myself thinking about the virtual university. The idea is not very surprising, really. We have virtually everything else available virtually. We have virtual salons, known as “chat rooms.”

We have the promise of the virtual library and the virtual workplace. There are virtual law firms on the Internet. And those of us saddled with the old-fashioned actuality of bricks and mortar have been busy bringing virtuality to our students and faculty, by

wiring our residence halls and classrooms, and by investing a lot of capital in campus computer networks that connect us all to each other and the world at large.

Late at night, I begin to understand the romance of the virtual university. It promises to be affordable, at a time when tuition continues to rise faster than inflation and wages. It promises universal access to higher education. It promises to transform professors into individual entrepreneurs, whose success will depend entirely upon their ability to appeal to their electronic customers. In the virtual university, there will be no need to deal with the issues surrounding the developing and tenuring of faculty, and the housing, feeding, and follies of students. In one fell swoop, we could wipe out deferred maintenance—the plague of aging college campuses. The economic ills that now ail higher education would be remedied, thanks to the kind of quick technological fix Americans have always found deeply appealing.

If so many people find the virtual university so promising, I find myself wondering, why fight it? Why am I troubled by it? I find myself thinking, too, about its implications for what we, as educators, are doing. The threat or promise of the virtual university—depending upon one's point of view—compels us to reflect on what it is that actual colleges are trying to accomplish, and to ask whether virtual colleges could do things better. I will return in a few minutes to the virtual university, but now I want to turn to this second question of what it is that actual colleges, especially liberal arts colleges, like Oberlin, are trying to accomplish.

Individuals enter college—including that uniquely American institution, the liberal arts college—for many reasons. Above all, students and their parents tell us that they come to college to learn the arts that will serve them well in making a living. Throughout the history of the Western university, this has always been the main reason for seeking an education, and a very good reason it is. Liberal arts colleges today believe that the best preparation for making a living comes through learning the arts of writing clearly and persuasively, reading carefully, evaluating evidence effectively, reasoning quantitatively and analytically, doing research, and thinking critically. A liberal education also involves acquiring familiarity with basic concepts of science, and gaining a sense of history—a particularity of time and place, and an ability to see oneself and one's life in time. All of these skills and competencies have long been central to a liberal education. They seem even more important today, as we educate a generation of students who are coming of age at a time when knowledge is expanding at a rate faster than ever before, and who can expect to change careers four or five times during their lives. Colleges like Oberlin take pride in the success they enjoy in enabling generation after generation of students to master these arts and to go on to great achievement in graduate and professional schools and in their professional lives.

Another essential goal of liberal education is to nurture individual students' intellectual and artistic creativity. Science education provides an excellent example. Liberal arts colleges have long been very successful in producing scientists. Oberlin, for example, has consistently produced more graduates who have gone on to complete doctorates in the natural sciences than any other undergraduate institution. We think that this success has a lot to do with the interaction between individual students and their teachers. Leading liberal arts colleges have long understood the value of the old institution of apprenticeship. This summer at Oberlin, scores of science students are working in research labs alongside their professor-mentors. Many of these students will

present papers at conferences and co-author articles for scientific journals based on their laboratory research. My point here is not that these achievements look good on student résumés—although they do—but rather that we believe that by doing collaborative research and by learning science by actually doing science within a close, ongoing relationship with a mentor, our students develop their creative gifts, and gain confidence in their abilities to complete hard intellectual tasks. This does much to convince us that excellence in education happens in relationship.

An excellent education is not only about building a strong foundation for entering a profession. Our students also come to us full of idealism. They look to college to help them learn arts by which they can make the world a better place. This is tricky. Educating our students for the adult lives they will lead ten, twenty, forty years down the road forces us to think about the needs of future generations, even while the primary function of the academy has always been to preserve and transmit knowledge accumulated by generations past. Certainly it is vital to educational excellence that students read and study the texts that have stood the test of time, and that we regard as the best of what has been thought and written. But we also need to ground education in our best assessments of what our current students will need as they live their lives, and the needs of the society they will inherit.

We know, for example, that a growing number of students are coming to college already realizing that we desperately need to reduce the size of the human footprint. Many are deeply committed to conserving the earth's resources, and to creating a future that is ecologically and economically sustainable. Environmental studies is the fastest growing major at many colleges, including Oberlin. What are the arts that our students will need for this endeavor? Here, frankly, the Western intellectual tradition is not up to the task that confronts us, for that tradition is grounded in the belief that human beings can and should assert mastery over nature. Our students will inherit a world in which human survival will depend upon finding ways to live in harmony with nature.

We provide strong degree programs in geology and chemistry, physics and biology, and courses in environmental economics, politics, and law so that students can gain some of the knowledge and competencies they will need to help save the environment. But we have to do more than this: We also need to help students develop the imagination to be concerned about future generations, about posterity. And we need to enable students to make connections among discrete academic fields of knowledge and apply their knowledge to real world environmental problems.

One way Oberlin is trying to realize these goals is by building the Adam Joseph Lewis Environmental Studies Center. This new structure will be a model and a laboratory for sustainable design in the areas of energy, water, waste, materials, landscape, and aesthetics. And it will serve as a campus center for interdisciplinary exchange about sustainability among faculty and students in the natural and social sciences and the humanities. Planning and building this center are themselves educational experiences. As David Orr, Oberlin's professor of environmental studies, has written, "the design, the construction, and the operation of academic buildings can be a liberal education in a microcosm that includes virtually every discipline in the catalog." Students and faculty, architects and engineers, have worked together through the myriad of economic, ecological, material, and ethical issues involved in planning this building. They have de-

signed and are now preparing to build a structure that discharges no waste water; generates more electricity than it uses; employs no materials known to be carcinogenic, mutagenic, or endocrine disrupters, and uses products and materials grown or manufactured sustainably; and is landscaped to promote biological diversity. You are all invited to come out and see it in about a year and a half.

All too often students engage with environmental issues only as problems. Giving students opportunities to participate in the planning and programming of this building has given them a chance to work to solve real problems. This kind of effort builds confidence and hope. Our experiences with projects like this one help convince us that an excellent education must be one that embodies tangible, tactile, experiential elements that can't be mediated by computer.

Most of all, students come to college today wanting to learn how to live together in a richly diverse America. They want to build bridges across the lines of race and class and ethnicity. They want to respect and celebrate our differences and at the same time establish some cultural common ground. They want answers to the question of how we can create a genuinely diverse community. They want to learn how to make diversity work. In voicing these concerns, they are reflecting the most important issues we face as a democratic society.

Diversity is not a new issue for America. Racial, ethnic, political, and religious diversity have always been part of our national fabric. At times, such as during the decades around the turn of the twentieth century, the social debate over issues of inclusion and pluralism was every bit as wide-ranging and intense as it is today. But diversity is a relatively new phenomenon for American colleges and universities. Until recently, higher education did not come close to reflecting the demographics of our society. Even Oberlin—the first college in the United States to make access central to its mission; to admit and educate students without regard to gender, race, or socioeconomic circumstance; and to stress the importance of interracial education—is far more diverse now than it has been at any time during its 163-year history.

Consider, for example, the cosmopolitan makeup of Oberlin's student body. We count among our students individuals from each of the fifty states, and more than forty nations around the world. Our students reflect the entire socioeconomic spectrum. About twelve percent of them are the first individuals in their families to attend college. Our students are African American and white, Latino, Native American, and Asian American. A good number of them come from families new to the United States, from the Caribbean, the Middle East, and from Korea, Vietnam, India, and Pakistan. They are Catholic and Muslim, Jewish and Buddhist, and Hindu and Protestant. A significant number are evangelical Christians. Our students hold and express a wide range of political and social opinions, many of which cannot be neatly pigeonholed as liberal or conservative. In short, Oberlin—like our colleges and universities generally—looks like America. Issues of diversity that are playing themselves out in American society are also playing themselves [out] on our campuses. Dealing with these issues brings to the fore the old-fashioned and long-neglected subject of civic virtue: How do we educate students to be engaged and responsible participants in the lives of their communities?

Critics of higher education tell us that colleges often make a hash of educating students for engaged citizenship in a diverse society. They say we make too big a deal about difference and too little a deal about common values. There is truth to this. We

need to do more on our campuses to help students learn that each of us has more than one identity, and that American identity is a matter of common belief in the political principles underlying the Republic, not a matter of race or ethnicity. We need to work harder to provide continuous encouragement to students to interact with and come to know and like one another across the lines of race and ethnicity. And we need to help students develop their imaginations and heighten their capacity for empathy for people different from themselves.

Our critics also tell us that colleges and universities have transformed themselves into cultural battlegrounds, rather than sticking with their legitimate jobs of transmitting and creating knowledge. This, in a nutshell, was Allan Bloom's argument about higher education in his bestseller of a few years ago, *The Closing of the American Mind*. He thought that if professors would just teach the great texts of Western civilization, students would come to think alike about what constitutes a good life and a just society. I think that Bloom's criticism, and his proposed solution, are off the mark. College students should read the "great books," but contemporary campuses will remain full of disagreement and contentiousness. Conflict is inevitable and sometimes desirable on a college campus that brings together students with widely differing experiences, perspectives, ideas, and values, just as conflict is inevitable in a democratic society. We don't need an end to fractious discussion. We do need, on and off campus, better and more civil ways to disagree with one another about the many social, political, cultural, and moral issues that divide us. Students need to learn how to disagree, and also to realize that people can disagree strenuously without severing their relationships with one another. As political philosopher Amy Guttmann tells us, our schools and colleges must "aim to develop their students' capacities to understand different perspectives, communicate their understandings to other people, and engage in the give-and-take of moral argument with a view to making mutually acceptable decisions." These are goals, she goes on, "which entail cultivating moral character and intellectual skills at the same time, [and] are likely to require some significant changes in traditional civics education, which has neglected teaching this kind of moral reasoning about politics."

Late at night, I do not find myself troubled by conflict and disagreement on campus or in America. What does trouble me is what seems to be an increasing willingness of Americans to abandon civic enterprise, democratic discourse, and political participation altogether.

This brings me back to the virtual university. Instead of cultivating the arts of actual face-to-face human relationship, the virtual university encourages us to be on our own in the virtual marketplace, free to make our individual learning contracts in cyberspace. Late at night I think especially about this. All of us will be on our own. In this cool electronic universe, we will not need to recognize that real education is always a social process. We will be free to contract exactly as we wish, meeting our individual needs with professors and courses and virtual colleges as we see fit. We will be free to expand or limit our access to information and ideas and opinions as we feel comfortable. There will be no conflict on the virtual campus, for we need never come into contact with one another. We can come to the table or leave the table, as we please. All of us will be on our own. Could this be the most fundamental appeal of the virtual university in this time of social and cultural uncertainty? This is what troubles me most of all about the prospect of virtual education.

Late at night, after worrying a while about the virtual university, I find it comforting to turn my thoughts to our earliest ideas about colleges in the first years of the American republic. From the end of the American Revolution through the first half of the nineteenth century, Americans looked to their colleges, in the words of the Northwest Ordinance, to further “religion, morality, and knowledge, [these] being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind.” Americans embodied their hopes for the new republic in the colleges they created, many of them here in Ohio, their hopes for an educated citizenry, capable of self-governance in an independent republic; their hopes for building a society in which individuals could have access to education and could better themselves economically and socially by dint of their own efforts; and their hopes for creating a genuinely American democratic culture. Many colleges and universities have long since ended their formal relationship with religion. And most of us don’t put morality in the forefront of our mission in ways that would be recognizable to our nineteenth-century counterparts. The phrase “happiness of mankind” does not trip easily off our tongues. But when we look closely at the mission of American colleges, it is not really so different from the one that the drafters of the Northwest Ordinance had in mind. We are very much in the business of educating citizens. We are very much in the business of furthering knowledge, and we know that the best teaching and learning happen in relationships, face to face. And, like our early American predecessors, we are concerned about furthering the “happiness of mankind.” For us today, this translates most clearly into realizing our need to learn to live together, across the lines of race and class and ethnicity, and to helping our students identify and master those arts that will best serve them in going about those most essential human tasks of love and work. Learning these arts seems to me to be inextricably tied to the sometimes messy, often ambiguous, always inexact, and usually contentious relationships in the actual rather than the virtual university.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. How does the speaker capture the audience’s attention?

Nancy S. Dye captures the audience’s attention by quoting Peter Drucker: “Thirty years from now, the big university campuses will be relics. Universities won’t survive. . . . Higher education is in deep crisis. The college won’t survive as a residential institution. Today’s buildings are hopelessly unsuited and totally unneeded.”

2. How does the speaker establish ethos?

She establishes ethos when she states, “Over the past year or so, I don’t think that a day has passed that I have not read about the coming of the ‘virtual university,’ or heard the prediction that distance learning will completely reinvent colleges and universities as we know them.”

3. How does the speaker maintain continuity throughout her speech?

She uses the refrain “late at night” to link the ideas in her speech so that it reflects her ruminations on what is transpiring in higher education, both positive and negative.

4. What is the claim of Dye's argument?

The speaker claims that it is the human, interpersonal contact that takes place in the actual university that leads to learning. Learning is a social process; the conflict and ambiguity that arise in this contact and the sharing of ideas inevitably lead to change and thus to learning.

5. What technique does Dye use to illustrate and support her claim?

Dye effectively uses a counterargument strategy in which she notes either what is occurring with the virtual university or what some expert has to say on the matter; she then uses rhetorical questions and illustrations of what goes on in the actual university to show that the claims about virtual universities are inaccurate, misleading, and fallacious. Thus, the speaker shows both sides of the issue, but it is also obvious that she doubts the virtual university side.