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COMM 1311: Fundamentals of Speech Communication

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Public Speaking- An Overview

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1-1-Students will be able to identify the main reasons why public speaking/communication skills are necessary to learn
1-2-Students will be able to differentiate between the different parts of the communication process and apply it to their own communication processes
1-3-Students will be able to recognize the important elements associated with public speaking including timing, muscle memory, emulation, and storytelling

1-1 Why public speaking? Why Now? Why Here?

Much to the dismay of the authors/editors of this book, this is a question that we are presented with time and time again by students of all types. Not just students at Prairie View A & M University, but even community college students ask this question. This was a question that was asked to me numerous times when I taught in Illinois. This question will never go away. Why do we/I need to take a public speaking course. The answer is also always the same. “Because it is required.” However, you the reader, and us as the authors/editors, know that this doesn’t answer the question. The real answer can be complicated, but this author/editor believes that the skills gained by public speaking will help you in any field, despite whether or not you end up working in a field that requires public speaking.

Author Marissa Campbell explains in an article in the online newsletter, The Nth Degree, for Newman University that there are 5 skills that employers are looking for the most. They include, critical thinking and problem solving. Check, we will most definitely explore that in this text and in the course. Just look at the chapters on persuasion. Teamwork and collaboration, check again (see group communication). Professionalism and a strong work ethic, yes absolutely (See interviewing, listening, presentation skills). Oral and written communication skills, a big YES here. Most certainly we will work on your skills to communicate effectively in both written, outlines, and in oral communication. Finally, Campbell argues that leadership is the fifth and final skill that employers are looking for. I, and the other authors/editors of this text, would argue that those who take this course and material in this book seriously will walk away with better and more refined leadership skills than they did when they walked in (Campbell, 2022).

So, this textbook and course will not only work with you to improve your communication skills, but it will also work with you to improve your critical thinking/problem solving skills, teamwork, professionalism, and leadership. If that doesn’t stress the importance of this subject, then I want you to imagine a world where public speaking doesn’t exist. No television speeches, no radio presentations, no teaching. Most fields require some type of presentation skills. By taking this course, you are embarking on a journey of self-improvement and marketability. By learning the skills and knowledge necessary to organize, prepare, and present stronger speeches and presentations. This book will outline the skills necessary to help you reach those goals. Let's get started by understanding how communication works.

1-2 Understanding the Communication Process

Conversation and public speaking are two forms of human communication, of which there are also small group communication, organizational communication, mass communication, and intercultural communication. All human communication is a process composed of certain necessary elements:

• People (often referred to as senders and receivers)
• context (can also include the environment or space where communication occurs)
• message
• channel
• noise (sometimes also referred to as interference)
• feedback
• outcome

Let us reiterate, communication is a process, not a singular event. It is continuous, and usually it relies on previous events, knowledge, or interaction to guide and motivate it. A simple, basic definition of communication is "sharing meaning between two or more people." Beyond a definition, we can break it down into its part or components and examine each.
Human communication first involves **people**. That is obvious, but we do not want to be so focused on the message or channel that we forget that people are at the center of communication. In public speaking it is common to call one person (**the speaker**) the "sender" and the audience the "**receiver(s**)," but in the real world it is not always as simple as that. Sometimes the speaker initiates the message, but other times the speaker is responding to the audience's initiation. It is enough to say that sender and receiver exchange roles sometimes and both are as necessary as the other to the communication process.

Human communication and public speaking secondly requires **context**. Context has many levels, and there are several "contexts" going on at the same time in any communication act. These contexts can include:

• Historical, or what has gone on between the sender(s) and receiver(s) before the speech. The historical elements can be positive or negative, recent or further back in time. In later chapters we will see that these past events can influence the speaker's credibility with the audience, as well as their understanding.
• Cultural, which sometimes refers to the country where someone was born and raised but can also include ethnic, racial, religious, and regional cultures or co-cultures. Culture is defined (Floyd, 2017) as "the system of learned and shared symbols, language, values, and norms that distinguish one group of people from another."

• Social, or what kind of relationship the sender(s) and receiver(s) are involved in, such as teacher-student, co-workers, employer-employee, or members of the same civic organization, faith, profession, or community.
• Physical, which involves where the communication is taking place and the attributes of that location. We also sometimes refer to this as the environment. The physical context can have cultural meaning (a famous shrine or monument) that influences the form and purpose of the communication, or attributes that influence audience attention (temperature, seating arrangements, or external noise).

Each one of these aspects of context bears upon how we behave as a communicator and specifically a public speaker.

Third, human communication of any kind involves a **message**. That message may be informal and spontaneous, such as small talk with a seatmate on a plane, conversing for no other reason than to have someone to talk to and be pleasant. On the other hand, it might be very formal, intentional, and planned, such as a commencement address or a speech in this course. It is also important to note that messages can come in two ways, through language or through nonverbal communication.

Fourth, public speaking, like all communication, requires a **channel**. We think of channel in terms of television or something like a waterway (The English Channel). Channel is how the message gets from sender to receiver. In interpersonal human communication, we see each other and hear each other, in the same place and time. In mediated or mass communication, some sort of machine or technology (tool) comes between the people—phone, radio, television, printing press and paper, or computer. The face-to-face channel adds to the immediacy and urgency of public speaking, but it also means that physical appearance and delivery can affect the receiver(s) positively and negatively. It also means that public speaking is linear in time and we do not always get a “redo” or “do-over.” It is important to remember this fact if you take a public speaking class online, as most instructors will require you to submit unedited speeches.

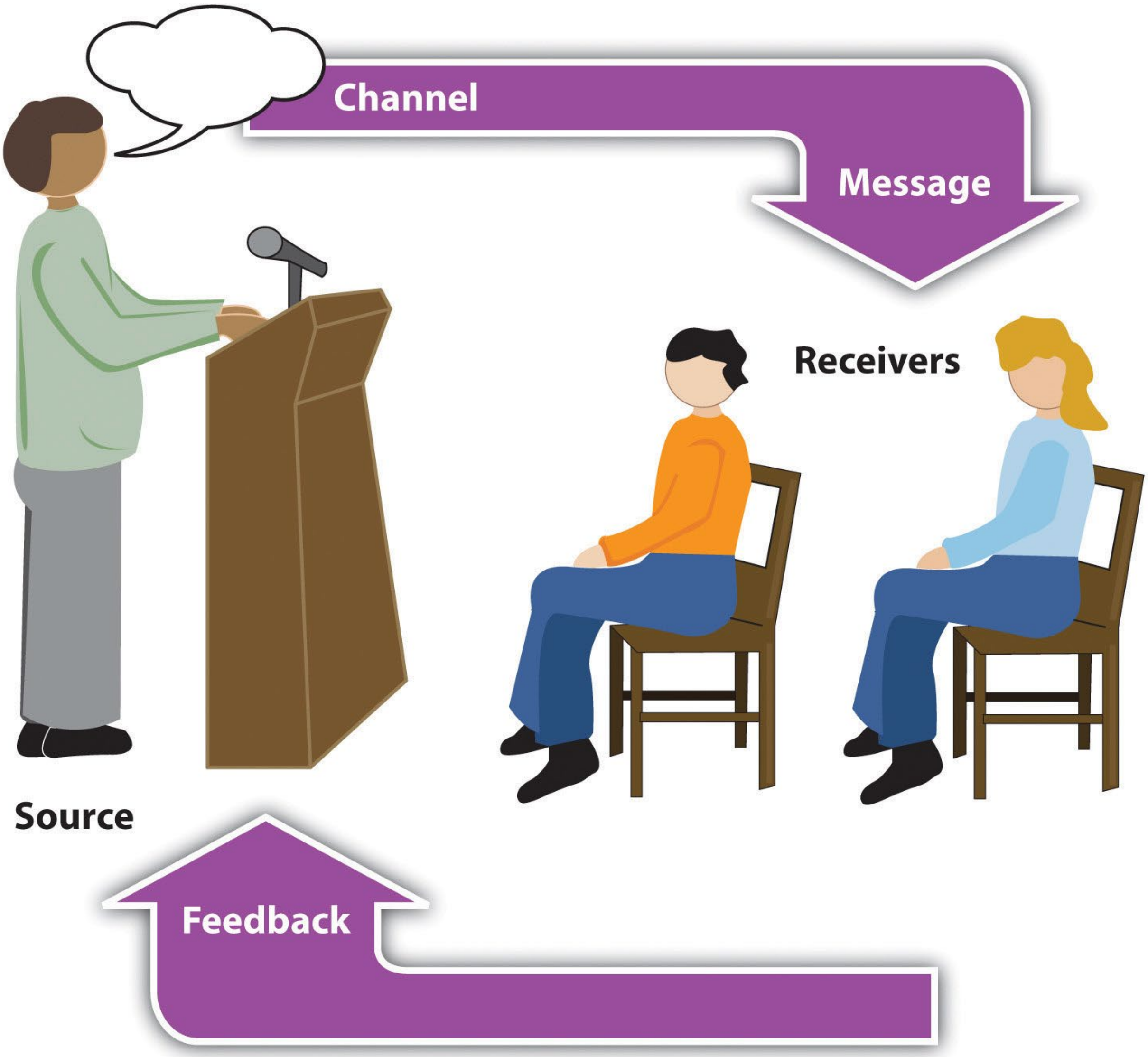
The fifth element of human communication is **feedback**, which in public speaking is usually nonverbal, such as head movement, facial expressions, laughter, eye contact, posture, and other behaviors that we use to judge audience involvement, understanding, and approval. Feedback is important because we use it in all communication encounters to evaluate our effectiveness and to decide the next step to take in the specific communication interaction. For example, a quizzical expression may mean we should explain ourselves again. Someone’s turning away from us is interpreted as disapproval, avoidance, or dismissal. These examples are all of nonverbal feedback, which is most common in public speaking. There are times when verbal feedback, language, from the audience is appropriate. You may stop and entertain questions about your content, or the audience may fill out a comment card at the end of the speech. You should stay in control of the verbal feedback, however, so that the audience does not feel as if they can interrupt you during the speech.

The sixth element of human communication is **noise**, which might be considered interruptions or interference. Some amount of noise is almost always present due to the complexity of human behavior and context. There are just so many things that can come into the communication process to obscure the messages being sent. Some of the ways that noise can be classified include:

• Contextual – something in the room or physical environment keeps them from attending to or understanding a message
• Physical – the receiver(s)' health affects their understanding of the message, or the sender's physical state affects her ability to be clear and have good delivery.
• Psychological – the receiver(s) or sender(s) have stress, anxiety, past experience, personal concerns, or some other psychological issue that prevents the audience from receiving an intended message.

This short list of three types of noise is not exhaustive, but it is enough to point out that many things can "go wrong" in a public speaking situation. However, the reason for studying public speaking is to become aware of the potential for these limitations or "noise" factors, to determine if they could happen during your speech, and take care of them. Some of them are preventable; for example, ones related to physical context can be taken care of ahead of time. Others can be addressed directly; for example, if you know the audience is concerned about a recent event, you can bring it up and explain how it relates to your topic.

The final element of the communication process is **outcome or result**, which means a change in either the audience or the context. For example, if you ask an audience to consider becoming bone marrow donors, there are certain outcomes. They will either have more information about the subject and feel more informed; they will disagree with you; they will take in the information but do nothing about the topic; and/or they will decide it's a good idea to become a donor and go through the steps to do so. If they become potential donors, they will add to the pool of existing donors and perhaps save a life. Thus, either they have changed, or the social context has changed, or both. This change feeds back into the communication process and can affect future communication encounters.



Now that we have reviewed the communication process, let's examine it in a public speaking situation. You have a speaker, Charles, who delivers a face to face (channel) informative speech about the history of Hillard Hall (message) to the other students in the class (receivers) in the classroom (physical context/environment). While delivering the speech, Charles is feeling hungry (psychological noise) and another student knocks on the door of the classroom (physical noise) while Charles is speaking. Students in class are giving Charles eye contact and nod when he makes his points (feedback). After the speech concludes, a student asks Charles a question (feedback) and then that student goes to conduct more research about the speech (outcome).

Humans have been aware and using public speaking for purposes of persuasion, religious preaching, and community-building for millennia. Corax, Tisias, Plato, Isocrates, and Aristotle studied or wrote books about rhetoric in the Hellenistic Age of Greek Civilization (third and fourth centuries BCE), and as scholars have widened their view, found that India and China had conceptualizations of rhetoric through

Buddha and Confucius, and Han Fei Tzu (Kennedy, 1980), as did Egyptians (Hutto, 2002). Public speaking as an art form and a social force has been around a long time. Marcus Cicero (106-43 B.C. E.) was a renowned politician, orator, and advocate of rhetoric in the late Roman Republic. For centuries he was considered the role model for aspiring public speakers. He discussed the process of public speaking in a unique way, proposing that a speaker go through the "canons (laws) of rhetoric" to create a speech.
These steps are:

1. invention (creating content)
2. disposition (organization and logic of arguments)
3. style (choosing the right level and quality of vocabulary)
4. memory (actually, memorizing famous speeches to learn good public speaking technique)
5. delivery (nonverbal communication).

We will use a similar approach in this book to help guide you to becoming a trained public speaker.

1-3 Getting Started In Public Speaking

To finish this first chapter, let's close with some foundational principles about public speaking, which apply no matter the context, audience, topic, or purpose.

Timing is Everything
We often hear this about acting or humor. In this case, it has to do with keeping within the time limits. As mentioned before, you can only know that you are within time limits by practicing and timing yourself; being within time limits also shows preparation and forethought. More importantly, being on time (or early) for the presentation and within time limits shows respect for your audience.

Public Speaking Requires Muscle Memory
If you have ever learned a new sport, especially in your teen or adult years, you know that you must consciously put your body through some training to get it used to the physical activity of the sport. An example is golf. A golf swing, unlike swinging a baseball bat, is not a natural movement and requires a great deal of practice, over and over, to get right. Pick up any golf magazine and there will be at least one article on "perfecting the swing." In fact, when done incorrectly, the swing can cause severe back and knee problems over time (Duvall, 2019).
Public speaking is a physical activity as well. You are standing and sometimes moving around; your voice, eye contact, face, and hands are involved. You will expend physical energy, and after the speech you may be tired. Even more, your audience's understanding and acceptance of your message may depend somewhat on how energetic, controlled, and fluid your physical delivery. Your credibility as a speaker hinges to some extent on these matters. Consequently, learning public speaking means you must train your body to be comfortable in front of an audience and to move in predictable and effective ways.

Emulation is the Sincerest Form of Flattery
Learn from those who do public speaking well, but find what works best for you. Emulation is not imitation or copying someone; it is following a general model. Notice what other speakers do well in a speech and try to incorporate those strategies. An example is humor. Some of us excel at using humor, or some types of it. Some of us do not, or do not believe we do, no matter how hard we try. In that case, you may have to find other strengths to becoming an effective speaker.

Know Your Strengths and Weaknesses
One such area is whether you are an extravert or introvert. Introverts, estimated by one source as up to 50% of the population (Buettner, 2012), get their psychological energy from being alone while extraverts tend to get it from being around others. This is a very basic distinction and there is more to the two categories, but you can see how an extravert may have an advantage with public speaking. However, the extravert may be tempted not to prepare and practice as much because they have so much fun in front of an audience, while the introvert may overprepare but still feel uncomfortable. Your public speaking abilities will benefit from increased self-awareness about such characteristics and your strengths.

Remember the Power of Story
Stories and storytelling, in the form of anecdotes and narrative illustrations, are your most powerful tool as a public speaker. For better or worse, audiences are likely to remember anecdotes and narratives long after a speech's statistics are forgotten. This does not mean that other types of proof are unimportant and that you just want to tell stories in your speech, but human beings love stories and often will walk away from a speech moved by or remembering a powerful story or example more than anything.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we have discussed why communication skills/public speaking skills are important. We have explained the importance of communication as a process and gone over the steps of that process, before finally presenting some important tidbits of information necessary for getting started in public speaking. As you move through the book and the course, you will be presented with each step necessary to help you gain the skills necessary to succeed in public speaking and overall communication presentation. Take these steps seriously. Learn from this textbook and your instructor and your fellow classmates. When you think about the question from the beginning of the chapter, why public speaking, by now it should be obvious, why not?

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

Tucker, Barbara; Barton, Kristin; Burger, Amy; Drye, Jerry; Hunsicker, Cathy; Mendes, Amy; and LeHew, Matthew, "Exploring Public Speaking: 4th Edition" (2019). Communication Open Textbooks. https://oer.galileo.usg.edu/communication-textbooks/1

Transactional Communication Photo derived from:

“Chapter 1-2: Why Public Speaking Matters Today” (2011) *Stand Up, Speak Out: The Practice and Ethics of Public Speaking.* University of Minnesota Libraries.

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Campbell, M. (2002). Top 5 Skills Employers Look For, *The Nth Degree*. (Accessed at https://newmanu.edu/top-5-skills-employers-look-for).

Chapter 2:
Fear and Communication Apprehension

Learning Objectives
2-1-Students will be able to explain the nature of Communication Apprehension (CA)
2-2-Students will be able to recognize sources of Communication Apprehension (CA)
2-3-Students will develop tools for reducing Communication Apprehension (CA)

2-1-What is Communication Apprehension?

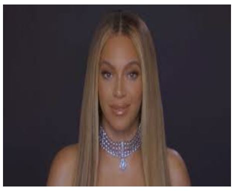
Communication apprehension (CA) refers to fear or anxiety experienced by a person due to natural or imagined communication with another person or persons. Both are commonly experienced by most people and can be managed using various strategies. How well we communicate is intimately connected to our self-image. The process of revealing ourselves to the evaluation of others can be threatening whether we are meeting new acquaintances, participating in group discussions, performing in front of an audience, or even public speaking.

Glossophobia, or a fear of public speaking, is a widespread phobia and one that is believed to affect up to 75% of the population. Some individuals may feel slightly nervous at the very thought of public speaking, while others experience full-on panic and fear. One of your biggest concerns about public speaking might be how to deal with nervousness or unexpected events. If that's the case, you're not alone—fear of speaking in public consistently ranks at the top of people's common fears list. Some people are not joking when they say they would rather die than stand up and speak in front of a live audience. The fear of public speaking ranks right with flying, death, snakes, and spiders.

For many, it all comes down to overcoming those nerves and convincing yourself that you can get up there and speak! Effective public speaking is not simply about learning what to say but developing the confidence to say it. Most people are anxious about being evaluated by an audience. Interestingly, many people assume that their nervousness is an experience unique to them. They think that other people do not feel anxious when confronting the threat of public speaking.

Each person deals with CA most effectively through increased self-awareness and a willingness to work on reducing its impact. We have said that experiencing some form of anxiety is a normal part of the communication process. To conquer the nervousness associated with public speaking, one must identify the factors that lead to this anxiety and then take specific steps to overcome this apprehension.

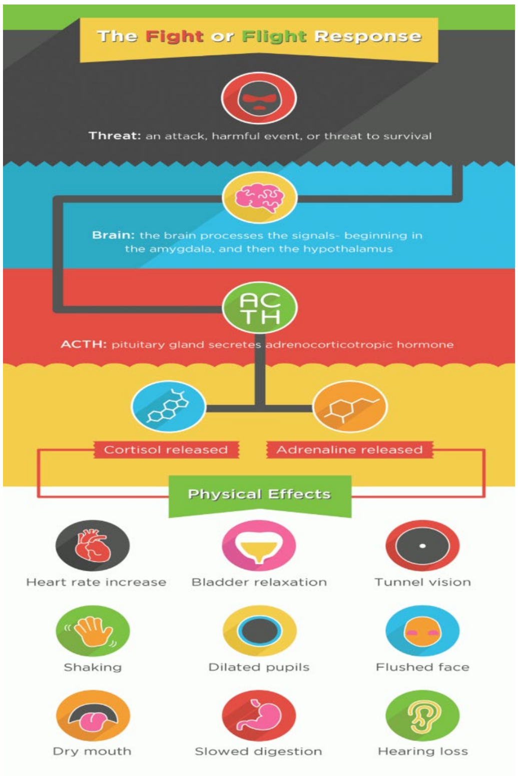
I get nervous when I don't get nervous. If I'm scared, I know I will have a good show.
– Beyonce Knowles



2-2 Sources of Communication Apprehension

Just as everyone is different, so too is each case of CA. There are specific distinctions between “stage fright”—a term reserved for everyday, virtually universal nervousness felt by *everyone*—and CA—which is essential “stage fright” with a corresponding emotional trauma attached. However, scholars are somewhat divided on whether CA is something inherent in the individual or if it is the result of experience. In most people, it is very likely a combination of factors.

Trait versus Situational Communication Apprehension
Trait anxiety is apprehension rooted in personality characteristics, meaning a person is generally anxious and engaging in the most comfortable. Some people may have a high level of anxiety across most communication scenarios. Situational anxiety occurs when a person who feels comfortable in most communication scenarios only feels fear in a particular situation at a specific time.



Adrenaline

Feeling nervous is psychological, but physical symptoms often accompany CA to ignore. These symptoms are due to the adrenaline hormone produced as a response to stressful situations. Adrenaline production is part of the process commonly known as the “fight or flight response,” whose purpose is to prepare the body for action. In other words, it is a naturally occurring performance accelerator. As adrenaline moves through our body, air passages dilate, and blood vessels contract to give muscles more oxygen. Pupils become enlarged and increase our metabolism. In an actual fight-or-flight scenario, one may not notice the physical effects of adrenaline.

2-3 Reducing Communication Apprehension

All students experience some speech anxiety – a fear or worry about having to deliver a speech. Even the best orators experience nervousness; the difference is not if they get nervous, but the question is to what degree. Public speakers experience anxiety, some just to a greater degree than others. When the stress is felt, it raises your alertness and is often evident in a physical context. It also can produce physical symptoms, such as restlessness, “butterflies in the stomach,”; accelerated heartbeat and breathing, nausea, sweaty palms, and a headache, among other symptoms.

The most crucial step to take to manage stress is to be prepared. You need to practice the information repeatedly to make it your own. It would help if you kept your perspective and did not let your emotions interfere with logic. Consider why you are anxious. Are you worried and afraid because of self-defeating thoughts? If you think you will do poorly, you set yourself up to do that. You must keep a positive attitude and talk to yourself. Say, “I have researched this speech effectively, and I have practiced it numerous times in front of my friends and family, so I will be able to deliver it successfully in class.” Use your imagination and visualize yourself being successful. We also suggest practicing what communication scholars call “positive self-talk rather than negative self-talk.”

The Little Engine That Could is an American folktale that became widely known in the United States after publication in 1930 by Platt & Munk. A train carrying toys and treats for good boys and girls breaks down in the Little Engine That Could. Three train engines decide not to help, each for their reasons. Finally, a little blue engine comes along and helps. Is this story a helpful reminder of the importance of perspective and optimism? Well, this little engine can teach us all a lesson.

Do you sometimes feel that a task is too big to handle?
Do you feel overwhelmed with the details and difficulty of the task?

And then the blue engine said: I think I can. I think I can. It was an extreme effort, but the little train kept chugging along, saying, “I think I can, can, and can.” Be the little engine that could confront your communication apprehension in speech delivery.

The last technique for controlling speech anxiety is to learn to relax. Just breathe and take a deep breath. A breath is considered one intake and one outtake. Next, slow down you're breathing and count your breaths again. The fewer breaths you take, the more your body will slow down. If you are anxious, you probably take fifteen to twenty breaths per minute, whereas relaxed, you can limit yourself to three or four breaths per minute without holding your breath. This exercise can help you focus and relax before giving a speech. If you find your mind is blocked just before giving your speech, close your eyes, take a long, deep breath, and let it out slowly. Concentrate on your breathing so that you can feel and hear yourself breathe. Keep in mind that being able to make your mind and body relax takes practice, so try these techniques in non-anxious situations. As you become comfortable with them, try them in anxiety-producing cases.

Finally, like Nike, "Just Do It."

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Chapter 3
Ethics and Plagiarism

Learning Objectives
3-1 Students will recognize the general philosophies that make up modern day ethics.
3-2 Students will be able to identify the definition of plagiarism
3-3 Students will be able to identify the different types of plagiarism
3-4 Students will understand the Prairie View A&M University academic dishonesty rules in relation to plagiarism

An Overview

This chapter is going to focus entirely on what is right and what is wrong. We will discuss honesty, and how we might commit ethical transgressions in our speeches. If you have ever had someone else claim your work as their own without giving you any credit, then we are sure that you know that is not a pleasant feeling. In this chapter, we seek to make sure that you do not do such a thing to another author, and to make sure you avoid the negative consequences tied into it.

No good communication can come without a basic assumption of honesty. Generally speaking, we bring that assumption to every encounter we have. Imagine living in a world wherein you thought that everybody was lying to you all of the time. It would be almost impossible to carry on and form relationships in a real and meaningful manner. Many Americans would say they hold to the Golden Rule: “Do unto others as you would have them do to you.” The Golden Rule is seen as a positive expression of fairness, equity, and trust. Even if there is no legal ruling hanging over us, we expect honest communication and return it. The Golden Rule is related to and a step beyond the “Law of Reciprocity” that determines so much of our social interaction. fear public humiliation and do not want to violate community norms. We also usually view ourselves as honest and ethical people.

To this end, this chapter will deal with the subject of ethics. **Ethics** refers to the branch of philosophy that involves determinations of what is right and moral. On a personal level, it is your own standard of what you should and should not do in the various situations or in all situations. Although ethics are based on personal decisions and values, they are also influenced by factors outside of you.

Most religions teach the value of truthfulness and that lying intentionally is wrong. The Books of Proverbs, the Ten Commandments, the Mosaic Law, and Jesus Christ’s teaching all point to the immorality of lying and the destruction lying brings personally and communally. Quranic teaching condemns lying, and Buddhism teaches that followers should not deliberately lie. Individuals internalize the norms of their cultures and religions and makes them work for him or her. Mearly all religions and legal systems take time to illustrate the necessity of honesty and the destructiveness of lying. The Code of Hammurabi, one of the first examples of recorded law, mentions punishments for being dishonest. Upbringing and family teachings, religious values, experiences, peers, and just plain old “gut reaction” all contribute to our ethical behavior.

3-1: The Philosophy of Ethics

One of “right things” and most important ways that we speak ethically is to use material from others correctly. Occasionally we hear in the news media about a political speaker who uses the words of other speakers without attribution or of scholars who use pages out of another scholar’s work without consent or citation. Usually the discussion of plagiarism stays within the community where it occurred, but there is still damage done to the “borrower’s” reputation as an ethical person and scholar. Why does it matter if a speaker or writer commits plagiarism? Why and how do we judge a speaker as ethical? Why, for example, do we value originality and correct citation of sources in public life as well as the academic world, especially in the United States? These are not new questions, and some of the answers lie in age-old philosophies of communication.

Philosophers throughout history have also written on the subject of communication and public speaking ethics. In fact, one of the first philosophers, Plato, objected to the way rhetoric was practiced in his day, because “it made the worse case appear the better.” In other words, the professional public speakers, who could be hired to defend someone in court or the assembly, knew and used techniques that could deceive audiences and turn them from truth. Aristotle responded to this concern from his teacher Plato in his work, Rhetoric. Later, Quintilian, a Roman teacher of rhetoric, wrote that rhetoric was “the good man speaking well,” meaning the speaker must meet the Roman Republic’s definition of a virtuous man.

In more modern times, English philosophers John Stuart Mill (1806- 1873) and Jeremy Bentham (1748-1832) introduced utilitarianism, which presents the ethic of “The greatest good for the greatest number;” that is, whatever benefits the most people is right. A related philosophy, pragmatism, was first discussed by Charles Sanders Pierce (1839-1914). Pragmatists judge actions by their practical consequences. Some ethicists would differ with the pragmatic position, claiming it supports an “ends justify the means” philosophy. When we say “the ends justify the means,” we are saying that a generally unethical action (intentional misstatement of truth, withholding information, or taking any someone’s freedom of choice) is ethical as long as something good comes from it. Many scholars of ethical communication would disagree with the “ends justify the means” philosophy.

The philosopher Immanuel Kant (1724-1804) proposed what was been called the Categorical Imperative: “Act only according to that maxim by which you can at the same time will that it would become a universal law.” To paraphrase, any behavior we engage in should be what we think everyone else on the planet should do ethically. In the twentieth century, JeanPaul Sartre and others called “existentialists” emphasized that the ability and necessity to freely choose our actions is what makes us human, but we are accountable for all our choices. Jurgen Habermas, a more recent scholar, emphasizes the “equal opportunity for participation” of the communication partners (Johannessen, Valde, & Whedbe, 2008).

This very brief overview of ethics in general and in communication specifically is designed to let you know that the best minds have grappled with what is right and wrong when it comes to expression. But what is the practical application? We believe it is adherence to the factual truth and respect for your audience: in this case, your classmates, peers, and your instructor. An individual might be guided by the Categorical Imperative approach, the pragmatic philosophy, the Judeo-Christian view of “thou shalt not lie” and “speaking the truth in love” (Ephesians 4:15), the Golden Rule, freedom with accountability, or some other view. However, respect for your audience means that you will do your best to present factual, well-documented information designed to improve their lives and help them make informed, intelligent decisions with it.

3-2: Plagiarism

Although there are many ways that you could undermine your ethical stance before an audience, the one that stands out and is committed most commonly in academic contexts is plagiarism. According to the University, plagiarism is defined as:

1. Failing to credit sources used in a work or product in an attempt to pass off the work as one’s own.
2. Attempting to receive credit for work performed by another, including papers obtained in whole or in part from individuals or other sources.
3. Attempting to receive credit in one or more classes for the same paper or project without written approval of instructors involved.

According to the student help website Plagiarism.org, sponsored by WriteCheck, plagiarism is often thought of as “copying another’s work or borrowing someone else’s original ideas” (“What is Plagiarism?”, 2022). However, this source goes on to say that the common definition may mislead some people. Plagiarism also includes:

- Turning in someone else’s work as your own;
- Copying words or ideas from someone else without giving credit;
- Failing to put quotation marks around an exact quotation correctly;
- Giving incorrect information about the source of a quotation;
- Changing words but copying the sentence structure of a source without giving credit;
- Copying so many words or ideas from a source that it makes up the majority of your work, whether you give credit or not.

Plagiarism exists outside of the classroom and is a temptation in business, creative endeavors, and politics. However, in the classroom, your instructor will probably take the most immediate action if he or she discovers your plagiarism either from personal experience or through using plagiarism detection (or what is also called “originality checking”) software. Many learning management systems, perhaps such as the one used at your institution, now have a plagiarism detection program embedded in the function where you submit assignments.

In the business or professional world, plagiarism is never tolerated because using original work without permission (which usually includes paying fees to the author or artist) can end in serious legal action. The Internet has made plagiarism easier and thus increased the student’s responsibility to know how to cite and use source material correctly.

Types of Plagiarism

In our long experience of teaching, we have encountered many instances of students presenting work they claim to be original and their own when it is not. We have also seen that students often do not intend to plagiarize but, due to poor training in high school, still are committing an act that could result in a failing grade or worse. Generally, there are three levels of plagiarism: stealing, sneaking, and borrowing. Sometimes these types of plagiarism are intentional, and sometimes they occur unintentionally (you may not know you are plagiarizing). However, as everyone knows, "Ignorance of the law is not an excuse for breaking it." So let's familiarize you with how plagiarism occurs in order to prevent it from happening.

Stealing

There is a saying in academia: "If you steal from one source, that is plagiarism; if you steal from twelve, that is scholarship." Whoever originated this saying may have intended for it to be humorous, but it is a misrepresentation of both plagiarism and scholarship.

No one wants to be the victim of theft; if it has ever happened to you, you know how awful it feels. When a student takes an essay, research paper, speech, or outline completely from another source, whether it is a classmate who submitted it for another instructor, from some sort of online essay mill, or from elsewhere, this is an act of theft no better or worse than going into a store and shoplifting. The wrongness of the act is compounded by the fact that then the student lies about it being his or her own. If you are tempted to do this, run the other way. Your instructor will probably have no mercy on you, and probably neither will the student conduct council.

Sneaking

In "sneaking plagiarism," instead of taking work as a whole from another source, the student will copy two out of every three sentences and mix them up so they don't appear in the same order as in the original work. Perhaps the student will add a fresh introduction, a personal example or two, and an original conclusion. This "sneaky" plagiarism is easy today due to the Internet and the word processing functions of cutting and pasting.

In fact, many students do not see this as the same thing as stealing because they think "I did some research, I looked some stuff up, and I added some of my own work." Unfortunately, this approach is only marginally better than stealing and will probably end up in the same penalties as the first type of plagiarism. Why? Because no source has been credited, and the student has "misappropriated" the expression of the ideas as well as the ideas themselves. Interestingly, this type of plagiarism can lead to copyright violation if the work with the plagiarism is published.

One area in speeches where students are not careful about citing is on their presentation slides. If a graphic or photo is borrowed from a website (that is, you did not design it), there should be a citation in small letters on the slide. The same would be true of borrowed quotations, data, and ideas. Students also like to put their "works cited" or "references" on the last slide, but this really does not help the audience or get around the possibility of plagiarism.

Borrowing

The third type of plagiarism is "borrowing." In this case, the student is not stealing wholesale. He or she may actually even give credit for the material, either correctly or incorrectly. He might say, "According to the official website of . . ." or "As found in an article in the Journal of Psychology, Dr. John Smith wrote . . ." Sounds good, right? Well, yes and no. It depends on whether the student has borrowed in a "sneaky way" (cutting and pasting passages together but this time indicating where the sections came from) or if the student is using the ideas but not the exact wording. In other words, has the student adequately, correctly, and honestly paraphrased or summarized the borrowed material, or just "strung the sources together" with some "according to's"?

3-3: Prairie View A&M Academic Dishonesty Policy

As students at Prairie View A&M University, it is important that you understand our academic dishonesty policy. We have covered earlier in the chapter the University definition of plagiarism. Here, we would like to focus on the negative consequences of plagiarizing, as laid out in the Prairie View A&M Student Code of Conduct. Your punishment would most likely come in the form of one of following primary sanctions. A student who has been issued a primary sanction is deemed "not in good standing" with the University, and has the following restrictions:

- Ineligible to hold any elected or appointed office recognized by the University.
- Ineligible to represent the University community in any activity or program.
- Review of eligibility to receive financial aid administered by the University.
- Notice of the disciplinary status in the student's file.
- Subsequent violations of the Code of Student Conduct during the probationary period constitutes a violation of the probation and may subject the student to major disciplinary action and recording of the results in the student's file.

Other punishments for plagiarism may include:

1. **Expulsion:** separation of the student from the University whereby the student is not eligible for readmission.
2. **Dismissal:** separation of the student from the University for an indefinite period of time. Readmission to the University may be possible.
3. **Suspension:** separation of the student from the University for a definite period of time. The student is not guaranteed readmission at the end of this period of time but is guaranteed a review of the case and a decision regarding eligibility for readmission.
4. **Deferred Suspension:** the sanction of suspension may be placed in deferred status. If the student is found in violation of any University regulation during the time of deferred suspension, the suspension is immediate without further review. Additional disciplinary action appropriate to the new violation may also be taken.

5. Conduct Probation: an official warning that the student's conduct is in violation of Prairie View A&M University's Code of Student Conduct or the Penal Code of the State of Texas but is not sufficiently serious to warrant expulsion, dismissal or suspension.

6. Suspension or Loss of Lab Privileges: prohibited use of lab privileges for a specific period of time or loss of access to a designated lab or all labs.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have covered the ethics of public speaking, and dealt directly with how to behave in a way that is both honest and helpful to your audience. We have likewise covered the topic of plagiarism, and discussed what it is, and how we can prevent it. Though unpleasant, we have also taken a look at what some of the consequences for plagiarism are. If you ever have any questions about plagiarism, and are not sure if you might be walking the line between honesty and dishonesty, then please consult your instructor. They would much rather help you before hand than punish you after.

Please remember that it is up to each and every one of us to take it upon ourselves to be honest and ethical speaks and individuals. We must set a good example for those around us, for our friends, and for our family.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

Tucker, Barbara; Barton, Kristin; Burger, Amy; Drye, Jerry; Hunsicker, Cathy; Mendes, Amy; and LeHew, Matthew, "Exploring Public Speaking: 4th Edition" (2019). Communication Open Textbooks. https://oer.galileo.usg.edu/communication-textbooks/1

(https://plagiarism.org/article/what-is-plagiarism)

(https://www.pvamu.edu/academicaffairs/academic-integrity/offense-levels-and-actions-sanctions/)

(https://www.pvamu.edu/sa/wp-content/uploads/sites/77/PVAMU-Code-of-Student-Conduct.pdf)

Chapter 4:
Perception and Listening

Learning Objectives
4-1-Students will be able to understand the value of listening
4-2-Students will be able to differentiate between listening and hearing
4-3-Students will be able to recognize different listening styles and barriers to effective listening
4-4-Students will be able to explain how perception and attention affect the speech-giving process

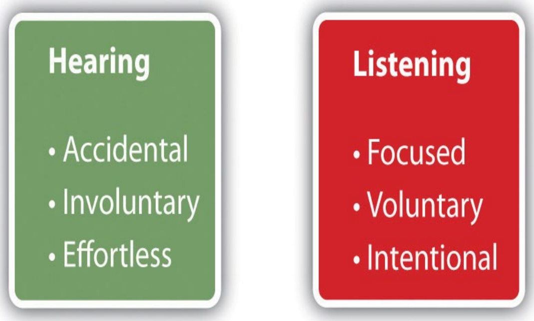
4-1- The Value of Listening

“In one ear and out the other”
“You’re not listening.”
“Can you hear me; can you hear me now?”
“We have two ears, one tongue so that we would listen more and talk less.”

These statements are a general summary of the difference between hearing and listening. Public speaking requires an audience to hear. What makes public speaking genuinely effective is when the audience both hears and listens. Hearing and listening are not the same. Listening requires excellent effort. After all, Mcferren (2009), symbols for ears, eyes, undivided attention, and heart comprise the Chinese character for “to listen.” This chapter will offer skills needed to listen effectively.

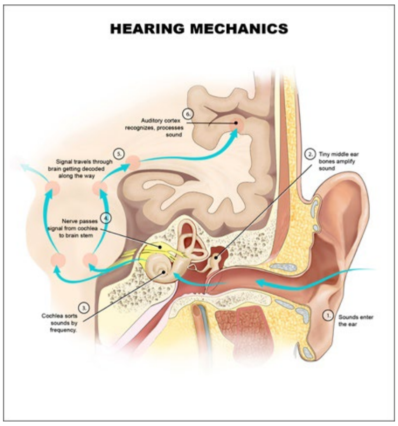
Developing listening skills will significantly impact your professional and personal lives. Listening will benefit students in their educational and academic careers. Students passively listen to a professional lecture about a dull subject matter, and you might check a social media site while listening to what the professor is saying. Trying to recall what the professor says often will result in a challenge because the information will be lost without your attention and intention. Listening is one of the infants' first skills to acquire language and learn to communicate with their parents. Some researchers suggest listening is the activity we do the most in life, second to breathing.
If listening is done well, the communication model (Chapter 1) goes into effect by the sender (speaker) and receiver (listener). The speaker shares a message with the listener. The receiver aims to interpret and understand the speaker's message. Communication effectiveness is determined by the level of shared interpretation and the listener's response and feedback. Listening to a speaker's words will positively impact your interactions.

4-2-Hearing vs. Listening



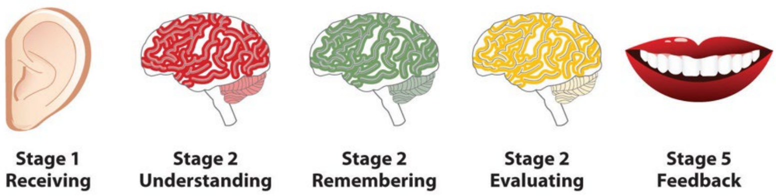
Hearing is an accidental and automatic brain response to sound that requires no effort. Hearing is something most everyone does without even trying. It is a physiological response to sound waves moving through the air at up to 760 miles per hour. First, we receive the sound in our ears. The sound wave causes our eardrums to vibrate, which engages our brain to begin processing. The sound is then transformed into nerve impulses to perceive the sound in our brains. Our auditory cortex recognizes a sound that has been heard and begins to process it by matching it to previously encountered sounds in a process known as an auditory association. When you are asleep but wake up in a panic, having heard noises in the house, an age-old self-preservation response kicks in. You were asleep. You weren't listening for noise.

Hearing is unintentional, whereas listening requires you to pay conscious attention. Our bodies hear, but we need to employ an intentional effort to listen. We are surrounded by sounds most of the time. We hear the sounds unless we have a reason to do otherwise; we train ourselves to ignore these sounds. We filter out sounds, and we filter out unimportant sounds. We listen to more important sounds, like the sound or ringtone of our cell phone.



Listening is a learned process and skill we can improve with concerted effort. Listening is receiving, understanding, remembering, evaluating, and responding (providing feedback) to verbal and nonverbal messages (Brownell, 2006). In the receiving stage, we select and attend to various stimuli based on salience. We then interpret auditory and visual stimuli to make meaning out of them based on our existing schemata. Short-term and long-term memory store stimuli until they are discarded or processed for later recall. We then evaluate a message's credibility, completeness, and worth before responding with verbal and nonverbal signals.

The receiving stage of listening is the primary stage where an individual hears a message sent by a speaker. The understanding stage of listening occurs when a receiver of a message attempts to figure out the meaning of the message.
The remembering stage of listening is when a listener either places information into long-term memory or forgets the data presented.
The evaluating stage of listening occurs when a listener judges the message's content or the speaker's character.
The responding stage of listening occurs when a listener provides verbal or nonverbal feedback about the speaker or message. During the listening phase, listeners can give feedback.



4-3-Listening Styles

Just as there are different types of listening, there are also different styles. People may be categorized as one or more of the following listeners: people-oriented, action-oriented, content-oriented, and time-oriented listeners. Research finds that 40 percent of people have more than one preferred listening style and choose a type based on the listening situation (Bodie & Villaume, 2003).

People-oriented listeners
The people listener is interested in the speaker. People-oriented listeners listen to the message to learn how the speaker thinks and how they feel about the news. For example, when people-oriented listeners listen to an interview with a famous music artist, they are likely to be more curious about the artist as an individual than about music, even though the people-oriented listener might also appreciate the artist's work. People-oriented listeners are likely to be more attentive to the speaker than the message.

Action-oriented listeners
Action-oriented listening is sometimes called task-oriented listening. Action-oriented listeners are primarily interested in finding out what the speaker wants. Does the speaker want votes, donations, volunteers, or something else? It's sometimes difficult for an action-oriented speaker to listen through the descriptions, evidence, and explanations with which a speaker builds their case.

Content-oriented listeners
Content-oriented listeners are interested in the message, whether it makes sense, what it means, and whether it's accurate. When you give a speech, many members of your classroom audience will be content-oriented listeners interested in learning from you. Therefore, you are obligated to represent the truth possibly. You can

emphasize an idea, but if you exaggerate, you could lose credibility in the minds of your content-oriented audience.

Time-oriented listeners
People using a time-oriented listening style prefer a message that gets to the point quickly. Time-oriented listeners can become impatient with slow delivery or lengthy explanations. This kind of listener may be receptive for only a brief time.

4-3-Listening Barriers

At times, everyone has difficulty staying entirely focused during a lengthy presentation. We can sometimes have trouble listening to even relatively brief messages. Some factors that interfere with good listening might exist beyond our control, but others are manageable.

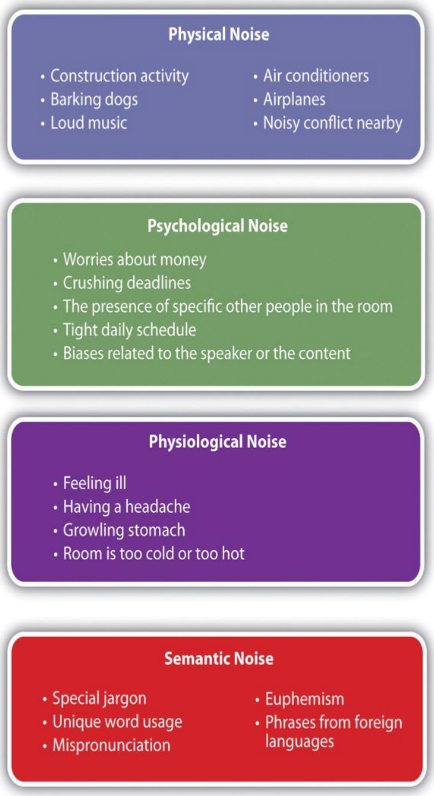
Noise
Noise is one of the most significant factors to interfere with listening; it can be defined as anything interfering with your ability to attend to and understand a message. There are many kinds of noise, but in public speaking situations, you are most likely to encounter: physical, psychological, physiological, and semantic noise (Brownell, 2006).

Physical Noise
Physical noise consists of various sounds in an environment that interfere with a source's ability to hear. Construction noises right outside a window, planes flying directly overhead, or loud music in the next room can make it challenging to listen to the message being presented by a speaker, entering a room loudly while the speaker is presenting, even if a microphone is being used.

Psychological Noise
Psychological noise consists of a speaker's message distractions caused by a receiver's internal thoughts. For example, if you are preoccupied with personal problems, it isn't easy to give your full attention to understanding the meanings of a message. The presence of another person you feel attracted to, or perhaps a person you dislike intensely, can also be psychosocial noise that draws your attention away from the message.

Physiological Noise
Physiological noise consists of distractions to a speaker's message caused by a listener's own body. Maybe you're listening to a speech in class around noon and haven't eaten anything. Your stomach may be growling, and you're daydreaming about lunch. Maybe the room is cold, and you're thinking more about how to keep warm than about what the speaker is saying. Either way, your body can distract you from attending to the presented information.

Semantic noise
Semantic Noise occurs when a receiver experiences confusion over the meaning of a source's word choice. The speaker continues to present the message while attempting to understand a particular word or phrase. While struggling with a word interpretation, you are distracted from listening to the rest of the news.



4-4- Attention Factors and Supporting Material

In Chapter 2, we discussed how public speaking as an oral communication form differs from written forms of communication. Therefore, as a speaker, you must work to maintain the attention of your audience. In this section, we will look more deeply at the watch and how you can use supporting materials to keep the audience's attention, in addition to the essential functions of clarifying and proving ideas.

What is Attention?

Attention and perception are closely tied concepts, but they are not the same. If you have taken an introduction to psychology course, one of the earliest chapters in the textbook was probably about perception since our perceptual processes are foundational to thinking and functioning. Perception deals primarily with how we organize and interpret the patterns of stimuli around us. The keywords in this definition are patterns, manage, and analyze. The brain does the work of taking thousands of stimuli around us and making sense of them. The sensation is taking in the stimuli in the physical realm; perception is doing something with it psychologically. Perception is influenced by memory, experiences, past learning, etc. If you taste a desert, the scent and taste are physically going to your brain, and thus you are sensing it. But if you say, "This tastes like my mother's recipe for this desert," you are perceiving. Attention, on the other hand, is focused perception. Attention is focused on one stimulus while ignoring or suppressing reactions to different stimuli. It has been referred to as the "allocation of limited processing resources" (Anderson, 2005, p. 519).

In the figure, two balls from the upper chutes (representing the two sources of stimuli, such as two auditory messages) are trying to enter the central line simultaneously. For a practical example you can probably relate to, let's say these balls represent watching TV and playing a game on your phone simultaneously. Only one ball can go through the single chute at a time, meaning your focus (the ideas or tasks you can think about at a given moment). The "balls" or stimuli must take turns, therefore making your attention shift back and forth, affecting your ability to do one task versus the other. When you try to pay attention to two things at once, you will let the information in but must switch back and forth on the pathways, making your attention (listening, reading, processing) less efficient. This means that in our example above, you're going to miss something.

Why Do We Pay Attention?

Perception is not something we have much control over, but we have more say in attention. There are five reasons we pay attention to what we do when confronted with many competing stimuli.

1. We choose to focus on one thing over another. Plain and simple, we grit our teeth and pay attention, such as when we are making ourselves study complex material for a test. While this is a behavior we accept as adults, as public speakers, we should not expect the audience to do all the work of paying attention just because they feel a duty to do so; they probably will not. We should attempt to meet the audience halfway by using our understanding of attention. We should use various techniques in our speech to help the audience pay attention.

2. Expectations. If a speaker starts a lecture with, "In this presentation, I am going to say the word 'serendipity,' and when I do, the first person who jumps up and says 'gotcha' will get this $100 bill." The audience is expecting to hear something and tuning in for it. Of course, this is an extreme example (and we don't recommend it!), but when a speaker gives an introduction that tells the audience what to expect, attention can be helped.

3. Need states. Have you ever noticed that the hamburgers in the fast-food commercials look juicier and more delicious when you are hungry? When we are in a need state, we will be focused on those items that meet the need. When your instructor begins discussing in class what you can expect on the next exam, you probably perk up a bit since this is information students generally need to know to do well in class. Because that information meets a personal need, they will be more receptive and focused on it.

4. Past training and experiences. You will notice what you have been taught or trained, either directly or indirectly, to focus on. Sometimes you will not even be aware that you are doing so.

5. All these reasons for paying attention are relevant to the public speaker, but the last one is most directly usable and related to supporting material. There are certain qualities or characteristics of stimuli that naturally attract our attention. These have been termed the "factors of attention." If a public speaker puts these traits into the speech and presentation aids, the audience's ability to pay attention will be bolstered.

Factors that Maintain Your Attention

1. The first factor in getting or maintaining attention is movement. A moving object will gain more attention than a stationary one. Movement is one of the factors of engagement you can use in different ways.

2. The second factor of attention is conflict. Showing ideas, groups, teams, etc., that are in conflict draws attention. Stories can also utilize competition.

3. The third factor of attention is a novelty. Your ideas and how you approach them should be fresh and new to the audience. If you want to tell a joke, be sure to say to it, not read it, and practice the delivery well.

4. The fourth factor of attention is familiarity. As mentioned, supporting materials should be immediately accessible and draw from your audience's experience so they can understand quickly in an oral communication setting. Familiarity works better to explain a new concept; novelty works better to pique an audience's interest.

5. The fifth factor is contrast. This one is beneficial to a speaker in creating visual aids so that keywords stand out, for example, on presentation slides. The difference also applies to the variety in your voice (avoiding what we would call monotone).

6. The sixth factor of attention is repetition. We have already seen how essential repetitions at points in the speech can remind the audience of your structure and main ideas.

7. Suspense is the seventh factor of attention. Although not as valuable for public speaking as some factors, suspense can be helpful in an introduction.

8. The eighth factor is proximity, which refers to physical closeness. While not supporting materials, proximity relates to public speaking delivery. The more physical distance between the audience members and the speaker and the audience, the harder it will be for the audience to remain attentive.

9. The ninth factor of attention is need-oriented subjects. We pay attention to what meets our needs.

10. The tenth factor is intensity, which is also helpful in the delivery aspect of public speaking. Raising your voice at crucial times and slowing down is helpful for attention.

11. The last attention factor is concreteness, which describes all of them. All the supporting materials factors are tied to actual or concrete experience.

Conclusion

It is hard to imagine an effective speech without various supporting materials. Think of it like cooking a flavorful cuisine—there will be a mixture of spices and tastes, not just one. Statistics, narratives and examples, testimony, definitions, descriptions, and facts all clarify your concepts for the audience, and statistics, testimony, facts, and historical examples also support logical arguments. When composing your speech, provide sources and use varied and exciting.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

Saylor Foundation. (2019). “Unit 2: *Comm 101: Public Speaking.* Communication Open Textbooks.

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Chapter 5
Accurate Audience Analysis

Learning Objectives

5-1- Students will be able to identify and avoid being egocentric and ethnocentric in their presentations.
5-1- Students will recognize the difference between being ego/ethnocentric and presenting an argument to an audience.
5-2- Students will be able to compare and contrast the three types of audience analysis and apply audience analysis to their own presentations.
5-3- Students will learn how to apply audience analysis to specific speaking situations.

5-1 Why it is important to not make it about you!

Over the author's over 20 years of experience in the classroom watching speeches, it has become clear that students like talking about themselves and their own interests. This is NOT a bad thing by any stretch of the imagination. In fact, we encourage you to choose topics that you care about or that you want to know more about. Honestly, that makes for a better speech. However, it is important to recognize that you must also remain audience centered. What does that mean? Being audience centered means that your central focus of your speech is what the audience takes away from the speech at its conclusion. You are centered on what the audience cares about and how the audience will react to your specific message. This requires work. We call that work, audience analysis. We will discuss the types of audience analysis in the next section of this chapter, but first it is important to understand what not to do when you start to prepare and present a presentation.

There are two specific pitfalls that are important to avoid when preparing and presenting and these are called egocentrism and ethnocentrism. First, egocentrism is defined by Meriam Webster's dictionary as "concern" for yourself and "disregard" for others. Simply, it means you are preparing content with only your own thoughts, feelings, and agenda in mind without taking the audience into account. For example, if Maria is preparing a speech about the elimination of free tuition for students when she knows that over half of her audience is made up of students who receive free tuition for a multitude of reasons this could be egocentrism. If Maria was trying to make an argument and used logic, then this might not fall under the category of egocentrism, but instead Maria uses insults towards these students and threats that free tuition students should be kicked off campus. Because of this, Maria is being egocentric. She only cares about her own self, and she disregards the thoughts and feelings of her audience. Second, ethnocentrism needs to be avoided also. Think egocentrism, but this time you believe that "your" culture and beliefs are more important than "others" (Kon, 1989). Every three or four years this author sees a student presenting a speech about how immigrants are taking jobs away from hard working Americans. This is a clear example of ethnocentrism, and the student not understanding that the United States was founded by immigrants, immigrants take jobs that some Americans refuse to take, and that not all immigrants are 'illegal'. When you are writing and researching your presentations, it is important to avoid both egocentrism and ethnocentrism and strive to be audience centered. In the next section we will discuss audience analysis and useful tools for avoiding these two problems.

5-2 Three Types of Audience Analysis

Human beings love making judgments. We love analyzing people based on their looks, buying habits, driving habits, and many other reasons that are too long to list here. When you do this, you are conducting an audience analysis. While you may not be giving a presentation to that audience, these judgements help us make decisions about what our next plans of action are going to be. Believe me, the retail industry has been conducting an audience analysis on you since the moment you walked into a store and asked your parents for your first toy. Sometimes with enough advanced notice, you as a presenter can conduct an audience analysis in advance that is less passive than just looking at your audience from afar and make judgments about what choices you should make when writing and presenting. For this purpose, we will discuss three types of audience analysis that you can conduct by asking your audience questions, (through a survey or some other means), or also just by analyzing what your audience looks like or what the situation/environment presents to you.

Demographics

The first type of audience analysis is **demographic** audience analysis. If you have ever taken a survey, you most likely have answered demographic questions at the end. Demographics are a way to generalize people into a category based on characteristics they share. Researchers use this data to classify people and data into categories so they can better understand the human experience. Basically, you would do the same thing when conducting this type of analysis for your presentation. Though you would be using this data to tailor your message to your specific audience. The different types of demographics that you may want to be aware of include: age, race/ethnicity, religion, gender/sex, economic status, sexual orientation, political affiliation, marital status, and possibly even what type of living area (urban, suburban, rural). You may be asking yourself why this information is important. The best answer, it helps prevent you from falling into embarrassing moments with your audience. You don't want to use language or anecdotes that only a teenager would understand in front of an audience of 30–50-year-old adults. They will not necessarily understand the language or stories. Also, you want to be inclusive of your audience as much as possible. Understanding that the audience is diverse means your message needs to be diverse and you may need to explain some words or concepts in much more detail than you would to an audience that is less diverse. Demographics can sometimes be analyzed just by looking at the audience, but beware that not everything on the surface may be as it seems. Just because your audience may be made up of all young African Americans does not necessarily mean that that audience is also made up of all Democrats. Be careful of making assumptions and follow up by asking your audience questions to assure you are accurate.

Situations

The second type of audience analysis is **situational** audience analysis. You need to know what types of situations your audience may be dealing with and be able to adapt to those situations to get your message across. These situations can be environmental. If, for instance, you are asked to speak at an outdoor venue, there are factors that will affect your audience that you need to consider. These include weather or temperature. If it is too hot, you may not want to reduce the length of your speech for comfort and attention. If it is too cold, then these considerations may also need to be made for that situation. Mostly, you want to be sure the audience can see you, hear you, and are as comfortable as possible to receive the message of your presentation. When you present on a stage, the factors affecting your audience are different then in a classroom. You must think about projection, where you are on the stage, and comfort of the seats and the room. If you have ever fallen asleep in those cozy movie theatre seats, then you know its possible that someone watching your presentation might feel that same comfort depending on the seats and the lighting. How much noise will your audience need to contend with? What other obstacles might impact your message? These are all questions that you might need to ask yourself when preparing to present in different venues.

Attitudes

The final type of audience analysis is **attitudinal** audience analysis. How does your audience feel about your topic? If you are at a wedding, does your audience enjoy weddings? This author does not, because wedding toasts tend to be presented after heavy amounts of celebration and drinking, and the toast then almost sounds like fingernails on a chalkboard. Does your audience even want to listen to a speech by you? These are all questions that we ask when we think of attitudinal audience analysis. We can break this type of analysis down into three types: topic, occasion, and speaker. Starting with topic, for this author there is a list of topics that I dislike hearing speeches about because I have heard them repeatedly. I call this my tired topic list. I am sure there are topics that you dislike as well and would rather not hear as a speech. As a speaker this is something to consider when researching and writing. Next, occasions. As stated before, some people have aversions to certain occasions. This can be for a multitude of reasons, but it is a factor to consider as a speaker, but this also may not be as important as the topic. Especially for this course. Finally, speakers. Sometimes, an audience may not want to listen to speeches by certain speakers. This can also happen for a multitude of reasons, but the ones we hear the most; “they don’t share my beliefs” or “I have an issue with how they speak.” It should be made clear, these statements are never made about other students, but more often about their instructors or professional politicians. Again, something to keep in mind but also something that will probably not impact you as you present your own speeches in your course.

5-3 Using Your Audience Analysis

A good audience analysis takes time, thought, preparation, implementation, and processing. If done well, it will yield information that will help you interact effectively with your audience. Professional speakers, corporate executives, sales associates, and entertainers all rely on audience analysis to connect with their listeners. So do political candidates, whose chances of gaining votes depend on crafting the message and mood to appeal to each specific audience. One audience might be preoccupied with jobs, another with property taxes, and another with crime. Similarly, your audience analysis should help you identify the interests of your audience. Ultimately, a successful audience analysis can guide you in preparing the basic content of your speech and help you adjust your speech "on the fly.

Prepare Content with Your Audience In Mind

The first thing a good audience analysis can do is help you focus your content for your specific audience. If you are planning on a delivering a persuasive speech on why people should become vegans and you find out through analysis that half of your audience are daughters and sons of cattle ranchers, you need to carefully think through your approach to the content. Maybe you'll need to tweak your topic to focus on just the benefits of veganism without trying to persuade the audience explicitly. The last thing you want to do as a speaker is stand before an audience who is highly negative toward your topic before you ever open your mouth. While there will always be some naysayers in any audience, if you think through your topic with your audience in mind, you may be able to find a topic that will be both interesting to you as a speaker and beneficial to your audience as well.

In addition to adjusting the topic of your speech prior to the speaking event, you can also use your audience analysis to help ensure that the content of your speech will be as clear and understandable as humanly possible. We can use our audience analysis to help ensure that we are clear.

Adjustment Based on Audience Analysis

In addition to using audience analysis to help formulate speech content, we can also use our audience analysis to adjust during the actual speech. These adjustments can pertain to the audience and to the physical setting.

The feedback you receive from your audience during your speech is a valuable indication of ways to adjust your presentation. If you're speaking after lunch and notice audience members looking drowsy, you can adjust to liven up the tone of your speech. You could use humor. You could raise your voice slightly. You could pose some questions and ask for a show of hands to get your listeners actively involved. As another example, you may notice from frowns and headshaking that some listeners aren't convinced by the arguments you are presenting. In this case, you could spend more time on a specific area of your speech and provide more evidence than you originally intended. Good speakers can learn a lot by watching their audience while speaking and then make specific adjustments to both the content and delivery of the speech to enhance the speech's ultimate impact.

The second kind of adjustment has to do with the physical setting for your speech. For example, your situational analysis may reveal that you'll be speaking in a large auditorium when you had expected a nice, cozy conference room. If you've created visual aids for a small, intimate environment, you may have to omit it, or tell your listeners that they can view it after the presentation. You may also need to account for a microphone. If you're lucky enough to have a cordless microphone, then you won't have to make too many adjustments to your speaking style. If, on the other hand, the microphone is corded or is attached to an unmovable podium, you'll have to make adjustments to how you deliver the presentation.

Conclusion

We've given an overview of the problems associated with egocentrism and ethnocentrism, examined the three types of audience analysis, before finally discussing some ways to use that analysis to your benefit when writing and presenting. Audience analysis is overlooked in many situations, and it shows to an audience when a speaker is ego-centered or ethno-centered instead of being audience centered. Your goal should always be to have your audience walk away with the message that you intend. Conducting an audience analysis will help you move closer to that goal. As stated before, you can't reach everyone, but if most of your audience understands you, then you have completed your goal.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

"Chapter 5-4: Using Your Audience Analysis" (2011) *Stand Up, Speak Out: The Practice and Ethics of Public Speaking.* University of Minnesota Libraries.

Other Sources:

Kon, I. (1989). *A History of Classical Sociology.* Pg. 84

Chapter 6
Introductions and Conclusions

Learning Objectives

6-1: Students will recognize good practices when it comes to introductions and conclusions
6-2: Students will be able to identify the primary elements of introductions
6-3: Students will be able to construct introductions
6-4: Students will be able to identify the primary elements of conclusions
6-5: Students will be able to construct conclusions

6-1- What not to do!

Too many times this author has heard the words, “My name is ______ and my topic today is going to be _____.” Nothing frustrates a speech instructor more than hearing these words come out of a student’s mouth at the beginning of their speech. By just reading this line it is our hope that you would never start with your name or topic because it is an ineffective way of introducing your speech. There is only one way you should begin your speech and that is with a strong **attention getter**. “Thanks for listening to my speech!” While this is very polite, it is an ineffective way of concluding your speech. We want to see you wrap up the speech in a nice tidy bow and come full circle by tying back to your attention getter, or what we call a **memorable close**. You might be asking yourself, ‘why are we discussing the beginning and end together?’ This is a great question, and the simple answer is they are connected. You are basically repeating your introduction at the end of the speech (with a few minor changes that we will discuss.)

The general rule is that the introduction and conclusion should each be about 10% of your total speech, leaving 80% for the body section. You can extend the introduction to 15% if there is good reason to, so 10-15% of the speech time is a good guideline for the introduction Let’s say that your informative speech has a time limit of 5-7 minutes: if we average that out to 6 minutes that gives us 360 seconds. Ten to fifteen percent of 360 is 36-54, meaning your full introduction—which includes the thesis and preview—should come in at about a minute. That isn’t to say that your speech instructor will be timing you and penalize you for hitting the 60 second mark, but rather to highlight the fact that you need to be economical with your time. An introduction or conclusion of a 6-minute speech that lasts 90 seconds is taking up 25% or your speech. leaving much less time for the body. Consequently, there are some common errors to avoid in introductions:

• rambling and meandering, not getting to the point

• speaking to become comfortable

• saying the specific purpose statement, especially as first words

• choosing a technique that hurts credibility, such as pedantic (defining words like “love”) or a method that is not audience-centered

• beginning to talk as you approach the platform or lectern; instead, it is preferable to reach your destination, pause, smile, and then begin

• reading your introduction from your notes; instead, it is vital to establish eye contact in the introduction, so knowing it very well is important

• talking too fast; instead, let your audience get used to your voice by speaking emphatically and clearly

It is best to write your introduction after you have a clear sense of the body of your presentation. The challenge to introductions is that there is a lot you need to get done in that 10%-15%, and all of it is vital to establishing yourself as a knowledgeable and credible speaker.

In terms of the conclusions, be careful NOT to:

• signal the end multiple times. In other words, no “multiple conclusions” or saying “As I close” more than once

• rambling; if you signal the end, end

• talking as you leave the platform or lectern

• indicating with facial expression or body language that you were not happy with the speech

In the following sections of this chapter, we will go over the parts of an introduction and a conclusion and give you examples that will help guide your own research and writing of presentations.

6-2 Parts of Introductions

There are five major parts of an introduction to a speech or presentation. These five parts, in order, are the attention getter, credibility statement, relevance statement, thesis statement, and preview of main points. In the following, we will discuss the elements necessary to be successful with each part.

Attention Getters

This is likely the most important part of your introduction. We discussed at the start of this chapter that you do NOT want to begin with your name or topic, but instead you want to begin the speech as strongly as you can by using one of the devices in the following section.

First, **anecdotes or stories**. A brief story is a great way to get your audiences attention and also give us a little background into the topic you have chosen to speak on. Human beings love stories, and we will listen if you can tell us a strong narrative. Keep in mind what we discussed in the previous section as it relates to time. Do not let the story become too long, and also if you decide to relate a hypothetical anecdote or story, be sure to inform the audience that the story is fictional.

Second, a **startling fact or statistic**. This is a great way to shock the audience before you begin by conveying a fact or statistic from your research, but be sure it relates to your chosen topic.

Third, a **rhetorical question**. This is a question that does not require an answer. Where most students have trouble with a rhetorical question is when they try to answer the questions themselves. Do not answer it. Let your audience think about what their answer will be or how they would analyze the question. Remember to stay audience centered if you choose the rhetorical question.

Fourth, **referencing the audience**. As we have tried to emphasize throughout this book, your audience is the single most important factor is crafting your speech, so it makes sense that one approach to opening your speech is to make a direct reference to the audience. In this case, the speaker has a clear understanding of the audience and points out that there is something unique about the audience that should make them interested in the speech's content. Here's an example:

> *As students at State College, you and I know the importance of selecting a major that will benefit us in the future. In today's competitive world, we need to study a topic that will help us be desirable to employers and provide us with lucrative and fulfilling careers. That's why I want you all to consider majoring in communication.*

In this example, the speaker reminds the audience of their shared status as students and uses the common ground to acknowledge the importance of selecting a major that will benefit them in the future.

Fifth, a **quotation**. Many politicians and speakers during special occasions such as tributes or memorials will use another person's words to begin their own presentations. As long as you tell the audience whose words they are and in what context, this can also be a strong way to begin your own presentation.

Finally, **humor** can be used to begin your speech. There are a few cautions that we must convey when discussing the use of humor as an attention getter. First, you must be prepared that your audience will not laugh at your humor. This means that you can't get discouraged if this happens, and it may happen. Believe this author who has experienced many silent classrooms after trying to be funny. It can happen and you need to be prepared for that. Second, you need to be sure not lose credibility by offending your audience. Be sure the humor is topical, but also appropriate for your audience as well.

This list of attention-getting devices represents a thorough, but not necessarily exhaustive, range of ways that you can begin your speech. Certainly, these would be the more common attention getters that most people employ. Again, as mentioned earlier, your selection of attention getter is not only dependent on your audience, your topic, and the occasion, but also on your preferences and skills as a speaker. If you know that you are a bad storyteller, you might elect not to start your speech with a story. If you tend to tell jokes that no one laughs at, avoid starting your speech off with humor.

The best attention getters are;

• concrete (they bring up or refer to real experiences)

• novel (they use material that is new or fresh to the audience)

• familiar (makes the audience perk up with something comfortable and close to their experience)

• movement-oriented (don't spend too long in the introduction because the audience will wonder where you are headed)

• need-oriented (your attention getter and introduction in general should relate to the needs or interests of the audience)

Other factors like suspense (introducing a story and finishing it at the end) or conflict (telling a story with strong opposing forces and tension) can also be used

Credibility Statement

After your attention getter, you need to establish your credibility with your audience. This statement needs to explain to your audience why you have the ability, skills, knowledge, or research necessary to present on your specific topic. By now, your audience should have an idea of what topic you are presenting from the attention getter. Though it may not have been completely established yet. This may not occur until you get to the thesis statement and that is okay, but your audience still needs to see why you are the person to speak on this topic. For example, if Harold is giving a speech on parking issues on campus he might say:

> *I am credible to speak about the issues of parking at Prairie View because I am a PV student and I currently have a car on campus. I have also researched the topic and interviewed fellow classmates and parking enforcement employees to gain further knowledge that I will share with you today.*

Harold has told his audience that he is a PV student, has a car on campus and has likely experienced parking issues, and that he has gathered resources and insight to help explain what the issues are to the audience. These are all ways to establish credibility with your audience and explain why they should listen to you.

Relevance Statement

Along with credibility, you also need to explain to your audience why your topic is important to them. Why the topic is relevant to their lives or why the audience should 'care' about your presentation. You need to find a way to relate, and sometimes this will require some creative thinking on your part. Martinique is presenting a Hall of Fame speech about her mother who she is inducting into the Greatest Mom's Hall of Fame. Martinique needs to establish relevance with the audience. The simplest way to do this would be to explain that we all have a mother, but what if we grew up without our mothers in our lives. It still may not be relevant for some of us. Martinique may instead say, 'we all have a strong female figure that we look up to and admire and my mom is one of those figures.’ This involves a much larger group of your audience that would fall into the relevance you want to establish.

Thesis Statement

Finally, this is where you reveal your true intentions of your presentation to your audience. You have probably given away your topic a little bit, but this is where you will formalize it. There are two parts to a thesis statement for oral presentations, a general purpose and a specific purpose. First, the **general purpose**. This is the general reason why you are giving a speech. There are only really three different general purposes. To **inform** or teaching your audience about something. To persuade or getting the audience to change their minds or do something. Finally, to **entertain** or just provide enjoyment to the audience. Unless you are presenting a presentation for a special occasion, it is highly likely that you will use one of these general purposes to begin your thesis statement. Second, the **specific purpose**. The specific purpose is simply your topic and argument. If you want to teach your audience about how to change a flat tire, then your specific purpose is to explain the steps necessary to change a flat tire. It is as simple as that. Putting the general and specific purposes together, you tell your audience the mindset they need to be in to listen and what the outcome of the speech should be. Below you will see a few examples of complete thesis statements.

> *My goal today is to inform you about the methods you can use for better study habits.*
>
> *Today, I will persuade you that action needs to be taken to curb gun violence.*

Both parts of the thesis are always necessary and should appear in every presentation.

Preview of Main Points

The last part of the introduction is called the preview of main points. This is where you give your audience a glimpse of what the body of your speech will be about. Most speeches will have between two to five main points, and you must explain what your main points are going to cover. Your preview of main points should be clear and easy to follow so that there is no question in your audience’s minds what they are. Long, complicated, or verbose main points can get confusing. Be succinct and simple: “Today, in our discussion of Abraham Lincoln’s life, we will look at his birth, his role as president, and his assassination.” From that there is little question as to what specific aspects of Lincoln’s life the speech will cover.

6-3 Examples of Introductions

Below you will find examples of an informative and persuasive introduction. Notice that each contains the five elements necessary for a good introduction: an attention getter, credibility, relevance, a clear thesis statement with both the general and specific purpose, and a clear preview of main points. An important point to mention about the introduction is that the parts should flow or “bridge” into each other. You also can switch the relevance and credibility statements if it makes more sense, but definitely start with the attention-getter and end with the preview of main points. (Note: These examples are presented in **sentence outline** form. We will discuss more about sentence outlines in Chapter 7).

Informative Example: Topic- Allergies

I. Introduction
   a. Attention Getter: My parents knew that something was really wrong when my mom received a call from my home economics teacher saying that she needed to get to the school immediately and pick me up. This was all because of an allergy, something that everyone in this room is either vaguely or extremely familiar with. Allergies affect a large number of people, and three very common allergies include pet and animal allergies, seasonal allergies, and food allergies. All three of these allergies take control over certain areas of my life, as all three types affect me, starting when I was just a kid and continuing today.
   b. Credibility Statement: Because of this, I have done extensive research on the subject, and would like to share some of what I've learned with all of you today.
   c. Relevance Statement: Whether you just finished your freshman year of college, you are a new parent, or you have kids that are grown and out of the house, allergies will most likely affect everyone in this room at some point.
   d. Thesis Statement: So today I will benefit you by informing you about allergies.
   e. Preview of Main Points: Specifically the three most common sources of allergies and the most recent approaches to treating them.

Persuasive Example: Topic- Term Life Insurance

I. Introduction
   a. Attention Getter: You have cried silent tears and uttered desperate prayers, but as you watch the medical team unhook the tubes, turn off the heart monitor and shoot furtive, helpless glances your way, you face the unmistakable reality that cancer has won over your loved one and you are left with unimaginable grief, despair and yes, financial burden.
   b. Relevance Statement: Most of us would not choose to cause our loved ones financial pain on top of the emotional pain of our deaths, but by failing to plan for their financial needs, that is exactly what we do.
   c. Credibility Statement: I have learned a lot about life insurance in my research for this presentation, from taking a thirteen-week course about financial matters, and from the experience of purchasing a term life insurance policy just last year. I know most of you probably have not thought much about life insurance, but someday each and every

one of us in this room will pass away and somebody is going to have to pay for our funerals.

d. Thesis Statement: My purpose today is to persuade you that term life insurance is affordable, protects those you love from the financial devastation of your uninsured death, and reinforces your commitment to their financial and emotional well-being while you are living.
e. Preview of Main Points: Let’s examine the definition of term life insurance and then its benefits.

6-4: Parts of Conclusions

Earlier in the chapter it was stated that the parts of the conclusion were directly related to the parts of the introduction, and we will cover the three parts in detail below, but it is also important to understand how to make the transition between the body of the speech and the conclusion. You may be thinking that telling an audience that you’re about to stop speaking is a “no brainer,” but many speakers really don’t prepare their audience for the end. When a speaker just suddenly stops speaking, the audience is left confused and disappointed. Instead, you want to make sure that audiences are left knowledgeable and satisfied with your speech. In a way, it gives them time to begin mentally organizing and cataloging all the points you have made for further consideration later. It is this author’s opinion that simply leading into the conclusion by saying ‘Today, we have’ and then leading into the **review of thesis** is the best way to do this. You might think that saying ‘in conclusion’ or ‘to conclude’ would be a better way, but these are cliché and saying ‘to conclude’ or any form of that phrase tells your audience they can shut their minds down and don’t need to listen any further. It is like seeing ‘the end’ in a movie, but five minutes before the movie has concluded. You want to gently glide the audience into the conclusion without them having stopped listening because they feel it is unimportant. You still have a message to get across. Now we can explore the three parts of a good conclusion.

Review of Thesis

You state your thesis statement in the introduction, and you need to review it again in the conclusion. The simplest way to do this is by taking your thesis from the introduction and changing the tense. So instead of saying ‘today we will’ say ‘today we have. Below you will see our thesis statements from the discussion on introductions above, and how we can rework them for the conclusion.

Introduction

My goal today is to inform you about the methods you can use for better study habits.

Today, I will persuade you that action needs to be taken to curb gun violence.

Conclusion

Today, I have informed you about the methods used to sustain better study habits.

Today, I have persuaded you that we must act now to curb gun violence in our society.

You can see that just by changing the tense of the language we have reworked the thesis to review it for the conclusion.

Review of Main Points

Again, you are just restating what your main points were in the body of the speech for the conclusion. You gave us a preview in the introduction and now you just need to review those points again, usually as a list, in the conclusion. From the previous example from the parts of the introduction, 'today we have examined Abraham Lincoln's life by looking at his birth, presidency, and assassination. ' Again, you want to keep it simple and succinct. You always want to be sure the review of main points follows the same order from your preview and from the body of the speech.

Clincher/Tie Back/Memorable Close

This is what wraps the speech or presentation into a nice tiny bow and brings it full circle. You should end the speech the way you started. The **clincher/tie back/memorable close** is a way for you to circle back to the attention getter you used at the start of the introduction. This also means you should use the same method for the clincher/tie back/memorable close as you used for the attention getter. Just a reminder these methods include but are not limited to:

• anecdote or story (if you left us on a cliffhanger in the intro, give us the ending)

• startling fact or statistic (explain why that fact is relevant now that the speech is over)

• rhetorical question (this might be time for possible answers or let the audience continue to think)

• reference the audience (explain why the speech is significant to us now more than before we started)

• quotation (explain why the quotation is significant now that the speech is concluding)

• humor (bring us back to the end with another joke or reference the same joke and give context)

6-5 Examples of Conclusions

Here is an example of a conclusion for an informative speech and persuasive speech using the same examples we used for the introductions in section 6-3. (Note: these are presented in **sentence outline** form and more will be discussed about outlining in Chapter 7).

Informative Example: Topic- Allergies

IV. Conclusion

a. Review of Thesis: Today I have informed you about the significance of allergies in our lives.
b. Review of Main Points: Specifically, I have explored the three common sources of allergies and how to treat them.
c. Clincher/Tie Back: I will never forget the day that my mom had to come and pick me up from school after I had an allergy attack in Home Economics. Allergies will always be a burden that I will have to carry. But knowing what I know now, and passing this knowledge to you, it is my hope that allergies will not be something that controls us, but rather something we can treat and deal with.

Persuasive Example: Topic- Term Life Insurance

IV. Conclusion
   a. Review of Thesis: Today, I have persuaded you that term life insurance can provide peace of mind when it comes to the end of life of a loved one.
   b. Review of Main Points: We discussed the definition of term life insurance and the many benefits it provides.
   c. Clincher/Tie Back: We are going to cry silent tears when our loved ones pass away, but those tears should be from mourning our loved ones and not from the financial burdens that are left upon us.

Conclusion

In this chapter, you have learned about the elements necessary to begin and end your speech or presentation the best way possible. Remember that an introduction should start with an attention getter. Then should be followed up with a relevance statement, credibility statement, thesis statement, and preview of main points. A conclusion should include a review of thesis, review of main points, and a tie back/clincher to close it out. It is important to include these in every presentation or speech that you present. Your audience needs to have a clear understanding of what mindset they need to be in and they need you to be their guide through your message. Don't leave them stranded.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

"Chapter 8: Introductions and Conclusions" Tucker, B.; Barton, K.; Burger, A. ; Drye, J.;
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Chapter 7

The Body of the Speech and Outlining

Learning Objectives

7-1- Students will know the basic elements of the body of a speech and outlining.
7-2- Students will understand and be able to identify the 3 major informative orders of main points and the four major persuasive orders of main points.
7-3- Students will be able to recognize and write their own transitions and connective statements
7-4- Students will be able to identify the two types of outlines.
7-5- Students will be able to understand and use the mechanics of outlining in their own outlines.
7-6- Students will be able to use example outlines as a guide to write their own outlines.

7-1 An Overview

In the last chapter we discussed how to begin and end your speech which are two very important elements, but not as important as the body, or the meat, of your speech. This is the information and message you want your audience to walk away with and remember after your time with them is complete. There are a few sophisticated parts of the body that we will examine as we move further into this chapter that include organizational patterns (or also called strategic orders of main points), transitions and other connectives, as well as how to effectively set up an outline for your speech (that will help your instructor as well as yourself). The difficulty that some students deal with when it comes to the body of the speech is how to put it all together and this is what we will cover in this chapter. Because your topics will all be different, we cannot cover content of your speech. However, this chapter will still serve as a guide for taking the information that you have researched and gathered and turn that into a well-organized body for your audience to absorb and learn from or be persuaded to act from.

7-2 Body Organization

The first thing that you need to determine is your general purpose. We discussed general purpose in Chapter 6 and the discussion of thesis statements. The two we are most concerned with when it comes to body organization and selection of main points are the informative and persuasive speeches. Below, we will cover organizational patterns for these two types of speeches. These will guide your selection of the main points and subpoints of your speech.

Informative Orders of Main Points

There are three main orders of main points that most informative speeches will follow. These are topical, chronological, and spatial. First, topical. In a topical speech, main points are developed according to the different aspects, subtopics or topics within an overall topic. Although they are all part of the overall topic, the order in which they are presented really doesn’t matter. For example, you are currently attending college. Within your college, there are various student services that are important for you to use while you are here. You may use the library, The Learning Center (TLC), Student Development office, ASG Computer Lab, and Financial Aid. You can present a speech where you use these as the five main points. It doesn't matter what order they appear in, but you want to strategize on choosing what you want your audience to know more about. One way to do this is primacy, or putting topics you want your audience to know more about at the beginning of the speech. Or recency, putting topics you want your audience to know more about at the end of the speech. It is up to you on which you think will be more effective according to your audience. Topical orders of main points offer the most utility as well. You are just looking for three to five topics to discuss that relate to whatever your main point is and those topics can be anything.

Second, we can order a speech based on time or chronologically. Arranging main points in chronological order can be helpful when describing historical events to an audience as well as when the order of events is necessary to understand what you wish to convey. Informative speeches about a series of events most commonly engage the chronological style, as do many process speeches (e.g., how to bake a cake or build an airplane). Another time when the chronological style makes sense is when you tell the story of someone's life or career. For instance, a speech about Oprah Winfrey might be arranged chronologically. In this case, the main points are arranged by following Winfrey's life from birth to the present time. Life events (e.g., early life, her early career, her life after ending the Oprah Winfrey Show) are connected according to when they happened and highlight the progression of Winfrey's
career. Organizing the speech in this way illustrates the interconnectedness of life events.

Finally, we can set up our informative speeches using space, or spatial, as a tool. The spatial organizational pattern arranges main points according to their physical and geographic relationships. The spatial style is an especially useful organization pattern when the main point's importance is derived from its location or directional focus. Things can be described from top to bottom, inside to outside, left to right, north to south, and so on. Importantly, speakers using a spatial style should offer commentary about the placement of the main points as they move through the speech, alerting audience members to the location changes. For instance, a speech about Prairie View A & M University might be arranged spatially; in this example, the spatial organization frames the discussion in terms of the campus layout. The spatial style is fitting since the differences in architecture and uses of
space are related to particular geographic areas of campus, making location a central organizing factor. As such, the spatial style highlights these location differences.

Persuasive Orders of Main Points

There are a plethora of ways to set up your main points for a persuasive speech. In this section we will analyze four different ways to organize your persuasive speech. However, you should know that there are other ways to do this including topically and there is no right or wrong way to set up the main points if you follow structure and use proper transitions and connectives which we will discuss in the next section. The four methods we will present here are problem-solution, cause-effect, comparative advantages, and Monroe's Motivated Sequence.

First, let's begin with the most used type of persuasive organizational pattern which is problem-solution. Problems can exist at a local, state, national, or global level. It's important to reflect on what is of interest to you but is also critical to engage your audience. Today, the nation has become much more aware of the problem of human sex trafficking. Although we have been aware that this has been a global problem for some time, many communities are finally learning that this problem is occurring in their own backyards. Colleges and universities have become involved in the fight. Student clubs and organizations are getting involved and bringing awareness to this problem.

Problem-solution can be set up as a two main point speech or a three main point speech. In the two main point version your points would be problems, where you explain what issues are arising from your topic, and solutions to solve those problems in the second point. The three main point version would include a new point in the middle between the problem and solution point where you discuss the causes of the problems. If you choose to use this method, your solutions should always solve for the causes of the problem.

Second, you can show your audience how your topic has caused a problem and the effect it is having on individuals. Cause-effect persuades audience members about causes and effects that have already happened with respect to some condition, event, etc. One approach can be to share what caused something to happen, and what the effects were. Or the reverse approach can be taken where a speaker can begin by sharing the effects of something that occurred, and then share what caused it.
You can also include a third main point at the end with solutions for solving the causes of the problem. For example, you could present a speech about the causes of rising gas prices, the effect these prices are having on the economy and people, and then solutions for solving the causes of the rising prices.

Third, you can have a speech made up entirely of solutions and comparing the utility of each. This is called comparative advantages. For this organizational pattern you would present your choice of a solution in the first main point, and then in subsequent main points you would present another solution and compare your solution to them to get your audience to recognize why they should adopt your solution to the problem presented by your topic. For example, Debbie presents a speech about why parking is a problem at Prairie View. She presents her first main point where she explains that a new parking garage on the quad would the best solution for having more centralized and accessible parking to the buildings on campus. In the second point, she explains why having a parking garage would be more useful than building new parking lots on the outskirts of campus. In the final pain point she explains why building a parking garage would be better than eliminating parking restrictions for everyone on campus. This order of main points is useful for audiences who are already familiar with the problems and causes of a particular issue because the prior knowledge would just be boring for an audience to go over again.

Finally, you can set up your persuasive speech using an order of main points called Monroe's Motivated Sequence. Monroe's Motivated Sequence is an organizational pattern that attempts to convince the audience to respond to a need that is delineated in the speech. Five separate steps characterize the Motivated Sequence organization style:

1. The attention step should get the audience's attention as well as describe your goals and preview the speech.
2. The need step should provide a description of the problem as well as the consequences that may result if the problem goes unresolved. In this step, the speaker should also alert audience members to their role in mitigating the issue.
3. The satisfaction step is used to outline your solutions to the problems you have previously outlined as well as deal with any objections that may arise.
4. In the visualization step, audience members are asked to visualize what will happen if your solutions are implemented and what will happen if they do not come to fruition. Visualizations should be rich with detail.
5. The action appeal step should be used to make a direct appeal for action. In this step, you should describe precisely how the audience should react to your speech and how they should carry out these actions. As the final step, you should also offer a concluding comment.

7-3 Transitioning and Connecting

One way to connect points is to include transitional statements. Transitional statements are phrases or sentences that lead from one distinct- but-connected idea to another. They are used to alert the audience to the fact that you are getting ready to discuss something else. When moving from one point to another, your transition may just be a word or short phrase, known as a signpost. For instance, you might say "next," "also," or "moreover." You can also enumerate your speech points and signal transitions by starting each point with "First," "Second," "Third," et cetera. You might also incorporate non-verbal transitions, such as brief pauses or a movement across the stage. Pausing to look at your audience, stepping out from behind a podium, or even raising or lowering the rate of your voice can signal to audience members that you are transitioning. Another way to incorporate transitions into your speech is by offering internal summaries and internal previews within your speech. Summaries provide a recap of what has already been said, making it more likely that audiences will remember the points that they hear again. For example, an internal summary may sound like this:

> *So far, we have seen that the pencil has a long and interesting history. We also looked at the many uses the pencil has that you may not have known about previously.*

Like the name implies, internal previews lay out what will occur next in your speech. They are longer than transitional words or signposts.

> *Next, let us explore what types of pencils there are to pick from that will be best for your specific project.*

Additionally, summaries can be combined with internal previews to alert audience members that the next point builds on those that they have already heard.

> *Now that I have told you about the history of the pencil, as well as its many uses, let's look at what types of pencils you can pick from that might be best for your project.*

It is important to understand that if you use an internal summary and internal preview between main points, you need to state a clear main point following the internal preview. Here's an example integrating all of the points on the pencil:

I. First, let me tell you about the history of the pencil.

So far we have seen that the pencil has a long and interesting history. Now, we can look at how the pencil can be used (internal summary, signpost, and internal preview).

II. The pencil has many different uses, ranging from writing to many types of drawing.

Now that I have told you about the history of the pencil, as well as its many uses, let's look at what types of pencils you can pick from that might be best for your project (Signpost, internal summary and preview).

III. There are over fifteen different types of pencils to choose from ranging in hardness and color.

We would not see a transition to the conclusion because you are already reviewing your main points for the audience at the beginning of that section anyway.

7-4 Types of Outlining

There are two types of outlines. The first outline you will write is called the preparation outline/sentence outline. Also called a skeletal, working, practice, or rough outline, the preparation outline is used to work through the various components of your speech in an organized format. When writing the preparation outline, you should focus on finalizing the specific purpose and thesis statement, logically ordering your main points, deciding where supporting material should be included, and refining the overall organizational pattern of your speech. As you write the preparation outline, you may find it necessary to rearrange your points or to add or subtract supporting material. You may also realize that some of your main points are sufficiently supported while others are lacking. The final draft of your preparation outline should include full sentences. Keep in mind though, even a full sentence outline is not an essay.

A speaking outline is the outline you will prepare for use when delivering the speech. The speaking outline is much more succinct than the preparation outline and includes brief phrases or words that remind the speakers of the points they need to make, plus supporting material and signposts (Beebe & Beebe, 2003). The words or phrases used on the speaking outline should briefly encapsulate all of the information needed to prompt the speaker to accurately deliver the speech. Although some cases call for reading a speech verbatim from the full-sentence outline, in most cases speakers will simply refer to their speaking outline for quick reminders and to ensure that they do not omit any important information. Because it uses just words or short phrases, and not full sentences, the speaking outline can easily be transferred to index cards that can be referenced during a speech. However, check with your instructor regarding what you will be allowed to use for your speech.

7-5 Outlining Mechanics

Main Points

Main points are the main ideas in the speech. In other words, the main points are what your audience should remember from your talk, and they are phrased as single, declarative sentences. These are never phrased as a question, nor can they be a quote or form of citation. Any supporting material you have will be put in your outline as a subpoint. Since this is a public speaking class, your instructor will decide how long your speeches will be, but in general, you can assume that no speech will be longer than 10 minutes in length. Given that alone, we can make one assumption. All speeches will fall between 2 to 5 main points based simply on length. If you are working on an outline and you have ten main points, something is wrong, and you need to revisit your ideas to see how you need to reorganize your points.

Numbering

Your outline should have a consistent numbering system. There is no right or wrong way to number the points of your outline, but you should remain consistent throughout. If you use roman numerals for the different main points and sections of the speech, then be sure to use those roman numerals for those main points and not also for the subpoints of your speech. Consistency is key, but also be sure to check with your instructor about their preferences for numbering.

Subpoints

Your main points should be divided into subpoints. These should be bits of information that you want to get across to your audience that explain concepts related to each main point. For example, if you have a main point discussing cost of education you could break that down into cost of books and materials, housing, and tuition as subpoints. Again, it is up to you how you want to subdivide your main points, but it helps the audience digest information easier.

Parallelism

Another important rule in outlining is known as parallelism. This means that when possible, you begin your sentences in a similar way, using a similar grammatical structure. This type of structure adds clarity to your speaking. Students often worry that parallelism will sound boring. It's actually the opposite! It adds clarity. However, if you had ten sentences in a row, we would never recommend you begin them all the same way. That is where transitions come into the picture and break up any monotony that could occur.

Division

The principle of division is an important part of outlining. When you have a main point, you will be explaining it. You should have enough meaningful information that you can divide it into two subpoints A and B. If subpoint A has enough information that you can explain it, then it, too, should be able to be divided into two subpoints. So, division means this: If you have an A, then you need a B; if you have a 1, then you need a 2, and so on. What if you cannot divide the point? In a case like that you would simply incorporate the information in the point above.

7-6 Example Outlines

The following are examples of Informative and Persuasive Sentence and Speaking Outlines. You will be able to see all of the concepts we have examined previously and how to structure your own outlines in the future.

Informative Preparation/Sentence Outline

I. Introduction
    a. Attention Getter: By looking at me, you might think I'm just a middle aged white woman, but we've all heard you shouldn't judge a book by its cover!
    b. Credibility: Obviously, I know myself well enough to talk about myself
    c. Relevance: but you'd be surprised how one person's experience can actually help you in your own life.

d. Thesis Statement: Today, I am here to inform you that diversity and experience have made me the person that I am, and sharing this with you will help you see beyond the surface and learn more about who I am.
e. Preview of Main Points: First, I'm going to tell you about my background and family. Then, I'm going to tell you about the main hobbies in my life. Finally, I'm going to tell you about a really sad and scary incident that happened when I was just 19 years old.

II. Background and Family

Transition: First, let me tell you a little about my background and family.

a. I'm a first-generation American, born to parents who came to the United States from China during the late 1930's.
b. I have one older brother who is in the medical field.
c. I'm married to my husband of 30 years.
d. I have two children: a son who lives in the UK with his family, and a daughter who is a college professor.

III. Hobbies

Transition: Now that you know a little about my background and family, let me tell you about my special hobbies.

a. In my spare time, I have hobbies that involve party planning and crafting.
    i. I own enough fine China, crystal stemware, silver flatware, napkins, napkin rings, chair covers, sashes, and more to do a party for 150 people.
    ii. I have thrown wedding showers, baby showers, Bar and Bat Mitzvahs, and other special events like birthdays celebrating milestone years.
    iii. Though I don't charge for my services, maybe someday that will become a business for me.
b. I also enjoy hobbies that tap into my creative side.
    i. I do chalk painting, which is a special paint that is used to go over any surface.
    ii. I also repurpose furniture by turning a piece into something different than it was originally.

IV. What happened at 19?

Transition: So, now that you know about my background and family, and my special hobbies, let me tell you about one of the scariest and saddest events in my young adult life.

a. At the age of 19, I learned that a "friend" of my brother and our family, was more than he professed to be.
    i. After being friends for two years, we found out a terrible secret about my brother's friend Paul.
        1. We thought we knew all we had to know: Paul was a Sheriff's deputy, and third year law student.

2. Paul was a friend who came over to our house all the time; and hung out with us, or sometimes just me.
3. One day we opened up the newspaper only to read that Paul had been arrested on several counts of rape, and that the "ski mask rapist" had been caught.

ii. He was carrying the ski mask in his hand.
iii. That day I learned never to judge a book by its cover.

V. Conclusion
   a. Review of Thesis: Today, I've informed you about myself.
   b. Review of Main Points: I told you about my background and family, my hobbies, and about my experience in learning that things aren't always as they seem.
   c. Tie Back/Clincher: I hope next time you encounter something you think is obvious, you'll look twice before passing judgment.

Informative Speaking Outline

I. Introduction
   a. AG- Look at me- Book by cover
   b. Cred- I know me
   c. Rel- You should know me
   d. Thesis- Inform- about me
   e. Preview- Family and Background, Hobbies, What happened at 19

Transition: Let's begin by examining my background and family

II. Family and Background
   a. 1st gen China 1930's
   b. Older brother med
   c. Married 30 years
   d. 2 kids- UK Son and Prof. Daughter

Transition: Now that you know a little about my background and family, let me tell you about my
special hobbies.

III. Hobbies
   a. Planning and Crafting
      i. Items for Party 150
      ii. Events I have Hosted
      iii. May want to turn to business
   b. Creative
      i. Chalk Painting
      ii. Retore Furniture

Transition: So, now that you know about my background and family, and my special hobbies, let me
tell you about one of the scariest and saddest events in my young adult life.

IV. 19 Year old Me Story
   a. Friend more than thought

         i. Paul deputy and law student
         ii. Over all the time and friend
         iii. Newspaper ski mask rapist
    b. Carried mask in hand
    c. Book by Cover

V. Conclusion
    a. Review Thesis: Inform Me
    b. Review MP: Background and family, hobbies, and Paul at 19
    c. Tie Back: Now that you have seen me, I hope you won't judge…

Persuasive Sentence Outline

I. Introduction
    a. Attention Getter: Close your eyes and step into the world of an individual. You are born into a world where nights and days are never constant. You are fed three to five times a day, but no one is there to nurture you, not even the numerous others crammed into your living space. You grow frantic, scared, and sickly. Now open
    your eyes; open your eyes to reality. What I have just described is one of America's worst ghettos.
    b. Relevance: You know this individual who is trapped in this environment. He is your breakfast, lunch, and dinner. It is the meat you eat
    c. Credibility: I have thoroughly researched this topic and will present some of the information I found.
    d. Thesis Statement: My purpose is to persuade you that today's farms not only abuse their animals, they also produce harmful diseases and environmental hazards that affect each and every one of us, regardless of whether you consume animal products or not.
    e. Preview of Main Points: This afternoon, I will first share with you some of the travesties that are happening on American Farms. Then, I will share with you reasons why we must consider adopting alternatives to factory farming and call for a national ban on such practices.

Transition: Initially, I will guide you through some of the awful things happening on American farms today.

II. Problems
    a. What used to be Old McDonald's farms have now become factory farms full of animal abuse and dangerous environments.
        i. Animals raised in factory farms are exposed to constant abuse (Marquadt, 1993)
            1. Chickens were the first animals to be subjected to factory farming.
                a. Broiler chickens are often debeaked, due to fear of cannibalism (Jasper, 1992).
                b. Chicken coups are too crammed for proper chicken growth.
            2. Cows are the second to suffer on factory farms.

a. Cattle are often dehorned and castrated without anesthetics.
b. Veal cows are purposely made anemic, in order to retain the light flesh.
3. Other animals experience the same painful upbringing.
a. Geese are often overfed with grains and steroids in order to produce larger livers for pate (Singer, 1989).
b. Pigs often turn cannibalistic due to psychological problems within being crammed into small spaces.
b. The unhealthy environments created by factory farms promote the spread of many diseases that remain in the animal products we consume (Fox, 1990).
i. Every year, more children and elderly people die of food poisoning that is related to factory farm practices.
ii. Meats on the market are often deformed or full of bad chemicals.
c. The mass production of animals and the resulting amount of waste leave lasting negative effects on our ecosystem.
i. The release of high levels of urine and fecal matter into our lakes contributes to the contamination of our waters, wells, and topsoil.
ii. The release of high levels of methane into the atmosphere contributes to the depletion of the ozone layer (Credibility: Competence).

Transition: Now that you know how factory farms affect you, I would like to discuss what
we should do about the problem.

III. Solutions
a. The U.S. government should ban factory farms and require the meat industry to raise its animals in their natural environments.
i. Studies show that if animals were raised in better conditions, their production would be greater at healthier standards.
ii. Many countries in Europe adopted the Animal Protection Act in 1972. (Fox, 1990).
iii. Many celebrities and organizations are pressuring the federal government to do something to stop factory farming.

IV. Conclusion
a. Review of Thesis: Today, I have persuaded you that American farms are not the fairytale places we remember from childhood stories. As you can see, the food that we eat has endured a lot from its birth to our dinner table. Organizations such as PETA and the Humane Society need our help to prevent cases of contamination and animal cruelty from happening.
b. Review of Main Points: We have examined the issues taking place on these farms, and my solutions for correcting these mistreatments.
c. Memorable Close: If we don't act soon, our chances of being exposed to E. Coli or drinking from infected waters will be greatly increased. Go

to the web site I have provided to get more information and sign-up to help this cause. You don't have to be a member of the organization in order to save lives, you can support them simply by signing any petitions to the federal government calling for legislative action on this issue. Support our right to live a healthy life. Stop to consider the lives of the animals that provide us with our everyday nutrients. If they can't live a healthy life, how can we?

References

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Persuasive Speaking Outline

I. Introduction
   a. AG- Farm Hypothetical Day in the life
   b. Rel- You know- Breakfast, Lunch, and Dinner
   c. Cred- Researched
   d. Thesis- Persuade Farms abuse and harm us
   e. Preview- Problems and Solutions

Transition: Initially, I will guide you through some of the awful things happening on American farms today.

II. Problems
   a. Abuse and dangers- old McDonald (Marquadt, 1993)
      i. Chickens
         1. Debeaked (Jasper, 1992).
         2. Crammed
      ii. Cows
         1. Dehorned and castrated
         2. Veal Cows
      iii. Other Animals
         1. Geese (Singer, 1989).
         2. Pigs
   b. Diseases (Fox, 1990).
      i. Kids and Elderly Food Poisoning
      ii. Deformed and poisoned meat
   c. Waste and Ecosystem Effects
      i. Contamination of Water
      ii. Methane (Credibility: Competence).

Transition: Now that you know how factory farms affect you, I would like to discuss what we should do about the problem.

III. Solutions
   a. US should ban farms and raise animals naturally
      i. Studies show better production and healthier
      ii. Europe Animal Protection Act 1972 (Fox, 1990)
      iii. Celebrity and Organization Pressure

IV. Conclusion
   a. Review Thesis- Persuade end factory farms
   b. Review MP- Problems and Solutions
   c. Tie Back- Ecoli, Water, Save Lives- If they can't live a healthy life, how can we?

Conclusion

In this chapter we have gone over the body of the speech. This is the content and message you want to provide to your audience, and we have discussed the most advantageous way for you to reach that goal. Organization is a key component to understanding. If your audience is not able to keep your message organized, they won’t be able to remember it and your presentation will have been in vain. You want your audience to ‘get it’ and the best way is to follow the steps for organization and outlining that we have provided you here. With the knowledge you have gained from this chapter as well as chapter 6, you should have no problem with writing your speech. As we move forward, you will learn more about the proper techniques of taking these written words and making them come alive in your presentations.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

“Chapters 6 and 14” Stokes-Rice, T., Leonard, V. and Rome, L. “Fundamentals of Public Speaking” (2019) Communication Open Textbooks

Chapter 8
Language

Learning Objectives
8-1- Students will be able to explain how language is used for power and affect the effectiveness of public speaking
8-2- Students will be able to choose clear and appropriate rhetorical language techniques for audiences
8-3- Students will develop their language ability in speaking & become more proficient in using language in public speaking.

Introduction

The Ancient Romans who studied and taught rhetoric divided its study and process into five "canons:" invention, disposition, style, memory, and delivery. The term "style" does not refer to clothing styles but language choices. Should a public speaker use fundamental language because the audience is unfamiliar with the topic? Or more technical language with many acronyms, abbreviations, and jargon because the audience has expertise in the case? Or academic language with abstract vocabulary, or flowery, poetic language with lots of metaphors? Perhaps you have never thought about those questions, but they influence both the clarity of the message and the credibility a speaker will gain during the presentation.

Language is a far too complex and foundational aspect of our lives for us to consider it as an afterthought for a speech. This chapter will look at how language functions in communication, what standards language choices should meet in public speaking, and how you can become more proficient in using language in public speaking.

8-1- What Language Is and Does

Language

Any formal system of gestures, signs, sounds and symbols is used to

Language is any formal system of gestures, signs, sounds, and symbols used or conceived to communicate thought through written, enacted, or spoken means. Linguists believe there are far more than 6,900 languages and distinct dialects today (Anderson, 2012). The language spoken by the most significant number of people on the planet is Mandarin (a dialect of Chinese). Other widely spoken languages are English, Spanish, and Arabic.

We have already discussed in earlier chapters that public speakers must adjust language for audiences. For example, spoken language is wordier and more repetitive than written language should or should be. It is accompanied by gestures, vocal emphasis, and facial expressions. Additionally, the spoken language includes more personal pronouns and expressive, emotional, colloquial, slang, and nonstandard words.

The study of language is, believe it or not, controversial. If you are an education, social sciences, pre-law, or English major, you will, somewhere in your college career, come up against this truth. While we use words every day and don't think about it, scholars in different fields concern themselves with how we choose words, why we choose words, what effect words have on us, and how the influential people of the world use word. One theory of language, general semantics, says that meaning resides in the person using the word, not in the word ("Basic Understandings," 2015).

Denotative and Connotative meaning.
Denotative meaning is the specific meaning associated with a word or sometimes referred to as dictionary definitions. Connotative meaning is the idea suggested by or associated with a talk at a cultural or personal level. Wrench, Goding, Johnson, and Attias (2011) use this example to explain the difference; for example, the word "blue" can evoke many ideas:

- State of depression (feeling blue)
- Indication of winning (a blue ribbon)
- Side during the Civil War (blues vs. grays)
- Sudden event (out of the blue)
- States that lean toward the Democratic Party in their voting
- A slang expression for obscenity (blue comedy)
- In plural form, a genre of music (the blues)

Language is not just something we use; it is part of who we are and how we think. When we talk about language, we must use words to do so, and language is also hard to separate from who we are. Each of us has our way of expressing ourselves. Many people think the federal government should enact a law that only speaks English in the United States (in government offices, schools, etc.). Some groups oppose this because it seems discriminatory to immigrants, based on the belief that everyone's language is part of their identity and self-definition.

Euphemism

language devices are often used to

Not only is language about who we are; it is about power or at least is used by influential people. Some educational and political theorists believe that language is all about power. For instance, euphemisms are often used to make something unpleasant sound more tolerable. In one of the more well-known examples of euphemisms, the government commonly tries to manipulate language to "soften" what many see as wrong. During the Vietnam War, "air support" was invented to cover the real meaning: "bombing." When you hear air support, you probably think "planes bringing supplies in," not "bombing." "Euphemism" is "pleasant speaking about unpleasant things." We use euphemisms daily, but we must be careful not to obscure meaning or use them deceptively.

This example brings up another issue with language: words change meaning over time, or the meaning we attach to them varies. "Pretty" used to mean "clever" 250 years ago. "Prevent" meant to "precede," not to keep from happening. Language is not static as we might like it to be.

Regarding the use of language for power, even unknowingly, in the 1970s, argued that the standard way we use the English language was biased against women. Many words referring to women had to add a suffix that was often "less than," such as "-ess" or "-ette" or "co-ed." In the last thirty years, we have gotten away from that, so you often hear a female actor referred to as "actor" rather than "actress," but old habits die hard.

Can you think of how advertisers choose words in a way that is meant to affect your thinking and see an object differently? Realtors sell “homes,” not houses. McDonald’s sells “Happy Meals” even though it is essentially the same food they sell that is not “Happy Meals.” As a public speaker progresses, you will become more aware of certain words' power over audiences. An ethical communicator will use language that encourages respect for others, freedom of thought, and informed decision-making. First, however, a speaker should seek to meet the standards of clarity, effectiveness, appropriateness, and elegance in language, which are discussed in the next section.

8-2- Standards for Language in Public Speaking

“Keep the language simple, and the idea complex.” -Unknown.

Abstract Language
language that evokes many different visual images in the minds of your

Explicit language is a powerful language. Clarity is a public speaker's first concern when choosing how to phrase the ideas of their speech. If you are not clear, specific, precise, detailed, and sensory with your language, you won’t have to worry about being emotional or persuasive because you won’t be understood. There are many aspects of clarity in language.

Literal Language

language that does not use

To clarify your first concern, you will also want to be simple and familiar with your language. Along with language needing to be specific and correct, language can use appropriate similes and metaphors to become more apparent. Literal language does not use comparisons like similes and metaphors; figurative language uses comparisons with objects, animals, activities, roles, or historical or literary figures. The literal language says, “The truck is fast.” Figurative says, “The truck is as fast as… “or “The truck runs like….” Similes use some form of “like” or “as” in the comparisons.

Metaphors

Metaphors ae direct

Similes

Use some form of “like” or “as” in

Metaphors and Similes.
For rhetorical purposes, metaphors are considered more robust, but both can help you achieve more precise language if chosen wisely. To think about how metaphor is more potent than simile, feel the difference between “Love is a battlefield” and “Love is like a battlefield.” Speakers are encouraged to pick and not overuse them. Dr. King and President Kennedy combined them with solid metaphors and images; for example, Dr. King described the promises of the founding fathers as a “blank check” returned with the note “insufficient funds” as far as African Americans of his time were concerned. That was a very concrete, human, and familiar metaphor to his listeners and still speaks to us today.

Cliches

Expressions are usually similes

Cliches.
Clichés are expressions, usually similes, that are predictable. You know what comes next because they are overused and sometimes outdated. Clichés do not have to be linguistic—we often see clichés in movies, such as teen horror films, where you know exactly what will happen next! It is not hard to think of clichés: “Scared out of my . . .” or “When life gives you lemons. . .” or “All is fair in...” or, when describing a reckless driver, “She drives like a . . . “If you filled in the blanks with “wits,” “make lemonade,” “love and war,” “or “maniac,” those are clichés.

Clichés are not just a problem because they are overused and boring; they also sometimes do not communicate what you need, especially to audiences whose second language is English. As the United States becomes more diverse, being aware of your audience members whose first language is not English is a valuable tool for a speaker.

Imagery.

Imagery

Language with imagery or

In trying to avoid clichés, use language with imagery or sensory language. This language makes the recipient smell, taste, see, hear, and feel a sensation. Think of the word “ripe.” What is “ripe?” Do ripe fruits think a certain way? Smell a certain way? Taste a certain way? Ripe is a sensory word. Most words appeal to one sense, like vision. Think of color. How can you make the word “blue” more sensory? How would you describe the current state of your bedroom or dorm room to leave a sensory impression? How would you tell your favorite meal to leave a sensory impression?

Poetry uses much imagery, so to end this section with new, explicit language, here is a verse from Phenomenal Woman by Maya Angelou. Notice the examples of images are: “the curl of my lips,” “The swing of my waist,” “the ride of my breast,” “The stride of my steps,” “The flash of my teeth,” and “The palm of my hand.” The poet has used powerful imagery to describe the body of a woman. These images help listeners to visualize the personality of a strong woman. (https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=VeFfhH83_RE)

Effectiveness

Language achieves effectiveness by communicating the right message to the audience. Clarity contributes to effectiveness, but there are some other aspects of effectiveness. To that end, language should be a means of inclusion and identification rather than exclusion. Unfortunately, we habitually use language for exclusion rather than inclusion. We can push people away with our word choices rather than bring them together. Stereotypes serve as examples of what we’re talking about here. What follows are some examples of language that can exclude members of your audience from understanding what you are saying.

Jargon.

Jargon

The specific language used in

The jargon used in your profession or hobby should only be used with audiences who share your job or hobby. Not only will the audience members who don’t share your work or hobby miss your meaning, but they will feel that you are not making an honest effort to communicate or are setting yourself above them in intelligence or rank. This means you must be careful about assumptions about your audience’s knowledge and ability to interpret jargon. For example, if you are trying to register for a class at Prairie View A&M University and your adviser asks for the CRN, most people would have no idea what you are talking about (course reference number). Acronyms, such as NPO, are common in jargon. Those trained in the medical field know it is based on the Latin for “nothing by mouth.” If you are speaking to an audience who does not know the jargon of your field, using it will only annoy them by the lack of clarity.

Slang

Slang

A group that has its code, secret words used in a co-culture.

The whole point of slang is for a co-culture or group to have its code, almost like secret words. Once the larger culture understands slang, it is no longer slang and may be classified as “informal” language. “Bling” was slang; now it’s in the dictionary.

Sports have a great deal of slang used by the players and fans that then gets used in everyday language. For example, “That was a slam dunk” describes something easy, not just in basketball.

Complicated Vocabulary.
If a speaker used the word “recalcitrant,” some audience members would know the meaning or figure it out (“Calci-” is like calcium, calcium is hard, etc.), but many would not. It would make much more sense for them to use a word readily understandable– “stubborn.” Especially in oral communication, we should use language that is immediately accessible. However, do not take this to mean “dumb down for your audience.” It means being transparent and not showing off. For a speaker to say “I am cognizant of the fact that…” instead of “I know” or “I am aware of…” adds nothing to communication.

Profanity and Cursing.
It is difficult to think of many examples, other than artistic or comedy venues, where profanity or cursing would be practical or valuable with most audiences, so this kind of language is generally discouraged.

Credibility.
Another aspect of effectiveness is that your language should enhance your credibility. First, audiences trust speakers who use clear, vivid, respectful, engaging, and honest language. On the other hand, audiences tend not to trust speakers who use language that excludes others. All of us make an occasional grammatical or usage error. However, regular verb and pronoun errors and just plain getting words confused will hurt the audience’s belief that you are competent and knowledgeable. In addition, a speaker who uses unfamiliar language and unfamiliar references will have diminished credibility. Finally, it would help if you avoided the phrase “I guess” in a speech. Credible speakers should know what they are talking about.

Rhetorical Techniques
Several traditional techniques have been used to engage audiences and make ideas more attention-getting and memorable. These are called rhetorical techniques. Although “rhetorical” is associated with a persuasive speech, we will not mention them here, but some important ones are listed below.

Assonance

Is the repetition of vowel sounds

Assonance is the repetition of vowel sounds in a sentence or passage. As such, it is a kind of rhyme. Minister Tony Campolo said, “When Jesus told his disciples to pray for the kingdom, this was no pie in the sky by and by when you die kind of prayer.”

Alliteration

Is the repetition of initial

Alliteration is the repetition of initial consonant sounds in a sentence or passage. In his “I Have a Dream Speech,” Dr. Martin Luther King said, “I have a dream that my four little children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content. Of their character.” Not only does this sentence use alliteration, but it also uses the following rhetorical technique on our list, antithesis.

Antithesis juxtaposes contrasting ideas in balanced or parallel words, phrases, or grammatical structures. Usually, the antithesis goes not this, but this. John F. Kennedy’s statement from his 1961 inaugural address is one of the most quoted

Antithesis

Contrasting ideas in parallel words,

examples of antithesis: “Ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country.” In that speech, he gave another example, “If a free society cannot help the many who are poor, it cannot save the few who are rich.”

Parallelism

Is the repetition of sentence structures

Parallelism is the repetition of sentence structures. It can help state your main ideas.
“Give me liberty or give me death. “Quoting again from JFK’s inaugural address: “Let every nation know, whether it wishes us well or ill, that we shall pay any price, bear any burden, meet any hardship, support any friend, oppose any foe to assure the survival and the success of liberty.” The repetition of the three-word phrases in this sentence (including the word “any” in each) is an example of parallelism.

Anaphora

It is a succession of sentences beginning with

Anaphora is a succession of sentences beginning with the same word or group of words. In his inaugural address, JFK began several succeeding paragraphs with “To those”: “To those old allies,” “To those new states,” “To those people,” etc.

Hyperbole

An intentional exaggeration for effects

Hyperbole is an intentional exaggeration for effect. Sometimes it is for severe purposes, other times for humor. Commonly we use hyperbolic language in our everyday speech to emphasize our emotions, such as when we say, “I’m having the worst day ever” or “I would kill for a cup of coffee right now.” Neither of those statements is (hopefully) accurate, but it stresses to others the way you are feeling.

Irony

Is the expression of one’s meaning using language

The irony is the expression of one’s meaning using language that usually signifies the opposite, typically for humorous or emphatic effect. Although most people think they understand irony as sarcasm (such as saying to a friend who trips, “That’s graceful”), it is a much more complicated topic. Irony in oral communication can be challenging to use in a way that affects everyone in the audience the same way. Using these techniques alone will not make you an effective speaker.

Language Appropriateness

Appropriateness

Involving how persons and groups should be

Appropriateness relates to several categories involving how persons and groups should be referred to and addressed based on inclusiveness and context. The term “politically correct” has been overused to describe the growing sensitivity to how the power of language can marginalize or exclude individuals and groups. Overall, people and groups should be respected and referred to in the way they choose. Inclusive language in your speech will help ensure you aren’t alienating or diminishing any audience members.

Gender-Inclusive Language
The first common non-inclusive language is a language that privileges one of the sexes over the other. There are three common problem areas that speakers run into using “he” as generic, using “man” to mean all humans and gender-typing jobs. Likewise, speakers of English have traditionally used terms like “man” and “mankind” when referring to both females and males. Instead of using the word “man,” refer to the “human race.”

The last common area where speakers get into trouble with gender and language has to do with job titles. It is not unusual for people to assume, for example, that doctors are male and nurses are female. As a result, they may say “she is a woman doctor” or “he is a male nurse” when mentioning someone’s occupation, perhaps not realizing that the statement “she is a doctor” and “he is a nurse” already inform the listener as to the sex of the person is holding that job.

Ethnic Identity

Ethnic Identity

Is a group an individual identifies with

Ethnic identity is a group an individual identifies with based on a common culture. For example, the United States has numerous ethnic groups, including African Americans, Italian Americans, Irish Americans, Japanese Americans, Vietnamese Americans, Cuban Americans, and Mexican Americans. As with the earlier example of “male nurse,” avoid statements such as “The committee is made up of four women and a Vietnamese man.” All that should be said is, “The committee is made up of five people.”

If, for some reason, gender and ethnicity must be mentioned—and usually it does not—the gender and race of each member should be mentioned equally. “The committee comprises three European-American women, one Latina, and one Vietnamese male.” In recent years, there has been a trend toward steering inclusive language away from broad terms like “Asians” and “Hispanics” because they are not considered precise labels for the groups they represent. If you want to be safe, you can best ask a couple of people who belong to an ethnic group how they prefer to be referred to in that context.

Disability

The last category of exclusive versus inclusive language that causes problems for some speakers relates to individuals with physical or intellectual disabilities or forms of mental illness. Sometimes it happens that we take a characteristic of someone and make that the totality of all of what that person is. For example, some people are still uncomfortable around persons who use wheelchairs and don’t know how to react. They may totalize and think that the wheelchair defines and limits the user. The person in the wheelchair might be a great guitarist, sculptor, parent, public speaker, or scientist, but those qualities are not seen only in the wheelchair. Although the terms “visually impaired” and “hearing impaired” are sometimes used for “blind” and “deaf,” this is another situation where the person should be referred to as they prefer. “Hearing impaired” denotes a wide range of hearing deficits, as does “visually impaired. “Deaf” and “blind” are not generally considered offensive by these groups.

Another example is how to refer to what used to be called “autism.” Saying someone is “autistic” is similar to the word “retarded” in that neither is appropriate. Preferable terms are “a person with an autism diagnosis” or “a person on the autism spectrum.” In place of “retarded,” “a person with intellectual disabilities” should be used. Likewise, slang for mental illness should always be avoided, such as “crazy” or “mental.”

Other Types of Appropriateness

Language in a speech should be appropriate to the speaker and the speaker’s background and personality, the context, the audience, and the topic. Let’s say that you’re an engineering student. If you’re giving a presentation in an engineering class, you can use a language other engineering students will know. On the other hand, if you use that engineering vocabulary in a public speaking class, many audience members will not understand you. Audience analysis is critical in choosing the language to use in a speech.

8-3- Developing Your Ability to Use Effective Language in Public Speaking

At this point, we will make some applications and suggestions about using language as you grow as a public speaker.

First, use “stipulated definitions” with concrete examples (defining operationally). In other words, describe your terms for the audience. Suppose you use jargon, a technical time, a word that has multiple meanings in different contexts, or an often-misunderstood word. In that case, you can say at the beginning of the body of your speech, “In this speech, I am going to be using the word, “X,” and what I mean by it is….” And then, the best way to define a word is with a picture or example of what you mean and perhaps an example of what you don’t mean (visual aids can help here). Don’t worry; this is not insulting to most audiences if the word is technical or unfamiliar to them. On the other hand, providing dictionary definitions of common words such as “love” or “loyalty” would be insulting to an audience.

Second, develop a specific language. What was true of a person in 1999 is not necessarily true of the person now. Using names for jobs or roles (“accountants,” “administrative assistants,” “instructors”) instead of “people” or “workers.” Avoid “always/never” language. “Always” and “never” usually do not reflect reality and tend to make listeners defensive. Avoid confusing opinion for fact. If I say, “Forrest Gump is a stupid movie,” I am stating a belief in the language of truth. If you preface statements with “I believe” or “It is my opinion,” you will be truthful and gain the appearance of being fair-minded. What should be said is, “The first time I saw Forrest Gump, I didn’t realize it was a farce, but after I saw it a second time, I understood it better.” This sentence is much more specific and clarifying than “Forrest Gump is a stupid movie.” This kind of language also helps make the speaker seem less closed-minded.

Third, personalize your language. In a speech, it’s OK to use personal pronouns instead of a third person. That means “I,” “me,” “we,” “us,” “you,” etc., are often helpful in a speech. It gives more immediacy to the address. Be careful of using “you” for examples that might be embarrassing. “Let’s say you are arrested for possessing a concealed weapon,” it sounds like the audience members are potential criminals.

Finally, develop your vocabulary, but not show it off. One of the benefits of a college education is that your vocabulary will expand significantly, and it should. A more extensive language will give you access to more complicated reading material and allow you to understand the world better. But knowing the meaning of a more complex word doesn’t mean you have to use it with every audience.

Conclusion

Although the placement of this chapter may seem to indicate that language choice, or what the ancient rhetoricians called “style,” are not as important as other parts of speaking, language choices are essential from the very beginning of your speech preparation, even to your research and choice of search terms.

Attribution and References:

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Tucker, Barbara; Barton, Kristin; Burger, Amy; Drye, Jerry; Hunsicker, Cathy; Mendes, Amy; and LeHew, Matthew, "Exploring Public Speaking: 4th Edition" (2019). *Communication Open Textbooks*.
1.https://oer.galileo.usg.edu/communication-textbooks/1

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Chapter 9

Evidence and Where to Find It

Learning Objectives

9-1- Students will be able to explain why supporting materials are needed
9-2- Students will be able to choose appropriate types of supporting materials and begin to use supporting materials effectively

Introduction

When preparing to speak about a topic, your first step is to gather information. You will need to research to ensure that you provide your audience with sufficient background information and support your claims.

9-1-Why Supporting Materials are Needed

Research involves more than finding a few books or articles on a topic; a researcher's job is to find practical, relevant, and reliable information, which can be challenging. This chapter will help by introducing research terminology and the research process.

Primary and Secondary Sources

You may hear sources described as either "primary" or "secondary," and understanding this distinction can help you assess what types of information are helpful for your various needs. A primary source is original and first-hand. This has different meanings depending on the disciplinary context but generally refers to the product of someone's original work, such as the results of a scientist's study or an author's novel. You may access published primary sources in introductory college courses like this one, and you will do so as you progress in your discipline. Remember that primary sources are generally factual rather than analysis or interpretation, although not in all cases. In your research, you use secondary sources, such as articles, books, and websites that involve investigation or interpretation of primary sources. While a scientific study would be a primary source, a magazine article about the findings of that study would be considered a secondary source.

Using a primary or a secondary source depends on our purpose, topic, audience, and context. If you engage in undergraduate research in your junior or senior year and present at a conference, you will be expected to have some primary research. However, you will look for reliable secondary sources for most of your college work. One way to assess the quality of a secondary source is to look at its references or bibliography. A reliable source will cite other sources to support its claims. Likewise, a well-researched speech will support its argument by using evidence from reliable sources.

The library plays an essential role for researchers because materials in libraries have been selected for the information needs of their users. College and university libraries provide resources to support the academic programs of study at their institutions.

The Library Catalog

The library catalog is an excellent place to begin searching. Since it will allow you to explore the library's collection of books, periodicals, and media, you will have access to much material that broadly covers your topic, and the information you find will help you as you work to narrow the scope of your research. Many libraries have a unique or branded name for their catalog and provide online search functionality. One helpful feature of the catalog's search tool is the ability to sort and refine search results by date, format, author, and other filter options. Additionally, library catalogs allow users to link to electronic books, videos, and other resources directly. These resources can be helpful since users do not need to come to the library building, nor are these resources available only during library hours.

Databases

You're already familiar with using search engines (like Google), but did you know that these tools only give you access to information that companies and people have shared for free? The content freely available online only represents a fraction of that that exists.

A lot of the information that isn't free is protected by paywalls. You may have tried to read an article online but couldn't see the full text because you were asked to pay. This can be frustrating when the content is helpful for research! Fortunately, you have access to online databases through the PVAMU library. Library databases are available 24/7 and give users access to the full text of eBooks and articles from periodicals and works published regularly, such as magazines, academic journals, and newspapers. The content in library databases is available because libraries have paid to subscribe to the publications they offer. This information is free for the library user, but you must search the library's databases to access it. The library can help if you aren't sure how to log in or have trouble when trying to do so.

Journal Articles

While databases index newspapers and popular magazines, college-level researchers significantly benefit from including articles published in academic journals. Almost all content in academic journals is peer-reviewed. The authors of journal articles are experts in their subject areas. After having researched their topic, they write up the results in a report that they submit for publication to a scholarly journal (a periodical whose target audience is other experts in that disciplinary field).

Before the editor approves the publication of an article in their journal, they send it to other scholars who are experts in the subject area. The other scholars, peers of the original author, then read the articles and evaluate them according to the standards of that discipline. Only after a report has passed the peer review process can it be published in an academic journal.

Something you may have wondered is whether the terms "scholarly," "peer-reviewed," and "academic" have different meanings when used to describe articles or the journals in which they are published. The answer is no. These terms are used interchangeably. Historically, academic journals were primarily available in print, but today most readers access them online. Filtering your results is just one way to ensure you find the necessary information.

Another option is to modify your search technique. The easiest way to do this is to put search phrases in quotation marks. If you're looking for information about attention deficit disorder, using "attention deficit disorder" ensures that the three words stay together in the order in which you have typed them. This can be very helpful in optimizing the relevance of your search results. Without quotation marks, the database will look for the words attention, deficit, and disorder.

Many techniques to improve your library searches, date range filters, and other limiters are also available, helping you narrow your search further. Finding information online is relatively simple, so researchers face difficulty determining what information is helpful and whether it’s credible. A quick assessment is easy, and here are a few questions to guide you:

- Is the information current relative to your needs? Information in a rapidly changing field like science or medicine can quickly become outdated. Even social science research is time-sensitive. Laws and demographics can change rapidly, and you’ll want to ensure the information you’re using is up to date.
- Does the information address your topic? You may not find any single source that directly addresses all facets of your approach to a topic. You can, however, use information from multiple sources to support different parts of your work.
- Who is the source of information? The advice of an expert on a subject may be more valuable than a layperson's opinion. On the other hand, a salesperson may know a lot about their product, but their goal informs their perspective of making a sale. You may ask yourself why this information was created?

The trustworthiness of information you find online can be harder yet to discern. While a source may have a current date listed, seem to offer relevant information, and claim to be an expert, it’s essential to go beyond the information they give about themselves and verify that you can believe that they are honestly representing themselves and the information they offer. Some advice on how to effectively evaluate online details is provided by Washington State University Professor Michael Caulfield, who suggests doing the following:

- Check for previous work: Look around to see if someone else has fact-checked the claim or provided a research synthesis. Dubious claims can quickly be debunked with a Google search.
- Go upstream to the source: Go “upstream” to start the claim. Most web content is not original. Get to the source to understand the trustworthiness of the information.

Wikipedia Usage

One common source that many students have questions about using is Wikipedia. Most of us use Wikipedia or similar sites to look up the answers to pressing questions such as “Was Val Kilmer in the film Top Gun?” or “When is the next solar eclipse?” However, it is unlikely that your instructor will be satisfied using evidence from Wikipedia (or other Wiki-type sites). There are a couple of reasons for this. One is that Wikipedia is, like a dictionary, a primary reference source. Like a printed encyclopedia, it is used for primary or general information about a topic, but it is unsuitable for college-level severe research.

Additionally, because anyone on Wikipedia (or any Wiki site) can update information, there is no guarantee that what you read will be up-to-date or correct. While Wikipedia and its editors make every effort to maintain the accuracy of entries, with millions of pages on the site, that isn't always possible. Sometimes Wikipedia pages display inaccurate information, including hoax articles or prank edits. These are typically corrected quickly by editors who notice a change has been made and fact-check to verify whether the statement is true.

When it comes down to it, Wikipedia is an excellent place to obtain basic information or general knowledge about your subject. You can use the references at the bottom of the page (if there are any) to look for information elsewhere. But saying to an audience, "my source for the information in this speech is Wikipedia," will probably do little to convince your audience that you are knowledgeable and have done adequate research for the speech.

9-2-Types of Supporting Materials

Essentially, there are seven types of supporting materials: examples, narratives, definitions, descriptions, historical and scientific facts, statistics, and testimony. Each provides a different kind of support, and you will want to choose the supporting materials that best help you make the point you want to get across to your audience.

Examples

This supporting material is the first and easiest to use but also easy to forget. Examples are almost always short but concrete, specific instances to illuminate a concept. They are designed to give audiences a reference point. If you were describing a type of architecture, you would show visual aids of it and give verbal descriptions of it, but you could say, "You pass an example of this type of architecture every time you go downtown." An example must be quickly understandable, something the audience can soon pull out of their memory or experience. The key to effectively using examples in your speeches is this: what is an example to you may not be an example to your audience if they have a different experience.

Narratives

Narratives are commonly known as the "power of story." Narratives, stories, and anecdotes are helpful in speeches to interest the audience and clarify, dramatize, and emphasize ideas. They have, if done well, solid emotional power. They can be used in the introduction, the body, and the speech's conclusion. They can be short, as anecdotes usually are. They could be longer, although they should not comprise large portions of the speech. Narratives can be personal, literary, historical, or hypothetical. Individual records can be helpful in situations where you desire to:

- Relate to the audience on a human level, especially if they may see you as competent but not similar or connected to them.
- Build your credibility by mentioning your experience with a topic. Of course, personal narratives must be authentic.

Remember that because of their power, stories tend to be remembered more than other parts of the speech. Do you want the story to overshadow your content? Scenes from films would be another example of a literary narrative, but as with models, you must consider the audience's frame of reference and if they will have seen the film. Historical narratives (sometimes called documented narratives) have power because they can also prove an idea and clarify one.

Hypothetical narratives

Hypothetical examples could happen but have not yet. To be effective, they should be based on reality. Here are two examples: Picture this incident: You are standing in line at the grocery checkout, scrolling on social media for a laugh, and checking your phone. Then, the middle-aged man in front of you grabs his shoulder and falls to the ground, unconscious. What would you do in a situation like this? While it has probably never happened to you, people have medical emergencies in public many times a day. Would you know how to respond? If using a hypothetical narrative, be sure the report is speculative, not factual. Because of their attention-getting nature, academic records are often used in introductions.

Definitions

When we use the term "definition" here as supporting material, we are not talking about something you can easily find in the dictionary or from the first thing that comes up on Google.

First, using a dictionary definition does not show your audience that you have researched a topic (anyone can look up a report in a few seconds). Secondly, does the audience need a definition of a word like "love," "bravery," or "commitment?" They may consider it is insulting for you to define those words. We know there are denotative and connotative definitions or meanings for words, which we usually think of as objective and subjective responses to words. You only need to define words that would be unfamiliar to the audience or words that you want to use in a specialized way.

Historical and Scientific Fact

This type of supporting material is helpful for clarification but is especially useful for proving a point. President John Adams is quoted as saying, "Facts are stubborn things," but that does not mean everyone accepts every fact as a fact or can distinguish a fact from an opinion. The Urban Dictionary defines a fact as "The place most people in the world tend to think their opinions reside."

Also, the difference between a historical narrative (mentioned above) and a historical fact involves length. A historical fact might be a date, place, or action; A historical narrative would go into much more detail and add dramatic elements.

Statistics

Statistics are misunderstood. Statistics are not just numbers or numerical facts. The essence of statistics is the collection, analysis, comparison, and interpretation of numerical data, understanding its comparison with other numerical data. For example, it is a numerical fact that the population of the U.S., according to the 2020 census, was 331,893,845. This is a 9.7% increase from the 2010 census; this comparison is a statistic (https://www.census.gov/quickfacts). However, for simplicity, we will deal with numerical facts and accurate statistics in this section. Statistics are also misunderstood because the science of statistics is complex. Even terms like mean, median, and mode often confuse people, much less regression analysis, two-tailed T-tests, and margin of error. Before using statistics in a speech, you should have a basic understanding of them.

- Use statistics as support, not as the main point.
- Always provide the source of the statistic.
- Do not overuse statistics.
- Use graphs to display the most important statistics.
- Explain your statistics as needed, but do not make your speech a statistics lesson.

Testimony

Testimony is the words of others. You might think of them as quoted material. All reproduced material or testimony is not the same. Some quotations you use because they are funny, compelling, or attention-getting. They work well as openings to introductions. Other types of testimony are more helpful in proving your arguments. Testimony can also give an audience insight into the feelings or perceptions of others. Testimony is divided into two categories: expert and peer.

Expert Testimony

What is an expert? Here is a quotation of the humorous kind: An expert is "one who knows more and more about less and less" (Nicholas Butler). An expert for our purposes is someone with recognized credentials, knowledge, education, and experience in a subject. Experts spend time studying the facts and putting their points together. They may not be scholars who publish original research, but they have in-depth knowledge.

- Use the expert's testimony in their relevant field, not outside of it. Provide at least some of the expert's appropriate credentials.
- Choose experts to quote whom your audience will respect and whose names or affiliations they will recognize as credible.
- Make it clear that you are quoting or paraphrasing the expert testimony verbatim.
- If verbatim, says "Quote . . . end of the quote."
- If you interviewed the expert, make that clear in the speech.

Expert testimony is one of your most robust supporting materials to prove your arguments. Still, in a sense, by clearly citing the source's credentials, you are arguing that your source is truly an expert (if the audience is unfamiliar with them) to validate their information.

Peer Testimony

Any quotation from a friend, family member, or classmate about an incident or topic would be peer testimony. It helps help the audience understand a topic from a personal point of view. For example, in the spring of 2021, a devastating tornado came through the town in several Kentucky towns. One of those students gave a dramatic personal experience speech in class about surviving the tornado in a destroyed building that disappeared. They stayed because she and her coworkers at their chain restaurant could get to safety in a bathtub. While she may not have had an advanced degree in a field related to tornadoes or the destruction they can cause, this student certainly had a good deal of knowledge on the subject based on her experience of surviving a tornado. However, do not present any old testimony of a peer or friend as if it were expert or credentialed.

Conclusion

You have already been thinking about how to support your ideas when you were researching and crafting a central statement and main points. Using your supporting materials effectively is essential because we crave detail and specifics. Supporting material can be considered the specifics that make your ideas, arguments, assertions, points, or concepts fundamental and concrete. Sometimes supporting materials are referred to as the “meat” on the bones of the outline, but we also like to think of them as pegs you create in the audience’s mind to hang the ideas on. Similarly, the points and arguments in your speech may not hold up without the material to “support” what you are saying.

Attribution and References:

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Tucker, Barbara; Barton, Kristin; Burger, Amy; Drye, Jerry; Hunsicker, Cathy; Mendes, Amy; and LeHew, Matthew, "Exploring Public Speaking: 4th Edition" (2019). *Communication OpenTextbooks*.1https://oer.galileo.usg.edu/communication-textbooks/1. (https://www.census.gov/quickfacts).

Chapter 10
Citations

Learning Objectives
10-1 Students will understand the proper times to use in-text and oral citations
10-2 Students will be able to identify the key components of oral citations
10-3 Students will be able to correctly write in text citations
10-4 Students will be able to correctly develop oral citations

An Overview

If you recall the chapter on ethics, we talked about how important it is that we avoid plagiarism. In order to avoid taking the work of others as our own, it is important that we learn give credit where credit is due. This comes in the form of **citations**. Citing your sources is part of using information. While there are many citation styles, used by different disciplines, this class focuses on APA Style. **APA Style** is a citation style developed by the American Psychological Association (APA), used by a variety of disciplines, including psychology, health sciences, STEM fields, and communication.

You may have questions about APA style, and while full APA guidelines are included in the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 7th edition, other resources are also available. The APA runs a site, https://apastyle.apa.org/, that provides additional information about APA citation. Also, the Purdue Online Writing Lab (OWL) has a wonderful online guide to APA citation, located at owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/1/. Of course, librarians are a good resource, too!

Citation, in any style, has many functions; it:

- allows you to support the claims you make,
- gives credit to the source of the information, and
- allows your audience to locate the information if they want to learn more.

The practice of citation is inseparable from research because new developments always build on existing knowledge. No individual knows everything there is to know about a topic, which is why research involves examining what is already known. Engaging with the ideas of others is a way of adding your voice into a conversation about a topic. This can include agreeing with others' perspectives, building on existing ideas, or introducing a new interpretation or counter-argument.

10-1: When to Cite

Any time you use someone else's original ideas, statistics, studies, borrowed concepts, phrases, images, quoted material, and tables—their **intellectual property**—you cite to indicate its source. This reflects both the research you have done and your academic integrity.

Intellectual property is a legal term used to refer to intangible creations of individuals, including art, written work, research findings, and ideas Not everything you use in your work needs to be cited, though. You do not have to cite facts which are commonly known by your audience and easily verified in reference sources. You also do not have to cite information that comes from you, such as your opinion. When in doubt, though, it's not wrong to cite your source.

10-2: Written & Oral Citations

In using source material correctly, a speaker does three things:

1. He or she clearly cites the source of the information. It is here that the oral mode of communication differs from the written mode. In a paper, such as for literature, you would only need to include a parenthetical citation such as (Jones 78) for Modern Language Association (MLA) format, indicating that a writer named Jones contributed this idea on page 78 of a source that the reader can find on the Works Cited Page. In a paper for a class in the social sciences, an American Psychological Association (APA) format citation would be (Jones, 2012) or (Jones, 2012, p. 78). The first would be used if you summarized or paraphrased information from the source, and second (with the page number) is used to indicate the words were quoted exactly from a source. Obviously, in that case, quotation marks are used around the quoted material. In both cases, if the reader wants more information, it can be found on the References Page.

A speech is quite different. Saying "According to Jones, p. 78," really does very little for the audience. They can't turn to the back of the paper. They don't have a way, other than oral communication, to understand the type of information being cited, how recent it is, the credibility of the author you are citing and why you think he or she is a valid source, or the title of the work. It is necessary in a speech to give more complete information that would help the audience understand its value. The page number, the publishing company, and city it was published in are probably not important, but what is important is whether it is a website, a scholarly article, or a book; whether it was written in 1950 or 2010; and what is the position, background, or credentials of the source.

So, instead of "According to Jones, p. 78," a better approach would be,

"According to Dr. Samuel Jones, Head of Cardiology at Vanderbilt University, in a 2010 article in a prestigious medical journal…"

Or

"In her 2012 book, The Iraq War in Context, historian Mary Smith of the University of Georgia states that…"

Or

"In consulting the website for the American Humane Society, I found these statistics about animal abuse compiled by the Society in 2012…"

This approach shows more clearly that you have done proper research to support your ideas and arguments. It also allows your audience to find the material if they want more information. Notice that in all three examples the citation precedes the fact or information being cited. This order allows the audience to recognize the borrowed material better. The use of a clear citation up-front makes it more noticeable as well as more credible to the audience.

2. The speaker should take special care to use information that is in context and relevant. This step takes more critical thinking skills. For example, it is often easy to misinterpret statistical information, or to take a quotation from an expert in one field and apply it to another field. It is also important to label facts as facts and opinions as opinions, especially when dealing with controversial subjects. In addition, be sure you understand the material you are citing before using it. If you are unsure of any words, look their definitions up so you are sure to be using the material as it is intended. Finally, it is important that you understand the type of publication or source you are using, for example, a scholarly publication in contrast to a journalistic one.

3. The speaker should phrase or summarize the ideas of the source into his or her own words. **Paraphrasin**g, which is putting the words and ideas of others into one's own authentic or personal language, is often misunderstood by students. Paraphrasing is not changing 10% of the words in a long quotation but still keeping most of the vocabulary and word order (called syntax) of the source. You should compose the information in your own "voice" or way of expressing yourself.

In fact, you would be better off to think in terms of summarizing your source material rather than paraphrasing. For one thing, you will be less likely to use too much of the original and therefore be skirting the edge of plagiarism. Secondly, you will usually want to put the main arguments of a source in your own words and make it shorter.

Sometimes it is important to utilize an actual quotation, wherein you read word for word from the source. This might be important when describing a complex process, or when quoting the words spoken directly by another person. In this case, it is important to specify which words are quoted directly from the source and which aren't. In order to do this, we use the terms "quote". The word "quote" would be used at the start of the quotation to let the audience know that the following words are not your own. Here is an example:

In 1963, Dr. Martin Luther King said that **quote** "Injustice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere. We are caught in an inescapable network of mutuality, tied in a single garment of destiny. Whatever affects one directly, affects all indirectly."

10-3: Further Examples

Example 1:

This is what you would say in your speech.

According to an article on consumer perception of coffee published in *Nutrients Journal,* those who were surveyed said young males are more likely to be inclined to believe there are health benefits from drinking coffee. In a market where there is increased interest in healthy food, there is room to improve the perception of coffee and the scientifically-based health benefits.

This is what it would look like on your outline.

According to an article on consumer perception of coffee published in *Nutrients Journal* those who were surveyed said young males are more likely to be inclined to believe there are health benefits from drinking coffee (Samoggia & Riedel, 2019).

This is what you would put on the reference page.

Samoggia, A., & Riedel, B. (2019). Consumers' perceptions of coffee health benefits and motives for coffee consumption and purchasing. Nutrients, 11(3), 653. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/nu11030653

Example 2:

This is what you would say in your speech.

An article published in the *Nutrition and Food Science Journa*l titled, "To sip or not to sip: The potential risks and benefits of coffee drinking" coffee drinking can reduce the risk of type 2 diabetes, Alzheimer's disease, and Parkinson's disease.

This is what it would look like on your outline.

An article published in the *Nutrition and Food Science Journal* titled, "To sip or not to sip: The potential risks and benefits of coffee drinking" coffee drinking can reduce the risk of type 2 diabetes, Alzheimer's disease, and Parkinson's disease. (Taylor & Demming-Adams, 2007).

This is what you would put on the reference page.

Taylor, S. R., & Demmig-Adams, B. (2007). To sip or not to sip: The potential health risks and benefits of coffee drinking. Nutrition and Food Science, 37(6), 406-418. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/00346650710838063

10-4: Things to Avoid

1. **"According to google."** Google is not a source; it is a search engine. The equivalent would be to say, according to the university library. The library is where you find the information, not the information itself.

2. **According to homedepot.com."** You would never say, "According to 210 South Main Street, Fayetteville, Arkansas because that is an address. When you say ".com" you are citing an address. Don't site a person's address or a webpage's address as your source. You can say, "according to the home depot website."

3. "And my source is…" When saying your source, use the name of the specialist or the name of the article and journal. No need to tell us it is your source; we will figure that out.

4. "Thank you and now here are my sources." You do not need to show your audience your references on your slide show. To make sure your audience doesn't accidentally see your reference page, put two blank slides at the end of your presentation and then add your references. Putting them with your slides keeps them available for anyone who wants a copy of your slides.

Attribution and References:

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Meade, L. (2021). Advanced Public Speaking. *Open Textbooks University of Arkansas Libraries*. University of Arkansas Open Resource. Retrieved July 1, 2022, from https://uark.pressbooks.pub/speaking/.

Tucker, Barbara; Barton, Kristin; Burger, Amy; Drye, Jerry; Hunsicker, Cathy; Mendes, Amy; and LeHew, Matthew, "Exploring Public Speaking: 4th Edition" (2019). Communication Open Textbooks. https://oer.galileo.usg.edu/communication-textbooks/1

Chapter 11
Visual Aids

Learning Objectives
11-1 Students will understand the functions of visual aids
11-2 Students will identify the different types of visual aids
11-3 Students will be able to create effective visual slides
11-4 Students will be able to utilize visual aids effectively in their speeches

An Overview

When you give a speech, you are presenting much more than just a collection of words and ideas. Because you are speaking "live and in person," your audience members will experience your speech through all five of their senses: hearing, vision, smell, taste, and touch. In some speaking situations, the speaker appeals only to the sense of hearing. They more or less ignore the other senses except to avoid visual distractions by dressing and presenting themselves in an appropriate manner. But the speaking event can be greatly enriched by appeals to the other senses. This is the role of visual aids. **visual aids** are the resources beyond the speech words and delivery that a speaker uses to enhance the message conveyed to the audience. The type of visual aids that speakers most typically make use of are **visual aids**: pictures, diagrams, charts and graphs, maps, and the like

As you can see, the range of possible visual aids is almost unlimited. However, all visual aids have one thing in common: To be effective, each visual aid a speaker uses must be a direct, uncluttered example of a specific element of the speech. It is understandable that someone presenting a speech about the assassination of Abraham Lincoln might want to include a photograph of him, but because everyone already knows what Lincoln looked like, the picture would not contribute much to the message. Other visual artifacts are more likely to deliver information more directly relevant to the speech—a diagram of the interior of Ford's Theater where Lincoln was assassinated, for instance, would provide information that the audience likely does not know.

Moreover, visual aids must be used at the time when you are presenting the specific ideas related to the aid. For example, if you are speaking about coral reefs and one of your supporting points is about the location of the world's major reefs, it would make sense to display a map of these reefs while you're talking about location. If you display it while you are explaining what coral actually is, or describing the kinds of fish that feed on a reef, the map will not serve as a useful visual aid—in fact, it's likely to be a distraction.

To be effective, visual aids must also be easy to use and easy for the listeners to see and understand. In this chapter, we will present some principles and strategies to help you incorporate effective visual aids into your speech.

11-1: Functions of Visual Aids

Why should you use visual aids? If you have prepared and rehearsed your speech adequately, shouldn't a good speech with a good delivery be enough to stand on its own? While it is true that impressive visual aids will not rescue a poor speech, a good speech can often be made even better by the strategic use of visual aids. visual aids can fulfill several functions: they can serve to improve your audience's understanding of the information you are conveying, enhance audience memory and retention of the message, add variety and interest to your speech, and enhance your credibility as a speaker.

As a speaker, one of your basic goals is to help your audience understand your message. To reduce misunderstanding, visual aids can be used to **clarify** or to **emphasize**. Visual aids can help by providing visual clarification to things that might be hard to describe with only words. For instance, maps can help us describe a geographical breakdown of an area in a way that is very hard to describe using only words. This helps to clarify the idea. Likewise, you can use visual aids to impress on listeners the importance of an idea.

The second function that visual aids can serve is to increase the audience's **retention and recall**. An article by the U.S. Department of Labor (1996) summarized research on how people learn and remember. The authors found that "83% of human learning occurs visually, and the remaining 17% through the other senses—11% through hearing, 3.5% through smell, 1% through taste, and 1.5% through touch."

For this reason, exposure to an image can serve as a memory aid to your listeners. When your graphic images deliver information effectively and when your listeners understand them clearly, audience members are likely to remember your message long after your speech is over. Moreover, people often are able to remember information that is presented in sequential steps more easily than if that information is presented in an unorganized pattern. When you use a visual aid to display the organization of your speech (such as can be done with PowerPoint slides), you will help your listeners to observe, follow, and remember the sequence of information you conveyed to them. This is why some instructors display a lecture outline for their students to follow during class and why a slide with a preview of your main points can be helpful as you move into the body of your speech.

An added plus of using visual aids is that they can boost your memory while you are speaking. Using your visual aids while you rehearse your speech will familiarize you with the association between a given place in your speech and the visual aid that accompanies that material.

visual aids alone will not be enough to create a professional image. As we mentioned earlier, impressive visual aids will not rescue a poor speech. Even if you give a good speech, you run the risk of appearing unprofessional if your visual aids are poorly executed. Conversely, a high quality presentation will contribute to your professional image. This means that in addition to containing important information, your visual aids must be clear, clean, uncluttered, organized, and large enough for the audience to see and interpret correctly. Misspellings and poorly designed visual aids can damage your credibility as a speaker.

In addition, make sure that you give proper credit to the source of any visual aids that you take from other sources. Using a statistical chart or a map without proper credit will detract from your credibility, just as using a quotation in your speech without credit would. This situation will usually take place with digital aids such as PowerPoint slides. The source of a chart or the data shown in a chart form should be cited at the bottom the slide.

11-2: Proper Visual Aid Usage

Using visual aids can come with some risks. However, with a little forethought and adequate practice, you can choose visual aids that enhance your message and boost your professional appearance in front of an audience. One principle to keep in mind is to use only as many visual aids as necessary to present your message or to fulfill your classroom assignment. The number and the technical sophistication of your visual aids should never overshadow your speech.

Another important consideration is technology. Keep your visual aids within the limits of the working technology available to you. Whether or not your classroom technology works on the day of your speech, you will still have to present. What will you do if the computer file containing your slides is corrupted? What will you do if the easel is broken? What if you had counted on stacking your visuals on a table that disappears right when you need it? Or the Internet connection is down for a YouTube video you plan to show?

You must be prepared to adapt to an uncomfortable and scary situation. This is why we urge students to go to the classroom well ahead of time to test the equipment and ascertain the condition of items they're planning to use. As the speaker, you are responsible for arranging the things you need to make your visual aids work as intended. Carry a roll of masking tape so you can display your poster even if the easel is gone. Test the computer setup. Have your slides on a flash drive AND send it to yourself as an attachment or upload to a Cloud service. Have an alternative plan prepared in case there is some glitch that prevents your computer-based visual aids from being usable. And of course, you must know how to use the technology.

More important than the method of delivery is the audience's ability to see and understand the visual aid. It must deliver clear information, and it must not distract from the message. Avoid overly elaborate visual aids. Instead, simplify as much as possible, emphasizing the information you want your audience to understand.

Another thing to remember is that visual aids do not "speak for themselves." When you display a visual aid, you should explain what it shows, pointing out and naming the most important features. If you use an audio aid such as a musical excerpt, you need to tell your audience what to listen for. Similarly, if you use a video clip, it is up to you as the speaker to point out the characteristics in the video that support the point you are making—but probably beforehand, so you are not speaking over the video. At the same time, a visual aid should be quickly accessible to the audience. This is where simplicity comes in. Just as in organization of a speech you would not want to use 20 main points, but more like 3-5, you should limit categories of information on a visual aid.

11-3: Types of Presentation Aids

Now that we have covered some of the basics on visual aids, let's examine some of the more common types of visual aids that you as a speaker might use.

Charts, Graphs, & Pictures

A **chart** is commonly defined as a graphical representation of data (often numerical) or a sketch representing an ordered process. Whether you create your charts or do research to find charts that already exist, it is important for them to exactly match the specific purpose in your speech.

Diagrams are drawings or sketches that outline and explain the parts of an object, process, or phenomenon that cannot be readily seen. Like graphs, diagrams can be considered a type of chart, as in the case of organizational charts and process-flow charts.

A **graph** is a pictorial representation of the relationships of quantitative data using dots, lines, bars, pie slices, and the like. Graphs show how one factor (such as size, weight, number of items) varies in comparison to other items. Whereas a statistical chart may report the mean ages of individuals entering college, a graph would show how the mean age changes over time. A statistical chart may report the amount of computers sold in the United States, while a graph will use bars or lines to show their breakdown by operating systems such as Windows, Macintosh, and Linux.

Public speakers can show graphs using a range of different formats. Some of those formats are specialized for various professional fields. Very complex graphs often contain too much information that is not related to the purpose of a student's speech. If the graph is cluttered, it becomes difficult to comprehend. Types of graphs may include:

line graphs
bar graphs
pie graphics
pictographs

Sometimes a **photograph** or a **drawing** is the best way to show an unfamiliar but important detail. Audiences expect high quality in photographs, and as with all presentation aids they should enhance the speech and not just "be there." It is common to put stock photographs on PowerPoint slides as "clip art," but they should be relevant and not detract from the message of the slide.

Maps

Maps are extremely useful if the information is clear and limited. There are all kinds of maps, including population, weather, ocean current, political, and economic maps, so you should find the right kind for the purpose of your speech. Choose a map that emphasizes the information you need to deliver. Maps can help audience members with geography and identifying patterns across our world. For instance, examine the map below. If your speech was about Nigeria, this map makes it very easy to see where it is located in Africa.

https://maps-nigeria.com/map-of-africa-showing-nigeria

Video and Audio Recordings

Another very useful type of presentation aid is a video or audio recording. Whether it is a short video from a website such as YouTube or Vimeo, a segment from a song, or a piece of a podcast, a well-chosen video or audio recording may be a good choice to enhance your speech. Imagine, for example, that you're giving a speech on how Lap-Band surgeries help people lose weight. One of the sections of your speech could explain how the Lap-Band works, so you could easily show a thirty second video available on YouTube to demonstrate the part of the surgery. Maybe you could include a recording of a real patient explaining why they decided to get the Lap-Band.

There is one major warning to using audio and video clips during a speech: do not forget that they are supposed to be aids to your speech, not the speech itself. In addition, be sure to avoid these five mistakes that speakers often make when using audio and video clips:

1. Avoid choosing clips that are too long for the overall length of the speech. Your instructor can give you some guidelines for how long video and audio clips should be for the speeches in your class, if they are allowed (and make sure they are).

2. Practice with the audio or video equipment prior to speaking. If you are unfamiliar with the equipment, you'll look foolish trying to figure out how it works. This fiddling around will not only take your audience out of your speech but also have a negative

impact on your credibility. It also wastes valuable time. Finally, be sure that the speakers on the computer are on and at the right volume level.

3. Cue the clip to the appropriate place prior to beginning your speech. We cannot tell you the number of times we've seen students spend valuable speech time trying to find a clip on YouTube. You need to make sure your clip is ready to go before you start speaking. Later in this chapter we will look at using video links in slides.

4. In addition to cuing the clip to the appropriate place, the browser window should be open and ready to go. If there are advertisements before the video, be sure to have the video cued to play after the ad. The audience should not have to sit through a commercial.

5. The audience must be given context before a video or audio clip is played, specifically what the clip is and why it relates to the speech. At the same time, the video should not repeat what you have already said, but add to it.

Objects & Models

Objects and models are another form of presentation aid that can be very helpful in getting your audience to understand your message. Objects refer to anything you could hold up and talk about during your speech. If you're talking about the importance of not using plastic water bottles, you might hold up a plastic water bottle and a stainless steel water bottle as examples.

Models, on the other hand, are re-creations of physical objects that you cannot have readily available with you during a speech. If you're giving a speech on heart murmurs, you may be able to show how heart murmurs work by holding up a model of the human heart. As will be discussed in the section on handouts below, a speaker should not pass an object or model around during a speech. It is highly distracting.

11-4: Presentation Slides

Ever since the 1990s and the mainstreaming of personal computer technology, speakers have had the option of using slide presentation software to accompany their speeches and presentations. The most commonly known one is PowerPoint, although there are several others:

- Prezi, available at www.prezi.com
- Slide Rocket, available at www.sliderocket.com
- Google Slides, available in Google Drive and useful for collaborative assignments
- Keynote, the Apple presentation slide software on MACs
- Impress, an Open Office product (http://www.openoffice.org/product/impress.html)
- PrezentIt
- AdobeAcrobat Presenter
- ThinkFree

Advantages and Disadvantages

Slides are Good Because They:

- Can create credibility. (Many people expect you to use slides and meeting that expectation gives you credibility.
- Help focus the audience's attention.
- Help the audience visualize concepts.
- Help people take organized notes of a talk.
- Helps the speaker stay on track.
- Provides aesthetic appeal.
- Show something that may be hard to describe.

Slides are Bad Because They:

- Can distract from what the speaker is saying.
- Can hurt the speaker's credibility when poorly constructed.
- Can cause people to mindlessly take notes without thinking about the content.
- Can be boring especially when a speaker stands up there and simply reads the slides to an audience.
- Can lead to passive listening when a teacher uses them in the classroom and give the students a copy of the slides.

Rules to Follow with Presentation Slides

Write Your Speech First

As mentioned in the introduction, one of the most important things you can do when preparing your speech is to get away from your slide software. Under no circumstance should you open your slide software (PowerPoint, Presenter, Google slides, Prezi, Keynote, etc.) until your speech is complete and you have made a plan for what visuals the audience needs to see.

Keep Text to A Minimum

No more than six words across and six words down. This keeps the slide uncluttered and easy to read. Following this rule will also make sure that you do not have information overload on any given slide.

Offer One Idea to a Slide

You can keep text to a minimum by limiting ideas to one per slide. Audience members should be able to glance quickly–about 3 seconds–and get all the information. It is better to have a lot of slides where each has only one idea per slide than it is to have one slide with a list of ideas. Nancy Duarte, communication coach, reminds us that if you have too many words, it is no longer a visual aid but a teleprompter. Estimate approximately how long it will take an audience member to read your slide by timing yourself reading the slide backward.

Reduce Cognitive Load

It is better to help the audience focus on the main point in the slide. By keeping things simple, it reduces the audience's cognitive resources. There are several ways you can reduce cognitive load.

Avoid busy backgrounds they can drain mental energy.
Eliminate unneeded titles.
Use basic, easy-to-read font.
Keep background colors consistent
Format photos and illustrations in the same style.

Use Pictures Instead of Words When Possible

People retain more information when what they see on the screen supports the message they are hearing. Remember the staitics from earlier in the chapter about earlier f rom the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Pairing visuals with spoken words increases knowledge retention dramatically.

Avoid Distracting Slide Transitions

There is rarely a time when you should use the transition feature of the software. Things that twirl, cube, swap, and swoosh rarely help the audience to focus on your idea. Most of the time, they are just cheesy and distracting. Three transitions that can be used with a level of professionalism are cut, fade, and dissolve. The easiest rule is if you do not have a reason for a transition, don't do it.

Use Easy-to-Read, Plain Font

Use 28-point font and larger. Do not use more than three different sizes and make the size variants purposeful. It is best to stick with a plain, sans-serif font such as Helvetica, Arial, or Tahoma. There are two types of font, serif (with fancy tails) and san serif (without fancy tails). The Plain, san serif font is easiest to read when projected.

Go For High Contrast

Always go for the highest contrast. I recently attended a special event and the speaker projected his side and then looked back at it surprised and said, "Sorry, you can't see the red letters." The speaker had attempted to put red letters on a black ground–this is always a no-no because it rarely shows well. It is best to pick a dark blue or back background and put white or yellow letters on it. You can also use a white or yellow background with dark black or blue letters.

Use Minimal Bullets

If you do have bullet points, make sure you have more than one point because let's face it, bullet points are for making lists and one point does not make a list. In addition, you should never have more than six bullet points because then you would have too much stuff on your slide.

Use Blank Slides

You do not always have to have a slide behind you. Insert black, blank slides between points when you need to talk to the audience without the distraction of a visual.

Have a Backup Plan

Technology is evil and is the enemy of all that is good. It will crash on you. You should always have a backup plan and you should always be prepared to speak even if your slides do not work. You should always have notecards and I highly suggest printing out your slides to reference and then if the projector bulb goes out or the computer crashes, you can still make your presentation.

Test Your Slide Show, Videos, and Clicker/Remote

You should always practice using your slides. It is helpful to test out your presentation on your friends or trusted colleague and ask them to give you feedback. When you get to the place where you will give your presentation, it is a good idea to pull up your slides and make sure they work with the clicker/remote. It is a good idea to carry extra batteries with you too. Test the volume of your videos and make sure they play properly. Finally, make sure you know where the audio-visual person will be in case you have any problems. If you are a student, have a friend who can come up and fix your slides while you keep your speech going.

Make Reminders on Your Notes to Change Your Slide

Many of my students will turn on their presentation slides and during the speech forget they are there. After they conclude their speech and we have applauded, they will look back at the projector and say, “Oh, here is my visual aid,” and then will rapidly click through the seven slides they should have shown us during the speech.

To avoid this, practice with your slides and mark on your notecards where to advance your slide. I usually draw an “S” in a circle and then color in the circle with a highlighter.

Point Your Body and Your Eyes Towards the Audience Not Towards the Slides

Your feet indicate where you want to go. If your feet are pointed towards the door, you are indicating you want to go out the door. Similarly, if your feet are pointed towards the back wall where your slides are located, it indicates you want to go towards your slides and not towards the audience. In short, you have turned your back on your audience. Point your feet, your hips, and your head towards the audience.

Keep your eyes on your audience and not your slides. Having brief slides helps. If you only have a few words or a nice photo on your slides, you are less tempted to stand there and read to the audience. In addition, having your notes in front of you as opposed to using your slides as your notes helps you keep pointed forward. Just remember, talk to your audience, not your slides.

Conclusion

Visual aids are a key component to any good presentation. They can enhance both your performance as a speaker and also the experience of your audience. In this chapter we covered a lot of information. We discussed the proper ways to use visual aids, the different types, and we went on the rules you should follow when making and using presentation slides.

A good set of visual aids will make your speech far better than it would be without them, but a poor set of visual aids will make your speech much worse. Remember the lessons learned in this chapter when you are developing your own visual aids, and avoid any of the pitfalls we have listed. If you do, you will create an excellent set of visual aids that will enhance your speech and benefit both you and your audience.

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Chapter 12:
Delivery

Learning Objectives
12-1-Students will be able to identify the different methods of speech delivery
12-2-Students will be able to identify critical elements in preparing to deliver a speech
12-3-Students will understand the benefits of delivery-related behaviors
12-4-Students will utilize specific techniques to enhance speech delivery

Introduction

How we deliver a speech is just as important, if not more so than the basic message we are trying to convey to an audience. But if you have worked hard on preparing the verbal part of your speech, you may feel that delivery is just an “extra” that should not require much time or effort. After all, your speech is carefully planned, researched, and polished. It is committed safely to paper and hard drives. It’s a carefully constructed, logically crafted, ethical message. The words alone should engage your audience’s attention and interest—right?

After all the work of building such a message, you might wish that you could simply read it to the audience. For your public speaking class, you will not be encouraged to read your speech. Instead, you will be asked to give an extemporaneous presentation. We will examine what that means.

The nonverbal part of your speech is a presentation of yourself and your message. Using eye contact, vocal expression, body posture, gestures, and facial display, you enhance your message and invite your audience to give serious attention to it and you. Your credibility, sincerity, and knowledge of your speech become apparent through your nonverbal behaviors. This balance is achieved through rehearsal, trial and error, and experience.

12-1-The Four Methods of Delivery

The most straightforward approach to speech delivery is not always the best. Substantial work goes into the careful preparation of a compelling and ethical message, so, understandably, students may have the impulse to avoid “messing it up” by simply reading it word for word. But students who do this miss out on one of the primary reasons for studying public speaking: to learn ways to “connect” with one’s audience and to increase one’s confidence in doing so. You already know how to read, and you already know how to talk. But public speaking is neither reading nor talking.

While speaking has more formality than talking, it has less formality than reading. Speaking allows for meaningful pauses, eye contact, small changes in word order, and vocal emphasis. Reading is an exact replication of words on paper without the use of any nonverbal interpretation. Speaking provides a more animated message, as you will realize if you think about excellent speakers you have seen and heard.

#1 Impromptu Speaking

Impromptu speaking is the presentation of a short message without preparation. Impromptu speeches often occur when someone is asked to “say a few words” or give a toast on a special occasion. You have probably done impromptu speaking many times in informal, conversational settings. Self-introductions in group settings are examples of impromptu speaking: “Hi, my name is Steve, and I’m a student at Prairie View A&M University.” Another example of impromptu speaking occurs when you answer a question such as, “What did you think of the documentary?”

The advantage of this kind of speaking is that it’s spontaneous. The disadvantage is that the speaker is given little or no time to contemplate the central theme of the message. As a result, the message may be disorganized and difficult for listeners to follow. Here is a step-by-step guide that may be useful if you are called upon to give an impromptu speech in public.

- Take a moment to collect your thoughts and plan the main point you want to make.
- Thank the person for inviting you to speak.
- Deliver your message, making your main point as briefly as possible while covering it adequately and at a pace that your listeners can follow.
- Thank the person again for the opportunity to speak.
- Stop talking.

As you can see, impromptu speeches are generally most successful when they are brief and focus on a single point.

#2 Extemporaneous Speaking

Extemporaneous speaking is the presentation of a carefully planned and rehearsed speech, spoken in a conversational manner using brief notes. By using letters rather than a complete manuscript, the extemporaneous speaker can establish and maintain eye contact with the audience and assess how well they understand the speech as it progresses.

Speaking extemporaneously has some advantages. It promotes the likelihood that you, the speaker, will be perceived as knowledgeable and credible. In addition, your audience is likely to pay better attention to the message because it engages both verbally and nonverbally. The disadvantage of extemporaneous speaking is that it requires much preparation for the speech’s verbal and nonverbal components. Adequate preparation cannot be achieved the day before you’re scheduled to speak. Because extemporaneous speaking is the style used in most public speaking situations, most of the information in this chapter is targeted at this kind of talking.

#3 Speaking from a Manuscript

Manuscript speaking is the word-for-word iteration of a written message. In a manuscript speech, the speaker maintains their attention on the printed page except when using visual aids. The advantage to reading from a manuscript is the exact repetition of original words; in some circumstances, this can be extremely important. For example, reading a statement about your organization’s legal responsibilities to customers may require that the original words be exact. In reading one word at a time, the only errors would typically be a mispronunciation of a word or stumbling over complex sentence structure.

However, there are costs involved in manuscript speaking. First, it’s typically an uninteresting way to present. Unless the speaker has rehearsed the reading as a complete performance animated with vocal expression and gestures (as poets do in a poetry slam and actors do in a reader's theater), the presentation tends to be dull. Keeping one's eyes glued to the script precludes eye contact with the audience. For this kind of "straight" manuscript speech to hold the audience's attention, the audience must be already interested in the message before the delivery begins.

It is worth noting that professional speakers, actors, news reporters, and politicians often read from an autocue device, such as a TelePrompTer, mainly when appearing on television, where eye contact with the camera is crucial. With practice, a speaker can achieve a conversational tone and give the impression of speaking extemporaneously while using an autocue device. However, success in this medium depends on two factors: (1) the speaker is already an accomplished public speaker who has learned to use a conversational tone while delivering a prepared script, and (2) the speech is written in a style that sounds conversational.

#4 Speaking from Memory

When it comes to speeches, memorization can be helpful when the message needs to be exact, and the speaker doesn't want to be confined by notes. The advantage of memorization is that it enables the speaker to maintain eye contact with the audience throughout the speech. Being free of messages means you can move freely around the stage and use your hands to make gestures. If your speech uses visual aids, this freedom is an advantage. However, there are some actual and potential costs.

First, unless you also plan and memorize every vocal cue (which can include pitch, tone, volume, and pace), gesture, and facial expression, your presentation will be flat, uninteresting, and even the most fascinating topic will suffer. You might speak in a monotone or a sing-song repetitive delivery pattern. You might also present your speech in a rapid "machine-gun" style that fails to emphasize the most critical points. Second, if you lose your place and start trying to ad lib, the contrast in your delivery style will alert your audience that something is wrong. More frighteningly, if you go completely blank during the presentation, it will be tough to find your place and keep going.

Key Takeaways

There are four main kinds of speech delivery: impromptu, extemporaneous, manuscript, and memorized.

- Impromptu speaking involves delivering a message on the spur of the moment, as when someone is asked to "say a few words."
- Extemporaneous speaking consists of delivering a speech in a conversational fashion using notes. This is the style most speeches call for.
- Manuscript speaking consists of reading a fully scripted speech. It is useful when a message needs to be delivered in precise words.
- Memorized speaking consists of reciting a scripted speech from memory. Memorization allows the speaker to be free of notes.

12-2-Preparing to Deliver a Speech

The Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. gave his famous "I Have a Dream" speech on the steps of the Lincoln Memorial at a gigantic civil rights rally on an August afternoon in 1963. His lectern was bristling with microphones for news coverage and recording the historic event. His audience, estimated to number a quarter of a million people, extended as far as the eye could see. He was the last speaker of the day, delivering his speech after more than a dozen civil rights leaders and world-famous performers such as Joan Baez, Mahalia Jackson, and Charlton Heston had occupied the stage (Ross, 2007). King gave us his speech in the assertive ringing tones of inspired vision. Nothing less would have worked that day. The very highlighted (well-known) parts of the I Have Dream speech are in an impromptu style. Even though Dr. King used manuscript delivery for his entire speech, he paused and switched to an impromptu speaking style; a formal speech became a Baptist sermon due to the change of speaking delivery style. Dr. King closed and returned to manuscript delivery to complete his speech.

Most of us will never speak to so many people at once. Even a television appearance will probably command a much smaller audience than the crowd that heard King's speech. Even though you don't expect an audience of such size or a setting of such symbolic importance, you should still be prepared to adapt to the environment in which you speak.

Our audiences, circumstances, and physical contexts for public speaking will vary. At some point in your life, you may run for public office or rise to a leadership role in a business or volunteer organization. Or you may be responsible for informing coworkers about a new policy, regulation, or opportunity. You may be asked to deliver remarks about a worship service, wedding, or funeral. You may be asked to introduce a keynote speaker or make an important announcement in some context. Sometimes you will speak in a familiar environment, while at other times, you may be faced with an unfamiliar location and very little time to get used to speaking with a microphone.

Using Lecterns

A lectern is a small, raised surface, usually with a slanted top, where a speaker can place notes during a speech. While a podium adds a measure of formality to the speaking situation, it allows speakers the freedom to do two things: to come out from behind the stage to establish more immediate contact with the audience and to use both hands for gestures.

Speaking in a Small or Large Physical Space

If you are accustomed to being in a classroom of a specific size, you will need to adjust when speaking in a smaller or larger space than you are used to. However, the maxim that "proper preparation prevents poor performance" is as true here as anywhere. If you have prepared and practiced well, you can confidently approach a large venue speaking engagement. In terms of practical adjustments, be aware that your voice is likely to echo, so you will want to talk more slowly than usual and use pauses to mark the ends of phrases and sentences. If you are using visual aids, they need to be large enough to be visible from the back of the auditorium.

A small space also calls for more careful management of notecards and visual aids, as your audience will be able to see up close what you are doing with your hands. Do your best to minimize fumbling, including setting up in advance or arriving early to decide how to organize your materials in the physical space.

Speaking Outdoors

Outdoor settings can be charming, but they are prone to distractions. If you're giving a speech in a picturesquely beautiful environment, it may be challenging to maintain the audience's attention. More typically, outdoor speech venues can pose challenges with weather, sun glare, and uninvited guests like ants and pigeons. If the platform is near a busy highway, it might be challenging to make yourself heard over the ambient noise. Whatever the situation, you will need to use your best efforts to project your voice clearly without sounding like you're yelling.

Using a Microphone

One overall principle is that a microphone only amplifies; it does not clarify. If you are not enunciating clearly, the microphone will merely enable your audience to hear amplified mumbling.

Lectern and handheld microphones require more adaptation. If they're too close to your mouth, they can screech. They might not pick up your voice if they're too far away. The best plan, of course, would be to have access to the microphone for practice ahead of the speaking date.

Audience Size

Your classroom audience may be as many as twenty to thirty students. The format for an audience of this size is still formal but conversational. Depending on how your instructor structures the class, you may or may not be asked to leave time after your speech for questions and answers.

Some audiences are much more significant. If you have an audience that fills an auditorium or an arena with only a few people in it, you still have a formal task. You should be guided as much as possible by your preparation.

Using Notecards

1. Plan on using just five cards, written on one side only. Get 4 × 6 cards.
2. Use one card for the introduction, one for each of your three main points, and one for the conclusion.
3. Good notecards keep you from reading to your audience.
4. Good notecards are carefully based on keywords and phrases to promote recall.
5. Good notecards should enhance your relationship with listeners.

12-3-What is Good Delivery?

Good delivery is the process of presenting a clear, coherent message interestingly. Many writers on the nonverbal aspects of delivery have cited the findings of psychologist Albert Mehrabian, asserting that the bulk of an audience's understanding of your message is based on nonverbal communication. Specifically, Mehrabian is often credited with finding that when audiences decoded a speaker's meaning, the speaker's face conveyed 55 percent of the information, and the vocalists gave 38 percent. The words conveyed just 7 percent (Mehrabian, 1972). Although scholars and speech instructors do agree that nonverbal communication and speech delivery are essential to effective public speaking.

In this section of the chapter, we will explain six elements of a good delivery: conversational style, conversational quality, eye contact, vocalics, physical manipulation, and variety.

Conversational Style

Conversational style is a speaker's ability to sound expressive and to be perceived by the audience as natural. Stephen E. Lucas defines everyday quality as the idea that "no matter how many times a speech has been rehearsed, it still *sounds* spontaneous" [emphasis in original] (Lucas, 2009). No one wants to hear a speech so well rehearsed that it sounds fake or robotic. One of the most complex parts of public speaking is rehearsing to the point where it can appear to your audience that the thoughts are magically coming to you while you're speaking, but in reality, you've spent a great deal of time thinking through each idea. When you can sound conversational, people pay attention.

Eye Contact

Eye contact is a speaker's ability to have visual contact with everyone in the audience. Your audience should feel that you're speaking to them, not simply uttering main and supporting points. If you are new to public speaking, you may find it intimidating to look audience members in the eye. Still, if you think about speakers you have seen who did not maintain eye contact, you'll realize why this aspect of speech delivery is essential. Without eye contact, the audience begins to feel invisible and unimportant, as if the speaker is speaking to hear their voice. Eye contact lets your audience feel that your attention is on them, not solely on the cards in front of you.

This is not to say that you may never look at your notecards. On the contrary, one of the skills in extemporaneous speaking is the ability to alternate one's gaze between the audience and one's notes. Rehearsing your presentation in front of a few friends should help you develop the ability to maintain eye contact with your audience while referring to your notes. You will only need to look at your notes occasionally when you are giving a speech that is well prepared and well-rehearsed.

Vocalics

Vocalics, also known as paralanguage, is the subfield of nonverbal communication that examines how we use our voices to communicate orally. This means that you speak loudly enough for all audience members (even those in the back of the room) to hear you clearly and that you enunciate clearly enough to be understood by all audience members. If you tend to be soft-spoken, you will need to practice using a louder volume level that may initially feel unnatural to you. For all speakers, the good vocalic technique is best achieved by facing the audience with your chin up and your eyes away from your notecards and setting your voice at a moderate speed. Effective use of vocalics also means using appropriate pitch, pauses, vocal variety, and correct pronunciation.

Volume

Volume refers to the loudness or softness of a speaker's voice. As mentioned, public speakers need to speak loudly enough to be heard by everyone in the audience. In addition, volume is often necessary to overcome ambient (distracting) noise. In addition, you can use volume strategically to emphasize the most critical points in your speech. You also want to be sure to adjust your volume to the physical setting of the presentation. You will need to speak louder if you are in a large auditorium and your audience is several yards away. If you are in a smaller space, with the audience a few feet away, you want to avoid overwhelming your audience with shouting or speaking too loudly.

Rate

Rate is the speed at which a person speaks. To keep your speech delivery interesting, your rate should vary. If you are speaking extemporaneously, your rate will naturally fluctuate. A rapid, lively rate can communicate such meanings as enthusiasm, urgency, or humor. A slower, moderated rate can convey respect, seriousness, or careful reasoning. By varying rapid and slower rates within a single speech, you can emphasize your main points and keep your audience interested.

Pitch

Pitch refers to the highness or lowness of a speaker's voice. Some speakers have deep voices, and others have high voices. While our voices may be generally comfortable at a specific pitch level, we all can modulate or move our pitch up or down. We do this all the time. When we change the pitch of our voices, we are using inflections. Just as you can use volume strategically, you can also use pitch inflections to make your delivery more exciting and emphatic.

Some speakers don't change their pitch while speaking, which is called monotone. While very few people are entirely monotone, some speakers slip into monotone patterns because of nerves. One way to ascertain whether you sound monotone is to record your voice and see how you sound. If you notice that your voice doesn't fluctuate very much, you will need to be intentional in altering your pitch to ensure that the emphasis of your speech isn't completely lost on your audience. Effective pitch is one of the keys to an exciting delivery that will hold your audience's attention.

Pauses

Pauses are brief breaks in a speaker's delivery that can show emphasis and enhance the clarity of a message. In terms of timing, the effective use of pauses is one of the essential skills to develop. Some speakers quickly become uncomfortable with the "dead air" that the pause causes. And if the speaker is awkward, the discomfort can transmit to the audience. That doesn't mean you should avoid pauses; your ability to use them confidently will increase with practice. Some of the best comedians use the well-timed pause to powerful and hilarious effect. Although your speech will not be a comedy routine, pauses are still helpful for emphasis, especially when combined with a lowered pitch and rate to emphasize the critical point you do not want your audience to miss.

Vocal Variety

Vocal variety has to do with changes in the vocalics we have just discussed: volume, pitch, rate, and pauses. No one wants to hear the same volume, pitch, speed, or use of breaks repeatedly in a speech. Your audience should never be able to detect that you're about to slow down, or your voice will get more profound because you're making an important point. When you think about how you sound in a normal conversation, your use of volume, pitch, rate, and pauses are all done spontaneously. If you try to over-rehearse your vocalics, your speech will sound artificial. Vocal variety should flow naturally from your wish to speak with expression. That way, it will animate your address and invite your listeners to understand your topic the way you do.

Pronunciation

The last major category of vocalists is pronunciation, or the conventional speech patterns used to form a word. Word pronunciation is essential for two reasons: first, mispronouncing a word your audience is familiar with will harm your credibility as a speaker; second, mispronouncing a word they are unfamiliar with can confuse and even misinform them. One important aspect of pronunciation is articulation, or the ability to pronounce each of a succession of syllables used to make up a word.

Another aspect of pronunciation in public speaking is avoiding verbal surrogates or "filler" words used as placeholders for actual words (like *er*, *um*, *uh*, etc.). You might get away with saying "um" as many as two or three times in your speech before it becomes distracting, but the same cannot be said of "like."

12-4- Good Delivery is a Habit

In addition to using our voices effectively, a key to effective public speaking is physical manipulation, or the use of the body to emphasize or convey meanings during a speech. While we will not attempt to give an entire discourse on nonverbal communication, we will discuss a few essential aspects of physical manipulation: posture, body movement, facial expressions, and dress. These aspects add to the overall physical dimension of your speech, which we call self-presentation.

Posture

"Stand up tall!" I'm sure we've all heard this statement from a parent or a teacher at some point in our lives. The fact is, posture is quite important. When you stand up straight, you communicate to your audience, without saying a word, that you hold a position of power and take your work seriously. If you are slouching, hunched over, or leaning on something, you could be perceived as ill-prepared, anxious, lacking in credibility, or not serious about your responsibilities as a speaker. While speakers often assume a more casual posture as a presentation continues (especially if it is a long one, such as a ninety-minute class lecture), it is always wise to start by standing up straight and putting your best foot forward. Remember, you only get one shot at making a first impression, and your body's orientation is one of the first pieces of information audiences use to make that impression.

Body Movement

As speakers, we must be mindful of how we move while speaking. Body movement also includes gestures. These should be neither overdramatic nor subdued. At one extreme, arm-waving and fist-pounding will distract from your message and reduce your credibility. You are conversely, refraining from using gestures wastes an opportunity to suggest emphasis, enthusiasm, or other personal connection with your topic.

There are many ways to use gestures. The most obvious are hand gestures, which should be used in moderation at carefully selected times in the speech. If you overuse gestures, they lose meaning.

Many speakers have unconscious mannerisms such as twirling their hair, putting their hands in and out of their pockets, jingling their keys, licking their lips or clicking a pen while speaking. As with other aspects of speech delivery, practicing in front of others will help you become conscious of such distractions and plan ways to avoid them.

Facial Expressions

As speakers, we must be acutely aware of what our face looks like while speaking. At the same time, many of us do not look forward to seeing ourselves on videotape, the only way you can critically evaluate what your face is doing while speaking is to watch a recording of your speech. If video is unavailable, you can practice speaking in front of a mirror.

You want to avoid two extremes: no facial expression and over-animated facial expressions. Some people do not naturally show much emotion on their faces, but this blankness is often increased when the speaker is nervous. Audiences will react negatively to the message of such a speaker because they will sense that something is amiss. If a speaker is talking about the joys of Disney World and his face doesn't show any excitement, the audience will be turned off by the speaker and his message. On the other end is the speaker, whose face looks like that of an exaggerated cartoon character. Instead, your goal is to show a variety of appropriate facial expressions while speaking.

Dress

While there are no clear-cut guidelines for how you should dress for every speech you give, dress is still an essential part of how others perceive you. If you want to be taken seriously, you must present yourself seriously.

One general rule you can use for determining dress is the "step-above rule," which states that you should dress one step above your audience. If your audience is going to be dressed casually in shorts and jeans, then wear nice casual clothing such as a pair of neatly pressed slacks and a collared shirt or blouse. If, however, your audience is going to be wearing "business casual" attire, then you should probably wear a sports coat, a dress, or a suit. The goal of the step-above rule is to establish yourself as someone to be taken seriously.

Another general rule for dressing is to avoid distractions in your appearance. Overly tight or revealing garments, over-the-top hairstyles or makeup, jangling jewelry, or a display of tattoos and piercings can draw your audience's attention away from your speech. Remembering that your message is the most crucial aspect of your speech, keep that message in mind when you choose your clothing and accessories.

Conclusion

Public speaking is an activity that, when done conscientiously, strengthens with practice. As you become aware of the areas where your delivery has room for improvement, you will begin developing a keen sense of what "works" and what audiences respond to.

Your public speaking course is one of the best opportunities to manage your performance anxiety, build your confidence in speaking extemporaneously, develop your vocal skills, and become adept at self-presentation. The habits you can develop through targeted practice are to build continuously on your strengths and to challenge yourself to find new areas for improving your delivery. By taking advantage of these opportunities, you will be able to present a speech effectively whenever you may be called upon to speak publicly.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

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Chapter 13
Informative Speaking

Learning Objectives
13-1 Students will be able to identify the difference between facts and opinions
13-2 Students will identify types of informative speeches
13-3 Students will understand guidelines for informative speech topic selection
13-4 Students will be be able to prepare an informative speech

13-1: What is an Informative Speech

Defining what an informative speech is can be both straight-forward and somewhat tricky at the same time. Very simply, an **informative speech** can first be defined as a speech based entirely and exclusively on facts. Basically, an informative speech conveys knowledge, a task that every person engages in every day in some form or another. Whether giving someone who is lost driving directions, explaining the specials of the day as a server, or describing the plot of a movie to friends, people engage in forms of informative speaking daily.

The most likely place that you have witnessed informative speaking is from lectures given by your professors. The lessons your teachers gave you in grade school were likewise informative speeches. In these speeches, we educators do our best to convey information to you in a way that both engaging and tooled to increase your likelihood to retain the information. Your speech in this class will follow the same principals that we employ in order to inform your audience about your topic. Your goal should be to provide information to your audience that will better their lives and those around them.

Fact vs. Opinion

An informative speech does not attempt to convince the audience that one thing is better than another. It does not advocate a course of action. Consider the following two statements:

2 + 2 = 4

George Washington was the first President of the United States.

In each case, the statement made is what can be described as **irrefutable**, meaning a statement or claim that cannot be argued. In the first example, even small children are taught that having two apples and then getting two more apples will result in having four apples. This statement is irrefutable in that no one in the world will (or should!) argue this: It is a fact

Similarly, with the statement “George Washington was the first President of the United States,” this again is an irrefutable fact. If you asked one hundred history professors and read one hundred history textbooks, the professors and textbooks would all say the same thing: Washington was the first president. No expert, reliable source, or person with any common sense would argue about this.

Therefore, an informative speech should not incorporate **opinion**, meaning a personal view, attitude or belief about something, as its basis. This can be the tricky part of developing an informative speech, because some opinion statements sometime sound like facts (since they are generally agreed upon by many people), but are really opinion.

For example, in an informative speech on George Washington, you might say, “George Washington was one of the greatest presidents in the history of the United States.” While this statement may be agreed upon by most people, it is possible for some people to disagree and argue the opposite point of view. The statement “George Washington was one of the greatest presidents in the history of the United States” is not irrefutable, meaning someone could argue this claim. If, however, you present the opinion as an opinion from a source, that is acceptable: it is a fact that someone (hopefully someone with expertise) holds the opinion. You do not want your central idea, your main points, and the majority of your supporting material to be opinion or argument in an informative speech.

Additionally, you should never take sides on an issue in an informative speech, nor should you “spin” the issue in order to influence the opinions of the listeners. Even if you are informing the audience about differences in views on controversial topics, you should simply and clearly explain the issues. This is not to say, however, that the audience’s needs and interests have nothing to do with the informative speech. Even though an informative speech is fact-based, it still needs to relate to people’s lives in order to maintain their attention.

13.2: Types of Informative Speaking

While the topics to choose from for informative speeches are nearly limitless, they can generally be pared down into five broad categories. Understanding the type of informative speech that you will be giving can help you to figure out the best way to organize, research, and prepare for it, as will be discussed below.

History

A common approach to selecting an informative speech topic is to discuss the history or development of something. With so much of human knowledge available via the Internet, finding information about the origins and evolution of almost anything is much easier than it has ever been (with the disclaimer that there are quite a few websites out there with false information). With that in mind, some of the areas that a historical informative speech could cover would include:

1. <u>Objects</u>: a Ferrari, a violin, a basketball
2. <u>Places</u>: Gettysburg, Dallas, Disneyland, Prairie View A&M University
3. <u>Ideas</u>: Democracy, Women’s Rights, Freedom of Speech, Equality

Biography

A biography is similar to a history, but in this case the subject is specifically a person, whether living or deceased. For the purposes of this class, biographies should focus on people of some note or fame, since doing research on people who are not at least mildly well-known could be difficult. But again, as with histories, there are specific and irrefutable facts that can help provide an overview of someone's life, such as dates that President John F. Kennedy was born (May 19, 1917) and died (November 22, 1963) and the years he was in office as president (1961-1963).

This might be a good place to address research and support. The basic dates of John F. Kennedy's life could be found in multiple sources and you would not have to cite the source in that case. But it you use the work of a specific historian to explain how Kennedy was able to win the presidency, or why they made the decisions they did during the Cuban Missile Crisis, that would need a citation of that author and the publication.

Processes

Examples of process speech topics would be how to bake chocolate chip cookies; how to throw a baseball; how a nuclear reactor works; how a bill works its way through Congress.

Process speeches are sometimes referred to as demonstration or "how to" speeches because they often entail demonstrating something. These speeches require you to provide steps that will help your audience understand how to accomplish a specific task or process. However, How To speeches can be tricky in that there are rarely universally agreed upon (i.e. irrefutable) ways to do anything. If your professor asked the students in his or her public speaking class to each bring in a recipe for baking chocolate chip cookies, would all of them be the exact same recipe? Most likely not. But that does not mean that you cannot give a process speech about something that might have different methods to accomplish. You may tell your audience how **you** bake chocolate chip cookies. It may not be the only way, but it is still a viable way to accomplish the task.

There is a second type of process speech that focuses not on how the audience can achieve a result, such as changing oil in their cars or cooking something, but on how a process is achieved. The goal is understanding and not performance. After a speech on how to change a car tire, the audience members could probably do it (they might not want to, but they would know the steps). However, after a speech on how a bill goes through Congress, the audience would understand this important part of democracy but not be ready to serve in Congress.

Ideas & Concepts

Sometimes an informative speech is designed to explain an idea or concept. What does democracy mean? What is justice? In this case, you will want to do two things. First, you will want to have a clear definition of the idea in question. Second, you will want to make your concept concrete, real, and specific for your audience with examples

13.3: Selecting an Informative Speech Topic

In this section we will provide some guidelines that will be useful when selecting an informative speech topic. Remember that your goal in this speech to provide new and useful information to your audience that will benefit them in some way.

Pick a Specific or Focused Topic

Perhaps one of the biggest and most common misconceptions students have about informative speech topics is that the topic needs to be broad in order to fill the time requirements for the speech. It is not uncommon for a student to propose an informative speech topic such as “To inform my audience about the history of music.” How is that topic even possible? When does the history of music even begin? The thinking here is that this speech will be easy to research and write since there is so much information available. But the opposite is actually true. A topic this broad makes doing research even harder.

Let’s consider the example of a student who proposes the topic “To inform my audience about the Civil War.” The Civil War was, conservatively speaking, four years long, resulted in over 750,000 casualties, and arguably changed the course of human history. So to think that it is possible to cover all of that in five to seven minutes is unrealistic. Also, a typical college library has hundreds of books dealing with the Civil War. How will you choose which ones are best suited to use for your speech?

The better approach in this case is to be as specific as possible. A revised specific purpose for this speech might be something like “To inform my audience about the Gettysburg Address.” This topic is much more compact (the Gettysburg Address is only a few minutes long), and doing research will now be much easier—although you will still find hundreds of sources on it.

Instead of looking through all the books in your campus library on the Civil War, searching through the library’s databases and catalog for material on the Gettysburg Address will yield a much more manageable number of books and articles. It may sound counterintuitive, but selecting a speech topic that is very specifically focused will make the research and writing phases of the informative speech much easier.

Avoid Opinionated Topics

Sometimes students think that because something sounds like an informative speech topic, it is one. It is not uncommon for a student to propose the topic “To inform my audience about the existence of extraterrestrials,” thinking it is a good topic. After all, there is plenty of evidence to support the claim, right? There are pictures of unidentified objects in the sky that people claim are from outer space, there are people who claim to have seen extraterrestrials, and most powerful of all, there are people who say that they have been abducted by aliens and taken into space.

The problem here, as you have probably already guessed, is that these facts are not irrefutable. Not every single person who sees something unknown in the sky will agree it is an alien spacecraft, and there can be little doubt that not everyone who claims to have been abducted by a UFO is telling the truth. This isn’t to say that you can’t still do an informative speech on alien sites. For example, two viable options are “To inform my audience about the SETI Project” or “To inform my audience of the origin of the Area 51 conspiracy.” However, these types of speeches can quickly devolve into opinion if you aren’t careful, which would then make them persuasive speeches. Even if you start by trying to be objective, unless you can present each side equally, it will end up becoming a persuasive speech. Additionally, when a speaker picks such a topic, it is often because of a latent desire to persuade the audience about them.

13.4: Preparing an Informative Speech

Don't Be Too Broad

In preparing and writing an informative speech, one of the most common mistakes students make is to think that they must be comprehensive in covering their topic, which isn't realistic. Regardless of the topic, you will never be able to cover everything that is known about your topic, so don't try. Select the things that will best help the audience gain a general understanding of the topic, that will interest them, and that they hopefully will find valuable. Keep in mind your time limitations when selecting what to cover in your speech. You do not want to get caught in a situation where you cannot finish your speech because you chose to cover too much information.

Be Accurate, Clear, and Interesting

A good informative speech conveys accurate information to the audience in a way that is clear and that keeps the listener interested in the topic. Achieving all three of these goals—accuracy, clarity, and interest—is the key to being an effective speaker. If information is inaccurate, incomplete, or unclear, it will be of limited usefulness to the audience.

Part of being accurate is making sure that your information is current. Even if you know a great deal about your topic or wrote a good paper on the topic in a high school course, you will need to verify the accuracy and completeness of what you know, especially if it is medical or scientific information. Most people understand that technology changes rapidly, so you need to update your information almost constantly. The same is true for topics that, on the surface, may seem to require less updating. For example, the Civil War occurred over 150 years ago, but contemporary research still offers new and emerging theories about the causes of the war and its long-term effects. So even with a topic that seems to be unchanging, carefully check the information to be sure it's accurate and up to date.

What defines "interesting?" In approaching the informative speech, you should keep in mind the good overall principle that the audience is asking, "what's in it for me?" The audience is either consciously or unconsciously wondering "What in this topic for me? How can I use this information? Of what value is this speech content to me? Why should I listen to it?"

You might consider it one of the jobs of the introduction to directly or indirectly answer these questions. If you can't, then you need to think about your topic and why you are addressing it. If it's only because the topic is interesting to you, you are missing the point.

Also make sure that the information you are sharing is relevant and engaging to the audience. For instance, if your speech is about air pollution, ask your audience to imagine feeling the burning of eyes and lungs caused by smog. This is a strategy for making the topic more real to them, since it may have happened to them on a number of occasions; and even if it hasn't, it easily could. This helps the audience understand the topic through the use of vivid language and evoking the five senses of the audience members.

Avoid Unnecessary Jargon

If you decide to give an informative speech on a highly specialized topic, limit how much technical language or **jargon** you use. Loading a speech with specialized language has the potential to be taxing on the listeners. It can become too difficult to "translate" your meanings, and if that happens, you will not effectively deliver information. Even if you define many technical terms, the audience may feel as if they are being bombarded with a set of definitions instead of useful information. Don't treat your speech as a crash course in an entire topic. If you must, introduce one specialized term and carefully define and explain it to the audience. Define it in words, and then use a concrete and relevant example to clarify the meaning.

Some topics, by their very nature, are too technical for a short speech. For example, in a five-minute speech you would be foolish to try to inform your audience about the causes of the Fukushima Daiichi nuclear emergency that occurred in Japan in 2011.

Other topics, while technical, can be presented in audience-friendly ways that minimize the use of technical terms. For instance, in a speech about Mount Vesuvius, the volcano that buried the ancient cities of Pompeii and Herculaneum, you can use the term "pyroclastic flow" as long as you take the time to either show or tell what it means.

Keep in Mind Audience Diversity

Finally, remember that not everyone in your audience is the same, so an informative speech should be prepared with audience diversity in mind. If the information in a speech is too complex or too simplistic, it will not hold the interest of the listeners. Determining the right level of complexity can be hard. Audience analysis is one important way to do this (see Chapter 5). Do the members of your audience belong to different age groups? Did they all go to public schools in the United States, or are some them international students? Are they all students majoring in the same subject, or is there a mixture of majors? Never assume that just because an audience is made up of students, they all share a knowledge set.

Conclusion

Regardless of the profession you choose, you will invariably have to impart information to someone. Remember that though you are practicing the principals discussed in this chapter in the form of a speech, it does not mean that you will not put these skills to use in other ways. Whether you are a nurse informing their patient about what their blood pressure reading means for them, a lawyer informing your clients about the law, or a teacher instructing students, you will use the same skills that we have covered here. Learning these skills will benefit you in your future no matter what path you choose to walk.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

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Chapter 14
Groups and Teamwork

Learning Outcomes
14-1- Students will understand the effect of grouphate and recognize issues associated with social loafers
14-2- Students will recognize the effect size of a group has on communication
14-3- Students will be able to follow and recognize the steps of group development
14-4- Students will be able to implement and analyze the elements needed for strong group cohesion and climate
14-5- Students will recognize the pressures and conformity that groups can face
14-6- Students will be able to implement techniques for handling group conflict
14-7- Students will be able to engage in the standard agenda when working to solve problems in groups
14-8- Students will put their knowledge of group communication in action by presenting a group speech presentation

14-1 What is a group and why do I have to be in one?

The first thing you are probably thinking when your instructor says you are going to be doing a group project is, “oh boy… not again.” What you are feeling is completely normal. Before we get into why you are feeling this way, we need to look over the basics of what makes up a small group. Small groups or teams are formulated to complete tasks. These tasks could be a school project for your professor, or they could be a long-term work project for an employer, and everything in-between. First, it is important to define small-group communication. Small-group communication is when three or more people come together to complete a common task, goal, project, or because of a shared purpose. So, why do people dislike group work? That answer is different for everyone, but the term used to describe the distaste that people have for group work is called grouphate. Grouphate can manifest because of previous experiences working in groups. The group may not have performed well. There may have been personality conflicts. Or someone in a group you have worked in may have thought that they could slack off because they felt they did not need to put forward as much effort because of the collective nature of working in groups. We call these people social loafers. Social loafers put forward less effort when they are in groups than they would on an individual project. Why? That is again a complicated question. But you need to deal with these social loafers by confronting them, circumventing them, or telling your instructor about their behavior. Most groups tend to ignore loafers and thus are confronted with grouphate when they individually move on to work with other groups.

14-2 Group Size

There is no set number of members for the ideal small group. A small group requires a minimum of three people (because two people would be a pair or dyad), but the upper range of group size is contingent on the purpose of the group. When groups grow beyond fifteen to twenty members, it becomes difficult to consider them a small group based on the previous definition. An analysis of the number of unique connections between members of small groups shows that they are deceptively complex. For example, within a six-person group, there are fifteen separate potential dyadic connections, and a twelve-person group would have sixty-six potential dyadic connections. As those numbers increase so do complications in communication. So, while there is no set upper limit on the number of group members, it makes sense that the number of group members should be limited to those necessary to accomplish the goal or serve the purpose of the group. Small groups that add too many members increase the potential for group members to feel overwhelmed or disconnected and can increase the number of social loafers.

14-3 Group Development

Small groups must start somewhere. Even established groups go through changes as members come and go, as tasks are started and completed, and as relationships change. In this section, we will learn about the stages of group development, which are forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977, p. 419-427). As with most models of communication phenomena, although we order the stages and discuss them separately, they are not always experienced in a linear fashion. Additionally, some groups don’t experience all five stages, may experience stages multiple times, or may experience more than one stage at a time.

Forming

During the forming stage, group members begin to reduce uncertainty associated with new relationships and/or new tasks through initial interactions that lay the foundation for later group dynamics. Groups return to the forming stage as group members come and go over the life span of a group. Although there may not be as much uncertainty when one or two new people join a group as there is when a group first forms, groups spend some time in the forming stage every time group membership changes. Many factors influence how the forming stage of group development plays out. The personalities of the individuals in the group, the skills that members bring, the resource s
available to the group, the group’s size, and the group’s charge all contribute to the creation of
the early tone of and climate within a group (Ellis & Fisher, 1994, p. 14).

Storming

During the storming stage of group development, conflict emerges as people begin to perform their various roles, have their ideas heard, and negotiate where they fit in the group’s structure. The uncertainty present in the forming stage begins to give way as people begin to occupy specific roles and the purpose, rules, and norms of a group become clearer. Conflict develops when some group members aren’t satisfied with the role that they or others are playing or the decisions regarding the purpose or procedures of the group. For example, if a leader begins to emerge or is assigned during the forming stage, some members may feel that the leader is imposing his or her will on other members of the group.

Although the word storming and the concept of conflict have negative connotations, conflict can be positive and productive. Just like storms can replenish water supplies and make crops grow, storming can lead to group growth. While conflict is inevitable and should be experienced by every group, a group that gets stuck at the storming stage will likely not have much success in completing its task or achieving its purpose. Influences from outside the group can also affect the conflict in the storming stage. Interpersonal conflicts that predate the formation of the group may distract the group from the more productive idea- or task-oriented conflict that can be healthy for the group and increase the quality of ideas, decision making, and output.

Norming

During the norming stage of group development, the practices and expectations of the group are solidified, which leads to more stability, productivity, and cohesion within the group. Group norms are behaviors that become routine but are not explicitly taught or stated. In short, group norms help set the tone for what group members ought to do and how they ought to behave (Ellis and Fisher, 1994, p. 129).

Many implicit (unwritten) norms are derived from social norms that people follow in their everyday life. Norms within the group about politeness, lateness, and communication patterns are typically like those in other contexts. Sometimes a norm needs to be challenged because it is not working for the group, which could lead a group back to the storming stage. Other times, group members challenge norms for no good reason, which can lead to punishment for the group member or create conflict within the group.

Explicit (written) rules may also guide group interaction. Rules are explicitly stated guidelines for members and may refer to things like expected performance levels or output, attitudes, or dress codes. Rules may be communicated through verbal instructions, employee handbooks, membership policies, or codes of conduct (Hargie, 2011, p. 440). Larger groups can even use procedures like Robert’s Rules of Order to manage the flow of conversations and decision-making procedures. Group members can contest or subvert group rules just as they can norms. Violations of group rules, however, typically result in more explicit punishments than do violations of norms.

Performing

During the performing stage of group development, group members work relatively smoothly toward the completion of a task or achievement of a purpose. Although interactions in the performing stage are task focused, the relational aspects of group interaction provide an underlying support for the group members. Socialization outside of official group time can serve as a needed relief from the group’s task.

During task-related interactions, group members ideally begin to develop a synergy that results from the pooling of skills, ideas, experience s, and resources. Synergy is positive in that it can lead group members to exceed their expectations and perform better than they could individually. Glitches in the group's performance can lead the group back to previous stages of group development. Changes in membership, member roles, or norms can necessitate a revisiting of aspects of the forming, storming, or norming stages. One way to continue to build group cohesion during the performing stage is to set short-term attainable group goals. Accomplishing something, even if it's small, can boost group morale, which in turn boosts cohesion and productivity.

Adjourning

The adjourning stage of group development occurs when a group dissolves because it has completed its purpose or goal, membership is declining and support for the group no longer exists, or it is dissolved because of some other internal or external cause. Some groups may live on indefinitely and not experience the adjourning stage. Other groups may experience so much conflict in the storming stage that they skip norming and performing and dissolve before they can complete their task. For groups with high social cohesion, adjourning may be a difficult emotional experience. However, group members may continue interpersonal relationships that formed even after the group dissolves. For groups that had negative experiences, the adjourning stage may be welcomed.

To make the most out of the adjourning stage, it is important that there be some guided and purposeful reflection. Many groups celebrate their accomplishments with a party or ceremony. Even groups that had negative experiences or failed to achieve their purpose can still learn something through reflection in the adjourning stage that may be beneficial for future group interactions. Often, group members leave a group experience with new or more developed skills that can be usefully applied in future group or individual contexts. Even groups that are relational rather than task focused can increase members' interpersonal, listening, or empathetic skills or increase cultural knowledge and introduce new perspectives.

14-4 Cohesion & Climate

When something is cohesive, it sticks together, and the cohesion within a group helps establish an overall group climate. Group climate refers to the relatively enduring tone and quality of group interaction that is experienced similarly by group members. To better understand cohesion and climate, we can examine two types of cohesion: task and social. Task cohesion refers to the commitment of group members to the purpose and activities of the group. Social cohesion refers to the attraction and liking among group members. Ideally, groups would have an appropriate balance between these two types of cohesion relative to the group's purpose, with task-oriented groups having higher task cohesion and relational-oriented groups having higher social cohesion.

Cohesion benefits a group in many ways and can be assessed through specific group behaviors and characteristics. Groups with an appropriate level of cohesiveness (Hargie, 2011, p. 445).

- set goals easily;
- exhibit a high commitment to achieving the purpose of the group;
- are more productive;
- experience fewer attendance issues;
- have group members who are willing to stick with the group during times of difficulty;
- have satisfied group members who identify with, promote, and defend the group;
- have members who are willing to listen to each other and offer support and constructive criticism; and
- experience less anger and tension.

Appropriate levels of group cohesion usually create a positive group climate, since group climate is affected by members' satisfaction with the group. Climate has also been described as group morale. Following are some qualities that contribute to a positive group climate and morale (Marston & Hecht, 1988, p. 236-246):

- **Participation**. Group members feel better when they feel included in discussion and a part of the functioning of the group.
- **Messages**. Confirming messages help build relational dimensions within a group, and clear, organized, and relevant messages help build task dimensions within a group.
- **Feedback**. Positive, constructive, and relevant feedback contribute to group climate.
- **Equity**. Aside from individual participation, group members also like to feel as if participation is managed equally within the group and that appropriate turn taking is used.
- **Clear and accepted roles**. Group members like to know how status and hierarchy operate within a group. Knowing the roles isn't enough to lead to satisfaction, though— members must also be comfortable with and accept those roles.
- **Motivation**. Member motivation is activated by perceived connection to and relevance of the group's goals or purpose.

14-5 Pressures and Conformity

There must be a motivating force present within groups for the rules and norms to help govern and guide a group. Without such pressure, group members would have no incentive to conform to group norms or buy into the group's identity and values. In this section, we will discuss how rules and norms gain their power through internal and external pressures and how these pressures can affect groups.

Conformity

In general, some people are more likely to accept norms and rules than others, which can influence the interaction and potential for conflict within a group. While some people may feel a need for social acceptance that leads them to accept a norm or rule with minimal conformity pressure, others may actively resist because they have a valid disagreement or because they have an aggressive or argumentative personality (Ellis and Fisher, 1994, p. 133). Such personality traits are examples of internal pressures that operate within the individual group member and act as a self-governing mechanism. When group members discipline themselves and monitor their own behavior, groups need not invest in as many external mechanisms to promote conformity. Deviating from the group's rules and norms that a member internalized during socialization can lead to self-imposed feelings of guilt or shame that can then initiate corrective behaviors and discourage the member from going against the group.

External pressures in the form of group policies, rewards or punishments, or other forces outside of individual group members also exert conformity pressure. In terms of group policies, groups that have an official admission process may have a probation period during which new members' membership is contingent on them conforming to group expectations. Deviation from expectations during this "trial period" could lead to expulsion from the group. Supervisors, mentors, and other types of group leaders are also agents that can impose external pressures toward conformity. These group members often can provide positive or negative reinforcement in the form of praise or punishment, which are clear attempts to influence behavior.

Conformity pressure can also stem from external forces when the whole group stands to receive a reward or punishment based on its performance, which ties back to the small group characteristic of interdependence. Although these pressures may seem negative, they also have positive results. Groups that exert an appropriate and ethical amount of conformity pressure typically have higher levels of group cohesion, which as we learned leads to increased satisfaction with group membership, better relationships, and better task performance. Groups with a strong but healthy level of conformity also project a strong group image to those outside the group, which can raise the group's profile or reputation (Hargie, 2011, p. 444). Pressures toward conformity, of course, can go too far, as is evidenced in tragic stories of people driven to suicide because they felt they couldn't live up to the conformity pressure of their group and people injured or killed enduring hazing rituals that take expectations for group conformity to unethical and criminal extremes.

Groupthink

Groupthink is a negative group phenomenon characterized by a lack of critical evaluation of proposed ideas or courses of action that results from high levels of cohesion and/or high conformity pressures (Janis, 1972). We can better understand groupthink by examining its causes and effects. When group members fall victim to groupthink, the effect is uncritical acceptance of decisions or suggestions for plans of action to accomplish a task or goal. Group meetings that appear to go smoothly with only positive interaction among happy, friendly people may seem ideal, but these actions may be symptomatic of groupthink (Ellis and Fisher, 1994, p. 134). When people rush to agreement or fear argument, groupthink emerges. Decisions made as a result of groupthink may range from a poorly-thought-out presentation method that bores the audience to a mechanical failure resulting in death.

Two primary causes of groupthink are high levels of cohesion and excessive conformity pressures. When groups exhibit high levels of social cohesion, members may be reluctant to criticize or question another group member's ideas or suggestions for fear that it would damage the relationship. When group members have a high level of task cohesion, they may feel invincible and not critically evaluate ideas. High levels of cohesion may lessen conformity pressures since group members who identify strongly with the group's members and mission may not feel a need to question the decisions or suggestions made by others. For those who aren't blinded by the high levels of cohesion, internal conformity pressures may still lead them to withhold criticism of an idea because the norm is to defer to decisions made by organization leaders or a majority of group members. External conformity pressures because of
impending reward or punishment, time pressures, or an aggressive leader are also factors that can lead to groupthink.

To Avoid Groupthink, Groups Should (Hargie, 2011, p. 447):

- Divvy up responsibilities between group members so decision-making power isn't in the hands of a few
- Track contributions of group members in such a way that each person's input and output is recorded so that it can be discussed
- Encourage and reward the expression of minority or dissenting opinions
- Allow members to submit ideas prior to a discussion so that opinions aren't swayed by members who propose ideas early in a discussion
- Question each major decision regarding its weaknesses and potential negative consequences relative to competing decisions (encourage members to play "devil's advocate")
- Have decisions reviewed by an outside party that wasn't involved in the decision-making process
- Have a "reflection period" after a decision is made and before it is implemented during which group members can express reservations or second thoughts about the decision

14-6 Group Conflict

Conflict can appear in indirect or direct forms within group interaction, just as it can in interpersonal interactions. Group members may openly question each other's ideas or express anger toward or dislike for another person. Group members may also indirectly engage in conflict communication through innuendo, joking, or passive-aggressive behavior. Although we often view conflict negatively, conflict can be beneficial for many reasons. When groups get into a rut, lose creativity, or become complacent, conflict can help get a group out of a bad or mediocre routine. Conversely, conflict can lead to lower group productivity due to strain on the task and social dimensions of a group. There are three main types of conflict within groups: procedural, substantive, and interpersonal (Fujishin, 2001, P. 160-161). Each of these types of conflict can vary in intensity, which can affect how much the conflict impacts the group and its members.

Procedural Conflict

Procedural conflict emerges from disagreements or trouble with the mechanics of group operations. In this type of conflict, group members differ in their beliefs about how something should be done. Procedural conflict can be handled by a group leader, especially if the leader put group procedures into place or has the individual power to change them. If there is no designated leader or the leader doesn't have sole power to change procedures (or just wants input from group members), proposals can be taken from the group on ways to address a procedural conflict to initiate a procedural change. A vote to reach a consensus or majority can also help resolve procedural conflict.

Substantive Conflict

Substantive conflict focuses on group members' differing beliefs, attitudes, values, or ideas related to the purpose or task of the group. Rather than focusing on questions of how, substantive conflicts focus on questions of what. Substantive conflicts may emerge as a group tries to determine its purpose or mission. As members figure out how to complete a task or debate which project to start on next, there will undoubtedly be differences of opinion on what something means, what is acceptable in terms of supporting evidence for a proposal, or what is acceptable for a goal or performance standard. Leaders and other group members shouldn't rush to close this type of conflict down. As we learned in our earlier discussion of groupthink, open discussion and debate regarding ideas and suggestions for group action can lead to higher-quality output and may prevent groupthink. Leaders who make final decisions about substantive conflict for the sake of moving on run the risk of creating a win/lose competitive climate in which people feel like their ideas may be shot down, which could lead to less participation.

Interpersonal Conflict

Interpersonal conflict emerges from conflict between individual members of the group. Whereas procedural conflict deals with how and substantive conflict deals with what, interpersonal conflict deals with who. Such conflict can be completely irrelevant to the functioning or purpose of the group, perhaps focusing instead on personality differences. Interpersonal conflict can be the result of avoided or improperly handled procedural or substantive conflict that festers and becomes personal rather than task focused. This type of conflict can also result from differences in beliefs, attitudes, and values (when such differences are taken personally rather than substantively); different personalities; or different communication styles. While procedural and substantive conflict may be more easily expressed because they do not directly address a person, interpersonal conflict may slowly build as people avoid openly criticizing or confronting others. Passive-aggressive behavior is a sign that interpersonal conflict may be building under the surface, and other group members may want to intervene to avoid escalation and retaliation (Ellis and Fisher, 1994, p. 217-218).

Primary and Secondary Tensions

Relevant to these types of conflict are primary and secondary tensions that emerge in every group (Bormann and Bormann, 1988, p. 72). When the group first comes together, members experience primary tension, which is tension based on uncertainty that is a natural part of initial interactions. It is only after group members begin to “break the ice” and get to know each other that the tension can be addressed, and group members can proceed with the forming stage of group development. Small talk and politeness help group members manage primary tensions, and there is a relatively high threshold for these conflicts because we have all had experiences with such uncertainty when meeting people for the first time and many of us are optimistic that a little time and effort will allow us to get through the tensions.

Secondary tension emerges after groups have passed the forming stage of group development and begin to have conflict over member roles, differing ideas, and personality conflicts. These tensions are typically evidenced by less reserved and less polite behavior than primary tensions. People also have a lower tolerance threshold for secondary tensions, because rather than being an expected part of initial interaction, these conflicts can be more negative and interfere with the group’s task performance. Secondary tensions are inevitable and shouldn’t be feared or eliminated. It’s not the presence or absence of secondary tension that makes a group successful or not; it’s how it handles the tensions when they emerge. A certain level of secondary tension is tolerable, not distracting, and can enhance group performance and avoid groupthink. When secondary tensions rise above the tolerance threshold and become distracting, they should be released through direct means such as diplomatic confrontation or indirect means such as appropriate humor or taking a break.

Managing Conflict in Small Groups

Some common ways to manage conflict include clear decision-making procedures, third-party mediation, and leader facilitation (Ellis and Fisher, 1994, p. 236). While an up-and-down vote can allow a group to finalize a decision and move on, members whose vote fell on the minority side may feel resentment toward other group members. This can create a win/lose climate that leads to further conflict. Having a leader who makes ultimate decisions can also help move a group toward completion of a task, but conflict may only be pushed to the side and left not fully addressed. Third-party mediation can help move a group past a conflict and may create less feelings of animosity, since the person mediating and perhaps deciding isn't a member of the group. In some cases, the leader can act as an internal third-party mediator to help other group members work productively through their conflict.

Tips for Managing Group Conflict (Ellis and Fisher, 1994, p. 240-243):

1. Clarify the issue at hand by getting to the historical roots of the problem. Keep in mind that perception leads us to punctuate interactions differently, so it may be useful to know each person's perspective of when, how, and why the conflict began.
2. Create a positive discussion climate by encouraging and rewarding active listening.
3. Discuss needs rather than solutions. Determine each person's needs to be met and goals for the outcome of the conflict before offering or acting on potential solutions.
4. Set boundaries for discussion and engage in gatekeeping to prevent unproductive interactions like tangents and personal attacks.
5. Use "we" language to maintain existing group cohesion and identity, and use "I" language to help reduce defensiveness.

14-7 Group Decision Making (Standard Agenda)

There are several variations of similar problem-solving models based on John Dewey's reflective thinking process (Bormann & Bormann, 1988, p. 112-113). As you read through the steps in the process, think about how you can apply what we learned regarding the general and specific elements of problems. Some of the following steps are straightforward, and they are things we would logically do when faced with a problem. However, taking a deliberate and systematic approach to problem solving has been shown to benefit group functioning and performance. A deliberate approach is especially beneficial for groups that do not have an established history of working together and will only be able to meet occasionally. Although a group should attend to each step of the process, group leaders or other group members who facilitate problem solving should be cautious not to dogmatically follow each element of the process or force a group along. Such a lack of flexibility could limit group member input and negatively affect the group's cohesion and climate.

Step 1: Define the Problem

Define the problem by considering the three elements shared by every problem: the current undesirable situation, the goal or more desirable situation, and obstacles in the way (Adams & Galanes, 2009, p. 229). At this stage, group members share what they know about the current situation, without proposing solutions or evaluating the information. Here are some good questions to ask during this stage: What is the current difficulty? How did we come to know that the difficulty exists? Who/what is involved? Why is it meaningful/urgent/important? What have the effects been so far? What, if any, elements of the difficulty require clarification? At the end of this stage, the group should be able to compose a single sentence that summarizes the problem called a problem statement. Avoid wording in the problem statement or question that hints at potential solutions. A small group formed to investigate ethical violations of city officials could use the following problem statement: "Our state does not currently have a mechanism for citizens to report suspected ethical violations by city officials."

Step 2: Analyze the Problem

During this step a group should analyze the problem and the group's relationship to the problem. Whereas the first step involved exploring the "what" related to the problem, this step focuses on the "why." At this stage, group members can discuss the potential causes of the difficulty. Group members may also want to begin setting out an agenda or timeline for the group's problem-solving process, looking forward to the other steps. To fully analyze the problem, the group can discuss the five common problem variables discussed before. Here are two examples of questions that the group formed to address ethics violations might ask: Why doesn't our city have an ethics reporting mechanism? Do cities of similar size have such a mechanism? Once the problem has been analyzed, the group can pose a problem question that will guide the group as it generates possible solutions. "How can citizens report suspected ethical violations of city officials and how will such reports be processed and addressed?" As you can see, the problem question is more complex than the problem statement, since the group has moved on to more in-depth discussion of the problem during step 2.

Step 3: Generate Possible Solutions

During this step, group members generate possible solutions to the problem. Again, solutions should not be evaluated at this point, only proposed and clarified. The question should be what could we do to address this problem, not what should we do to address it. It is perfectly OK for a group member to question another person's idea by asking something like "What do you mean?" or "Could you explain your reasoning more?" Discussions at this stage may reveal a need to return to previous steps to better
define or more fully analyze a problem. Since many problems are multifaceted, it is necessary for group members to generate solutions for each part of the problem separately, making sure to have multiple solutions for each part. Stopping the

solution-generating process prematurely can lead to groupthink. For the problem question previously posed, the group would need to generate solutions for all three parts of the problem included in the question. Possible solutions for the first part of the problem (How can citizens report ethical violations?) may include "online reporting system, e-mail, in-person, anonymously, on-the-record," and so on. Possible solutions for the second part of the problem (How will reports be processed?) may include "daily by a newly appointed ethics officer, weekly by a nonpartisan nongovernment employee," and so on. Possible solutions for the third part of the problem (How will reports be addressed?) may include "by a newly appointed ethics commission, by the accused's supervisor, by the city manager," and so on.

Step 4: Evaluate Solutions

During this step, solutions can be critically evaluated based on their credibility, completeness, and worth. Once the potential solutions have been narrowed based on more obvious differences in relevance and/or merit, the group should analyze each solution based on its potential effects— especially negative effects. Groups that are required to report the rationale for their decision or whose decisions may be subject to public scrutiny would be wise to make a set list of criteria for evaluating each solution. Additionally, solutions can be evaluated based on how well they fit with the group's charge and the abilities of the group. To do this, group members may ask, "Does this solution live up to the original purpose or mission of the group?" and "Can the solution actually be implemented with our current resources and connections?" and "How will this solution be supported, funded, enforced, and assessed?" Secondary tensions and substantive conflict, two concepts discussed earlier, emerge during this step of problem solving, and group members will need to employ effective critical thinking and listening skills. Decision making is part of the larger process of problem solving and it plays a prominent role in this step. While there are several fairly similar models for problem solving, there are many varied decision-making techniques that groups can use. For example, to narrow the list of proposed solutions, group members may decide by majority vote, by weighing the pros and cons, or by discussing them until a consensus is reached. Once the final decision is reached, the group leader or facilitator should confirm that the group is in agreement. It may be beneficial to let the group break for a while or even to delay the final decision until a later meeting to allow people time to evaluate it outside of the group context.

Step 5: Implement and Assess the Solution

Implementing the solution requires some advanced planning, and it should not be rushed unless the group is operating under strict time restraints or delay may lead to harm. Although some solutions can be implemented immediately, others may take days, months, or years. As was noted earlier, it may be beneficial for groups to poll those who will be affected by the solution as to their opinion of it or even to do a pilot test to observe the effectiveness of the solution and how people react to it. Before implementation, groups should also determine how and when they would assess the effectiveness of the solution by asking, “How will we know if the solution is working or not?” Since solution assessment will vary based on whether the group is disbanded, groups should also consider the following questions: If the group disbands after implementation, who will be responsible for assessing the solution? If the solution fails, will the same group reconvene or will a new group be formed?

14-8 Group Speech Assignment

PURPOSE

At some point in your career, you will be asked to relay knowledge or a skill to colleagues, superiors, or employees. This assignment is designed to help you build on your communication skills by deciding on a topic, creating a presentation with information, and then presenting that information creatively to your classmates. You will be in a group of four to five students. Your group will then be responsible for creating a presentation based on your instructor’s topic area choice. The presentation should be 8-10 minutes and everyone in the group should have equal speaking time.

REQUIREMENTS

I. Create a group of four to five students
   A. As a group, brainstorm for a topic.
   B. Develop that topic and delegate tasks for group members to accomplish.
   C. Create an 8-10-minute creative presentation that analyzes your topic from at least 4-5 different perspectives.
   D. Group Member Evaluation
      i. Once your group finishes your presentation, each group member is responsible for evaluating all members of the group including him or herself.
      ii. You will grade each member and yourself on a scale of 1-5 for ten different elements, and then write a justification for your scores. The evaluation will be provided by your instructor.

You will be graded on all components of the group speech. You will be graded on how well you analyzed each perspective of your topic, your group’s ability to present the topic to the class in an organized and cohesive way with appropriate delivery. You will also be graded on your evaluations.

WHAT TO BRING TO CLASS ON YOUR SPEECH DAY

- Each group member must bring:
    - Grading rubric.

    - Speaker notes to deliver the speech.
- Each group must bring:
    - An outline of the presentation.

Group Member Evaluation form and typewritten justification are DUE ONE WEEK after the delivery of the group speech.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter we have examined small group communication and the many factors that go into group dynamics. These include factors that may lead to grouphate, how big a group is, group development, group cohesion, climate, pressures, and how groups handle decision making. Working in groups in inevitable and preparing yourself with the knowledge from this chapter will help you understand why people act the way they do in groups and ways you can help prevent the problems that groups sometimes face.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

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Chapter 15
Online Presentations

Learning Objectives
15-1 Students will understand the key differences between face-to-face and online presentations
15-2 Students will identify the major problems of online presentations
15-3 Students will be able to plan and prepare for an online presentation-wise
15-4 Students will apply techniques for successful online presentations

An Overview

It is no secret that the invention of the internet has changed nearly every aspect of our lives. More and more we rely on digital means to look for jobs, form and maintain relationships, and communicate with one another. It should not come as a surprise that public speaking can also be done online. The COVID-19 pandemic created a sudden and intense need for online communication and presentations, which caught many people off guard. In this chapter, we will explore some techniques that might be useful for you when it comes to public speaking in an online context.

Although traditional face-to-face public speaking has a 2500-year history and thousands of research articles to support it, speaking online is a relatively new procedure. You will likely find multiple different viewpoints and ideas about what makes an effective online speech, but there are certain important guidelines that you can follow that will guarantee a more successful performance.

All online speaking is not created equal. You might take an online class that requires you to send a video of yourself giving a speech for a grade. You might be participating—or leading—a "webinar," which is a meeting or presentation over the Internet using a tool such as Blackboard Collaborate, Citrix, GoToMeeting, Adobe Connect, Zoom, or one of many other web conferencing tools. These have become very common in the educational and business world because they save a huge amount of money while sometimes helping to maintain safety.

With this growth in popularity, we have a growth in problems and common behaviors, or misbehaviors, in web conferencing and thus online "public speaking." Much of the advice on web-conference public speaking comes as antidotes to the worst practices that have developed in them, which are:

1. the audience's multitasking (and thus not fully attending to the webinar)
2. the audience's being bored to death (which leads to multitasking)

Both of these conditions come from the fact that the communication is **mediated**, or done through technology rather than face-to-face means, and that in many cases the speaker and audience don't see each other. Even when the participants use their web cameras (which doesn't always happen), the screen is often covered with a slide and the speaker is invisible. Therefore, the speaker has to depend on something else to address the temptation to multitask or tune out completely.

15-1: Preparing for an Online Speech

First, recognize that this is a different type of venue. You have two main tools: your voice and your visuals (slides).

If monotone and mono-rate speaking is horrible for face-to-face speaking, it is truly the "Kiss of Death" for web speaking. The key word is "energy"— an energetic voice has variety and interest to it. Since we tend to have a lower energy level when we sit, some experts suggest that web conference speakers stand to approximate the real speaking experience. This suggestion makes sense. As we have mentioned repeatedly through this book, preparing means practicing your speech orally and physically, many times. Audio-recording yourself during your practice on your smartphone or other device is a good first step, followed by critically and honestly thinking about whether your voice if listless, flat, low-energy, and likely to induce boredom. Note that this is not just a good practice for online speaking.

Second, your visuals. Most of us are tempted to put far too much text and too many graphics on the slides, and since the slides are the primary thing the audience will see (rather than your full body), the temptation is even stronger. As one expert on web speaking suggested, if your presentation in the workforce is likely to be graph, data, and information heavy because it's all information the audience must know, send the information in a report ahead of time. This will allow them access to the information in a way that allows them to follow along and thus be more engaged. It will also insure that if your audience members cannot see your data on their monitor for any reason, they will have a personal copy to consult. We've mentioned before that speeches are not good for dumping a great deal of information on audiences.

Therefore, keep your visuals simple. They do not have to have lots of clip art and photographs to keep attention. One rule business speakers like to use is the "10-20-30: rule: No more than 10 slides, no more than 20 words on the slides, and no font smaller than 30 point." Using 30 point font will definitely minimize the amount of text. Inserting short videos and planning interactivity (such as polls, which the software supports) are also helpful.

Finally when it comes to visuals remember to make yourself visible if it is possible. Do not just rely on your visual aids. Showing your face, or even your whole body, allows for the audience to connect more easily to you. It also allows you to show your facial expressions and engage in nonverbal communication that might have been otherwise impossible if you were merely a disembodied voice speaking over slides.

Also, in the realm of preparation, avoid two other problems that are common in webinars. Since some of your presentation might be visible, be sure your background is "right." Many people perform webinars in their offices, and let's be honest, some offices provide backgrounds that are less than optimal. They are either messy and disorganized or have distracting decorations. In other cases, you could be sitting in a neutral place with a blank wall behind you, but that setting can have its own issues. One writer talks about a speaker who wore a white shirt against a white background and almost disappeared. You should also try to minimize any other distractions that you might have. Pets that might come into your camera view in the middle of your speech might be cute, but they will almost always serve as a distraction to your audience as well. You will also want to make sure you are in a quiet environment, as the last thing you want is for the conversations of your roommates or family members to be background noise in your speech.

Finally, remember Muphy's Law. Anything that can go wrong, will go wrong. This is particularly true of technology. You may lose internet connection, a website might be down, a video might fail to load, or people might have a problem hearing your microphone. We could sit here and list pages of possible things that could go wrong during an online presentation. You will need to do your best to plan for these potential problems and have solutions planned. You will also need to take the time to familiarize yourself with the application you are using in order to address any technological issues that might come up. For instance, know how to share your screen on Zoom just in case the emailed notes you sent before the speech failed to open properly. If you have a video that you are relying on in your speech, try to find that video on two different websites in case the first one is having difficulties. Know how to adjust your webcam and microphone volume and visuals ahead of time. This kind of preparation will ensure a smoother, more professional performance.

15-2: During the Online Speech

Note that some of the guidelines discussed here may not apply to your assignments in this class. Some of these guidelines will help you in other areas of your life, such as online interviews or conferences you might be a part of in your career.

It goes without saying that you as the speaker should be online well before the beginning of the meeting, and ready to go technology- and presentation-wise. You never want to be the last one in the conference room when you are the speaker.

Going deeper, perhaps we should ask the fundamental question of purpose. What is your intent in this webinar speech? To educate? To persuade/ sell? To contribute to or facilitate a decision? Something else? Everything else you do comes from that intent or purpose, just like your face-to-face speech comes from the specific purpose speech. What do you really want to accomplish from this meeting? The other fundamental question is about your audience. Who are they? Where are they? In fact, in some cases the audience is in a different time zone or all the way across the world! And that really matters in how a listener responds. What might an early morning for you may be late and night for your audience.

Other experts in the field suggest the following:

1. Along with standing up for your presentation, smile. People can hear a smile even when they don't see you.

2. Your anxiety does not go away just because you cannot see everyone in your "web audience." Also, you might not have ever met the people to whom you are speaking. Be aware of the likelihood of anxiety— it might not hit until you are live.

3. In your use of periodic questions, be specific. The typical “Any questions? -pause-let’s go on” is really pretty ineffective. First, it’s not directed or specific, and second, people need time to formulate their questions and articulate them. Even saying, “What questions do you have?” is better, but even better is to ask specific questions about what you’ve been addressing. Many times you can forecast possible questions, and use those.

4. The issue of a question-and-answer period brings up a logistical question. Some participants will question orally through the web cam set-up. Others, with limited technology, will use the chat feature. It takes time to type in the chat feature. Be prepared for pauses.

5. Remember the power of transitions. Many people think that slides don’t need transitions because, well, they change, isn’t that enough? No, it’s not. The speaker needs to tie the messages of the slides together.

6. Verbal pauses can be helpful. Since one of the things that put audiences to sleep is continual, non-stop flow of words, a pause can get attention.

7. Look at the camera, not the screen. You will appear more professional in those cases where the audience can see you.

Conclusion

Remember that though the venue might be different, the fundamental skills you have learned about how to prepare a speech and how to perform it are the same. You will still conduct audience analysis, the structure of your speech will be the same, you will still need a strong outline and notecards, and your delivery will be very similar. Audiences will still expect you to be professional and well spoken, and you will still need to employ good tone and nonverbal qualities to be effective. An online speech is no easier than a face-to-face one, and in some cases requires even more preparation due to a reliance on technology. But with good understanding of your audience, your tools, and how to speak publicly, you will surely be successful.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

Tucker, Barbara; Barton, Kristin; Burger, Amy; Drye, Jerry; Hunsicker, Cathy; Mendes, Amy; and LeHew, Matthew, "Exploring Public Speaking: 4th Edition" (2019). Communication Open Textbooks. https://oer.galileo.usg.edu/communication-textbooks/1

Chapter 16
Persuasive Speaking

Learning Objectives
16-1 Students will be able to define persuasion.
16-2 Students will understand and apply ELM to their own persuasive arguments and be able to motivate audiences.
16-3 Students will have a basic understanding of how ethos, pathos, and logos play a role in persuasive speaking.
16-4 Students will be able to discern logical from illogical forms of argumentation.

16-1 Why Persuasion Is Important

How many times have you tried to get someone to do or act the way you wanted them to? How successful were you in persuading them? We are pretty sure that you have asked your parents for money or expensive electronics or maybe even a car. The question though is: were you able to persuade them to give you these things, or did they laugh and go about their day? This chapter will explore persuasive communication and offer techniques for you to use to convince your audience that your message is important and that they should act upon whatever call of action you see as a solution. It is imperative that we first understand what persuasion is. A basic definition of persuasion is (Lucas, 2015, p. 306) "the process of creating, reinforcing, or changing people's beliefs or actions." As we progress further, we will begin by looking at a model to help guide how an audience reacts to persuasive messages and audience motivation. We will then explore some basic persuasive theory before we finally address how to organize and logically present your arguments to an audience.

16-2 ELM and Motivation

Elaboration Likelihood Model

Humans view persuasion through one of two different ways and the Elaboration Likelihood Model or ELM for short explains these two paths (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986, p. 1-24). The first is called the 'central route' or a calculated and practical approach to information. If a grocer was trying to sell you an apple, if you approach information and persuasion through the central route, then you would pay attention to how much the apple costs, the nutrition facts, space the apple would take up in your kitchen, the drawbacks of eating an apple seed, and other practical applications of the apple. The second path is called the 'peripheral route' or more of an association. You might purchase the apple because you like red, and you enjoy eating things that are red. You might associate apples with the smell of apple pie and that may have an impact on your purchase. Or you might associate apples with a partner who you broke up with and that may push you not to purchase the apple. As a persuader, you have the option of tailoring your message for someone who might follow either of these two routes, but this highlights the importance of audience analysis which we discussed in Chapter 5. You need to choose the route that will have the most impact on your audience.

Motivation

Most of what goes into whether we approach information from the central or peripheral route depends on what motivates us. Your audience may be motivated by many different factors. We will cover just a few of those factors in this section. The first motivation may be your own needs. Abraham Maslow (1943) proposed a **hierarchy of needs** that spans the spectrum of motives ranging from the biological to the individual to the social. These needs are often depicted as a pyramid (Figure 16.1).

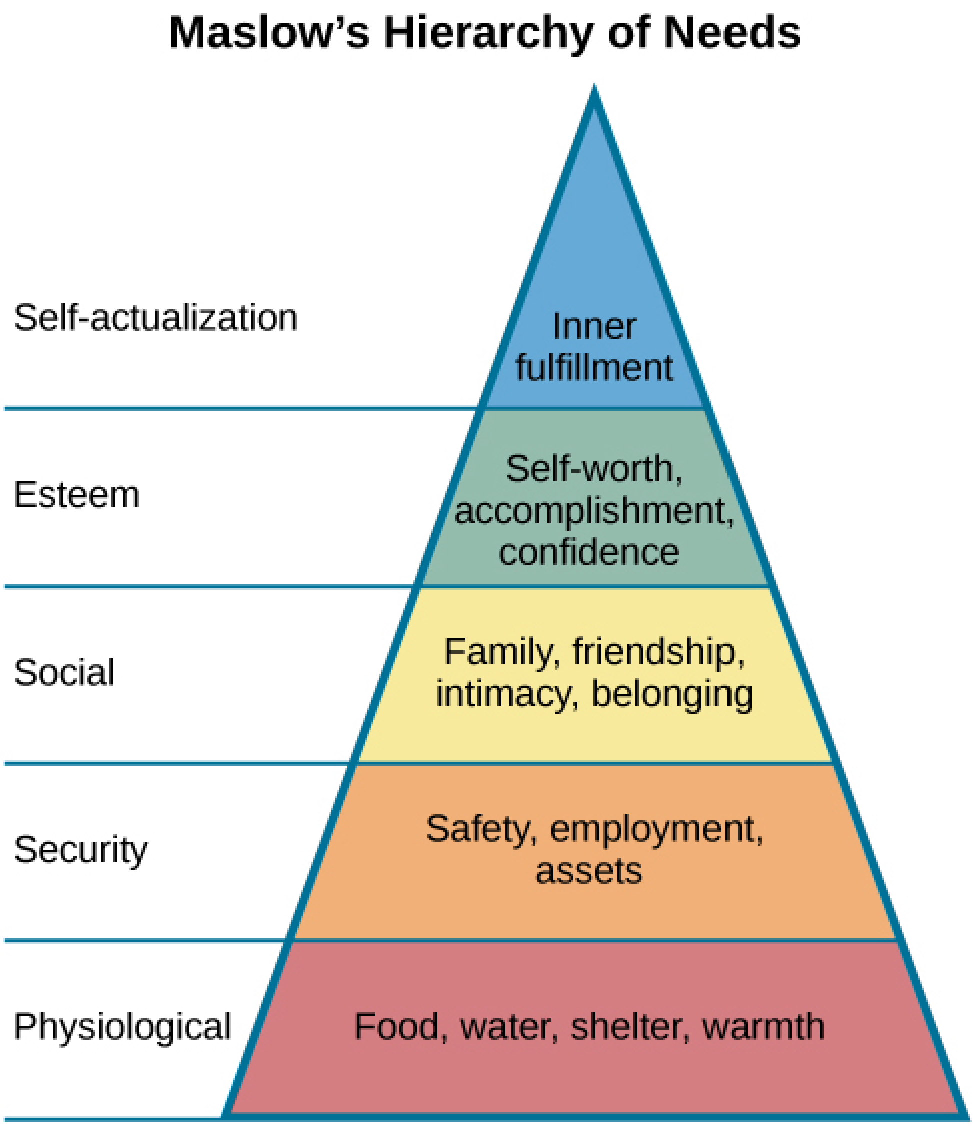

Figure 16.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs is illustrated here. In some versions of the pyramid, cognitive and aesthetic needs are also included between esteem and self-actualization. Others include another tier at the top of the pyramid for self-transcendence.

At the base of the pyramid are all the physiological needs that are necessary for survival. These are followed by basic needs for security and safety, the need to be loved and to have a sense of belonging, and the need to have self-worth and confidence. The top tier of the pyramid is self-actualization, which is a need that essentially equates to achieving one's full potential, and it can only be realized when needs lower on the pyramid have been met. To Maslow and humanistic theorists, self-actualization reflects the humanistic emphasis on positive aspects of human nature. Maslow suggested that this is an ongoing, life-long process and that only a small percentage of people achieve a self-actualized state (Francis & Kritsonis, 2006; Maslow, 1943).

Other motivations include appealing to an audience through reward. You can tell your audience that there may be a tangible or intangible reward if the audience completes a task or performs an action. On the opposite spectrum you can also motivate an audience through punishments as well. Telling the audience that they will face some sort of harm or undesirable outcome if they do not complete your task/action. If you have ever watched a Public Service Announcement, or PSA, then you have been subjected to rewards and punishments as motivation. These are not the only ways to motivate an audience, but they tend to be the most used. A word of caution from your authors, do not overuse fear appeals. Audiences sometimes react negatively to fear appeals and your message may fall on deaf ears.

16-3 Basic Persuasive Theory

In the fourth century BCE, Aristotle took up the study of the public speaking practices of the ruling class in Athenian society. For two years he observed the rhetoric of the men who spoke in the assembly and the courts. In the end, he wrote Rhetoric to explain his theories about what he saw. Among his many conclusions, which have formed the basis of communication study for centuries, was the classification of persuasive appeals into ethos, logos, and pathos. Over the years, Aristotle’s original understanding and definition of these terms have been refined as more research has been done.

Ethos

Ethos has come to mean the influence of speaker credentials and character in a speech. Ethos is one of the more studied aspects of public speaking. During the speech, a speaker should seek to utilize their existing credibility, based on the favorable things an audience already knows or believes about the speaker, such as education, expertise, background, and good character. The speaker should also improve or enhance credibility through citing reliable, authoritative sources, strong arguments, showing awareness of the audience, and effective delivery.

The word “ethos” looks very much like the word “ethics,” and there are many close parallels to the trust an audience has in a speaker and their honesty and ethical stance. In terms of ethics, it goes without saying that your speech will be truthful. Another matter to consider is your own personal involvement in the topic. Ideally you have chosen the topic because it means something to you personally. For example, perhaps your speech is designed to motivate audience members to act against bullying in schools, and it is important to you because you work with the Boys and Girls Club organization and have seen how anti-bullying programs can have positive results. Sharing your own involvement and commitment is key to the credibility and emotional appeal (ethos and pathos) of the speech, added to the logos (evidence showing the success of the programs and the damage caused by bullying that goes unchecked). However, it would be wrong to manufacture stories of personal involvement that are untrue, even if the proposition is a socially valuable one.

Pathos

In words like “empathy,” “sympathy,” and “compassion” we see the root word behind pathos. Pathos, to Aristotle, was using the emotions such as anger, joy, hate, desire for community, and love to persuade the audience of the rightness of a proposition. One example of emotional appeals is using strong visual aids and engaging stories to get the attention of the audience. Someone’s just asking you to donate money to help homeless pets may not have a strong effect but seeing the ASPCA’s commercials that feature emaciated and mistreated animals is probably much more likely to persuade you to donate (add the music for full emotional effect).

Emotions are also engaged by showing the audience that the proposition relates to their needs. However, we recognize that emotions are complex and that they also can be used to create a smokescreen to logic. Emotional appeals that use inflammatory language—name-calling—are often unethical or at least counterproductive. Some emotions are more appropriate for persuasive speeches than others. Anger and guilt, for example, do have effectiveness but they can backfire. Positive emotions such as pride, sympathy, and contentment are usually more productive. These negative emotions can also make pathos a very dangerous tool when used by a persuader with nefarious intent.

Logos

Aristotle’s original meaning for logos had philosophical meanings tied to the Greek worldview that the universe is a place ruled by logic and reason. Logos in a speech was related to standard forms of arguments that the audience would find acceptable. Today we think of logos as both logical and organized arguments and the credible evidence to support the arguments. Chapter 17 will deal with logic and avoiding logical fallacies more specifically. The next section will deal with how to logically form your arguments to best be received by your audience.

16-4 Logical Argumentation

Persuasive speeches revolve around propositions that can be defended through the use of data and reasoning. Persuasive propositions respond to one of three types of questions: questions of fact, questions of value, and questions of policy. These questions can help the speaker determine what forms of argument and reasoning are necessary to support a specific purpose statement.

Propositions of Fact, Value, Policy

Questions of fact ask whether something “can potentially be verified as either true or false (Herrick, 2011). These questions can seem very straightforward—something is or it is not—but in reality, the search for truth is a complex endeavor. Questions of fact rarely address simple issues such as, “is the sky blue?” They tend to deal with deep-seated controversies such as the existence of global warming, the cause of a major disaster, or someone's guilt or innocence in a court of law. To answer these questions, a proposition of fact may focus on whether or not something exists.

Persuasive speakers may also be called to address **questions of value**, which call for a proposition judging the (relative) worth of something. These propositions make an evaluative claim regarding morality, aesthetics, wisdom, or desirability. For example, some vegetarians propose that eating meat is immoral because of the way that animals are slaughtered. Vegetarians may base this claim in a philosophy of utilitarianism or animal rights (DeGrazia, 2009). Sometimes a proposition of value compares multiple options to determine which is best. Consumers call for these comparisons regularly to determine which products to buy. Car buyers may look to the most recent Car and Driver "10 Best Cars" list to determine their next purchase. In labeling a car one of the best on the market for a given year, Car and Driver says that the cars "don't have to be the newest, and they don't have to be expensive . . . They just have to meet our abundant needs while satisfying our every want" (Car and Driver, 2011).

Questions of policy ask the speaker to advocate for an appropriate course of action. This form of persuasive speech is used every day in Congress to determine laws, but it is also used interpersonally to determine how we ought to behave. A proposition of policy may call for people to stop a particular behavior, or to start one. For example, some U.S. cities have started banning single use plastic bags in grocery stores. Long before official public policy on this issue was established, organizations such as The Surfrider Foundation and the Earth Resource Foundation advocated that people stop using these bags because of the damage plastic bags cause to marine life. In this case, local governments and private organizations attempted to persuade people to stop engaging in a damaging behavior— shopping with single use plastic bags. However, the organizations also attempted to persuade people to start a new behavior—shopping with reusable bags.

Toulmin Argument Model

When offering an argument you begin by making an assertion that requires a logical leap based on the available evidence (Campbell & Huxman 2009). One of the most popular ways of understanding how this process works was developed by British philosopher Stephen Toulmin (Herrick, 2011). Toulmin explained that basic arguments tend to share three common elements: claim, data, and warrant. The **claim** is an assertion that you want the audience to accept and is usually a claim of fact, value, or policy. **Data** refers to the preliminary evidence on which the claim is based. For example, if I saw large gray clouds in the sky, I might make the claim that "it is going to rain today." The gray clouds (data) are linked to rain (claim) by the warrant, an often unstated general connection, that large gray clouds tend to produce rain. The **warrant** is a connector that, if stated, would likely begin with "since" or "because." In our rain example, if we explicitly stated all three elements, the argument would go something like this: There are large gray clouds in the sky today (data). Since large gray clouds tend to produce rain (warrant), it is going to rain today (claim). However, in our regular encounters with argumentation, we tend to only offer the claim and (occasionally) the warrant.

The elements that Toulmin identified may be arranged in a variety of ways to make the most logical argument. Toulmin also explained that there are three secondary elements that may not fit every argument, but are still important to the argumentative process. These three elements are backing, rebuttal and qualifier. Backing is what we would call citing our sources. It is a way to back up your data. How do we know that gray clouds are rain forming? We would cite a source that explains this information. A rebuttal is a way for you to refute a counterargument before it can be brought up by someone from the opposition. A qualifier is a way to explain that argumentation is not an exact science and there are times when an anomaly can occur and the outcome we expected will not come to fruition. We may not always use these secondary elements, but it is still important to recognize that they are tools we can use to further our arguments.

Other Reasoning

As you reason through your argument you may proceed inductively, deductively, or causally, toward your claim. Inductive reasoning moves from specific examples to a more general claim. For example, if you read online reviews of a restaurant chain called Walt's Wine & Dine and you noticed that someone reported feeling sick after eating at a Walt's, and another person reported that the Walt's they visited was understaffed, and another commented that the tables in the Walt's they ate at had crumbs left on them, you might conclude (or claim) that the restaurant chain is unsanitary. To test the validity of a general claim, Beebe and Beebe encourage speakers to consider whether there are "enough specific instances to support the conclusion," whether the specific instances are typical, and whether the instances are recent (Beebe & Beebe, 2003).

The opposite of inductive reasoning is deductive reasoning, moving from a general principle to a claim regarding a specific instance. To move from general to specific we tend to use syllogisms. A syllogism begins with a major (or general) premise, then moves to a minor premise, then concludes with a specific claim. For example, if you know that all dogs bark (major premise), and your neighbor has a dog (minor premise), you could then conclude that your neighbor's dog barks (specific claim). To verify the accuracy of your specific claim, you must verify the truth and applicability of the major premise. What evidence do you have that all dogs bark? Is it possible that only most dogs bark? Next, you must also verify the accuracy of the minor premise. If the major premise is truly generalizable, and both premises are accurate, your specific claim should also be accurate.

Your reasoning may also proceed causally. Causal reasoning examines related events to determine which one caused the other. You may begin with a cause and attempt to determine its effect. For example, when the Deepwater Horizon drilling rig exploded in the Gulf of Mexico in 2010, scientists explained that because many animals in the Gulf were nesting and reproducing at the time, the spill could wipe out "an entire generation of hundreds of species" (Donovan, 2010). Their argument reasoned that the spill (cause) would result in species loss (effect). Two years later, the causal reasoning might be reversed. If we were seeing species loss in the Gulf (effect), we could reason that it was a result of the oil spill (cause). Both claims rely on the evidence available at the time. To make the first claim, scientists not only offered evidence that animals were nesting and reproducing, but they also looked at the effects of an oil spill that occurred 21 years earlier in Alaska (Donovan, 2010). To make the second claim, scientists could examine dead animals washing up on the coast to determine whether their deaths were caused by oil.

16-5 Persuasive Speech Assignment

PURPOSE

This speech is designed to apply all of the concepts you have learned so far in this course. It is a 5-7 minute persuasive speech. You will choose a social problem that affects a specific community. It can be university wide, and only affect the PVAMU community. It can be citywide, statewide, national, international, or global. Once you choose your social problem, you will either find a solution already in place elsewhere, or create a solution to fix the problem.

REQUIREMENTS

II. **Organizational Requirements**
   A. The organizational pattern for this speech is up to your instructor but can include problem/solution, problem/cause/solution, cause/effect/solution, comparative advantages, Monroe's Motivated Sequence, or a topical order of main points.
   B. You will have two to three main points to this speech.

III. **Research Requirements**
   A. This speech requires research to fully develop your ideas.
   B. You must use **3 or more sources** in your speech.
      i. Do NOT use Wikipedia, or any other unreliable sources
      ii. Include a References/Works Cited section at the end of the outline in either APA or MLA format
   C. Cite all sources during your speech and in your outline to avoid plagiarism.
      i. Cite all sources orally in the speech
      ii. Cite all sources in the text of the outline (in-text citations)

IV. **Visual Aid Requirements**
   A. You are NOT required to use a visual aid but are encouraged to do so.
   B. Do not rely solely on pictures. Include graphs, charts, maps, etc. to be sure you are clarifying your ideas.
   C. Do not use complete sentences or thoughts on your PowerPoint slides. PowerPoint should be sued for visual elements like graphs, charts, pictures, maps, etc.

V. **The Outline Rough Draft**
   A. Prior to delivering this speech, your instructor requires you to turn in a rough draft of your outline.
   B. The instructor will give you guidelines for where your rough draft should be posted and how many points the rough draft will be worth.

C. This is for assessment purposes only. Each year, the program is assessed on a variety of outcomes and the persuasive assignment is used as one of those assessment tools.

VI. **Outline**

A. On your speaking day, you are responsible for bringing a typed outline of your speech to class. It should be a FULL sentence outline, which utilizes **complete sentences.** Your instructor may require you to turn in a rough draft of your outline either via paper copy, e-mail, or on e-courses.
B. Clearly label the specific purpose, and thesis statement, preview, summary, and memorable ending.
C. Include transitions between main points
D. Include your source citations in the text of the outline
E. Include a reference list in APA or MLA format with your different published source materials

VII. **Speech Rubric**

A. On the day that you are scheduled to deliver your speech, you must bring your speech rubric to class. Rubrics will be provided to you via e-courses.

You will be graded on your outline, rough draft, as well as your speeches content, your delivery, and your visual aids. Due dates for all assignments can be found on the syllabus as well as on eCourses.

SUGGESTIONS FOR PREPARATION:

- A good place to look for topic ideas is in local newspapers, including the campus newspaper. (Hint: The editorial and commentary pages are good resources for controversial and timely issues.) Also, use the internet as a tool for brainstorming for a topic.

- The largest amount of effort should go into developing the ideas you want to present. Make sure your main points clearly represent these ideas. Give special thought to your introduction and conclusion. These parts of your speech can make a strong impression that affects your persuasiveness.

- Make use of supporting materials (i.e. statistics, definitions, testimony, examples). Begin your research as soon as possible so that you have plenty of time to consider how you want your speech to progress.

- Practice your speech aloud using your note cards and visual aids several times. Work on really connecting with your audience. Move away from the lectern, maintain eye contact, and show sincerity in your face and voice.

ON THE DAY OF THE SPEECH BRING THE FOLLOWING:

- A copy of your outline
- Visual Aids
- Speaker Notes

- Grade Rubric

Conclusion

In this chapter we've explored the nature of persuasion and how persuasive reasoning and argumentation has evolved from the time of Aristotle to today. With this knowledge of how audiences react and are motivated, you should find it a little easier to form your own persuasive argument when you prepare your speeches for class. Also, you may be a little more cautious and critical when watching and reading the many persuasive messages that you are exposed to daily.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

Stokes-Rice, T., Leonard, V. and Rome, L. "Fundamentals of Public Speaking" (2019) Communication Open Textbooks

Tucker, Barbara; Barton, Kristin; Burger, Amy; Drye, Jerry; Hunsicker, Cathy; Mendes, Amy; and LeHew, Matthew, "Exploring Public Speaking: 4th Edition" (2019). Communication Open Textbooks. 1. https://oer.galileo.usg.edu/communication-textbook (chapter 13)

Psychology - 2e (OpenStax) by Rose M. Spielman, Formerly of Quinnipiac University, William J. Jenkins, Mercer University, Marilyn D. Lovett, Spelman College, et al. is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, except where otherwise noted.

Other Sources:

Petty, R.E. and Cacioppo, J.T. (1986). The Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion. *Communication and Persuasion.* 1-24.

Chapter 17
Logical Fallacies and Misinformation

Learning Objectives
17-1 Students will understand the definition of a logical fallacy.
17-2 Students will be able to identify various logical fallacies.
17-3 Students will understand what misinformation is.
17-4 Students will evaluate arguments to make sure they are logically sound.

An Overview

When we form arguments or examine others' arguments, we need to be cognizant of possible fallacies. A **fallacy** can be defined as a flaw or error in reasoning. At its most basic, a logical fallacy refers to a defect in the reasoning of an argument that causes the conclusion(s) to be invalid, unsound, or weak. The existence of a fallacy in a deductive argument makes the entire argument invalid. The existence of a fallacy in an inductive argument weakens the argument but does not invalidate it.

It is important to study fallacies so you can avoid them in the arguments you make. Studying fallacies also provides you with a foundation for evaluating and critiquing other arguments as well. Once you start studying and thinking about fallacies, you'll find they are everywhere. Some fallacies are committed as honest mistakes, while others with poor ethics will use fallacious reasoning in order to persuade people to their side. You could say that we live in a fallacious world!

A fallacy exists because of an error in the structure of the argument. In other words, the conclusion doesn't follow from the premises. Fallacies are specific types of non sequiturs, or arguments in which the conclusions do not follow from the premises. Other fallacies occur because of an error in reasoning. These are identified through examining the structure of the argument, through analysis of the content of the premises. These will become clear as you examine different types of fallacies.

17.1: Types of Fallacies

False Analogy

A **f**alse analogy is a fallacy where two things are compared that do not share enough key similarities to be compared fairly. For analogical reasoning to be valid, the two things being compared must be essentially similar—similar in all the important ways. Two states could be analogous, if they are in the same region, have similar demographics and histories, similar size, and other aspects in common. Georgia is more like Alabama than it is like Hawaii, although both are states. An analogy between the United States and, for example, a tiny European country with a homogeneous population is probably not a valid analogy, although common. Even in the case where the two "things" being compared are similar, you should be careful to support your argument with other evidence. Here is an example:

Humans and animals are both living, breathing beings. Humans have civil rights. Therefore, animals have civil rights.

The problem in this argument is that while humans and animals are alike in their living and breathing status, there are numerous other ways they differ. We commit a fallacy when we infer that based on this initial similarity, they are similar in all other ways as well.

People will often use the false analogy fallacy when comparing two different people to predict how one will act or when assigning attributes to someone. In most cases, people are far too complex to argue that because one person acted a certain way, someone else will.

Faulse Cause

Sometimes called a Questionable Cause fallacy, this occurs when there exists a flawed causal connection between events. The fallacy is not just a bad inference about connection between cause and effect, but one that violates the cannons of reasoning about causation. We see two primary types of this fallacy.

Accidental or coincidental connection occurs when we assume a connection where one might or might not exist. We say event A caused event B when we have no clear proof. Here's an example:

Yesterday Jen went out in the rain and got soaked. The next day she was in bed with the flu. Therefore, the rain caused her to get sick.

Most of us probably grew up hearing statements like this without ever realizing we were being exposed to a logical fallacy in action. Flu is caused by exposure to a virus, not to bad weather. The other type of causal fallacy occurs with a general causation between types of events. For example, we know that drinking excessive amounts of alcohol leads to alcoholism and cirrhosis of the liver. However, not every individual who drinks excessively develops either of these diseases. In other words, there is a possibility that the disease will occur as a result of excessive drinking, but it is not an absolute.

Red Herring Fallacy

This fallacy occurs when we introduce an **i**rrelevant issue into the argument. The phrase "red herring" comes from the supposed fox hunting practice of dragging a dried smoke herring across the trail so as to throw off the hound from the scent. In logical reasoning, the red herring fallacy works in much the same way. No, this doesn't mean you make the argument while smelling like an old fish. What it does mean is that we attempt to distract the audience by introducing some irrelevant point, such as this:

Each year thousands of people die in car accidents across the country. Why should we worry about endangered animals?

This argument is trying to get us to focus on dead people instead of animals. While car accidents and the deaths resulting from them are a serious issue, this fact does not lessen the importance of worrying about endangered animals. The two issues are not equated with each other.

Slippery Slope Fallacy

This fallacy occurs when we assume one action will initiate a chain of events culminating in an undesirable event later. It makes it seem like the final event, the bottom of the slope, is an inevitability. Arguments falling prey to the slippery slope fallacy ignore the fact there are probably a number of other things that can happen between the initial event and the bottom of the slope. We hear examples of the slippery slope fallacy all around us:

If we teach sex education in school, then students will have more sex. If students have more sex, we will have a rash of unplanned pregnancies and sexually transmitted diseases. Students will be forced to drop out of school and will never have the chance to succeed in life.

Clearly, just learning about sex doesn't automatically mean that you will engage in sex. Even more unlikely is the fact that merely learning about sex will force you to drop out of school. Be wary of any cause and effect chains that are lengthy like this, and build upon one another. It can easily be used to take even small actions and give them catastrophic consequences.

Strawman Fallacy

This fallacy occurs when a speaker appears to refute the argument that is presented, but in reality the speaker refutes an argument that was not brought up. The best strawman arguments will argue the new point to a conclusion that appears solid; however, because their point is not the original point, it is still a fallacy.

Examples of the strawman fallacy are everywhere and can appear to be quite persuasive:

President Obama cannot truly have American interests in mind because he's not truly American but Muslim.

Statements similar to this were quite prevalent during the 2008 Presidential election and still appear on occasion. The assumption here is that if a person follows Islam and identifies as Muslim they clearly can't be American or interested in America. While there are many potential flaws in this argument as presented, for our purpose the most obvious is that there are many Americans who are Muslim and who are quite interested and concerned about America.

Non-Sequitur

There are times when a conclusion does not follow from a statement. In this fallacy, an argument where the conclusion may be true or false, but there exists a disconnect within the argument itself. Some of these are so blatant we are left wondering how someone got to the conclusion they did. An example of this may be if I walk around my campus and say that we should not build our new multi-level parking structure because the elevators are not well cleaned inside of the campus. Clearly, my conclusion does not align with my argument.

Bandwagon Fallacy

If you have ever seen someone take action, or believe in something simply because everyone else did, you may have witnessed the Bandwagon Fallacy. During the most recent presidential election, social media sites showed an increase in hate speech and vitriolic language. Many people actually told “friends” they would delete them if they had voted for Trump. There was a wave of actions like this across the country. Did people truly want to unfriend everyone that they knew voted for Trump, or did they jump on the bandwagon?

Either-Or Fallacy

The thrust of the fallacy occurs when we are only given the choice between two possible alternatives, when in fact more than two exist. It may be looked at as a false dilemma.

Returning to the abortion debates, we can see a form of this fallacy in play by simply looking at the way each side refers to itself. Those who oppose legalized abortion are Pro-Life. The implication here is that if you are for abortion then you are against life. The fallacy in this case is easy to figure out – there are many facets of life, not just abortion. Those who favor legalized abortion are Pro-Choice. The implication here is that if you are against abortion, then you are against choices. Again, the reasoning is faulty.

There is no black-and-white situation. It’s all part of life. Highs, lows, middles.
~ Van Morrison

Hasty Generalization Fallacy

A hasty generalization fallacy occurs when reaching a conclusion without any, or little, evidence to back up the argument. Let us say I recently celebrated an event at a local restaurant that is known for its exceptional food. That night I get a severe case of food poisoning. If I told all of my friends not to eat at that restaurant because they would get food poisoning, I would be guilty of a hasty generalization. There are many things that could have caused food poisoning. There is no way to knowing with certainty that the restaurant was the culprit.

Ad Hominem Fallacy

The ad hominem fallacy occurs when we shift our focus from the premises and conclusions of the argument and focus instead on the individual making the argument. An easy way to remember this fallacy is to think of it as the personal attack fallacy. This type of fallacy is often used in political campaigns where candidates focus on the personal aspects of a candidate rather than his or her qualifications.

It is the weak form of arguing that many of us employed on our elementary school playgrounds such as this exchange:

Jon: I think we should go back to class now.
Jada: I don't think we need to worry about it.
Jon: Well, the bell rang a few minutes ago. We're going to be late.
Jada: Well, you're a big jerk and don't know anything, so we don't have to go back to class.

If we examine this exchange we can see that Bill's arguments are sound and supported by what appears to be good evidence. However, Jane ignores these and focuses on Bill's supposed character – he's a big jerk. The fallacy happens when we connect the truth of a proposition to the person asserting it.

Appeal to Authority Fallacy

When we appeal to authority we claim the truth of a proposition is guaranteed because of the opinion of a famous person. Appeals to authority look like this:

Authority figure X says Y. Therefore, Y is true.

We see this fallacy in play regularly in commercials or other advertisements featuring a doctor, lawyer, or other professional. Think about, for example, ads for the latest weight loss supplement. A doctor will discuss the science of the supplement. At times she will mention that she used the supplement and successfully lost weight. Even though we do learn something about the specifics of the supplement, the focus is on the doctor and her implied authoritative knowledge. We are to infer that the supplement will work because the doctor says it will work.

The fallacy in this type of reasoning occurs when we confuse the truth of the proposition with the person stating it. Instead of considering the strength of the argument and any evidence associated with it, we focus solely on the individual.

17.2 – Dealing with Misinformation

Thus far in this chapter we have dealt with many different types of logical fallacies. Paired with previous information in this textbook, you should have a good grasp on how to make a logical, well reasoned, and researched argument. Unfortunately, much of the information you might encounter while attempting to do your research might be misinformation.

Misinformation is exactly what it sounds like. It is information that is simply false. More insidiously, some misinformation is disguised in such a way as to make it appear true. Each and every one of us have encountered stories on social media that sound true, but we later find out are false. And with nearly half of the America population getting their news from social media, you can see how misinformation can be dangerous.

The only way that we can deal with misinformation is to investigate. A Russian proverb encapsulates perfectly what we need to do: "Trust, but verify". This means that we should always use the tools at our disposal in order to make sure the information we are reading is accurate. We can employ critical thinking skills, research skills, and our knowledge of logical fallacies in order to gauge the trustworthiness and veracity of a claim or news article.

Finally, remember that as a speaker it is your responsibility to vet the information that you share with your audience. You are serving, if only temporarily, as the authority figure on the subject you are speaking on, and you have an ethical responsibility to make sure that the information you share with your audience is true. Misinforming an audience via ignorance will reflect negatively upon your credibility. Knowingly misinforming your audience is ethically wrong, and will shatter the trust between you and your audience and render you a completely ineffective speaker.

Conclusion

In this chapter we have explored the different ways in which people conduct logically fallacious arguments. While many arguments may seem at face value to be legitimate and sound, we must always be on the lookout for these false forms of reasoning. While we have done our best to cover some of the most common forms of logical fallacies, please know that there are many logical fallacies out there that we did not cover in this chapter.

Remember above all else that you have an ethical responsibility to not engage in these fallacious arguments in your speech, and always remember to seek utilize all of the critical thinking tools you have learned so that neither you or your audience will fall victim to faulty reasoning or misinformation.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

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Chapter 18
Interviewing

Learning Objectives
18-1 Students will understand the importance of interviews and more specifically job interviews.
18-2 Students will be able to identify the key elements necessary for quality resumes and cover letters and know the importance of dress and time when it comes to interviews.
18-3 Students will identify the key components of interview questions and question types and avoid giving illegal information in interviews.
18-4 Students will be able to know how and when to contact a potential employer after an interview has concluded.
18-5 Students will be able to write their own effective cover letters and resumes.

18-1 Interviewing Importance

When you finish college, you are probably going to go searching for a job. Some of you may decide to go to work for yourselves, but a much higher percentage of you will be entering the workforce. This means that interviewing skills are going to be essential for you to succeed. Even if you don't intend to seek a job after graduation, interviews are still a vital part of professionalism. You may be interviewed by a reporter for a story or by a surveyor for the census. While this chapter will cover the essentials for job interviews, you can still take this knowledge and apply it to other facets of your professional life. As we continue, we will examine the preparation you must do when seeking an interview and before you go to the interview. Then we will examine what will and should take place during the interview before finally examining what you should do after the interview concludes.

18-2 Before the Interview

In this section we will examine some of the important elements that you need to develop before you even go in for the interview. These include the resume and cover letter, dress, and some other preparation techniques.

Resumes

A résumé is basically a summary of your experience. Just as an advertiser will invest a lot of resources to condense the essence of his or her product into a thirty-second ad for the Super Bowl, condensing the essence of your experience onto one or two pages can be a challenging task. Fine-tuning, updating, and rewriting your résumé will become an ongoing process as you move through your career, and it is not too early to prepare one now. The purpose of a résumé is to get you invited for an interview. Unfortunately, too often a résumé is a reason to exclude a candidate. Poor grammar, misspelled words, lengthy listings of irrelevant experience, and messy formatting motivate hiring managers to move quickly to the next candidate.

There is no such thing as a perfect format for a résumé, though hiring managers and recruiters generally agree on the following principles:

- A short résumé is generally better than a long one. One page should suffice.
- Focus on your accomplishments, not just the positions you held. Your résumé should point out your strengths. Use dynamic verbs.
- Include numbers. Be sure to include dollar amounts and percentages that support achievements. For example, you might write “Reduced costs by 20 percent.” Keep track of your accomplishments in your “notes” notebook so that you don’t have to go back and recreate history when you are revising your résumé.
- Use keywords. Most recruiters and hiring managers look for résumés online and review submitted résumés with software that looks for keywords.
- Keep information easy to find. Use the standard convention of a reverse chronological listing of experience, starting with your current or most recent job and moving backward in time, unless there is a valid reason for following a different format (a function-based résumé might be appropriate if you need to cover two or more long periods of unemployment).
- Remember that education and work experience should be the two key elements that appear on every resume. Make them the top information that a potential employer sees first.
- Make your name the biggest font on the page. The resume should be about you and your name should ‘pop’ off the page. Do not make it obnoxiously big, but just a font size or two larger than your headings.

Deciding what to include in your résumé is where most of the work comes in, because it is in the careful wording of the body of your résumé that you can really sell yourself for a position. Ideally, you should review your résumé for each position you are applying for, particularly to include any accomplishments that you would not include in your “general résumé” but that are relevant to that job. Your résumé should include these elements:

- **Header.** Include your full name (largest font on page) and complete contact information. Be sure that you use personal (home) phone number and e-mail address, not your work contact information.
- **Objective.** Include a short one- or two-sentence summary of the kind of position you are looking for. Some résumé writers now recommend replacing or following the objective with a listing of skills, particularly when you are going to post the résumé online, because that provides a great opportunity to include keywords. Look to your list of transferable skills to populate this kind of list. If you are writing a cover letter, then this statement is usually optional.
- **Résumé body.** Starting with your current or most recent job, internship, or volunteer position, list your experience in reverse chronological order. Each entry should include the title, the name and location of the company, and the dates you held the position. This should be followed by your education, then your major achievements in that position. Use strong action verbs and a quantitative measure for achievements. Look for things that will show that you are a better candidate than others. Consider accomplishments such as the following:
    - Being promoted
    - Gaining expanded responsibilities
    - Being recruited by a former employer or boss, or being asked to follow him or her to another company

- Having your accomplishment copied by other departments or, even better, by other companies
- Recruiting and training others
- Receiving awards and recognitions, including speaking at conferences, writing, or being written about (if these are easily found online and you are short on space, omit these types of accomplishments, because you will be googled)

Once you have written the body of your résumé, review and discuss it with people you respect. Ask them what stands out, what puts them to sleep, what turns them off, and whether anything is missing. Great résumés are a combination of a business document, marketing piece, and personal preferences. Expect conflicting opinions from others and don't get hung up on them; the final decision is yours.

Finally, here are some tips on format. Name your résumé file clearly. Don't give the file the name "résumé" or "My Résumé." Include your name, abbreviated job title, and company name in the file name. For example, if Victor Smith applies for a marketing project manager job at XYZ Company, his résumé file might be named *VictorSmith-MktPM-XYZ.doc*. Choose your document formatting wisely. Use a readable font! You have approximately thirty seconds to make an impact on the person reading your résumé, and nothing turns off a reader faster than a résumé that is difficult to read.

- Serif fonts, such as Times New Roman, should be no smaller than eleven points, and sans-serif fonts, like Arial, should be no smaller than ten points.
- Try to keep margins at one inch all the way around.
- If you print the resume, print your résumé on a high-grade, bright white paper. Do not use cream-colored paper or paper with visible fibers, as these papers can confuse scanners and optical character recognition software that employers may use to digitally store and search résumés.

Cover Letters

The purpose of a cover letter is to entice the recipient to read your résumé. There is no better way to entice someone to read further than to demonstrate that you fit his or her needs. A successful cover letter should emphasize how your knowledge, skills, or experiences make you an ideal candidate. When writing a cover letter, look over the job posting carefully. What are the keywords in the posting? Underline or highlight them. Think about how your experience and skills are related to those keywords. What examples can you give in short sentences? Now you can begin to write.

Be sure to state what job you are applying for and why in your opening paragraph. If you don't hook the reader here, you will not be considered for the job. This is where you begin to show that you are a unique and qualified candidate. This, in marketing terms, is your selling proposition. Write this paragraph two or three different ways and then choose the best. When you are happy with your opening paragraph, add two to three paragraphs that illustrate your proposition from the opening paragraph. These body paragraphs should highlight how you have the skills that are asked for in the job posting. Each paragraph should highlight a separate skill. Be sure your last paragraph of the letter contains your contact information restated as well. This will be easier for the reader to find and may prompt them to make an offer for an interview faster.

Remember that your cover letter also demonstrates your communication skills. Be clear, be concise, and be careful. You won't have another opportunity to make a first impression. Be sure your spelling and grammar are correct. Did you double-check the spelling of the company name? Read the document; look for mistakes your spellchecker won't catch (like the word "you" instead of "your"). Put it down for a while and then reread it again.

Dress

Research indicates many job applicants have unsuccessful interviews because they didn't dress professionally. If you're not sure, ask the person who schedules you for an interview what the dress code is. A suit or jacket, dress slacks, dress shirt, and a tie are usually fine for men. A suit or blouse and skirt or slacks are fine for women. The rule of thumb is to dress one notch above that group's normal attire. If in doubt, a suit is never inappropriate for men or women. Remember, you're going to a job interview, not a casual event.

Interview Preparation

Just as preparation is important for exams in college, preparation is key to success in interviews. Many of the principles are the same, but in an employment interview, the subject is *you*. Just as in an exam, the first step in preparation is to know your material.

Learn about the organization. In almost every interview situation, you'll be asked, "What can you do for this company?" Practice your answer. Research press releases, stories in the *Wall Street Journal*, annual reports, blogs, Web sites, the news, and so on. Know the company's philosophies, goals, plans, new products, targeted customers, new executives, and major directional changes.

Use your network. Do you know anyone who works for or has worked for this company or organization? Call or have lunch with him or her before your interview to learn more. Your competition likely won't have done their homework as well as you have. Your prospective employer will notice.

Review the job description. Be prepared to explain how your background qualifies you for the job. Did you find the job posting online? Be sure to have printed a copy and bring it with you to the interview. Some companies take weeks to start calling people in for interviews, and by then the job description may have been removed from the site where you saw it.

Review your résumé. Think of examples that describe or illustrate your accomplishments. You will be asked about items on your résumé, and you need to be able to support them and go into more detail.

Prepare yourself physically. Like a final exam, an interview can cause anxiety, and too much anxiety can result in a poor interview. Make sure you eat well and get a good night's sleep before the interview. Hunger, use of energy drinks, and lack of sleep all contribute to interview anxiety.

Punctuality counts. Confirm the date and time of the interview a day or two before. Make sure you know how to get there and how long it takes. Arrive at least ten to fifteen minutes before your interview. You may be asked to complete an application or other form when you arrive. If not, it's a good time to do some relaxation exercises.

18-3 During the Interview

In this section, we will examine some of the types of questions that may be asked and some tips to think about when answering those questions.

Questions

There are three categories of questions that will most likely be asked during an interview and these include open/closed ended, primary/secondary, and Neutral/Leading. A good interviewer is going to variety of questions to try and get an understanding of the candidate. They will ask a mix of open and closed ended questions. Open questions are basically free to answer and may require more explanation and description. Closed questions are more about only having a few choices as answers. Most interview questions will be primary and will cover a variety of subjects, but an interviewer may ask another question based on something you said, and we call those secondary questions. Finally, a good interviewer will never push you into an answer. We call that a leading question. Instead, the interviewer will strive to ask neutral questions and make sure that you feel free to answer any way you wish.

Some of the more frequently asked interview questions include:

- What are your strengths?
- What are your weaknesses?
- Why should we hire you?
- Where do you see yourself five years from now?
- Why do you want to work for us?
- Do you have any questions for us?

With that last question, "Do you have any questions for us?" it is important to always ask a question at the end. It shows that you are interested in the job, and it also might show your knowledge about the company. Never ask anything about salary, benefits, or any type of monetary benefit. Save these questions and concerns for after they offer you the position.

BFOQ's

BFOQ's, or Bona Fide Occupational Qualities, are the qualities that are essential to a position and where the questions for an interview are based on. When you interview for a position, the interviewer should only be asking relevant questions related to the job and BFOQ's. They are not allowed to ask you questions outside this purview. They cannot ask you about your age, marital status, pregnancy status, dating life, or any other personal information that does not have any relation to the BFOQ's of the position. If you are asked these questions, you have a right not to answer, but you should do so as politely as possible. Sometimes you are interviewing the company as much as they are interviewing you and if asked questions that are too personal, this may be a red flag to stay away from that company even if they offer you a position.

Tips

Now is the time to demonstrate your listening, thinking, and communication skills. Avoid unexpected distractions and turn off your cell phone before you even enter the building. Know whom you will be interviewing with and what his or her role is in the company; if possible, get something in writing from the interview coordinator so you can get the names spelled correctly (for follow-up purposes). Once you are face-to-face with the interviewer, do the following:

- Relax, take a deep breath, and smile. You should be genuinely pleased to be there, as you were selected from a pool of many other candidates.
- Be yourself. That's whom you want them to hire, not someone you're trying to act like.
- Keep your tone conversational but not too informal. Avoid slang and expletives.
- Make eye contact but don't stare.
- When answering questions, keep your answers focused on your skills and knowledge.
- Avoid one-word answers but be succinct and direct; don't ramble.
- Be truthful. Any statements discovered to be untrue are grounds for not hiring you.
- If you don't understand a question, ask for clarification.
- If you don't have the exact fact an interviewer is asking for, offer to find out and get back to them.
- At the end of the interview, thank the interviewer and tell him or her you enjoyed your conversation. If the interviewer hasn't already told you, it is appropriate to ask about the next steps.

18-4 After the Interview

Be sure to send a thank-you note to each person you interviewed with. It is also courteous to send a short note of thanks to the person who coordinated your schedule with the company, even if he or she didn't interview you. This person is often asked for his or her impressions of you. Keep your notes short but personal; refer to a comment or question from the interview that you found significant. An e-mail is usually acceptable, especially if the employer required you to submit an electronic application or résumé. Be sure to send it within twenty-four hours.

Don't ask about the status of the job search after an interview until about a week after the interview has completed. Interviews take time and timetables depend on every member of each search committee. Do not fret if you don't hear from them right away. Give it time and follow-up one to two weeks after your interview has completed.

18-5 Example Resume and Cover Letter

Patrick A. Luster

1234 Happy Dr.
Houston, TX 77084
Phone: (123) 456-7890

Professional Education

M.S. **Illinois State University, Graduated August 13, 2005**
Major Areas: Communication (emphasis in Interpersonal Communication)
Cumulative Grade Point Average: 3.85
Paper Title: "*Disappointment of the heart: Realizing the role that disappointment plays in secondary emotion research and disappointment's role in communication."*
Paper Advisor: Dr. Sandra Metts

B.A. **North Central College, Graduated Cum Laude June 2003**
Major: Speech Communication
Cumulative Grade Point Average: 3.63
Advisor: Barrie Mason

A.A. **Rock Valley College, Graduated with Honors May 2001**
Major: Emphasis in Communication
Cumulative Grade Point Average: 3.64
Advisor: Robert Betts Jr.

Professional Experience

Lecturer II/Program Division Co-Coordinator
Department of Languages and Communication
Prairie View A & M University
Summer 2019- Present

Lecturer I/Director of Forensics
Department of Languages and Communication
Prairie View A & M University
Fall 2013- Summer 2019

Adjunct Instructor
Department of Speech
Lone-Star College-Kingwood
Fall 2013- Present

Instructor/Assistant Director of Forensics
Department of Mass Communication
McNeese State University
Fall 2006- Spring 2013

Awards and Honors

2021 Responsible for creating 5 new courses and redesigning curriculum in Communication Division at PVAMU
2018 Coached team to a top 5 finish at HBCU Nationals (Overall)
2017 Coached team to a top 5 finish at HBCU Nationals (Overall)
2017 Coached Ervin Bryant and Tony Brown to National Runner Up in NPDA at HBCU Nationals
2015 Coached Brennan Wells to a National Championship Novice IPDA Speaker Award
2009-2011 Elected to and served the Pi Kappa Delta National Council
2007-2009, 2011-2013 Elected and served as Governor of the Lower Mississippi Province of Pi Kappa Delta
2011 NFA 8th place Team Sweepstakes Division 3 (Coach)
2010 NFA 10th place Team Sweepstakes Divison 3 (Coach)
2008 PKD Bob Derryberry Award For Outstanding New Forensics Coach
Responsible for Running or Serving in the Tab Room for over 25 Collegiate Tournaments

October 21, 2022

Patrick A. Luster
1234 Happy Street
Houston, TX 77084
(123) 456-7890

Chair of the Human Resources Committee
Disney World
1 Disney Dr.
Orlando, FL

Dear Committee,

Please accept this official application for the job of Events Coordinator. I have served as the Director of Forensics at Prairie View A and M University for the last four years and wish to further my interests in event planning. You will find that I have a strong background in event planning, the ability to speak in public, and a strong desire to see people enjoy themselves.

Most of my experience comes in being an assistant forensics administrator, but I have also gained experience serving the Lower Mississippi Province of Pi Kappa Delta, the national forensics honorary fraternity, as their Governor. I have helped to plan trips for a group of highly motivated, vocal, college students seeking to develop their speaking skills through competition. The job requires planning and administration for each trip.

As Governor, I helped plan and execute a speech tournament for over 250 people to compete in. This involved assigning judges, creating schedules, and providing food for these individuals. Also, at the 2009 Pi Kappa Delta National Tournament and Convention I was responsible for hosting a reception that included decorating and food for over 250 people.

I have also used the position of Director of Forensics to gain a better understanding of event planning. As tournament staff for four tournaments, including two national tournaments, I gained firsthand knowledge of how to put together a massive event for over 600 people.

My responsibilities at PVAMU also include being the primary instructor for classes. This includes lesson planning, exam construction, and evaluation of assignments. I also lecture during these courses, and I believe this keeps my public speaking skills sharp. I also have run for national office in the Pi Kappa Delta organization in 2009 and was elected to the national council. This job will also require a lot of public speaking and demonstrates my abilities to speak to several people at any given time.

I know my experience gives me a strong insight into the requirements of this position. I look forward to hearing from you soon. If you have any questions do not hesitate to contact me at (123) 456-7980.

Sincerely, Patrick A. Luster

Conclusion

Interviews are an essential part of your growth as a communicator and a professional adult. We have explored the elements necessary to be successful at interviewing by examining resumes and cover letters, dress, questions, BFOQ's, and what to do after the interview concludes. It is a process that can be nerve-wracking and disappointing when you don't get a job that you thought you should have. But continuing to trust the process and improving will be your ticket to the job of your dreams and of course the most coveted thing… money.

Attribution and References:

Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

Schmitz, A. (2012). *College Success.* Saylor Academy

Chapter 19

Intercultural Communication

Learning Objectives
19-1-Students will be able to explain what culture is and define it
19-2-Students will describe the role of power in culture and communication
19-3-Students will be able to discuss the effect that diversity has on Public Speaking

Introduction

Humans have always been diverse in their cultural beliefs and practices. But as new technologies have led to the perception that our world has shrunk, and demographic and political changes have brought attention to cultural differences, people communicate across cultures more now than ever before. The oceans and continents that separate us can now be traversed instantly with an e-mail, phone call, tweet, or status update. Additionally, our workplaces, schools, and neighborhoods have become more integrated regarding race and gender, increasing our interaction with domestic diversity.

19-1- What Is Culture?

What does the term “culture” mean to you? Is it the apex of knowledge and intellectual achievement? A particular nation, people, or social group? Rituals, symbols, and myths? The arbiter of what is right and wrong behavior? It has become quite common to describe natural groupings humans create as a “culture.” Popular media has given us women’s culture, men’s culture, workplace culture, especially abled culture, pet culture, school culture, exercise culture, and the list goes on.

One standard method for categorizing or discussing cultures is “collectivist” or “individualistic.” The United States, Germany, Israel, and a few other countries are highly individualistic, while Asian, some Latino, and some African cultures are highly collectivistic. While we in the U.S. value family, we generally are expected and encouraged to make our own life choices in career, education, marriage, and living arrangements. In more collectivist cultures, the family or more significant community primarily decides those life choices. In some cases, the individual makes decisions based on what is better for the community rather than what they would personally prefer. The distinction between collectivistic and individualistic cultures is closely related to the difference between high-context and low-context.

High-context cultures are so closely tied together that behavioral norms are implicit or not talked about clearly; they are just understood and learned through close observation. For example, if you and your friends have a routine of watching football every Sunday, saying, “I’ll see you guys this weekend for the game” implies that the “when” and “where” of the game is so ingrained that it doesn’t even need to be explicitly stated. Variations from the norms are so rare that learning them is easy; there is no confusion.

Low-context cultures must be more explicit because individual freedoms and a wider diversity of behavioral norms make learning through observations more challenging. Continuing the example above, in these cases, you might be gathering with a new group of friends who need explicit, high-context communication to know what is going on: “We’ll meet at Jay’s house at University Village at 11:30 on Sunday morning.” High-context cultures are more …relational, collectivist, intuitive, and contemplative. This means that people in these cultures emphasize interpersonal relationships. Developing trust is an essential first step in any business transaction. These cultures are collectivist, preferring group harmony and consensus to individual achievement. And people in these cultures are less governed by reason than intuition or feelings. (Chaturvedi & Chaturvedi, 2013)

Unfortunately, due to cultural biases, this description may, to some, make individuals from high-context cultures sound “less than” in some ways compared to Western cultures, which are low-context cultures. We should be cautious about addressing an audience or developing relationships with those of other cultures. Low-context cultures are often described as more rational, action-oriented, practical, efficient, precise, and factual, as evident in their communication. In contrast, high-context cultures spend more time on interpersonal trust, are less direct, and may use more polite and flowery language. These descriptions can be problematic. Let us be clear that these descriptions are about generalized differences, but not about “better” or “worse” and not about every individual member of the culture. A person from a high-context culture is perfectly capable of being rational, action-oriented, practical, etc., and a person from a low-context culture still values interpersonal trust and politeness. Another way to distinguish cultural groups is how decisions are made and the predominant communication modes.

19-2- Communication in Culture

About cultural differences, we see the differences most obviously in nonverbal communication. While we Westerners may think of these nonverbal communication differences (such as the traditional Asian practice of greeting with a bow instead of shaking hands) as simply quaint or only superficial, they reveal significant differences in the world views of each culture. It would be worth your time to investigate (quickly done on the Internet) why Asians traditionally bow and Westerners shake hands. The practices reveal a lot about our shared histories, views of the past, religion, and interpersonal trust. Likewise, it is not unusual for adult men friends of the same age to walk together in some Middle Eastern countries, but that is less common in the United States and has a different interpretation.

In the two places, the same practice means two entirely different things. Nonverbal communication, which is what is most visible to us when we experience a new culture, is divided into categories such as:

- Oculesics (eye behavior)
- Haptics (touch behavior)
- Proxemics (distance from others)
- Vocalics (voice characteristics)
- Chronemics (use of time in the communication)
- Kinesics (use of the arms, legs, and posture)
- Olfactics (the meaning of smell in the contact)
- Objectives (the use of objects to convey or interpret meaning)

Each of these has unique patterns in various cultures, and the differences in nonverbal communication behavior are often not understood to have deeper cultural meanings. Some cultures may avoid eye contact out of respect; their high-context nature means confrontation is discouraged. Westerners, however, tend to judge low eye contact rather harshly, as either dishonesty, disinterest, or low self-esteem. Likewise, Westerners value punctuality sometimes over relationships, although the higher the status of the individual, the more tolerant we can be of tardiness. The company's CEO can be 15 minutes late for a meeting, but the employees would be disciplined for such delay. Other cultures do not understand the Western love affair with the hands on the clock.

Other cultures sometimes see people from the United States as loud (vocals), too direct and forward (oculesics), taking up too much space (kinesics and proxemics), and uncomfortable with touch or close areas (haptics and proxemics). Of course, most audiences of different cultural backgrounds may include those for whom English is a second (or third or fourth) language.

Watch out for metaphors, slang, and figurative language that have no meaning to non-native speakers of English. Many American expressions have to do with sports—everything from poker to football—and have no significance to those who have not grown up around those sports. Some of our expressions are racist or have a racist past without our knowledge or recognition because we do not see the phrase's origin. When we say, "bury the hatchet." "Go on the warpath," or "put you in the police van," "let's hear from the peanut gallery," or "I was gipped," we are inadvertently referring to ethnic stereotypes as well as using references those of non-U.S. cultures would not understand.

19-3- Diversity Effects Public Speaking

The first way that diversity can help is if the speaker has been exposed to diverse groups of people. Diversity should also be understood as not just ethnic or racial, although those tend to be at the forefront of many minds. Diversity of thought is often a more important type of diversity than what might appear on the surface. Your audience may "look" and "sound" like you but have a completely different worldview. However, diversity can be challenging because the more diverse an audience, the more arduous audience analysis and accommodating one's speech to the audience become. Also, one must be sure that they truly understand the diversity of a group. For example, it is assumed that all Arabic speakers are Muslims; however, persons of Lebanese and Palestinian background may be of a Christian faith. Likewise, many erroneously equate Muslims with Arab speakers and people of Arabic experience, but the most prominent Muslim majority country is Indonesia.

"Latino" is a broad term that involves many distinct cultures that often observe or utilize very different customs, holidays, political views, foods, and practices. The historical experience of African Americans is not that of Afro-Caribbeans. A white person from South Africa considers herself "African," although we in the U.S. might scratch our heads at that because of how we traditionally think of "African." The more one can study cross-cultural communication issues; the more sensitive one can become. Of course, it is impossible to know every culture intimately; some of us are still working on learning our own! One should recognize the primary ways that cultures are categorized or grouped based on specific characteristics while at the same time appreciating cultural uniqueness. Even more, appreciating cultural identity leads one to see predominant communication styles.

Public speaking exists in the context of the debate, with two opposing views being presented either for one side to “win” or for the audience to choose a compromised, hybrid position. Other cultures have traditionally taken a more narrative communication mode, with storytelling being how vital information is indirectly conveyed. Others value group discussion and keeping the group’s harmony, while others value elders' advice in decision making. They believe the past and those who have experienced more of it have wisdom and are worthy of more respect.

Implications

What does all this mean to you, a college student taking a public speaking class? As emerging technology makes communicating with people worldwide more accessible and familiar, there is a good chance you might find yourself communicating or interacting with persons from other cultures in your future careers. The ten following items should help you begin to navigate any such situations more effectively.

1. Dealing with persons of other cultures may mean that the straightforward, supposedly “rational” approach expected from traditional public speaking may be too forceful for different cultures. More descriptive, narrative, and relational forms of communication may be of service. As mentioned, stories may be your most potent communication, especially with audiences of diverse cultures. At the same time, choose your stories carefully.
2. Primarily, recognize the underlying values of the culture. The weight and place of the family stand out here. You would want to respect parents and grandparents in everything you say; if you cannot do that, do not mention them. Other values may have to do with how genders are treated, modesty in clothing, or criticism of the government.
3. Do not jump to judge speakers of other cultures by Western standards. Time limits are a good example. While this book stresses speaking within time limits, a speaker from a high-context culture may not see strict time limits as a standard for speaking and may go overtime.
4. Know your audience. Know what they appreciate (positive) and what would concern them (negative).
5. Approach humor very carefully. Humor is highly contextual, personal, and cultural. Test your humor on a group representative before the presentation.
6. Show knowledge of their culture. If speaking to an audience made up predominantly of persons who speak a specific language, learning a greeting or phrase in that language is a way to gain rapport. You could also use appropriate holiday references. Two presidents known for their oratorical abilities used this technique. When John F. Kennedy spoke in Berlin in 1963, he famously said, “Ich bin ein Berliner.” (Although many have claimed he was telling the equivalent of “I am a Danish pastry” instead of “I am a person from Berlin,” that myth has been debunked.) Either way, it did not matter; the crowd appreciated it. Ronald Reagan did much the same at the beginning of his historic “Tear Down This Wall” speech at the Brandenburg Gate in 1986. His accent was not great, but his grammar and message were clear.

7. If the group is diverse, don't leave out or marginalize someone by assuming all share the same values or practices.
8. Never "tokenize" someone by drawing attention to their differences, at least not without permission.
9. Use the term preferred by the group to refer to them. Not all persons of Latin American descent want to be called "Latino/a," according to the Pew Research Center (Lopez, 2013). More prefer Hispanic, the term used by the U.S. Census Bureau since 1970. Recently the term "Latinx" has been created to be gender neutral.
10. Always seek commonalities over differences.

Conclusion

Whenever we encounter someone, we notice similarities and differences. While both are important, the differences are often highlighted and contribute to communication troubles. We don't only see similarities and differences on an individual level. We also place people into in-groups and out-groups based on our perceived similarities and differences. This is important because we tend to react to someone we perceive as a member of an out-group based on the characteristics; we attach to the group rather than the individual (Allen, 2011). In these situations, it is more likely that stereotypes and prejudice will influence our communication. Learning about difference and its matters will help us be more competent communicators. The flip side of emphasizing difference is to claim that no differences exist and that you see everyone as a human being.

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Material in this chapter was adapted from the works listed below. The material was edited for tone, content, and localization.

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