PREPARE, PRACTICE, AND PERFORM

Public Speaking for the 21st Century

Prepare, Practice and Perform: Public Speaking for the 21st Century

Figure 0.0: Microphones at the Podium[1]

An Open Education Resources Publication by College of the Canyons

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Table of Contents

Foreword

Textbook writing, like teaching, is a labor of love, and that is what this project has been for the authors of *Prepare, Practice and Perform: Public Speaking for the 21st Century*. Our goal was to create a more abbreviated and streamlined textbook that would engage our beginning public speaking students. Whether you are an instructor, or a student reading this, you probably know textbook prices can be one of the primary reasons students don't continue their studies. It is hard to believe, but the prices of textbooks have increased so much in recent years that the prices are untenable for beginning students. Therefore, we hope by developing this student-friendly, approachable, and completely open-sourced OER, you will use this text and/or modify as you see fit for your higher education institution.

Between the five authors of this textbook, we have over 100 years of experience teaching at both community college and university levels. Most instructors can teach public speaking without the use of a textbook or notes, which is why we decided to write this book "from our experience." We hope the shorter chapters will help our students get the most important aspects of public speaking and not get bogged down or overwhelmed. We really want them to read! This textbook is meant to start the conversation; students will be able to easily grasp the concepts, and then the professor can solidify the understanding in class.

This project has been supported by College of the Canyons and Oxnard College in the Southern California area. We are grateful to the OER team and leadership at College of the Canyons for their assistance in making this project happen. Specifically, we would like to thank James Glapa-Grossklag, Dean of Education Technology, Learning Resources and Distance Education; Joy Shoemate, Director of Online Education; Chloe McGinley, Online Education Coordinator; and Alexa Johnson, OER/ZTC Specialist, for their immense support. In addition, we want to thank Dr. Dianne Van Hook, Chancellor and President of College of the Canyons, and Mr. Luis Sanchez, President of Oxnard College, for their willingness to dedicate resources to make OERs possible and accessible for students.

Finally, we would like to thank our partners who supported us as we worked together for months during evenings and weekends. We deserted them entirely so that we could write and edit together. For us, this has been one of the highlights of our careers; being able to "talk shop" and eat chocolate, helped us form even deeper relationships with one another. We had a great time! *Communication* was the best part of this fulfilling journey.

About the Authors

Author	About
Amy Fara Edwards, Ed.D.	Dr. Amy F. Edwards is a full-time, tenured, Communication Studies (COMM) professor at Oxnard College (OC), in Southern California. She has been teaching all types and levels of COMM courses since 1999. Amy is one of two full-time faculty in the COMM department in Oxnard, CA making her responsible for much of the COMM discipline, related events, and projects. Amy has also been extremely successful in outlining, organizing, facilitating, and recruiting for OC's bi-annual, Intramural Speech Tournament for the past 15 years. Amy is a member of the National Communication Association (NCA) and the Western States Communication Association (WSCA) with most of her work focused in the community college interest group. She has served on the Executive Council for WSCA and works closely with the associations to stay current in the field and allow for collective learning and collaboration, which, in turn, makes her a better professor. In 2016, Amy earned her Doctorate of Education in Educational Leadership, a Masters (2001) and Bachelors (1998) in Communication Studies from California State University, Northridge, and is immensely grateful for her professors, mentors, and colleagues along the way. Amy is also active in the Academic Senate, currently serving as the President with multiple years as Vice-President and Secretary. Her role on the Senate gives her a unique perspective on faculty life. Participating and contributing to the writing and editing of this OER has been a labor of love. Her goal for this OER is for students to become more competent, effective, and confident communicators from the beginning of their academic careers. Amy is always student-centered and this OER is written with the student in mind in every sentence.

Author	About
	In her spare time, Amy likes spending time with her husband, Guy, and chasing her cats, Winston and Rusty, and loves to sing, knit, read, listen to true crime podcasts, and dance to 90s music.

Author	About
Marcia Fulkerson, M.A. 	Marcia Fulkerson is a full-time, tenured faculty member at Oxnard College in Southern California. She earned her Bachelor's and Master's Degrees from the San Diego State University (SDSU) Communication program. That program inspired her to consistently examine how people send, receive, and make sense of the messages around them. She earned her Bachelor's (2000) in International and Intercultural Communication and her Master's (2003) in Health Communication. Her qualitative research focused on the communication surrounding stigmatic aspects of health and identity. Marcia began teaching while at SDSU, and was driven to teach and coach right from the start. In 2008, she became involved in competitive Forensics at the community college level, and in 2010, she served concurrently as Director of Forensics, and as a Co-Coach for two different community college teams. Both teams competed at local, state, and national tournaments in IE's, Policy Debate, Parliamentary Debate, and World's School Debate. Marcia is also involved in service at her college and in the discipline. At Oxnard College, she is active on many campus committees including Academic Senate serving as a Senator and Senate Secretary. Regionally, she is also an active member of the Western States Communication Association (WSCA) serving in the Community College Interest Group (CCIG) as CCIG Communications Director, Vice-Chair, and Incoming Chair. In 2022, she began work as a member of the WSCA Publications Committee recruiting and hiring journal editors.

Author	About
	Marcia has taught at 10 community colleges in the San Diego and Los Angeles areas gaining experience in different college environments teaching very diverse student populations. She has taught Public Speaking, Interpersonal Communication, Intercultural Communication, Argumentation, Voice and Articulation, and Pronunciation courses. During that time, Marcia used many different public speaking textbooks, and became frustrated with textbooks that students could not relate to and therefore did not read. She also saw students' financial anxiety as they navigated the highly competitive used textbook market. Marcia began to see OER as a solution to these challenges. She believes OER helps put the focus back on meeting students where they are and teaching them from there. For her, the opportunity to contribute and collaborate on this OER writing team has been an incredibly rewarding experience. Marcia is passionate about teaching and believes that helping students become more efficient and effective communicators can improve both their personal and professional lives. She loves bearing witness to the increase in self-esteem students experience as they improve their communication skills. In Marcia's free time, she enjoys spending time with her husband, bowling, barbequing, and playing with her dogs: Her Border Collie-Belgian Shepherd, her Great Pyrenees, and her Australian Shepherd.

Author	About
Victoria Leonard, M.A. 	Victoria Leonard is a full-time tenured professor at College of the Canyons. She earned both her Bachelor's and Master's degrees from CSU, Northridge. She began teaching in 1981 at CSU, Northridge, where she taught for fourteen years. She came to College of the Canyons as a part-time instructor in 1989 and was hired full-time in 1995. Victoria began building the department, seeing the need for degree programs, and a comprehensive curriculum. She also developed the Communication Studies club and Sigma Chi Eta Honor Society and still serves as an advisor to both. Victoria served as department chair for 17 years, helping lead the department to win the Model Communication Studies Program Award for Western States Communication Association in 2009 and 2016. She was chosen as Advisor of the Year for Sigma Chi Eta in 2014. Victoria also serves on the Professional Development Committee, the Center for Excellence in Teaching and Learning Steering Committee, and she is the faculty co-chair for the Instructional Resources Committee. In the past, Victoria served on numerous other campus-wide committees during her 27 years at COC. She is the instructor for the College's non-credit course Introduction to Teaching Strategies course which allows her to help other faculty examine and hone their own teaching skills. Throughout her career, Victoria has taught almost every course in communication studies at both the upper and lower division levels. Victoria feels that communication studies is a unique major because the discipline can help students with their careers *and* their personal lives. In her passion for equity, Victoria feels that OERs can make a difference in student success. She has co-authored OERs for both public speaking and interpersonal communication. This project has been one of the most meaningful of her career. In her spare time, she enjoys reading, cooking, creating crafts, going to the theatre, chalk painting

Author	About
	furniture, and spending time with her husband, two children with their families and grandchildren, and her two Welsh terriers that kept her company throughout the pandemic!

Author	About
Lauren Rome, M.A.	Lauren Rome is an adjunct faculty member in the Communication Studies Department at both College of the Canyons and Glendale Community College in Southern California. She graduated from College of the Canyons before earning both her Bachelor's (2015) and Master's (2017) degrees in Communication Studies from California State University, Los Angeles.

Lauren began teaching at Cal State LA, and received her first chance to contribute to a custom textbook there. From this experience, she learned how important a consumable, engaging, and affordable textbook is for college students. This encouraged her to take any opportunity she could to contribute to open educational resources on campus.

In addition to her work on zero-cost textbooks, Lauren enjoys being active within the campus community. She is a co-advisor for the Communication Studies Club and Sigma Chi Eta honor society at College of the Canyons, and serves on the Academic Senate, Committee on Academic Freedom, and Instructional Resource Committee.

When Lauren isn't teaching, she loves to spend time with her family and friends, reading, and cooking! |

Author	About
Tammera Stokes Rice, M.A.	Tammera Stokes Rice is a full-time, tenured, Communication Studies professor and Chair of the Communication Studies department at College of the Canyons (COC) in Santa Clarita, California, where she began teaching over nineteen years ago. Always a communicator, Tammera first received a Bachelor of Fine Arts degree in Dance from Missouri State University in 1993, while simultaneously working for the corporate giant Wal-Mart. She pursued her dreams in Southern California where she honed her communication skills receiving a Master of Arts degree from California State University, Northridge, in 2002. Combining her love for the entertainment industry and communications, she started Stokes Rice Consulting, a public relations company, and soon found herself teaching Public Relations and Public Speaking at a local university and COC. At this point in her life, she fell in love with teaching, and the rest is history. Tammera's enthusiasm for creating zero-cost textbooks for students started back in 2016 with the first edition of a Public Speaking textbook for students at COC. She then produced OERs for the beginning Communication Theory course (Process of Communication) and Intercultural Communication. Through encouragement and eagerness, the Communication Studies department continued Tammera's passion and designed a Small Group Communication OER and a new edition of the original Public Speaking OER. With great hope, Tammera wishes this collaborative OER to be one all students, colleagues, and institutions will appreciate and enjoy. In free moments, you can find Tammera with her two children, husband of thirty years, two dogs, and 16 chickens.

Chapter 1: Introduction to Public Speaking

Tammera Stokes Rice

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- state the definition of communication.
- explain how communication occurs in different contexts.
- list and define the elements of transactional communication.
- list and define the essential elements of public speaking.
- identify the ten steps for preparing for a speech.

Figure 1.1: Official Portrait of President Barack Obama[2]

Introduction

Have you ever asked a parent for money and not received a response? Have you ever asked your boss if you can leave early from work and they just stare at you for what seemed forever? You may have asked yourself, "why aren't they communicating with me?" Well, they *are* communicating. You see, every verbal and nonverbal response is a form of communication, including silence. Doctor of Psychology and author, Paul Watzlawick (1967), points out in *Pragmatics of Human Communication: A Study of Interactional Patterns, Pathologies and Paradoxes* one of the five axioms of communication is "*One cannot* not *communicate*" (p. 48). As long as there is someone to receive the communication, we are communicating.

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[2] [Photo](#) by [janeb13](#) on [pixabay](#)

In basic terms, **communication** is the sending and receiving of messages. Does this seem too simple? If so, it's because IT IS! Of course, there is much more to the story, which is why we have an entire book and class about communication. Yet, this simple definition helps us see that we can learn the basic process of sending and receiving messages when we communicate. Throughout this text, we will learn all about the communication process in order to write and deliver a stellar speech. Let's start with the models of communication.

Models of Communication

In order to understand the process of communication, we would like to take you back to the earliest model of communication and then provide you with a more contemporary and effective model of communication. Shannon and Weaver's (1949) model of communication is the linear model. However, today we understand communication as a transactional model of communication. Let's jump in.

Shannon-Weaver Model of Communication (Linear Model)

An early model of communication widely understood in the field of communication studies is the **Shannon-Weaver Model**. The model was first developed to improve communication in technologies. Later, social scientists adopted it to understand the communication patterns between individuals. Nowadays, we use it most when we text, email, chat, blog, etc. This is a one-directional model of communication which only moves from sender to receiver without immediate feedback. However, when we give a speech to a live audience, we use a different model which we will highlight below.
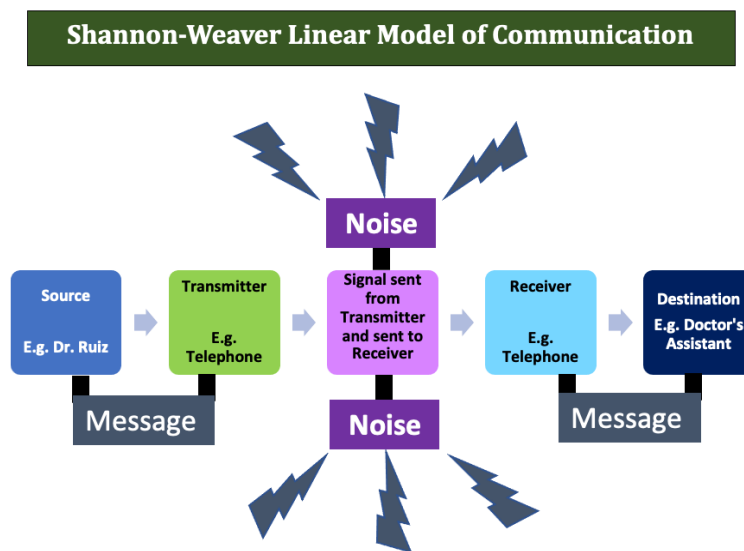
Figure 1.2: Shannon-Weaver Model[3]

[3] Graphic by Victoria Leonard licensed under CC0 1.0

Transactional Model of Communication

So, what happens when we communicate face-to-face? It is no longer one-way communication since we are sending and receiving messages simultaneously. This is called a **transactional model of communication** since there is a simultaneous exchange of messages from both the sender and receiver. When the **sender** sends a message to the receiver, the receiver receives the message as it is happening and is also sending messages back to the sender usually in the form of nonverbal communication. That was pretty simple, right? Not. Stay with us, we will get there. Nonverbal communication can include appearance, eye behavior, kinesics (body movement), proxemics (use of space), touch (haptics), time, and smell. Let's make sense of all of this.
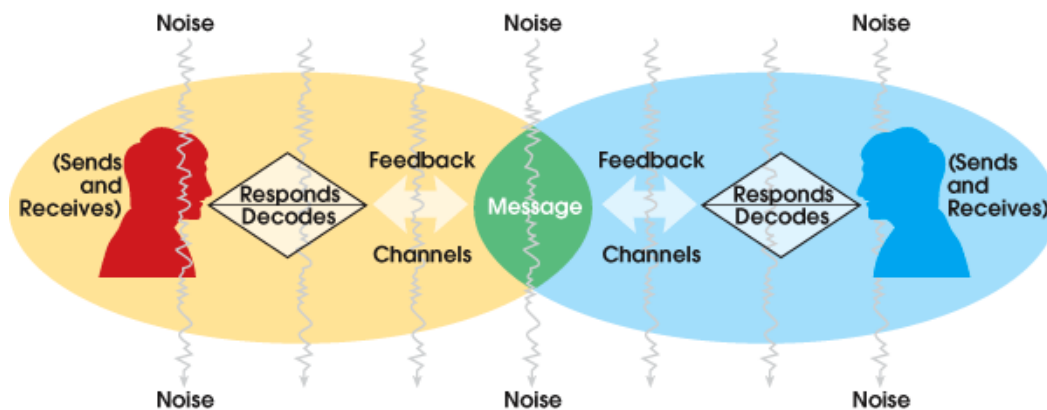
Figure 1.3: The Transactional Model of Communication[4]

There are many models Communication theorists use to understand the process; however, in this course, it is important to understand the transactional model of communication using the elements within the public speaking process. In a transactional process, two or more individuals exchange information through the assignment of meaning. What does this mean? The individuals use the elements below to give meaning to what is being said. Here are the elements:

Elements of the Transactional Model

- **Sender** – the sender is the originator of the message. In public speaking, this is the speaker.

- **Receiver** – anyone who hears or sees your message. In public speaking, this is your audience.

- **Encode** – converting ideas, thoughts, and feelings into words or actions.

- **Decode** – where the receiver interprets words or actions into meaning. Misunderstandings can occur due to issues with denotation or connotation.

- **Denotation** is the literal or dictionary definition of a word. For example, the dictionary has many definitions of the word "run." You can put on jogging attire and *run* a 5K, or you can *run* to the store for a carton of milk. Can you think of another use of the word run?

- **Connotation** is the personal, social, cultural, or emotional association the receiver has with the message. For example, you are on the freeway and a police officer turns on their lights behind you. One person sees the lights, immediately looks at their speedometer and is bummed that they are about to get a ticket for speeding. Someone else sees the lights and may immediately fear for their life because of their past trauma with police officers. The experience for each person differs based on their connotative meaning of the situation.

- **Message** – the main idea(s) the sender conveys to the listener.

- **Channel** – the medium through which the message is sent from the sender to the receiver. This can be both auditory and/or visual. Through the auditory channel, you receive spoken words, while the visual channel receives nonverbals (eye contact, body movements, facial gestures, physical appearance, space, etc.)

- **Noise** – anything that interferes with the message being encoded or decoded. Noise can be external or internal. There are four types:

  - **Physical noise** is interference from external sounds. For example, people talking, papers rustling, and doors opening and shutting.

  - **Physiological noise** is interference from internal physical state. For example, hunger, illness, or pain.

  - **Psychological noise** is interference from wandering thoughts. For example, your homework is due tomorrow and you haven't started, you are worried about getting to work later, you are worried about childcare, or you are thinking about your long to-do list.

  - **Semantic noise** is interference from misunderstood meanings. For example, one might misunderstand the "L sign" with the thumb and index finger which means "Loser" in the U.S., but in China, it means the number eight. Another example is raising your hand in a U.S. classroom means you have a question, but on the streets of New York City it is the action done to call for a cab.

- **Context** – the situation that influences the speaker, audience, and message.

- **Frame of Reference** – the lens through which you view the world that informs how we encode and decode messages.

Communication and Public Speaking

In **public speaking,** a speaker presents a specific message to a relatively large audience in a unique context. As we saw in the transactional model above, each element in public speaking depends on the other. We will outline each element of public speaking below and explain how it ties to communication. Understanding and knowing how to speak effectively in public speaking contexts is critical. Public speaking helps with a variety of academic and career skills, and also helps reduce our fear of communication while building self-confidence.

Figure 1.4: Robert Kennedy Rally Speech[5]

Essential Elements of Public Speaking

There are five essential elements of public speaking. Understanding each of these will provide students with a basic understanding of public communication. Each of the elements must be considered as you craft your speech.

- **Speaker** – the person who sends a *message* to the audience.

- **Audience** – listeners who are *actively* involved in receiving the message from the speaker (See chapter 5).

- **Context** – the situation that *influences* the speaker, audience, and message. There are three types:

    - **Socio-psychological context** – the relationship between the speaker and the audience.

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[5] Photo by Library of Congress is in the public domain

- o **Temporal context** – time of day and where the speech fits into the sequence of events.

- o **Cultural context** – the collection of beliefs, attitudes, values, and ways of behaving shared by a group of people.

- **Delivery** – the methods used to send the message to the audience (See chapter 8). There are four methods to deliver a speech:

  - o **Impromptu** – There is little to no preparation for this method. Some examples include a spur-of-the-moment toast at an event or the first day of class introductions.

  - o **Memory** – This method is when you memorize a speech and then deliver it exactly as rehearsed. Examples of this method include a student on the speech and debate team or actors that memorize their lines.

  - o **Manuscript** – This method is a word-for-word iteration of a written message. Examples of this include sportscasters and politicians who read from a teleprompter.

  - o **Extemporaneous** – This method is when presentations are researched, prepared for, and rehearsed. It is a planned, conversational, and natural style. This is the typical method used in college classrooms, yet also popular for political addresses and classroom lectures.

- **Ethics** – both the speaker and the audience have an ethical obligation to one another. The speaker needs to be credible and truthful, use sources, and verify all sources used within the speech. Further, the audience members need to be respectful and good listeners (See chapter 2).

Ten Steps for Preparing a Speech

Now that we have discussed the foundational elements, it is time to turn toward the steps for speech success. Next, you will find a list of ten steps that are designed to provide an overview of the main functions of speechmaking, all of which will be applied in this class. When you follow these ten steps, you are likely to succeed. We will go into further detail about each step in the upcoming chapters. This is a preview:

1. Determine your audience and why you are speaking. (See chapter 5)

2. Select your topic and identify your general and specific purpose. (See chapter 6)

3. Develop your thesis (central idea). (See chapter 6)

4. Research your topic and gather supporting materials. (See chapter 10)

5. Begin your preparation outline by building and supporting your main points using an organizational pattern. (See chapter 6)

6. Consider your use of language in relation to your audience, ethics, topic, and occasion. (See chapters 2 and 4)

7. Construct your introduction, conclusion, and transitions. (See chapter 7)

8. Finalize and review your final preparation outline.

9. Create your speaking outline and presentation aids. (See chapter 9)

10. Practice your speech delivery. (See chapters 3 and 8)

Conclusion

This first chapter explained how communication is the sending and receiving of messages as a transactional process. Public Speaking consists of eight major elements and each element depends on the other making it a transactional process of communication. This book is organized to assist students in creating excellent speeches. In the upcoming chapters, we will cover each of the public speaking steps and the different types of public speeches. By the end of this text, you will be ready to prepare your first speech.

Reflection Questions

1. What did you learn about the communication process that you think will help you in this class and in your future career?

2. Can you think of someone who you have seen do a speech that had particularly effective or ineffective communication skills? What aspects of the communication process do you think this speaker did or did not use?

3. How have differences in connotation led to any misunderstandings you may have had with someone? How can you look at feedback as a possible way to avoid any misunderstanding in the future?

4. Are there any aspects of noise have you found to be problematic within your own communication?

Key Terms

Audience	Extemporaneous	Public speaking
Channel	Frame of Reference	Receiver
Communication	Impromptu	Semantic Noise
Connotation	Linear Model	Sender
Context	Manuscript	Socio-psychological
Cultural Context	Memory	Context
Decode	Message	Speaker
Delivery	Noise	Temporal Context
Denotation	Physical Noise	Transactional Model
Encode	Physiological Noise	
Ethics	Psychological Noise	

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Chapter 2: Ethics

Lauren Rome

> **LEARNING OBJECTIVES**
>
> *After reading this chapter, you should be able to:*
> - define ethics.
> - explain the importance of ethics in public speaking.
> - evaluate the ethical responsibilities of a speaker.
> - define and explain plagiarism.
> - explain the ethical responsibilities of the listener.

Figure 2.1: Ethics[6]

Introduction

The explosion of the internet and the constant presence of media have made it impossible to avoid receiving messages. We see messages when we look on social media, when we attend class, when we watch the news, and even when we talk to our friends. I'm willing to bet you haven't once asked yourself, "are these messages ethical?" And why would you? We don't tend to live our lives constantly asking ourselves that question. We do, however, ask ourselves if we believe and agree with the information. Both of these questions correspond to the principles of ethical public speaking. Throughout this chapter, we will examine ethics in public speaking, and how it relates to your upcoming speeches.

The Importance of Ethics

When it comes to public speaking, your goal is to communicate a message to your audience. In many cases, this could mean you are simply conveying information and sharing knowledge; other times this could mean you're actively persuading your audience to change their minds,

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[6] [Image](#) by [Teodoraturovic](#) is licensed [CC BY-SA 4.0](#)

behaviors, or beliefs. As the person communicating the message, you are tasked with a significant ethical dilemma, whether you are aware of it or not.

In general, **ethics** examines what society deems as issues of morality, such as what is right, fair, or just. When looking at ethics from a personal standpoint, it guides how you "should" behave in various situations. History is ripe with great speakers who used ethical and passionate messages to make a positive impact or bring people together. Some examples include Martin Luther King Jr., Malala Yousafzai, Mohandas Gandhi, and Maya Angelou. On the other hand, there are cases of notorious speakers who used the power of public speech unethically, bringing about chaos, destruction, or heartbreak. Infamous speakers like Adolf Hitler, Benito Mussolini, Vladimir Putin, and Joseph McCarthy serve as stark reminders of the harm of unethical public speech.

Ethical Responsibilities of the Speaker

When choosing to use your voice in a public setting, you will face many ethical considerations because you are speaking to actual people, the audience. As such, you need to make careful decisions when determining your goal, your word choice, how you will accomplish your goal, and giving credit where it is due. Ultimately, ethics in public speaking is about conveying messages honestly, thoughtfully, and responsibly.

Identify Your Speech Goals

Ethics places emphasis on the *means* used to secure the goal, rather than on achieving the goal itself. Any audience will be more receptive to your message if you use ethical standards to determine your speech goals. Think about why you are speaking to the audience and what you hope to accomplish. This will allow you to choose the most ethical strategies for achieving your goal.

Have you ever tried asking someone for a favor? Maybe you needed your sibling or roommate to take out the trash. The goal is to get them to complete the task for you, but what method will you use to accomplish this goal? One way may be to explain how busy you are working on an outline for your upcoming speech. Another example would be to strike a deal and offer to take the trash out twice in a row. Finally, you could guilt them into taking out the trash because they borrowed your computer last week. Any method has the potential to bring about the result, but I'm sure you're able to identify which path feels the least ethical; no one likes to be guilted into doing something.

Send Honest Messages

Have you ever heard the saying "honesty is the best policy?" Although this is most often associated with people telling lies, it also applies to the messages you choose to send in your speeches. Ethical speakers do not deceive their audience. Instead, they present verifiable and

researched facts. Ethical speakers should not disguise opinions as fact. All content must come from a place of authenticity. Authenticity builds credibility.

Credibility is your authority on a subject and your currency as a speaker. It's something that is built through your words and actions. Credibility can become damaged when it is revealed you have either lied or even just slightly bent the truth in your speeches. Once lost or damaged, credibility is nearly impossible to recover or repair. Treasure it.

Choose Language Carefully

It might be obvious you're going to use words to communicate messages. Less obvious, is the significance these words hold for your diverse audience who are the focus of your speech. Oftentimes, the speaker thinks of themselves in speechmaking, however, you should be focused on the audience at all times.

Speaking ethically involves striving to use inclusive language, aimed at making all listeners feel represented in the language of the speech. At a minimum, **inclusive language** avoids the use of words that may exclude or disrespect particular groups of people. For example, avoiding gender-specific terms like "man" or "mankind." Inclusive language also avoids statements that express or imply ideas that are sexist, racist, otherwise biased, prejudiced, or denigrating to any particular group of people. Even if the speaker means well, certain terms, especially around attributes of identity, can be interpreted as offensive, hurtful, outdated, or inappropriate.

Avoid Plagiarism

When we speak ethically, we use our own original speech content. Now, that doesn't mean you have to come up with the facts and evidence on your own, after all, this isn't a statistics class! Just as with any other research project, you must give appropriate credit for the sources used. A good rule of thumb is, "if you didn't write it, cite it!" When you cite your sources, you avoid **plagiarism**, which is passing off other people's work as your own. Plagiarism can have serious consequences, like failing an assignment, failing a course, or even being kicked out of the educational institution. This occurs in two ways: intentional plagiarism and unintentional plagiarism.

Figure 2.2: Bush Aide Resigns Over Plagiarism[7]

Intentional plagiarism is when a speaker purposefully uses content that is not their own. The most egregious example is when someone steals an entire speech or paper and just slaps on their name. Some other instances of intentional plagiarism include: when someone fabricates sources or quotes; strategically changes a few words from a source without citing it (proper paraphrasing requires more than just changing a few words from the original source); or purposefully adds sources to their references that they didn't use.

Something that happens more commonly is **unintentional plagiarism**, which occurs inadvertently. Think about what we mentioned at the beginning of the chapter, with how we are constantly taking in messages. Watching a documentary on *Netflix* does not make you an expert. Although it may be a great place to start building your knowledge, it doesn't mean it is your intellectual property. That information still came from a source (the documentary), and you'll need to cite it. Unintentional plagiarism can also occur if we use the same paper for two different classes, quote a source incorrectly, or fail to properly introduce an idea we've learned from someone else.

It doesn't matter whether you meant to be intentional or unintentional, plagiarism is still unethical and can have serious consequences. To avoid plagiarism, spend time conducting quality research, keep track of your research, and don't forget to orally cite your sources in the delivery of your speech.

Be Prepared to Speak

Speech preparation entails picking and researching a topic, analyzing your audience, organizing your main points, creating visual aids, and practicing your delivery. You prepare so that your speech can have the greatest impact. As a speaker, it is your responsibility to consider the

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[7] Screenshot by Steve Garfield is licensed CC BY-NC-SA 2.0

impact of your speech and to ensure you are communicating truthful, accurate, and appropriate information. From an ethical standpoint, preparation is crucial to ensure you are thoroughly informed about your topic and allows you to convey a sense of credibility to your audience.

Ethical Responsibilities of the Listener

As you've seen throughout this chapter, careful consideration is taken by the speaker to craft a thoughtful and developed speech for their audience. In return, the audience should also behave ethically. When thinking about these responsibilities, identify the expectations you have for an audience when you're speaking. Do you want them to listen with an open mind? Pay attention to you? Demonstrate respect? Of course, you do, but let's be honest for a second…do *you* always listen to messages that way? It is really easy to say we are listening ethically, but this can be harder to apply when we are distracted or unprepared for listening. If this sounds like you, there are several strategies covered in chapter 4.

Figure 2.3: Ethics Committee[8]

Be Prepared to Listen

When you find yourself seated in an audience about to listen to a speaker, how do you prepare? Do you tell yourself that you will be actively listening to the speaker for a certain number of minutes? Do you remind yourself to listen with an open mind? Or, do you sit there on your phone, mindlessly scrolling social media? Only one of these examples is common practice, but the others can make a huge difference in how much you take away from a speech. By telling yourself you are committed to listening to the speaker, you won't be inclined to give in to distractions, or let your mind wander.

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[8] Photo by Nick Youngson licensed CC BY-SA 3.0

Avoid Prejudging and Keep an Open Mind

Unless you are watching a recorded video of a speech, you will never see or hear the same speech twice. Take it from us public speaking teachers who have heard the same speech topic countless times. Even if you *think* you know what the speaker is going to say, or you *think* you know more about a topic than the speaker, you can *always* learn something new. If you spend any time thinking about anything other than listening, you are bound to miss valuable information that will make you an ill-informed listener.

Be Courteous and Pay Attention

It's simple: treat others how you would like to be treated. Who do you want to see when *you* are speaking to an audience? Be that person. Pay attention to your body language when sitting in an audience. What do you consider ethical body language?

Providing Feedback

If you are in a public speaking class, you will likely be asked to provide your classmates with feedback on their speeches. Of course, you have to be paying attention if you are going to ethically provide feedback. Saying "Great job!" or "You did great" is not ethical feedback. Providing feedback to your classmates means that you are supplying them with useful comments about things they did well and/or things they could make stronger in future speeches.

Conclusion

At the end of this chapter, we hope you see the importance of ethics as it pertains to public speaking. Ethics impacts the speaker and the audience, alike. Being honest, thoughtful, respectful, and prepared are the key ingredients to being an ethical public speaker. It is up to you to build your credibility and be a strong speaker. It may not be easy to be ethical, but it is *right*.

Reflection Questions

1. What current speakers have you heard speak that you felt were particularly ethical in their speech and why?

2. Have you ever questioned the credibility of a speaker? What did they say that made you question their ethics?

3. What do you know about plagiarism now that you didn't know before?

4. Which aspects of being an ethical listener do you hope to achieve in this class?

Key Terms

Credibility	Inclusive language	Plagiarism
Ethics	Intentional Plagiarism	Unintentional Plagiarism

Chapter 3: Speaking with Confidence

Lauren Rome

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- define communication apprehension.
- compare and contrast some sources of communication apprehension.
- explain the myths commonly associated with public speaking.
- identify and apply strategies for reducing your own communication apprehension.

Figure 3.1: You Got This[9]

Introduction

Picture this: it's the first day of class and your professor is going over the syllabus. You find out that you'll have to give a final presentation at the end of the semester. Does your heart start racing? Do you consider dropping the course? If you answered yes, then you are not alone. Many people fear public speaking, with some even citing this as their worst fear…even more than death! Although we might not be thrilled about it, we are going to have to speak to people in different capacities throughout our lives. You will have coworkers, family, friends, and acquaintances, all of which you'll be communicating with, in some form or another.

In order to effectively communicate, we need to understand what is triggering our fears surrounding speaking and identify strategies for reducing the anxiety we feel. Throughout this

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[9] Photo by Sydney Rey on Unsplash

chapter, we will explore the basics of communication apprehension, common myths associated with public speaking, and how to reduce the effects of communication apprehension.

Communication Apprehension

According to Professor James McCroskey (1982), **communication apprehension** is a broad term used to describe "the anxiety or fear related to real or anticipated communication with others" (p.137). While communication apprehension is most commonly associated with public speaking, it can also be the anxiety associated with speaking to a small group, or just to one person.

Ultimately, everyone experiences different levels of communication apprehension when it comes to public speaking. Maybe you feel a gripping fear just being enrolled in a public speaking course, or you feel a slight knot in your stomach right before you give a speech. No matter what level of communication apprehension you feel, there are many ways to explain where it stems from, and strategies you can use to reduce its effects.

Identifying Sources of Communication Apprehension

Think back to the story at the beginning of the chapter. If you related to feeling anxious just at the thought of giving a speech, did you take time to think about *why* you felt that way? It's easy to identify when we experience a feeling, but it's a lot harder to think about the underlying cause of that feeling. To better understand why we feel anxious about public speaking we first have to determine the source of communication apprehension.

- **Inexperience** – There is a reason why public speaking is one of the first classes you're advised to take in college. If you've never taken a class on it, how will you know how to execute it effectively? Just like with any other class (math, computer science, cooking, auto technology, etc.), you need to learn the skills before you can apply them.

- **Unrealistic expectations** – When we think about giving a speech, we put a lot of pressure on ourselves. We expect our speeches to "be perfect." But, expecting perfection is an unrealistic goal, even if you're an experienced public speaker. Preparation, you'll soon learn, is drastically different from perfection, and is a much more attainable goal.

- **Previous experiences** – I have heard countless stories from students who have had bad experiences when it comes to past performances like embarrassment, a bad grade, memory lapse, etc. You might attribute these bad experiences not only to unrealistic expectations but also to a lack of preparation. Typically, trauma doesn't repeat itself if you prepare. Lack of preparation tends to be the culprit of the trauma.

- **Overthinking** – This last source of apprehension encompasses many of the underlying fears we have about public speaking. So often, students tell themselves that the

audience is looking at them and judging them when they are speaking. Or, they think they might make a mistake and that means they've ruined their speech. All of these internal thoughts are actually myths (soon to be debunked) that just add unnecessary pressure on the speaker. Let's avoid mental gymnastics! Any time spent thinking about things other than speech preparation will add to the apprehension you're feeling.

Many of these sources of apprehension aren't grounded in reality. Next, we will debunk many of the myths and misconceptions about public speaking. Then, we will give you strategies you can apply to reduce your apprehension.

Common Public Speaking Myths

Every semester, students express their concerns associated with public speaking, whether these are "tips" they've heard from friends or misconceptions they've been led to believe. Many of the common concerns identified are entirely made up in their own heads or, upon closer inspection, can be easily explained by other factors. Let's take a look at the most frequently cited concerns among beginner speakers.

"You will look as nervous as you feel." Simply put, *no one* will know you're nervous unless you *tell us*. Any and all physiological responses to nerves, a flushed face, sweat, or shaking hands, might be attributed to outside factors. Maybe you just had to jog up a flight of stairs or you had too much coffee. Some of the most effective speakers will return to their seats after their speech and exclaim they were so nervous. Listeners will respond, "I had no idea!" Audiences do not necessarily perceive our fears. Consequently, don't apologize for your nerves. In fact, don't even mention it. There is a good chance the audience won't notice if you don't point it out to them.

"Audiences are just sitting there judging you." In general, students in a public speaking class will be able to empathize with you in a way that you might not see in any other kind of class. In a public speaking class, your audience is in the exact same position as you. They want you to succeed! Similarly, in most situations, audiences are actively choosing to be there, or are present because it is relevant to them. In these cases, the information is their focus; they will be listening, not judging.

"Any mistake means that you have 'blown it.'" Have you ever said the wrong word when speaking? I can attest to mixing up words every now and then. Recently, I was trying to say, "informative speech workshop sheet" to my class, but instead, I said, "informative speech worksheet shop." That didn't make much sense, of course, so I paused and corrected my words before moving on. Mistakes like this happen *all the time*, which is part of what makes us human. What matters isn't whether we make a mistake, but how well we recover. A speech does not have to be perfect. Speakers who can identify when they've made a mistake and work to correct that misspoken word or information are demonstrating two things: first, you're a human – yay! Second, you are a *present* speaker. Being present in your speeches allows you to connect with your audience and ensures you are effective in communicating your message.

"Avoid speech anxiety by memorizing your speech word for word." Contrary to popular belief, memorizing your speech word for word is not required, and has a greater potential to *increase* your anxiety. Instead of having a strong general understanding of the information you want to share and allowing yourself flexibility in word choice, memorizing adds unnecessary pressure to say things in a precise way. This can impact your delivery, making your speech sound robotic, monotone, or come out of your mouth at warp speed. In reality, your audience has no expectations of what you plan to say and would prefer a more natural, and engaged speaker rather than a robotic, calculated speaker.

"Imagine the audience is naked." Just. Don't. Do. This. It is not going to help you, and in fact, will take away from where your focus should be: your speech! The audience is not some abstract image in your mind. It consists of real individuals who you can connect with through your material. To "imagine" the audience is to misdirect your focus from the real people in front of you to an "imagined" group. What we imagine is usually more threatening than the reality that we face.

"A little nervousness helps you give a better speech." This "myth" is actually true! Professional speakers, actors, and other performers consistently rely on the heightened arousal of nervousness to channel extra energy into their performance. People would much rather listen to a speaker who is alert and enthusiastic than one who is relaxed to the point of boredom. Many professional speakers say that the day they stop feeling nervous is the day they should stop speaking in public. The goal is to control those nerves and channel them into your presentation.

Reducing Public Speaking Anxiety

Experiencing some nervousness about public speaking is completely normal. Whether you are worried about doing your best, not messing up, or effectively communicating your message, it means one thing: you care! To help reduce any apprehension you may be feeling, we have categorized these strategies into three main parts: Prepare, Practice, and Present.

Prepare: Setting Up for Success!

We all know that we have to prepare for day-to-day activities. We set goals and expectations, do research, and/or write a to-do list. Think about when you prepare for a trip. You don't just show up at the airport and buy a plane ticket; you plan the trip. Let's connect this to public speaking. Preparing is adapting; here's how:

- **Set realistic expectations** – Thinking that perfection is an option, means you're setting yourself up for failure. Aiming for perfection doesn't allow for mistakes, which means if they happen, you won't be prepared for them. So, set realistic expectations. For example, don't expect that you're going to research and write your speech in one day.

Change your mindset and embrace the fact that you are going to speak and take control of your preparation.

- **Know your audience** – Thinking about who you are speaking to will help you in choosing a topic and finding ways to connect with them. (See more in chapter 5)

- **Organize your ideas** – Unfortunately, you won't have unlimited time to speak to an audience. This means you have to find a focus for your speech and determine what you want to say. (See more in chapter 6)

- **Don't procrastinate writing your outline** – Procrastinating will only add to your anxiety and can sometimes even be the cause. Remember, your outline is a work in progress; you are meant to edit and revise throughout the process. Don't let this hang you up.

- **Prepare well** – There is a direct connection between how nervous you feel and how much you've prepared. Plan to spend time preparing and practicing your speech as these are two of the strongest ways to minimize apprehension and anxiety.

Practice: Just Do it!

Yes, a plan can reduce your initial anxiety, but practicing can have an immediate effect and give your confidence a quick boost. Here is a practicing to-do list:

- **Recreate the speech environment** – As best you can, imitate the environment in which you'll be speaking. (See chapter 8)

- **Visualize success** – Imagine yourself giving the speech successfully, rather than imagining all of the mental gymnastics. Stop overthinking!

- **Practice out loud** – Say your speech out loud when rehearsing. The first time you deliver your speech out loud should *not* be when you are officially delivering your speech in class. You might even voice or video record it to hear how it sounds. (See chapter 8)

- **Minimize what you memorize** – Memorizing doesn't work, but you can memorize the first two sentences of your introduction if you think it will help you get started when you step up in front of the audience. After those two sentences, you need to merge into a more natural speaking style.

Perform: It's Game Time!

You've prepared, you've practiced, and you're ready to go. Here are some simple strategies to employ right before and during your speech delivery.

- **Nervousness isn't visible** – Keep in mind that most listeners won't even be aware of your anxiety. They often don't see what *you* thought was glaringly obvious.

- **Channel your energy** – There is no physiological difference between nervousness and excitement; it's all in how you define it. Tell yourself you are excited and looking forward to sharing this important information. Allow your natural body responses to help you be a more natural and dynamic speaker.

- **Think positively** – Have you ever heard of a **self-fulfilling prophecy**? What you expect to happen may be exactly what does happen. So remind yourself that you are well-prepared. Then, imagine yourself speaking clearly and effortlessly. Remember, you are an expert on your topic! You're going to share fascinating information with them.

- **Focus on the message rather than fear** – It is easy to focus on fear, but it will make you *more* fearful! Trust us, if you continue to think about *what* you are saying rather than *how* you are saying it, you will take control of your anxiety.

- **Breathe** – Remind yourself that you are calm and in control of the situation and be sure to take a deep breath whenever necessary. Even just sitting in your chair during class and taking slow and deep breaths can help calm your body. *In through your nose, and out through your mouth….*

- **Embrace eye contact** – You might think, "everyone is going to be staring at me and judging me." Instead, remember that everyone is looking at you because they are actually listening and interested in what you have to say. (And their professor told them to!) Find a couple of friendly faces and focus on them. If they're sending positive energy your way, grab it!

- **Fake it until you make it** – You might think this too good to be true, but it can work for beginners. You know what a strong public speaker looks and sounds like, so be what you know you can be!

- **Try power posing** – This life "hack" is where you pose your body in powerful positions; standing tall, hands on your hips, head up, feet wide, and making yourself appear large and powerful. Putting yourself in what *you* define as a powerful stance can make you feel more powerful and confident. So stand up and do it. Yes, right now!

Figure 3.2: Power Posing[10]

- **Be yourself** – The most important rule for communicating effectively is to be yourself. The emphasis should be on the sharing of ideas, not on the performance. Strive to be as genuine and natural as you are when you speak to family members and friends. Lean *in* to what you already know how to do.

Conclusion

Are you feeling more confident yet? We hope so. In this chapter, we defined communication apprehension and different sources that create anxiety. We also discussed strategies to help you combat these anxieties; some big, and some small. These are all things you already know how to do. It is as simple as thinking positively and visualizing success. All of these elements can be used right now, today, and really can change your attitude towards public speaking. Remember, nervousness when speaking in public is normal. It is how you manage it that moves you from a novice speaker to an experienced one. Remember: breathe in and breathe out.

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[10] Photo by Erik Hersman from Flickr licensed CC BY 2.0

Reflection Questions

1. How does your body respond to communication apprehension?

2. Which of the sources of communication apprehension have you experienced? In what ways can you reframe those negative thoughts to turn anxiety upside down?

3. Were you surprised by any of the common myths? Why?

4. What is your strategy for reducing communication apprehension? How might you use a calendar or planner to set yourself up for success?

Key Terms

Communication Apprehension

Self-fulfilling Prophecy

Reference

McCroskey, J. C. (1982). Oral Communication Apprehension: A Reconceptualization. *Communication Yearbook, 136–170.*

Chapter 4: Listening Effectively

Victoria Leonard

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- describe the five stages of the listening process.
- explain the functions of listening.
- define the four styles of listening.
- identify barriers to effective listening.
- describe ways to become a better listener.

Figure 4.1: Listening [11]

Introduction

I remember sitting in a biology class in college. The professor was lecturing about genetics, and I was paying attention because I found the topic very interesting. The student next to me was reading a novel and the professor appeared to key in on this. At one point the professor asked the student "Why are genes important?" Her response was, "Because they are more comfortable." I think you can see that *not* listening can impact your credibility as well as your ability to succeed in school!

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[11] Photo by Saeed Karimi on unsplash

Understanding Listening

Listening may seem like a natural skill, but there is much more to this communicative act than appears on the surface. To help you improve your listening skills, it requires that you have a better understanding of why listening is so important and what is involved in the listening process.

The Importance of Listening

One of the most challenging areas of communication is listening. As communicators, we spend a lot of time thinking about what we want to say and the best way to say it and not enough time listening. We may spend as much as 70 - 80% of our day in some type of communicative act, and research specifically shows that adults spend about 45 - 55 percent of their day listening (Hargie, 2021). Whether you are listening in class, at work, or to friends, this form of communication takes up much of our day. Listening allows us to learn new information, connect with others, and learn about ourselves. But we are not born with this skill. As you read this chapter you will gain insight into the complexities of the listening process and be able to identify your listening styles and challenges. Becoming a better listener will allow you to become a more productive student, a better relational partner, and a more successful professional.

The Listening Process

Hearing is the physiological process of taking in sound. Whether you hear a thunderstorm or music, when sound waves hit your ears, your brain enables you to make sense of what you heard. **Listening** is an active process where we make sense of, interpret, and respond to, the messages we receive. Listening requires mindfulness. **Mindfulness** means being present, in the moment, and focusing on whatever verbal and nonverbal communication you are encountering. Think of mindfulness as being the center of the listening process.

Stages of the Listening Process

As we go through the six stages of listening, keep in mind that mindfulness should be at the heart of each stage. The steps of the listening process include receiving, attending, interpreting, recalling, evaluating, and responding to verbal and nonverbal messages.

Receiving

In chapter one, you learned about how messages are received. **Receiving** is taking in information using both auditory and visual channels. Hearing is one of our senses and sound is one of the channels that allow you to receive messages. Visual cues are also important because sight can influence how you receive a message. Therefore, before you get to any other stage in the listening process, you must receive stimuli. As we listen to someone speak, we may miss how important these channels are, but they influence how we interpret messages.

Attending

Attending in listening means filtering out what is salient; that is, noticeable or important. We often attend to stimuli that are visually and/or audibly stimulating. For example, if you hear a new song on Spotify, the tune might be so great that you stop to do a Google search to find the lyrics. Or, when your social media feed shows the latest music video by your favorite musician, you will focus on that and tune everything else out. We also attend to stimuli that appeal to our needs or interests. In class, you might find yourself starting to tune out until your instructor says the word *exam*. At this point, you might tune back in because the professor is about to cover important information that can impact your grade. The content is salient as it meets a need that is important to you.

Figure 4.2: Disabled and Here[12]

Interpreting

The next stage in the listening process is **interpreting** which is combining visual and auditory cues to make sense and attribute meaning to what we hear. It is how we understand a message. We base our interpretations on our *previous* understanding of phenomena in our world. We observe nonverbal cues, such as tone of voice, facial expression, or eye contact to be able to interpret a message correctly. For example, once when I was teaching class, I heard a student "sigh" loudly. Was it because she was bored? To decide, I looked at her face to see if I understood the auditory cue because although a sigh may be about boredom, it could also be her sadness from a recent break-up. I then studied her face, and my perception was that she looked sad. If I had only heard the sigh without the visual cue, I would not have been able to interpret her message clearly at all.

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[12]

Recalling

Recalling is the ability to remember what you hear. Recalling information is difficult for many people and this is impacted by where our memories are stored. According to Hargie (2010), we forget about 50% of what we hear immediately after hearing it. After eight hours, we recall about 35% and can recall about 20% after an entire day. Recall is important so that you can retrieve information that you have stored in your memory. If you are asked to critique a speaker, you will need to have listened well enough to recall what was said.

Evaluating

Evaluating is the process of listening where one assesses the validity and credibility of the message. Whether we are listening to the news, a professor, or a student speech, we are judging the speaker's comments. It is important that critical thinking is used in judging what you hear as you need to listen to the use of language. No one comes to any communicative event without *some* form of bias. Whether you are listening to a speech about COVID-19 or immigration, you will find that you immediately begin to break down the message and compare it to what you believe to be true.

To evaluate a message thoroughly and fairly, it is important to ask yourself some important questions:

- What do I know about this topic?
- What do I know about the person speaking?
- Did this person support what they said with examples, or evidence if needed?

Humans tend to judge others before a message has been conveyed, so we owe it to ourselves to be as open as we can to what we are hearing and go through a critical process of analyzing the message before responding.

Responding

The last stage in the listening process is **responding**, which is sending verbal and nonverbal feedback to a message. We know from our earlier discussion of the communication process that feedback does not necessarily reflect that a message was understood. As communicators, we may provide **back-channel cues,** which are verbal or nonverbal forms of feedback that indicate we are listening. Some back-channel cues are nodding heads, strong eye contact, or leaning toward a speaker. If someone responds to a speaker by looking away, using their phone, or shifting in their seat, we could interpret those responses to mean they aren't listening. Both verbal and nonverbal response cues do not always represent authentic listening, and therefore we will be examining listening challenges and ways to improve in this chapter.

Functions of Listening

I'm sure you have noticed when you are watching a movie, or listening to music, that you are engaged differently than when you are listening to a speech. There is value in understanding that there are different functions of listening because we can then use the most appropriate listening skills to meet the purpose or occasion. Using these functions appropriately will lead to better engagement and understanding. This is a major part of the communication process.

Comprehensive Listening

Comprehensive listening is the type of listening we engage in with the goal of *understanding* information. We all listen to messages throughout the day that require us to engage in comprehensive listening. This function of listening is what you would access if you were listening to a speech or lecture in class, or an employer giving you instructions on how to learn to use the cash register system. Depending on the context you are in, you may find that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to repeat what they told you if you were not listening. Listening well is important to your understanding of the message when it is first delivered.

Evaluative Listening

Figure 4.3: Vice Presidential Debate[13]

You already learned that evaluating is part of the listening process. It is also a function that fulfills the goal of analysis and evaluation of messages. We engage in evaluative listening in many of the same contexts we engage in comprehensive listening. However, **evaluative listening** allows us to assess the credibility of the speaker and/or message, the types of persuasive messages that are being sent, and any fallacies, or faulty logic, that the message contains. These messages come from a host of different sources such as your professors, peers,

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news outlets, religious leaders, and social media, to name a few. According to writer Jon Simpson, we are exposed to approximately 4,000 - 10,000 ads per day (Simpson, 2017). If you have ever clicked on a link through social media to listen to a sales pitch, you need to assess whether there is truth to what you are hearing. Evaluative listening may also be a matter of life or death. Jurors being asked to decide on a murder conviction, or a physician listening to someone's list of symptoms, are both examples of how critical this kind of listening is.

Discriminative Listening

Figure 4.4: Herbert Doyle[14]

Discriminative listening is a unique function of listening that occurs during the receiving stage of the listening process and involves the ability to discern sounds. This form of listening is physiological, and if you can hear, then you can access this function of listening. For example, an automotive mechanic may be quite skilled at listening to the sounds of a car that someone brings in to be repaired. I would not be able to distinguish one sound from another, but the mechanic would easily be able to say, "It's your carburetor!" My son and husband are both musicians, and I played piano for all of my childhood. They can discern certain sounds that a guitar or bass might make as I stare at them blankly. In listening to a speech, you may or may not use this function of listening. However, you may be able to distinguish a speaker's passion for the topic, or the truth of their message, through the variations of vocal quality that occur during a speech.

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[14] [Photo](#) by [Defense Visual Information Distribution Service](#) is licensed under [CC0 1.0](#)

Appreciative Listening

Figure 4.5: Lady Gaga & Tony Bennett at the North Sea Jazz Festival[15]

Appreciative listening is our ability to listen for enjoyment and is considered the easiest of all listening functions. Listening to music, watching a television show, attending a concert, or even listening to a great speech or classroom lecture are examples of appreciative listening. There are times when we are listening purely for enjoyment, but there are also occasions when we might combine listening functions. If you consider the example of a great classroom lecture by your professor, you might be listening for comprehension, evaluation, and appreciation all at the same time!

Empathetic Listening
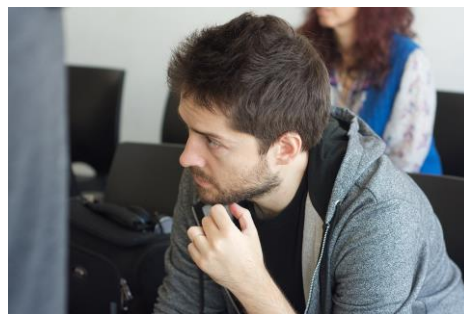
Figure 4.6: Listening Attentively[16]

Empathetic listening is trying to understand another person's feelings and/or emotions to validate them. It occurs when we try to *feel* what another person is feeling and can be considered the most challenging of all listening functions. It is important to distinguish sympathy from empathy. **Sympathy** is "feeling *for*" someone, while **empathy** is "feeling with" another person. It has often been described as putting yourself in someone else's shoes. This is not always easy to do when listening to a classmate's speech, however, the audience should strive to listen empathetically to support the speaker. The speaker should be able to see and feel the audience's empathy through their back-channel cues. As we examine ineffective

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[16] Photo by Beatrice Murch is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0

listening practices later in this chapter, you will develop even a greater appreciation for the importance of this listening function.

Listening Styles

Now that we have a better understanding of the importance of listening, the stages, and its functions, let's learn about four different listening styles. A **listening style** is "a set of attitudes and beliefs about listening" (Floyd, 1985, p. 136). Researchers Watson et al. (1995) identified four distinct listening styles:

- People-Oriented
- Action-Oriented
- Content-Oriented
- Time-Oriented

Why is it important to know your listening style? People *do* tend to have a dominant listening style. Most research indicates that people will use at least two different listening styles but are not comfortable using all four styles. Adapting your listening style, or at least understanding what your style is, can help you become a better and more patient listener when you are listening to a speech or a professor.

People-Oriented

If you are a **people-oriented** listener you can tune into people's emotions, feelings, and moods (Bodie and Worthington, 2010). People-oriented listeners will relate to a speaker's tone of voice, and overall emotional tone. If you are a people-oriented listener, you will cue in on the emotion that is conveyed during a speech, much like an empathetic listener does.

Action-Oriented

Action-oriented listeners value clear, organized, and error-free messages. If you are an action-oriented listener watching a presentation, you will most likely notice errors and inconsistencies throughout the speech. An action-oriented listening style is common when receiving instructions. If you are an action-oriented listener, you might think, "What are the directions? What do I need to do first?"

Content-Oriented

Content-oriented listeners prefer technical information which is complex and challenging. This type of listener processes all of the information before forming any sort of judgment. An example of a content-oriented listener would be someone who enjoys listening to presidential debates because it provides an opportunity to contextualize their political views. Common professions for the content-oriented listener are politicians, judges, and academics, particularly those in the humanities, social sciences, and science.

Time-Oriented

When you are communicating with someone and you want the person to get to the point of their story quickly, you may be a **time-oriented** listener. This means you are extremely conscious of your use of time. If you are a time-oriented listener, you might even avoid eye contact, engage in nonverbal behaviors, or interrupt to move the conversation along and end it promptly. For example, medical professionals tend to be time-oriented listeners. If you had to go to the emergency room and see a doctor, the doctor wants you to get to the point of the matter so they can do a proper diagnosis quickly before moving on to the next patient.

Now that you have a better understanding of listening styles, you should be able to identify your primary style. You should also make sure to adapt your style to your audience. Listening takes a lot of work! The next aspect of listening we want you to explore is listening barriers because these can impact the way in which you absorb the information you hear.

Listening Barriers

Figure 4.7: Listening Distractions[17]

A ***listening barrier*** is anything that physically or psychologically hinders you from recognizing, understanding, and accurately interpreting the message that you are receiving. Five different barriers to effective listening include:

- Information overload
- Internal distractions
- Outside distractions
- Prejudice
- Rate of speech and thought speed

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[17]

When you have a better understanding of the potential barriers to effective listening you can identify your weaknesses and work on improving them to make you a better listener.

Information Overload

We now know that a majority of our time communicating is spent listening and with all we have to listen to, there are going to be times when we experience ***information overload***. Information overload is when you have so much information coming at you (for example, tons of statistics), that it's easy to become overwhelmed. In a public speaking class, you can experience this when listening to your classmates give speeches– especially if you're hearing 20 speeches one after the other. You may become overwhelmed and tune out. That's information overload.

Internal Distractions

Most people have a lot going on in their lives. You attend school, you probably work, you might be raising a family, and you have your issues to work through every day. Sometimes when we are absorbed in our thoughts and concerns, we can't focus on what someone else is saying. We have all experienced moments of being physically present, but mentally absent. Your ability to listen may be impacted by psychological or physiological noise. **Psychological noise** is a form of internal interference or distraction caused by your thought process. This form of internal noise includes thinking about all that you have to get done, paying your bills, or the argument you had with your partner, daydreaming, and other types of thoughts that take you away from listening mindfully. **Physiological noise** occurs when there is a physical condition that prevents you from attending to a message. If you have ever been ill, hungry, or fatigued while trying to listen to a lecture, a presentation, talking with a friend, or even while watching television, you may find that physiological noise is the culprit.

External Distractions

There are so many possible outside distractions that prevent us from fully showing up as a listener. **Physical noise** is a form of external noise created outside of the situation that can interfere with your ability to attend to messages. If you are seated next to students that are engaged in side conversations during class, your ability to focus on a message would be severely hampered. A common outside distraction is technology. If you've ever been with a friend while they are on their phone, you will understand how this would make it impossible for your message to be received. If a speaker looks out at an audience who is distracted by technology, the ability to listen is lost and a speaker will feel disrespected.

Prejudging

Sometimes you might have a hard time listening because you do not agree with the speaker. As humans, we tend to be closed-minded at times. If you have an emotional reaction to a person or you disagree with their ideas on a personal level, you might be allowing personal prejudices to distract you. Keep an open mind. While you may not agree with the person, you may learn more about them or the topic they are sharing. You'll never know unless you hear them out.

Rate of Speech and Thought Speed

Most people speak at a rate of 125 words per minute. As a listener, you can filter 700 words a minute. If we can process so many more words than we hear, a mental lag can occur. Eventually, you'll stop listening or you'll find yourself drifting in and out. It might be to your benefit to mentally summarize the speaker's ideas from time to time to keep yourself engaged.

Forms of Ineffective Listening

As we learned in the previous section, some of our barriers to effective listening may be more difficult to overcome or control. We have all developed some undesirable listening habits that *can* be changed with hard work. Being aware or conscious of the habits we have is the first step to improving how we listen. These ineffective listening practices include:

- Pseudolistening
- Selective listening
- Aggressive listening
- Insensitive listening

Pseudolistening

Figure 4.8: Sleeping[18]

If you've ever listened to a professor while nodding your head politely while your mind was a million miles away, then you have engaged in pseudolistening. Of course, you're all such wonderful students, this has never happened. But *just in case*, let's learn about **pseudolistening**, which is behaving as *if* you are listening and paying attention to who is speaking when you are not listening. As children, we learned that by looking at a speaker and providing nonverbal cues or back-channel cues, we might be able to get through an entire class without the teacher calling on us. Imagine if your professor was engaging in this listening pitfall while grading your speech! The consequences would be devastating for you.

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[18] Photo by Robin Higgins on pixabay

Selective Listening

Figure 4.9: Selective Listening[19]

If you have ever noticed yourself only listening to the points someone makes that are important to you, that impact you, or that you agree with, you might be engaging in **selective listening**. Listening to classroom speeches, political discussions, or political figures are prime examples of where selective listening occurs. You will take in the parts of the discussion that you agree with and filter out the rest. As anecdotal evidence of this, I engaged my students in an open discussion of the COVID-19 pandemic. After we discussed what we had all "heard" about the pandemic, I generated a list of 20 statements to share with students during a Zoom class. These statements included examples such as "COVID-19 began in a Chinese open market," "The COVID-19 virus can spread in hot and humid climates," "People of all ages can be infected by the COVID-19 virus," and "COVID-19 cannot be spread unless you are within six feet of an infected person." Not all of these statements are true, but what happened in class next demonstrated how selective listening can occur. Many students admitted that when they listened to news sources, or even family members talk about the virus, they only "tuned in" when the statements agreed with their point of view. Throughout college, you will be exposed to many different ideas and philosophies, some of which you will disagree with. If you listen selectively, you will miss a lot of important information.

Aggressive Listening

Figure 4.10: Aggressive Listening[20]

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[19] Photo by Robin Higgins on pixabay
[20] Photo by Robin Higgins on pixabay

Aggressive listening, also referred to as ambushing, is a pitfall of listening where individuals listen specifically so that they can attack back. It is likened to "lying in wait" so you can pounce. People who engage in aggressive listening are prone to attack someone based on their ideas, personality, or other factors that give them a reason to attack. One can see aggressive listening in politics continually. One candidate may attack their opponent after a point they make. Understanding this type of pitfall is important because it prevents you from being an active listener. If you are listening to a classroom speech that you do not agree with, you may stop listening in order to frame counterarguments in your mind.

Insensitive Listening

Figure 4.11: Insensitive Listening[21]

If you recall the definition of empathic listening, you will find that insensitive listening is the opposite. Often referred to as "literal listening," **insensitive listening** focuses only on the words, not the deeper meaning. Insensitive listeners do not explore the nonverbal cues that accompany the message. Imagine if your friend did not pass an exam, and then tells you. Rather than asking questions, or providing an empathetic response, your response is "I guess you didn't study" or "Yeah, school can be hard." Neither response will allow your friend to feel good about the exchange. In this example, the listener did not pay attention to the speaker's tone of voice, or the sadness in their eyes. During a speech, you can demonstrate insensitive listening by doing other things during the speech, not looking at the speaker, rolling your eyes, or not providing any type of back-channel cues.

These are easy bad habits that we need to break to be effective communicators. Thus, we will now examine ways to become a better listener any time we are communicating.

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[21] Photo by Robin Higgins on pixabay

Becoming a Better Listener

Like anything you may try to do in life, whether it's study more, exercise, or eat healthier, none of that can happen without time and effort. As you read the next section on active listening, keep in mind that these principles can be applied to any communication context, not just public speaking!

Figure 4.12: Active Listening[22]

Active Listening

Although listening is an essential part of communication, it is often the weakest link in the communication process. People usually love to be heard but tend not to be as excited about listening. **Active listening** is when you are present and fully engaged as a listener, not just hearing the words. The ability to improve your listening skills will help you throughout your education, your professional life, and your relationships. Active listening requires focus and attention, and it takes concentration and effort. The principles of active listening are not hard to understand, but they require practice to use them effectively.

Principles of Active Listening

Figure 4.13: Active Listening[23]

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[22] Photo is in the public domain
[23] Photo by Akshav Gupta is licensed under CC0 1.0

Active listening should accomplish two things: making sure you fully understand the message and conveying to a speaker that you are actually listening. Listening in a classroom or to a speech can be challenging because you are limited by how, and how much, you can interact with the speaker during the class.

The following strategies help make listening more effective and learning more fun:

- **Get your mind in the right space.** Prepare yourself mentally to receive the information the speaker is presenting. Clear your mind and keep quiet.

- **Get your body in the right space**. Sit toward the front of the room (or lean into your camera if online) where you can make eye contact easily, and limit distractions.

- **Focus on what is being said**. Listen for new ideas. Turn off your cell phone and pack it away. If you are using your laptop for notes, close all applications except the one that you use to take notes.

- **Take notes.** By writing down key points of a speech you will be more engaged in what you are hearing and be able to retain the information.

- **Follow the Golden Rule.** Treat others as you wish to be treated during a speech. Provide speakers with authentic and positive nonverbal feedback to show your support for the speaker.

Conclusion

This chapter highlights the importance of listening and the role it plays in public speaking. Although we greatly underestimate the power of listening, it is perhaps the most valuable skill for effective communication. We hope that in the future, you will *never* find yourself in the position of the student in the opening of this chapter and will always know that your genes are not the clothing that you are wearing to class! The best audience is a listening audience.

Reflection Questions

1. How much time do you spend listening each day (this includes school, friends and family, music, and television)? Is this surprising?

2. Which function of listening is your greatest challenge? Why?

3. What is your primary and secondary listening style? Given your response, do you now see where you might adapt your own listening style to someone else's speaking style?

4. Which listening barriers and ineffective forms of listening do you find most challenging in your own life? How might you use principles of active listening to address these challenges?

Key Terms

Action-Oriented	Empathy	People-Oriented
Active Listening	Evaluating	Physical Noise
Aggressive Listening	Evaluative Listening	Physiological Noise
Appreciative Listening	Hearing	Psychological Noise
Attending	Information Overload	Pseudolistening
Back-channel Cues	Insensitive Listening	Recalling
Comprehensive Listening	Interpreting	Receiving
Content-Oriented Listening	Listening	Responding
Listening	Listening Barrier	Selective Listening
Discriminative Listening	Listening Style	Sympathy
Empathetic Listening	Mindfulness	Time-Oriented

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Chapter 5: Audience Analysis

Lauren Rome

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- define audience analysis.
- list the types of audience analysis.
- compare and contrast the ways you can conduct your audience analysis.
- discuss how to apply audience analysis to varying levels of audience agreement.

Figure 5.1: Audience[24]

Introduction

Tons of people go to live concerts and love live music. Let's think about what goes into making that a meaningful show for the audience. Is it just musicians taking the stage and playing music, or is there more to it? The best concerts are the ones that consider what the audience *really* wants to hear. How would you feel if you went to a concert and the band didn't play your favorite song? Most likely, the band has crafted the environment with sets, sound, comfort, temperature, snacks, and drinks to make the concert worth the money. Just like a concert is nothing without the audience, a speech isn't a speech without an audience.

Although we might think our speech would be so much easier *without* an audience, they are a crucial component and should be a primary focus as you plan and prepare each presentation. Effective public speakers consider the audience when choosing a topic, identifying examples, and of course, in how they deliver their speech.

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[24] Photo by Wes Lewis on unsplash

Figure 5.2: John Legend[25]

Before you go on thinking you know something about your audience (they are your classmates, after all), we have to remember what we learned in chapter one: every person has *their* lens for viewing the world, which will be used when interpreting any message received. In that case, an important rule of thumb is to *never assume*. We have to put aside any assumptions or preconceptions to create the most effective and appropriate speech for a specific audience.

Analyzing Your Audience

Since we cannot assume we know everything about our audience, we have to spend some time analyzing them. **Audience Analysis** is gathering information about your audience to help in the creation and delivery of your speech. Information collected can help you better understand your audience's needs, values, beliefs, and demographics.

By engaging in audience analysis, you're taking an audience-centered approach. To be **audience-centered** is to shift your focus from yourself (what do *I want* to say about this topic?) to your audience (what do *they want* or *need* to hear about this topic?). If you don't consider your audience, you might end up delivering a speech that isn't relevant, useful, or ethical. To make the shift to an audience-centered approach, here are some questions to consider:

- **Why are they here?** Are they here because they have to be (e.g. a mandatory meeting or a class session) or because they want to be? Is your presentation the "main event," or is something else bringing this audience together? Knowing the answer to this question can be extremely important in planning your speech to engage the audience directly.

- **What do they know already?** It would benefit you to know what your audience knows about, or if they have any experience with your topic. Based on their knowledge, you can tailor the language and information of your speech to them. For example, giving a

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speech on global warming will sound very different if you are speaking to middle schoolers versus college-age students. A speech on the power of a dating app will be received differently by a room full of married people versus single people.

- **Where are they coming from?** Does every person in your audience share the same experiences? Absolutely not, because of their unique lenses to view the world. My brother and I were raised the same, under the same roof, but because he is older than me, he has had different experiences. So, although we are similar, we all have a different frame of reference (think back to chapter 1). Your goal is to write to a general audience so that you connect with all of the unique experiences.

Types of Audience Analysis

To answer the questions posed above, there are three different types of information you might want to collect. Depending on the speaking situation and the preparation time available, some of the following strategies will be better suited than others.

Demographic Analysis

You've probably heard the term "demographics" used before. **Demographic analysis** is the statistical data gathered from your audience relating to the population and particular groups within it. The U.S. Census Bureau is one of the best examples of a group known for collecting demographic data. Every ten years, census takers gather information about the population of the United States. They typically want to know the composition of each household – how many children or adults each has, its average annual income, its ethnic background, the gender and ages of those in the household, and other similar information. This data is then compiled to provide the government and other agencies with an overall view of the individuals, families, and other collective groups that compose the population of the United States. This information might be used to determine whether to fund a community necessity or to project the needs of the country in future years. As you might imagine, gathering and compiling this tremendous amount of data is mind-boggling. Luckily, the data you'll gather to prepare for a presentation is on a much smaller scale. Here are some examples of information you might collect about your audience:

- Age
- Gender identity
- Ethnic background
- Group membership

- Educational level
- Political affiliation
- Religious affiliation
- Socioeconomic level

How might information collected in these areas assist you in understanding your audience? After all, you won't use this information to determine county funding or to analyze the needs of a city. You will, however, be able to use the information you collect to better understand what your audience is interested in, whether you have included culturally appropriate examples to explain your topic, or if your audience already has a religious or political preference that might

make it difficult for them to believe you or take your recommended course of action. Knowing these details about your audience will help you develop your speech.

Psychological Analysis

While demographic characteristics focus on the "facts" about the people in your audience, **psychological analysis** can help explain the inner qualities. Knowing their attitudes, beliefs, and values will help you better understand the psychology of the audience.

ATTITUDES

Being aware of your audience's attitudes about certain topics can help you craft the best possible speech. An **attitude** embodies the likes and/or dislikes of an individual. We have attitudes about everything. For example, you might like *Nike* more than *Adidas* or you think *MAC* has the best mascara. People have strong attitudes for or against one thing or another, which impacts audience analysis.

BELIEFS

Members of the audience may believe that certain things exist or certain ideas are true. **Beliefs** are convictions or ways of thinking about the world around us that are reflected in statements that we believe are true or false. Your conviction about something is typically based on your cultural upbringing. You believe what you believe because of what you learned and were taught. Beliefs evolve as your frame of reference develops through experience. Beliefs are another important consideration for audience analysis.

For example, most public speaking professors know that their students believe that they shouldn't have to take a speech class to graduate college. Therefore, public speaking professors craft their messages for the first day of class in very particular ways to generate audience buy-in. In this example, public speaking professors have analyzed their audience to craft the message in a way that will be meaningful for them. How will you craft your speeches to align with your audience's beliefs?

VALUES

Values are the underlying principles or standards of ideal behavior that we use to justify our beliefs and attitudes. Values are the core principles driving our behavior and are the hardest to change. If you dig into someone's attitudes and beliefs enough, you will always find core values. We look at the world through our *own* lens of what we judge to be good or bad, right or wrong, moral or immoral, and ethical or unethical. Analyzing audience values will help you to connect your content to the audience.

All three of these psychological factors are important and work in slightly different ways. Here is an example to showcase the nuance of attitudes, beliefs, and values. For example, you might like or dislike college (attitudes). Some people believe that college is just "13th grade" and others believe it is their way out of poverty (beliefs). Therefore, the core value would be that everyone has the right to an education, regardless of attitude or cultural background (value).

Situational Analysis

The final type of audience analysis is **situational** because it focuses on the specific speaking situation. Here are some basic questions you can answer to help you conduct situational analysis:

- How many people will be in the audience?
- What is my purpose for speaking to this audience?
- What will my audience get out of my presentation?
- What is their interest level in my subject?
- What else might this audience have on their mind?
- What is the configuration of the room we are in?
- Is your audience comfortable?
- Is there anything that can interfere with how my audience hears me?

Figure 5.3: Justin Trudeau speaks at the University of Waterloo[26]

Conducting Audience Analysis

We've just examined several variables of audience analysis, but how do you find out the information that you need? You conduct audience analysis. Here are three options available to you: data collection, inference, and direct observation.

Data Collection

You can collect data about your audience demographic, psychological, or situational makeup through quantifiable and deductive means. Surveys, questionnaires, and interviews would give you an abundance of qualitative and quantitative information you can use to develop your presentation. While data collection isn't always required before a presentation, some situations would benefit from having the specific information. Will *your* speech benefit from having specific data on the audience? Our bet is that it will, so which method will you use?

Inference

This is a trickier method of collecting information about your audience. **Inference** is making tentative, reasoned conclusions about your audience. It requires that you use your critical thinking skills to make an educated guess about the audience. Beware that making educated guesses could backfire, if not grounded in evidence. For example, if we know that 46% of the U.S. population owns an iPhone, we can confidently infer that there are *some* students in our class that own an iPhone. The only way to make a conclusive statement about how many students own an iPhone in our class would be to comprehensively collect the data through a survey, questionnaire, or interview of every single audience member.

Direct Observation

One way to learn about people is to observe them. As we mentioned earlier, if you are speaking to a room full of your classmates, likely, you have already observed some demographic information about your audience ahead of time. The same can be true for other settings or environments you find yourself in.

What methods can you use to analyze your audience, especially in a classroom setting? Observation is as it sounds – you watch and listen to the individuals in your audience over the course of several days or weeks. If you think about it, you already do this without being completely conscious of it. As you chat during a break, you may find out that many of the students in your class are closely following an upcoming election. They have already formed opinions about the candidates and have their reasons for choosing one over the other. Or perhaps several students in your small group share that they are single parents struggling to balance school, work, and children. While these tidbits of information are normally simply acknowledged and stored away in the recesses of your brain, you are, in fact, finding information that could help you prepare for an upcoming speech to these students. This is direct observation; all you had to do was to actively listen to the chit-chat and conversations going on around you.

Audience Agreement

Whether you are doing an informative speech or a persuasive speech, you can be certain that audiences may agree, disagree, be neutral, or be apathetic. Here is what that might look like:

Audiences that Agree

Students often like to pick topics based on their notion of a friendly audience. If I know that 95% of my audience believes that we should only drive hybrid cars, it would be much easier to construct a speech knowing there wouldn't be opposition. So why even do a speech when you have an audience that is in favor of your position? Let's look at a couple of examples. Some people in our society go to a place of religious worship, whether it is a church, temple, or mosque. If you already have a belief system, why do you need to go? Similarly, people that are recovered alcoholics go to Alcoholics Anonymous, or AA, meetings. If you haven't had a drink in ten years, why go to meetings? The reason for both of these is the same: People backslide

without reinforcement. When you know that an audience already agrees with you, use the opportunity to reinforce their views.

Audiences that Disagree

When you know that an audience does not agree with your point of view, it is important to capture their interest early. Disagreement doesn't mean that you should not present your speech, or that you picked a bad topic. It just means that the more you know about your audience, the more you can craft your speech using better research. It might be important to put your strongest argument first when you know your audience disagrees with you. Don't avoid topics that might be controversial because your audience disagrees. Controversial topics may prove to be the most interesting speaking opportunities and give you the chance to make a greater impact.

Audiences that are Neutral

Having a neutral audience is ideal. If an audience has not yet made up their mind or taken a position, your speech is an opportunity to convince them. Whether you are doing an informative speech on a *TikTok*, or the harmful effects of social media, a neutral audience most likely has not spent time critically thinking about their own position. Your informative speech may be so compelling that some members of the audience may upload a video or may delete the app.

Audiences that are Apathetic

The most difficult, or frustrating audience to speak to is the audience that doesn't care; this is an apathetic audience. Your task is to make them care! For example, why would any group of 18 to 22-year-olds want to listen to a speech on the Social Security system? In most cases, they wouldn't until you convince them that without reform, the Social Security program will run out of money before they are of age to collect. All of the money that you contribute from your paychecks goes to fund this system. Do you care yet? Maybe not, because you aren't retiring for another 50 years! However, your parents or family members will retire earlier. If the system runs out of money, is it possible that you would find yourself in a position to care for your family members? Having been through that myself, I can tell you it's very difficult. Make them care about your topic by showing them how important it is and how it can impact them.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we discussed the importance of audience analysis when preparing and presenting your speech. Like a pop star crafting their live show at the *Hollywood Bowl*, you need to keep your audience at the forefront of your mind. Although you might not sing a solo during your speech or play the guitar, you do have the ability to use demographic, psychological, and situational analysis factors and make adjustments where needed. The more you think about the audience throughout the entire process, the more likely they will listen, learn, and linger backstage for your autograph.

Reflection Questions

1. Have you ever engaged in audience analysis in your personal life without realizing it? For example, in a conversation with a friend or parent or on social media? What strategies did you use to make sure you were understood?

2. How have your own attitudes, beliefs, and values informed some of the thoughts you have had about people you meet?

3. Which methods of audience analysis will you use in this class? How will you know which one works best?

4. In what ways do the different types of audiences impact how you approach your entire presentation?

Key Terms

Attitudes

Audience Analysis

Audience-Centered

Beliefs

Demographic Analysis

Inference

Psychological Analysis

Situational Analysis

Value

Chapter 6: Organizing and Outlining

Victoria Leonard

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- select and narrow a topic that fulfills your speech goal.
- write a specific purpose statement that identifies precisely what you will do in your speech.
- develop a thesis statement (central idea) that summarizes what you will talk about in your speech.
- select the best organizational pattern for the main points of your speech.
- develop a preparation outline and speaking outline for your speech.
- identify the principles of outlining.

Figure 6.1: Outlining with Post it Notes[27]

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Introduction

Your author remembers taking an urban studies course in college. The professor was incredibly knowledgeable and passionate about the subject. Do you think that alone made her want to go to class? Unfortunately not. As great as this professor was in so many ways, the lectures were not organized. As much as she tried to take great notes and follow along, it felt like a hopeless task. Having a great topic that you are passionate about is important, but organizing your speech so that the audience can follow along is vital to the success of your speech.

When students are faced with developing a speech, they face the same challenges as any student who is asked to write an essay by one of their professors. Although the end product may be different in that you are not writing an essay or turning one in, you *will* go through much of the same process as you would in writing your essay.

Before you get too far into the writing process, it is important to know what steps you will have to take to write your speech. Your initial preparation work will include the following:

1. Selecting a topic
2. Writing a general purpose
3. Writing a specific purpose
4. Writing a thesis statement
5. Selecting main points
6. Writing a preview statement
7. Writing the body of the speech

This chapter will explain each of these steps so that you can create a thorough and well-written speech. As with anything we do that requires effort, the more you put in, the more you will get out of the writing process.

The Speech Topic, General Purpose, Specific Purpose, and Thesis

Selecting a Topic

We all want to know that our topics will be interesting to our audience. If you think back to Chapter 5, Audience Analysis, you will recall how important it is to be audience-centered. Does this mean that you cannot talk about a topic that your audience is unfamiliar with? No, what it *does* mean is that your goal as a speaker is to make that topic relevant to the audience. Whether you are writing an informative speech on earthquakes, or the singer Adele, you will need to make sure that you approach the speech in a way that helps your speech resonate with the audience. Although many of you would not have been alive during the 1994 Northridge earthquake, this is an important topic to people who live in earthquake zones. Explaining earthquakes and earthquake preparation would be a great way to bring this topic alive for

people who may not have lived through this event. Similarly, some audience members may be unfamiliar with Adele, and that allows you to share information about her that might lead someone to want to check out her music.

If you are writing a persuasive speech, you might approach your topic selection differently. Think about what is happening in the world today. You can look at what affects you and your peers at a local, state, national, or global level. Whether you believe that gun violence is important to address because it is a problem at the national level, or you wish to address parking fees on your campus, you will have given thought to what is important to your audience. As Chapter 2 explained, your topics must fulfill the ethical goals of the speech. If you are ethical and select a topic you care about *and* make it relevant for the audience, you are on the right track.

Here are some questions that might help you select a topic:

- What are some current trends in music or fashion?
- What hobbies do I have that might be interesting to others?
- What objects do I use every day that are beneficial to know about?
- What people are influencing the world in social media or politics?
- What authors, artists, or actors have made an impact on society?
- What events have shaped our nation or our world?
- What health-related conditions should others be aware of?
- What is important for all people to be aware of in your community?

Once you have answered these questions and narrowed your responses, you are still not done selecting your topic. For instance, you might have decided that you really care about dogs. This is a very broad topic and could easily lead to a dozen different speeches. Now you must further narrow down the topic by writing your purpose statements.

Writing the Purpose Statements

Purpose statements allow you to do two things. First, they allow you to focus on whether you are fulfilling the assignment. Second, they allow you to narrow your topic so that you are not speaking too broadly.

A general purpose statement is the overarching goal of a speech whether to inform, to persuade, to inspire, to celebrate, to mourn, or to entertain. It describes what your speech goal is, or what you hope to achieve. In public speaking classes, you will be asked to do any of the following: **To inform, to persuade,** or **to entertain**. Knowing your purpose is important because this is what you begin with to build your speech. It is also important to know your general purpose because this will determine your research approach. You would use different sources if you were writing a speech to inform versus to persuade.

A **specific purpose statement** is a declaration starting with the general purpose and then providing the topic with the precise objectives of the speech. It will be written according to your general purpose. For instance, the home design enthusiast might write the following specific purpose statement: ***To inform my audience about the pros and cons of flipping houses.***

Specific purpose statements are integral in knowing if your speech is narrowed enough or if you need to narrow it further. Consider these examples:

- To inform my audience about musical instruments
- To inform my audience about string instruments
- To inform my audience about the violin

As you can see, the first two examples are far too broad. What do you think about these possible topics?

- To inform my audience about the life and contributions of Patricia Bath
- To inform my audience about the invention of the wheelchair
- To inform my audience about the Biloxi Wade-Ins
- To inform my audience about Fibromyalgia

Figure 6.2: Dr. Patricia Bath[28]

Hopefully, you can see that the examples above would work for an informative speech. They are specific and limited in their scope.

Your instructor will give you a time limit for your speech. Your specific purpose should help you see if you can stay within the time limit. Some instructors may ask for you to put the purpose

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statements on your outline. Others may only ask you to put these on your topic submission. **What is important to know is that you do not state a general purpose or specific purpose during the delivery of your speech!** These are simply your beginning guidelines.

Writing the Thesis Statement

A **thesis statement** is a single, declarative statement that encapsulates the essence of your speech. Just like in essay writing, you want your thesis statement, or central idea, to reveal what your speech is about. Thesis statements can never be written as questions, nor can they include a research citation.
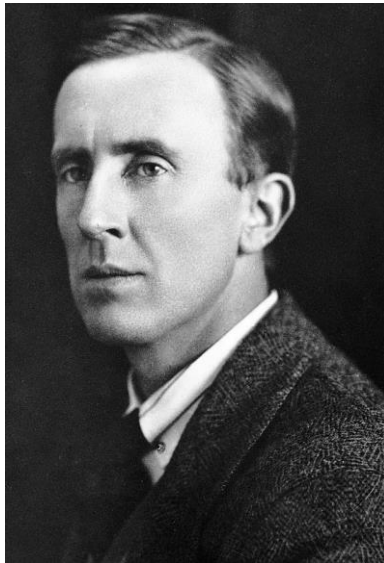
Figure 6.3: Portrait of Author, J.R.R. Tolkien[29]

As a Lord of the Rings enthusiast, I may choose to write a speech on author J.R.R. Tolkien. Here is an example of what a thesis statement may sound like:

J.R.R. Tolkien is known as the father of modern fantasy literature and became a pop culture icon after his death.

The thesis you just read provides the audience with just enough information to help them know what they will hear or learn from your speech.

Selecting Main Points

Main points are the major ideas you want to cover in your speech. Since speeches have time requirements, your outline will always be limited to **two to five** main points. Many instructors suggest that you have no more than three main points so that you can do justice to each idea and stay within the time frame.

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[29] Photo is in the public domain

For example, let's determine the main points for a short speech using the J.R.R. Tolkien thesis above. Having researched his life, you might come up with a small list like this:

- Childhood and background
- Military service
- Challenges
- Family
- Legacy
- Literary fame and honors

As interesting as all of these topics are, there is not enough time to speak about each idea. This is where the difficult decision of narrowing a speech comes in. Brainstorming all of the points you could cover would be your first step. Then, you need to determine which of the points would be the most interesting for your audience to hear. There are also creative ways to combine ideas and touch on key points within each main point. You will see how this can be achieved in the next section as we narrow down the number of topics we will discuss about J.R.R. Tolkein.

Writing the Preview Statement

A **preview statement** (or series of statements) is a guide to your speech. This is the part of the speech that literally tells the audience exactly what main points you will cover. If you were to open an app on your phone, or Google Maps to get directions to a location, you would be told exactly how to get there. Best of all, you would know what to look for, such as landmarks. A preview statement in a speech fulfills the same goal. It is a roadmap for your speech. Let's look at how a thesis and preview statement might look for a speech on J.R.R. Tolkien:

> **Thesis:** J.R.R. Tolkien is known as the father of modern fantasy literature and became a pop culture icon after his death.

> **Preview:** First, I will tell you about J.R.R. Tolkien's humble beginnings. Then, I will describe his rise to literary fame. Finally, I will explain his lasting legacy as a pop culture icon.

Some instructors prefer that you combine your thesis statement with a preview of what main points you will cover. Here is a way that you can write a central idea using these aspects of Tolkien's life to convey what you will speak about:

> **Combined thesis and preview:** J.R.R. Tolkien is known as the father of modern fantasy literature and became a pop culture icon after his death who had humble beginnings, literary fame, and a lasting legacy as a pop culture icon.

It is always best to check with your instructor to find out which approach they want you to take in your speech.

Organizing Main Points Using Patterns of Arrangement

Once you know what your speech is about, you can begin the process of developing the body of your speech. The **body of the speech** is the longest and most important part of your speech because it's where you will explain all the points of your preview statement. In general, the body of the speech comprises about 75% to 80% of the length of your speech. This is where you will present the bulk of your research, evidence, examples, and any other supporting material you have. Chapter 10 will provide you with specifics on how to do research and support your speech.

Several patterns of organization are available to choose from when writing a speech. You should keep in mind that some patterns work only for informative speeches and others for persuasive speeches. The chronological, topical, spatial, or causal patterns discussed here are best suited to informative speeches. The patterns of organization for persuasive speeches will be discussed in Chapter 12.

Chronological (Temporal) Pattern

When organizing a speech based on time or sequence, you would use a **chronological (temporal) pattern** of organization. Speeches that look at the history of someone or something, the evolution of an object or a process could be organized chronologically. For example, you could use this pattern in speaking about President Barack Obama, the Holocaust, the evolution of the cell phone, or how to carve a pumpkin. The challenge of using this pattern is to make sure your speech has distinct main points and that it does not appear to be storytelling.

Figure 6.4: Barack Obama[30]

Here is an example of how your main points will help you make sure that the points are clear and distinct:

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[30] Photo by Steve Jurvetson is licensed under CC BY 2.0

Topic: President Barack Obama

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience about the life of President Barack Obama

Thesis: From his humble beginnings, President Barack Obama succeeded in law and politics to become the first African-American president in U.S. history.

Preview: First, let's look at Obama's background and career in law. Then, we will look at his rise to the presidency of the United States. Finally, we will explore his accomplishments after leaving the White House.

Main Points:
   I.   First, let's look at the early life of Obama and his career as a lawyer and advocate.
   II.   Second, let's examine how Obama transitioned from law to becoming the first African-American President of the United States.
   III. Finally, let's explore all that Obama has achieved since he left the White House.

We hope that you can see that the main points clearly define and isolate different parts of Obama's life so that each point is distinct. Using a chronological pattern can also help you with other types of informative speech topics.

Figure 6.5: Pumpkin Carving[31]

Here is an additional example to help you see different ways to use this pattern:

Topic: How to Carve a Pumpkin

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience how to carve a pumpkin.

Thesis: Carving a pumpkin is an activity that brings people together and helps them get into the spirit of Halloween.

Preview: First, I will explain the process of gutting the pumpkin in preparation for carving. Then, I will describe the way you use your special tools to carve the face you hope to create. Finally, I will show you a variety of different designs that are unique to make your pumpkin memorable.

Main Points:
I. First, let me explain exactly how you open up the pumpkin, remove the seeds, and clean it so it is ready to carve.
II. Second, let me describe how the tools you have on hand are used to draw and carve the face of the pumpkin.
III. Finally, let me show you several unique designs that will make your pumpkin dazzle your friends and neighbors.

Topical Pattern

The chronological pattern needed main points ordered in a specific sequence, whereas the **topical pattern** arranges the information of the speech into different subtopics. For example, you are currently attending college. Within your college, various student services are important for you to use while you are there. You may use the library, The Learning Center (TLC), Student Development Office, ASG Computer Lab, and Financial Aid.

Figure 6.6: Valencia Campus Library Stacks[32]

To organize this speech topically, it doesn't matter which area you speak about first, but here is how you could organize it:

Topic: Student Services at College of the Canyons

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[32] Photo by College of the Canyons Library is licensed under CC BY-NC 2.0

Thesis and Preview: College of the Canyons has five important student services, which include the library, TLC, Student Development Office, ASG Computer Lab, and Financial Aid.

Main Points:
  I. The library can be accessed five days a week and online and has a multitude of books, periodicals, and other resources to use.
  II. The TLC has subject tutors, computers, and study rooms available to use six days a week.
  III. The Student Development Office is a place that assists students with their ID cards but also provides students with discount tickets and other student-related needs.
  IV. The ASG computer lab is open for students to use for several hours a day, as well as to print up to 15 pages a day for free.
  V. Financial Aid is one of the busiest offices on campus, offering students a multitude of methods by which they can supplement their personal finances by paying for both tuition and books.

Spatial Pattern

A **spatial pattern** looks at how your ideas are arranged according to their physical or geographic relationships. Typically, we can begin with a starting point and look at the main points of your speech directionally from top to bottom, inside to outside, left to right, north to south, and so on. A spatial pattern allows for creativity as well as clarity. For example, a speech about an automobile could be arranged using a spatial pattern and you might describe the car from the front end to the back end or the interior to the exterior. A speech on Disneyland might begin with your starting point at the entrance on Main Street, and each subsequent main point may be organized by going through each land in the park in a directional manner. Even a speech on the horrific Tsunami off the Indonesian coast of Sumatra on December 26, 2004, could be discussed spatially as you use the starting point and describe the destruction as it traveled, killing 250,000 people. If you have never heard of the Great Pacific Garbage Patch, it is marine debris that is in the North Pacific Ocean.
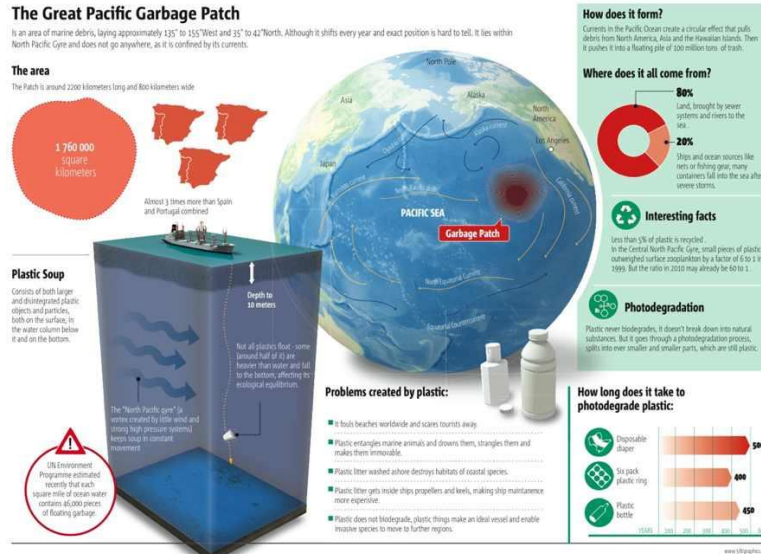
Figure 6.7: The Great Pacific Garbage Patch[33]

In an informative speech, you could arrange your points spatially like this:

Topic: Great Pacific Garbage Patch

Thesis: The Great Pacific Garbage patch is not well known to most people, and it consists of marine debris that is located in the North Pacific Ocean.

Preview: First, I will describe the Eastern Garbage Patch. Finally, I will explain the Western Patch.

   I.   The Eastern Garbage patch is located between the states of Hawaii and California.
   II. The Western Garbage Patch is located near Japan.

Causal Pattern

A **causal pattern** of organization can be used to describe what occurred that caused something to happen, and what the effects were. Conversely, another approach is to begin with the effects and then talk about what caused them. For example, in 1994, there was a 6.7 magnitude earthquake that occurred in the San Fernando Valley in Northridge, California.

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[33] Graphic by Amber Case is licensed under CC BY-NC 2.0

Figure 6.8: Northridge Meadows Apartment Building Collapse[34]

Let's look at how we can arrange this speech first by using a cause-effect pattern:

Topic: Northridge Earthquake

Thesis: The Northridge, California earthquake was a devastating event that was caused by an unknown fault and resulted in the loss of life and billions of dollars of damage.

I.   The Northridge earthquake was caused by a fault that was previously unknown and located nine miles beneath Northridge.
II.   The Northridge earthquake resulted in the loss of 57 lives and over 40 billion dollars of damage in Northridge and surrounding communities.

Depending on your topic, you may decide it is more impactful to start with the effects and work back to the causes (**effect-cause pattern**). Let's take the same example and flip it around:

Thesis: The Northridge, California earthquake was a devastating event that resulted in the loss of life and billions of dollars in damage and was caused by an unknown fault below Northridge.

I.   The Northridge earthquake resulted in the loss of 57 lives and over 40 billion dollars of damage in Northridge and surrounding communities.
II.   The Northridge earthquake was caused by a fault that was previously unknown and located nine miles beneath Northridge.

Why might you decide to use an effect-cause approach rather than a cause-effect approach? In this particular example, the effects of the earthquake were truly horrible. If you heard all of that information first, you would be much more curious to hear about what caused such devastation. Sometimes natural disasters are not that exciting, even when they are horrible. Why? Unless they affect us directly, we may not have the same attachment to the topic. This is one example where an effect-cause approach may be very impactful.

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[34] Photo by Stickpen is licensed under CC0-1.0

Developing the Outline

Although students are often intimidated by the process of outlining a speech, this process is what organizes your speech. A well-organized speech leads to better delivery. Simply, **outlining** is a method of organizing the introduction, body with main points, and conclusion of your speech. **Outlines are NOT essays; they are properly formatted outlines!** They use specific symbols in a specific order to help you break down your ideas in a clear way. There are two types of outlines: the preparation outline and the speaking outline.

Outline Types

When you begin the outlining process, you will be creating a preparation outline. A **preparation outline** consists of full, complete sentences. In many cases, this outline will be used in preparing your speech, but may not be allowed to be used during your speech delivery. Keep in mind that even though this outline requires complete sentences, it is still not an essay. The examples you saw earlier in this chapter were written in complete sentences, and that is exactly what a preparation outline should look like.

A **speaking outline** is less detailed than the preparation outline and will include brief phrases or words that help you remember your key ideas. It should include elements of the introduction, body, and conclusion, as well as your transitions. Speaking outlines may be written on index cards to be used when you deliver your speech.

Confirm with your professor about specific submission requirements for preparation and speaking outlines.

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.

All main points are preceded by **Roman numerals** (I, II, III, IV, V). Subpoints are preceded by **capital letters** (A, B, C, etc.), then **Arabic numerals** (1, 2, 3, etc.), then **lowercase letters** (a, b, c, etc.). You may expand further than this. Here is a short template:

I. First main point
  A. First subpoint
  B. Second subpoint
  C. Third subpoint
    1. First sub-subpoint
    2. Second sub-subpoint
      a) First sub-sub-subpoint
      b) Second sub-sub-subpoint

Outlining Principles

Next, we will cover the principles of outline which are outlining "rules" that you want to follow to be most effective. (Your English teachers will thank us, too!) First, read through this example outline for a main point about dogs. We will recall this example as we move through the principles. Don't skip this example. Read it now!

Figure 6.9: Big and Small Dog[35]

Topic: Dogs

Thesis: There are many types of dogs that individuals can select from before deciding which would make the best family pet.

Preview: First, I will describe the characteristics of large breed dogs, and then I will discuss the characteristics of small breed dogs.

I. First, let's look at the characteristics of large breed dogs.
  A. Some large breed dogs need daily activity.
  B. Some large breed dogs are dog friendly.
  C. Some large breed dogs drool.
    1. If you are particularly neat, you may not want one of these.

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              a. Bloodhounds drool the most.
                    (1) After eating is one of the times drooling is bad.
                    (2) The drooling is horrible after the drink, so beware!
              b. Great Pyrenees Mountain dogs drool as well.
        2. If you live in an apartment, these breeds could pose a problem.

Transition statement: Now that we've explored the characteristics of large breed dogs, let's contrast this with small breeds.

    II.   Next, let's look at the characteristics of small breed dogs.
         A. Some small breed dogs need daily activity.
         B. Some small breed dogs are dog friendly.
         C. Some small breed dogs are friendly to strangers.
             1. Welsh Terriers love strangers.
                a. They will jump on people.
                b. They will wag their tails and nuzzle.
             2. Beagles love strangers.
             3. Cockapoos also love strangers.

This dog example will help us showcase the following outlining principles:

Subordination and Coordination

The example above helps us to explain the concepts of **subordination** and **coordination**. **Subordination** is used in outline organization so the content is in a hierarchical order. This means that your outline shows subordination by indention. All of the points that are "beneath" (indented in the format) are called subordinate points. For example, if you have a job with a supervisor, you are subordinate to the supervisor. The supervisor is subordinate to the owner of the company. Your outline content works in a similar way. Using the dog example outlined in the previous section of this chapter, subpoints A, B, and C described characteristics of large breed dogs, and those points are all *subordinate* to main point I. Similarly, subpoints 1 and 2 beneath subpoint C both described dogs that drool, so those are subordinate to subpoint C. If we had discussed "food" under point C, you would know that something didn't make sense! Overall, to check your outline for coherence, think of the outline as a staircase; walking down the outline one step at a time.

You will also see that there is a coordination of points. **Coordination** is used in outline organization so that all of the numbers or letters represent the *same* idea. You know they are *coordinate* because they align vertically and there is no diagonal relationship between the symbols. In the dog example, A, B, and C were all characteristics of large breed dogs, so those are all *coordinated* and represent the same "idea." Had C been "German Shepherd," then the outline would have been incorrect because that is a type of dog, not a characteristic, therefore, breaking the rules of subordination and coordination.

Image 6.10 below provides you with a visual graphic of the subordination and coordination process. You will see that the topic of this very brief outline is bread. The main point tells you that there are different types of bread: sourdough, wheat, white, and egg.

To check this brief outline for subordination, you would look to see what subpoints fall beneath the main point. Do all of the sub-points represent a type of bread? You will see that they do! Next, to check for coordination you would look at all of the subpoints that have a vertical relationship to each other. Are the subpoints these four types of bread? They are. The image also allows you to see what happens when you make a mistake. The third example shows the subpoints as sourdough, wheat, white, and jelly. Clearly, jelly is not a type of bread. Thus, there is a lack of both subordination and coordination in this short example. Make sure you spend some time checking the subordination and coordination of your own subpoints all the way throughout the outline until you have reached your last level of subordination. Now, study the image so that these principles of outlining are crystal clear; please ask your professor questions about this because it is a major part of speechmaking.

How to Check Your Outline for Accuracy

Subordinate points all represent or support the point above; and are on a **diagonal.**

I.   First, let me describe different types of bread.

    A.   There is sourdough bread.
    B.   There is wheat bread.
    C.   There is white bread.
    D.   There is egg bread.

Correct! A, B, C, and D are all types of bread and support main point I detailing types of bread.

Coordinate points all represent the same idea. The points are aligned **vertically.**

I.   First, let me describe different types of bread.

    A.   There is sourdough bread.
    B.   There is wheat bread.
    C.   There is white bread.
    D.   There is egg bread.

Correct! A, B, C, and D are all types of bread, so they are coordinate points.

I.   First, let me describe different types of bread.

    A.   There is sourdough bread.
    B.   There is wheat bread.
    C.   There is white bread.
    D.   There is grape jelly.

Incorrect! A, B, and C are all types of bread, but D is not a type of bread, therefore the subordination is wrong since D is a jelly, and coordination is wrong because A, B, C, and D are not all types of bread.

Figure 6.10: Checking Your Outline[36]

[36] Checking Your Outline by Victoria Leonard is licensed under CC0 1.0

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. For example, in the previous example on dogs, some of the sentences began with "some large breed dogs." 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. **Division** is a principle of outlining that requires a balance between two subpoints in an outline. For each idea in your speech, you should have enough subordinate ideas to explain the point in detail and you must have enough meaningful information so that you can divide it into a minimum of 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 (1 and 2). So, in other words, **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.

Connecting Your Main Points

There are different types of **transitions**, which are words or phrases that help you connect all sections of your speech. To guarantee the flow of the speech, you need to make connections between all sections of the outline. You will use these transitions in various places throughout the outline, especially between main points.

- **Internal Reviews (Summaries) and Previews** are short descriptions of what a speaker has said and what will be said between main points.

  Internal Reviews provide your audience with a cue that you have finished a main point and are moving on to the next main point. These also help remind the audience of what you have spoken about throughout your speech. For example, an internal review 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."

  Internal Previews lay out what will occur next in your speech. They are longer than transitional words or signposts. For example, "Next, let us explore what types of pencils there are to pick from that will be best for your specific project."

- **Signposts** are transitions that are not full sentences, but connect ideas using words like "first," "next," "also," "moreover," etc. Signposts are used within the main point you are discussing, and they help the audience know when you are moving to a new idea.

- A **nonverbal transition** is a transition that does not use words. Rather, movement, such as pausing as you move from one point to another is one way to use a nonverbal transition. You can also use inflection by raising the pitch of your voice on a signpost to indicate that you are transitioning as well.

These can work together as well. Here is an example:

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

Conclusion

Although this wasn't the most splashy chapter in the text, it is one of the most critical chapters in speechmaking. Communicating your ideas in an organized and developed fashion means that you will be understood by your audience easily. Each one of the principles and examples provided should be referenced as you work to develop your own speech.

Reflection Questions

1. How has the information regarding general and specific purpose statements helped you to narrow your topic for your speech?

2. Using brainstorming, can you generate a list of possible main points for your speech topic? Then, how will you decide which main points to speak on?

3. Which pattern(s) of organization do you think would be best for your informative speech? Is there a single pattern you will use, or do you think you might combine two patterns of organization?

4. Researchers say writing in small bursts is better. Do you agree that it is more effective to write your outline in small chunks of time rather than writing an entire speech in one day?

Key Terms

Body of the Speech	Internal Preview	Spatial Pattern
Casual Pattern	Main Points	Speaking Outline
Chronological (Temporal)	Nonverbal Transition	Specific Purpose Statement
Pattern	Outline	Subordination
Coordination	Parallelism	Thesis Statement
Division	Preparation Outline	Topical Pattern
General Purpose Statement	Preview Statement	Transitions
Internal Review (Summary)	Signpost	

Sample <u>Speaking</u> Outline

Topic: Dog

Thesis: There are many types of dogs that individuals can select from before deciding which would make the best family pet.

Preview: First, I will describe the characteristics of large breed dogs, and then I will discuss the characteristics of small breed dogs.

I. Characteristics of large breed dogs.
    A. Daily activity
    B. Friendliness

    C. Drooling
        1. If you are particularly neat or tidy.
            a. Bloodhounds
            b. English bloodhounds
        2. Apartment living

Internal Summary/Preview

  II. Characteristics of small breed dogs.
    A. Some small breed dogs need daily activity.
    B. Some small breed dogs are dog friendly.
    C. Some small breed dogs are friendly to strangers.
        1. Welsh Terriers
        2. Beagles
        3. Cockapoos

Chapter 7: Introductions and Conclusions

Amy Fara Edwards, Ed.D

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- explain the importance of an introduction.
- list and explain the essential elements of an introduction.
- outline the introduction.
- explain the importance of a conclusion.
- list and explain the basic elements of a conclusion.
- outline the conclusion in a speech outline.
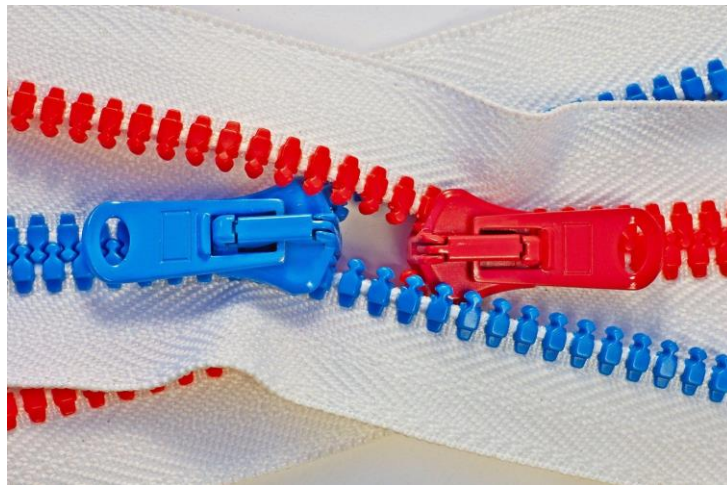
Figure 7.1: Zipper[37]

Introduction

Have you ever watched a television show and turned it off after the first scene? Why do you think that happened? Have you ever watched an entire television show because the first scene grabbed your attention and then you needed to see how the show ended? If you watched until the end, it was probably because the opening scene or, in this case, the **introduction**, grabbed your attention and hooked you in so you felt compelled to see what happens! If you turned the television off, then that first scene was lackluster, or otherwise off-putting, and made you change the channel. Speechwriting, or any writing in general, functions in this same way. The

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[37] Photo by Tomas Sobec on unsplash

introduction is the speaker's first and only chance to make a good impression, so, if done correctly, your speech will start strong and encourage the audience to listen to the rest.

Speech Introductions

The introduction for a speech is generally only 10 to 15 percent of the entire time the speaker will spend speaking. This means that if your speech is supposed to be five minutes long, your introduction should be no more than forty-five seconds. If your speech is supposed to be ten minutes long, then your introduction should be no more than a minute and a half.

Although this is a very short amount of time, unfortunately, that 10 to 15 percent of your speech will either get your audience interested in what you have to say or cause them to tune you out before you've even gotten started. Let's make sure you capture your audience's attention and learn the basic functions of the introduction.

Five Elements of the Introduction

We know it is critical to hook the audience in and follow five basic and essential elements that will serve you well in any writing that you are doing, especially when writing a speech. Before reading on, keep in mind that the order of the five elements differs from professor to professor, so ask your professor what order they are looking for. (Did you ask yet?) The content will be the same, but the format may differ.

Attention Getter

The first major purpose of an introduction is to gain your audience's attention and get them interested in what you have to say; you need to "hook" them in immediately. By definition, an **attention getter** is the first part of the introduction using a specific strategy in order to grab an audience's attention. One of the biggest mistakes that novice speakers make is to assume that people will *naturally* listen because the speaker is speaking. While many audiences may be polite and not talk while you're speaking, actually getting them to listen to what you are saying is a completely different challenge. Let's face it – we've all tuned someone out at some point because we weren't interested in what they had to say (never your professor, of course!). If you don't get the audience's attention at the onset, it will only become more difficult as you continue speaking.

Which type of introduction is best will depend on the type of audience and how it explicitly (directly) connects to your topic. Do not rely on a gimmick! Here are a few specific strategies for grabbing an audience's attention:

- A story or detailed factual or hypothetical instance.
- A cliffhanger story.
- Examples related to your topic.
- A joke or humorous instance, if appropriate.
- Quoting or paraphrasing a well-known source.

- A startling fact related to the topic.
- Referring to the occasion.
- Opening with a piece of folklore—a fable, saying, poem, or rhyme.
- Giving a brief demonstration of a procedure or skill.

EXAMPLE ATTENTION GETTER FROM A SPEECH ABOUT NASA'S ARTEMIS PROGRAM:

"I'd like you all to shout out the names of famous astronauts [be prepared for the audience to shout names like Neil Armstrong, Buzz Aldrin, Al Shephard, John Glenn]. The names of some of these people are names that every schoolchild knows – as well as their quotes. Can you finish this line: "One small step for a man…"? What about, "Houston, we have a…"? These men, and the words they said, are famous because they were involved in a program that brought humans to the moon. They made history. But what names will we remember after we go back to the moon?"

Thesis (Central Idea)

A study by Baker (1965) found that individuals who were unorganized while speaking were perceived as less credible than those individuals who were organized. Having a solid central idea contained within one's speech will help your audience keep track of where you are in the speech. The **thesis statement, or central idea,** acts as the part of the introduction that tells the audience *exactly* what you want them to know when the speech is complete.

Establish Credibility and Rapport

One of the most researched areas within the field of communication has been Aristotle's concept of **ethos** or **credibility**. The concept of credibility must be understood as a perception of receivers. How are you perceived by the audience? Why? Give some thought to how others *see you* and what that means for writing a speech. You may be the most competent, caring, and trustworthy speaker in the world on a given topic, but if your audience does not *perceive* you as credible, then your expertise and passion will not matter.

James C. McCroskey and Jason J. Teven (1999) have conducted extensive research on credibility and have determined that an individual's credibility is composed of three factors: competence, trustworthiness, and caring/goodwill. These factors make up a speaker's perceived knowledge or expertise in a given subject by an audience member. Some individuals are given expert status because of the positions they hold in society. Can you think of a person you label as credible in our society? Maybe Oprah Winfrey or President Barack Obama? Have you ever considered that you have never met (most likely) either of these individuals in person, but rely on their communication and their speechmaking to know them and understand them? This means that they have both established their ethos, their credibility, by showcasing who they are, what they do, and what it means for *you* as an audience member.

Figure 7.2: Oprah Winfrey[38]

As public speakers, we need to make sure that we explain to our audiences *why* we are credible speakers on a given topic. People in the audience most likely do not know you, so it is your job as the speaker to *establish* what the audience needs to know in order for them to believe you. I wouldn't believe President Obama if he told me he makes the best dessert, but I would believe Martha Stewart. Would you?

Relate to Your Audience

Another major function of an introduction is motivating the audience to listen. We cannot expect that once we take our place in front of the room all eyes will turn to us and they will immediately *want* to listen. Even if, at this point in the introduction, we have grabbed their attention, told them exactly what the speech will be about, and established our credibility, we now have to make it *relevant* to the audience. In a way, we must *prove* that our topic is worthy of their attention because the subject matter impacts them directly. Direct and meaningful is the name of the game! Think about what might motivate you to listen. Do you always walk into class motivated to listen to your professor? Hopefully. If the professor works hard to motivate you to *want* to listen, you tend to be more successful in that class.

Think of your favorite professor from a subject you don't like very much. Is it easy to be motivated to listen? Probably not, so rather than the professor giving up and saying, "oh well, no one likes my subject," they work hard to use their communication skills to capture you and make the subject relevant to your life even if you disliked the subject walking into the class. Have you ever taken a class that you thought you'd hate, but the professor made it so compelling and relevant that you completely changed your mind, or even your major?

Motivating your audience to listen in the introduction is also critical to help establish a connection between the speaker and the audience. One of the most effective means of

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establishing a connection with your audience is to provide them with a brief list of reasons *why* they should listen to your speech. This audience-speaker relationship starts the moment you step to the front of the room to start speaking. What can you say that makes the audience truly see how they are impacted by what you are about to say? For example, it might be easy for an audience of car mechanics to be motivated to listen to a speech about lowering the costs of fixing cars, but would they also be interested in the subject of space travel or home design as therapeutic work? What can we say to the audience of car mechanics about home design that will motivate them to listen? Go ahead, give it a try!

Overall, you must remember that humans are complex. Car mechanics are not only interested in cars, just like students aren't only interested in school. When we are drafting a speech with the audience in mind, we must find a way to get to know the audience and craft our writing to motivate them to listen. Remember, this is critical in the process of audience analysis. Don't simply *assume* the audience will make their own connections to the material, you must *explicitly state* how your information might be useful to your audience. Tell them *directly* how they might use your information themselves. It is not enough for you alone to be interested in your topic. You need to build a bridge to the audience by explicitly connecting your topic to their possible needs.

Preview What's Coming

The last thing you include in your introduction is the preview of your main points. This preview establishes the direction your speech will take. In the most basic speech format, speakers generally use two to five main points for the body of the speech, but your instructor will guide you for your specific assignment. During the preview, a speaker outlines what these points will be, and in doing so, also demonstrates to the audience that the speaker is organized. Think of the preview as the "GPS" given to the audience; when you introduce the topic with a clear thesis and preview of main points, it will keep the audience following the "GPS" on your figurative map.

Optional Features of the Introduction

- Including background information for context.

- Defining unfamiliar or technical terms.

- Mentioning handouts if they are integrated into the actual speech prior to the conclusion.

Speech Conclusions

Have you ever noticed that so many public speakers say "that's it" at the end of their speeches? Usually, it is because speakers want to make sure the audience knows they are finished. Of course, a simple "thank you" indicates the end of the speech, but we also need to craft a few concluding statements to guarantee the audience knows this is our wrap-up. When the credits roll on a television show, we know it is the end, but the scene right before the credits, needs to button up the entire show. Audiences like it when things are tied up at the end, and it can also help audiences retain the information if the speech comes to an organized conclusion. An effective conclusion should take no more than five to ten percent of the total speaking time so you have to end quickly and strongly!

The ultimate goal of the **conclusion** is to signal that the end of a speech is near. Some might think this is a "no brainer," but many beginner speakers don't usually prepare their audience for the end well enough. When a speaker just suddenly stops speaking, the audience can be left confused and disappointed. Instead, we want to make sure that the audience is left knowledgeable and satisfied with our speech. We always think of a conclusion sort of like exiting a highway off-ramp. We slow down, we signal, and we figure out what is next (turn or go straight), and we make it to our destination. Your planning can help do the same for a speech.

Figure 7.3: End of Path[39]

Elements of the Conclusion

Organizing the conclusion helps make sure your audience understands what you have said, helps them remember all points, and provides closure. Don't forget to check with your professor for the exact order they are looking for.

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[39] Photo by Patrick Perkins on unsplash

Review Your Thesis

Here is your chance to remind the audience of "what you told them." You can restate your main ideas and make sure they remember the ultimate goal of the speech. A lot of time has passed from the thesis in the introduction to this part of the conclusion, so this is your chance to make sure the audience knows exactly what they need to know. This first step of the conclusion is to provide a short summary of the main ideas.

Reason to Remember

This section isn't as clear-cut as some of the others. This is your chance to get that one final point into the speech that might not have made it into the body of the speech. For example, you might have done a speech about making the best salsa in California, but you never told the audience to wash their hands. You can do it here in this section of the conclusion. Or you might have done a speech on the importance of voting in the next election, and here is a good place to explain to the audience the best way to find their closest polling place. In this section, you might also provide a website for the audience to go to if they want more information about your topic.

For persuasive speeches, this item will be a **call to action** which is when you state the specific actions for your audience to take. Depending on the persuasive organizational pattern used, you may have given the audience specific steps to take action, but here in the conclusion, you will remind them of the *best* way to act. For example, you might say something like, "Don't forget to call 818-555-1234" or you might say, "send your letter to your congressperson today!" This step in the conclusion is your final chance to make the information relevant to the audience and accomplish what you planned to accomplish when you started drafting your speech. Check with your professor here because they may have more specific details for you to add.

Tie-Back to the Attention Getter

This section is where you tie up the entire speech and connect the very beginning to the very end. You are using this section to come "full circle." A **tie-back** is when you end your speech by connecting it back directly to your attention getter. For example, if you start with a story about a girl named Maria, then you should refer back to the story about Maria and give some final comments. Maybe your speech was about Euthanasia, and you started with the story of Jorge and his family. Here, in the end, you might tell us how Jorge's family is doing now. Or maybe your speech was about the importance of going to graduate school and you started with a personal story about your mother going to graduate school. Here you might tell us how your mom is doing now and the impact that graduate degree is having on your family. Do you remember how *we* started this chapter? I guess you'll have to wait until our tie-back. Test yourself now to see if you remember. Do you?

Now what kind of conclusion to this chapter would it be if we didn't offer our own summary, a reason to remember, and a tie-back? Let's do it!

Conclusion

This chapter focused on the basic elements for writing the introduction and the conclusion. The goal was to prepare you to be successful and offer the specific parts that need to be organized at the beginning and the end (that was the review).

Make sure you remember some key "takeaways." Introductions and conclusions are only approximately ten percent of one's speech, so speakers need to make sure they think through these critical parts of the speech. You need to make an impression and strive to be both competent and honest while speaking. A strong conclusion is very important because it's a speaker's final chance to really explain the importance of their message and allows the speaker to both signal the end of the speech and help the audience to remember the main ideas. As such, speakers need to thoroughly examine how they will start and how they will finish with power (that was the reason to remember).

Audiences tend to remember ideas that are stated at the beginning or in the end. Think about that television show we talked about at the very start of this chapter. How many times do you watch something on television you didn't plan to watch? If you continue to watch, it was because the show captured your attention. Today, we are inundated with videos. If the videos start strong, we keep watching. If they end strong, we may become a subscriber to their channel. You need to harness the power of the introduction and the conclusion. You are the one who can grab and keep the audience's attention and generate credibility and goodwill along the way (that was the tie-back).

Reflection Questions

1. What catches your attention when you are watching a movie? How about talking to a friend? What typically occurs to grab your attention and encourage you to listen?

2. What method of introducing a speech do you think your audience will be most intrigued by?

3. How do you think a cliffhanger can be used for an informative or persuasive speech? Why might this be a great technique?

4. How can a speaker's attitude and demeanor change how the audience feels at the end of a speech? How does this connect to the aspects of a conclusion?

Key Terms

Attention Getter	Credibility (Ethos)	Thesis
Call to Action	Introduction	Tie-Back
Conclusion	Signposting	

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Chapter 8: Delivering Your Speech

Lauren Rome

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- compare and contrast the four methods of speech delivery and when to use them.
- explain ways to engage audiences in online settings.
- explain how the physical setting of a speech affects delivery.
- identify key elements in preparing to deliver a speech.
- examine some tips and strategies for common speaking situations.

Figure 8.1: Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.[40]

Introduction

If you're like most people, you probably aren't afraid of the preparation involved in giving a speech. Instead, you're more likely anxious about delivering your actual speech to an audience. The irony, of course, is that your speech delivery is actually the shortest aspect of the entire process. You will spend much more time (days, at least) researching, compiling, and practicing your speech, while the actual delivery will be somewhere between five and ten minutes.

Let's look at this hypothetical scenario about two public speaking students, Sasha and Andres. Sasha spends weeks researching, outlining, and crafting her speech. When it comes to delivering her speech, she is conversational and engaging but messes up a couple of times when trying to remember her oral citations. Although Sasha thinks this has ruined her speech, the audience thinks her speech was informative and interesting. Audiences are less apt to

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93 | P r e p a r e ,   P r a c t i c e   a n d   P e r f o r m

notice little mistakes in a speech, and if they did, they would most likely blame any imperfections on a case of nerves.

On the other hand, Andres does not spend as much time preparing and relies on the fact that he is comfortable in front of a crowd and good at "winging it." Although the audience might consider him to be entertaining, they might also find themselves unable to recall any substantial information delivered in the speech.

The moral of the story is clear: a well-prepared speech delivered with flaws is still a well-prepared and significant speech, but a speech poorly prepared yet delivered flawlessly, is still a poorly prepared and insignificant speech.

We do realize students feel the most anxiety about delivering their speech. This chapter is designed to help you achieve the best delivery possible and eliminate some of the nervousness you might be feeling. In this chapter, we are going to examine best practices for delivering speeches in multiple situations.

Methods of Delivery

Speeches are categorized into four broad methods of delivery, depending on the amount of preparation required and the nature of the occasion. We aim to acquaint you with these four methods of delivery, and how you focus your time on the preparation, practice, and presentation of extemporaneous speeches.

Manuscript Speaking

Manuscript speaking is the word-for-word iteration of a written message. You might be familiar with manuscript-style speeches if you have ever heard a State of the Union Address given by a president, or if you watch cable news anchors deliver the news. In each of these cases, the choice to use a manuscript is made because the exact words matter, and much time and energy are expended on getting everything *just right*.

There are costs involved in manuscript speaking. If you are not experienced in using them, your presentation will likely sound robotic and disengaging. Additionally, if you are reliant upon a manuscript to convey your points, your focus will be on the script itself instead of making eye contact with the audience. If you speak from a manuscript, you do not "see" your audience; therefore, you are not receiving their messages and cannot react appropriately. Most likely, unless you're running for President, or you're in an oral interpretation class, you won't use this method.

Memorized Speaking

When you were in elementary school, did you ever have to memorize a poem or a part of a speech? If you are like most students, the answer is "Yes." There is nothing wrong with

memorization. But if you try to memorize an entire speech, you risk forgetting what you planned to say and coming across as completely unprepared.

Memorized speaking is when a speaker commits their entire speech to memory. Although it might be tempting to do this, it is not expected of you in an introductory public speaking course. Memorization is a significant time commitment and there are many risks associated with this method. Often, when attempting to memorize speech content, there is potential to overlook verbal and nonverbal elements of delivery. Will you also memorize which gestures you use, or when you pause? What about the tone or pitch used to make your voice sound engaging? If these are missed, you might remember to say all the right words, but your audience will be bored. The greatest risk of memorization, though, is forgetting your words. If you go completely blank during the presentation, it will be extremely difficult to find your place and keep going.

Impromptu Speaking

Impromptu speaking is when a speech is delivered with little to no advanced preparation. This might sound intimidating, but impromptu speeches are not usually as long and detailed as the assigned speeches you're preparing in a public speaking class. Likely, you've already given many impromptu speeches throughout your life. For example, if you've ever had to introduce yourself to a class at the beginning of the semester, or had to explain to your parents why you're late for curfew you've definitely given an impromptu speech before. Overall, Impromptu speaking is the most common speech you'll give.

Extemporaneous Speaking

Extemporaneous speaking means that you've had plenty of time to research, prepare and rehearse. If you've made it this far in the textbook, then you're probably in a public speaking class and developing a speech to extemporaneously deliver to your class. The goal of extemporaneous delivery is not to memorize your speech word for word, but to know the general content and then speak conversationally using brief notes to help keep you on track.

Speaking extemporaneously has many advantages. First, it allows you to connect with your audience, which promotes the likelihood that they will perceive you as knowledgeable and credible. In addition, your audience will pay attention to the message because it is engaging both verbally and nonverbally. The disadvantage of extemporaneous speaking is that it requires a great deal of preparation for both the verbal and the nonverbal components of the speech. If you think back to the scenario in our introduction, such preparation cannot be achieved the day before your speech.

Since extemporaneous speaking is the style used in the great majority of public speaking situations, most of the information in this chapter is targeted to this kind of speaking.

Understanding the Speaking Situation

Depending on the situation in which you are speaking, many elements are likely to change. For example, giving a speech in a college classroom is going to be different from presenting at work, or giving your maid of honor or best man toast. In each of these scenarios, there are things you must take into account to deliver your speech effectively. These elements might include the location, room and audience size, or furniture and equipment.
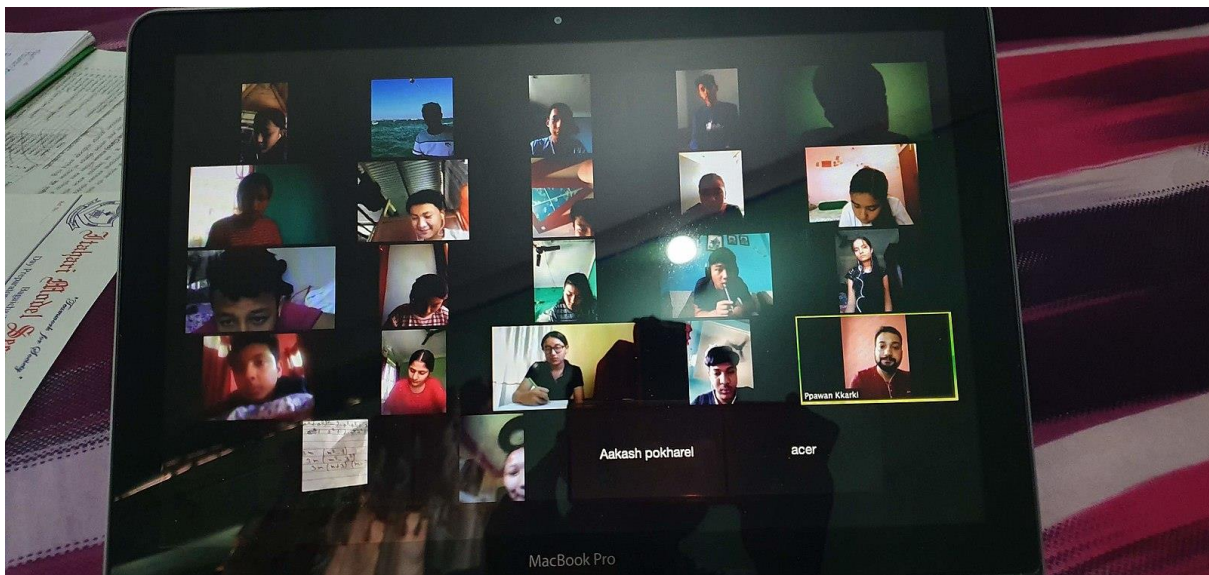
Delivering to a Virtual Audience

Figure 8.2: Zoom Classroom[41]

Whether in an online class, a *Zoom* interview, or a virtual meeting with your team, knowing how to present information online is a necessary skill for the modern world. Although you aren't always able to see your entire audience at any given time, they will always be able to see you! Mary Abbajay in Forbes (2020) provides some tips for a successful virtual presentation:

- **Get the Lighting Right**: As a presenter, it is essential that people can see you well. Make sure you have good lighting in front of your face. If your back is to a window, close the shades. While natural light is often the best choice, if your workspace doesn't have natural light and you do a lot of virtual presentations, consider purchasing supplemental lighting to enhance your image.

- **Choose the Right Background**: Avoid a cluttered background or anything that can be distracting. Learn whether your presentation platform enables you to use virtual backgrounds (like *Zoom*) or whether you can blur your background. We don't want to see your messy, cluttered bedroom or workspace.

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- **Know the Technology**: A dry run is essential so that you're comfortable with the platform features. Make sure you practice with the same technical setup (computer and internet connection) that you will use when you deliver the presentation.

- **Play to the Camera**: When you are the one speaking, look directly into your computer's camera, not on the screen or at the other participants. This takes some practice, but it makes the viewer feel as if you are looking right at them. Some presenters turn off their self-view so that they aren't distracted by their own image. Put the camera at eye level. Try not to have your camera too far above or below you. If it's too low, then you run the risk of creating a double chin. And to the audience, this makes it appear as though you are looking down toward the desk or floor! A camera too high makes it difficult to maintain eye contact, as you may find your gaze dropping as you speak.

- **Get Close (But Not Too Close)**: You want the camera to frame your face, shoulders, and waist. Check with your professor about specific requirements. People are drawn to faces, so you don't want to lose that connection by being too far away, but you also don't want your face to take over the whole screen like a dismembered head because, well, that looks weird. Practice your positioning and distance.

- **Stand Up**: Standing up provides a higher energy level and forces us to put our bodies in a more presentation-like mode. Standing up mirrors a typical live speaking situation, which is more professional.

- **Do A Sound Check**: If your sound is garbled, people will tune out (and your instructor won't be able to grade your speech!). While people may forgive less than perfect videos, if they can't hear you, they miss your message. Practice with someone on the other end of the presentation platform. Make sure your sound emits clearly. Sometimes headphones or external microphones work better than computer audio, sometimes not. Every platform is different, so make sure your sound quality is excellent every time.

- **Plug into Your Modem**: If possible, plug your computer directly into your modem using an Ethernet cable. This will give you the strongest signal and most stable internet connection. The last thing you want to happen during your presentation is to have a weak or unstable internet signal.

- **Be Yourself and Have Fun**: Again, just like in face-to-face presentations, audiences connect to authenticity, so be yourself! Let your personality show through. Have fun. If you look like you're enjoying the presentation, so will others. Happy people retain information better than bored or disinterested people, so model the energy that you want to create. The audience takes its cue from you.

Delivering to a Live Audience: Physical Spaces and Audiences

Unlike virtual spaces, physical spaces with live, in-person audiences have different variables that need to be considered. The size of the room or location where the speech is delivered, and the size of the audience might change elements of our delivery.

Figure 8.3: Auditorium [42]

Since this is a public speaking textbook before college, you might already be familiar with the location of the speeches you will be giving when you graduate. All classrooms are not created equal, though. Some classes can be small and quaint, while others are held in lecture halls that hold hundreds of people. Depending on where you will be speaking, let's look at some important considerations:

- How large is the space I will be speaking in? Do I need a microphone?
- If I am not using a microphone, how loud will I need to speak so everyone can hear me?
- How is the space configured? Where do I need to stand so my audience can see me clearly?
- How will movement enhance my connection to the audience?
- What furniture and equipment might I need to use?

Furniture and Equipment

Some classrooms, lecture halls, conference rooms, or stages may have furniture or equipment that can be used to support a speaker's delivery. Although this is not an exhaustive list, the two most common apparatuses are briefly discussed below: lecterns and microphones.

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LECTERNS AND PODIUMS

Although these might make your presentation feel more formal, they can be used to the speaker's advantage. Lecterns and podiums are a great place to set your notes so you can gesture freely, or move around to engage with the audience. Also, if you are worried about what to do with your hands, it could be a nice place to rest them. Just be careful to check in on how you are resting them; it is all too tempting to grip the edges of the lectern with both hands for security. You also don't want to use lecterns and podiums as a physical crutch and lean on them.

Figure 8.4: Student Speech[43]

MICROPHONES

If the setting is large enough, you might need to use a microphone to help project your voice. While this isn't a frequent occurrence for beginning speakers, it could be something you encounter. Microphones require preparation and adaptation. If a microphone is too close or far from your mouth, it could distort or drop your voice. Some microphones only pick up your voice if you speak directly into them. The best plan, of course, would be to have access to the microphone for practice ahead of the speaking date.

Preparing for Your Speech Delivery

Now with a better understanding of the variables of the speaking situation, you can begin thinking about your actual speech delivery. Although this book has spent a lot of time on the structure and content of your speech, those will fall flat if you forget to consider your verbal and nonverbal delivery.

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Consider Verbal and Nonverbal Elements

Sometimes it isn't *what* you say, but *how* you say it that matters in public speaking. Although you will spend a considerable amount of time writing and organizing the content of your speech, those words could fall flat if you don't consider the verbal and nonverbal elements that can help them come alive. **Vocal variety**, the use of multiple delivery elements at once, helps to keep your delivery engaging and your audience connected.

Verbal and Vocal Elements

- **Pronunciation**: The conventional patterns of speech used to form a word. If you are not familiar with how to pronounce a word, look it up. If you can't find it, find a way to confidently pronounce the word that you will remember; you don't want to tell the audience you don't know how to pronounce it or stumble through the word.

- **Enunciation**: How clearly the speaker pronounces words. If you've ever had to ask someone to repeat a word, they may suffer from poor enunciation.

- **Articulation:** Using your mouth, tongue, and airflow as the instrument to produce sound. Whether you say "tomato or to*mah*to" is the difference in articulation.

- **Volume**: The loudness or softness of a speaker's voice. Controlling your volume ensures your audience can hear you clearly, add variety, and bring attention to the most important moments in the speech.

- **Pitch**: The highness or lowness of a speaker's voice. A voice that lacks variety in pitch can be described as monotone.

- **Rate**: How quickly or slowly you speak. Controlling your rate can be one of the most challenging things a speaker has to do. When nerves kick in, it can be really hard to pull back on the speed that you're talking, since you likely just want to "get this over with." When a speaker's rate is too quick, the audience has a hard time following along.

- **Flow of Delivery**: The consistency of delivery. Is the delivery smooth or is it disrupted with a start-stop style? The goal is to have a smooth delivery.

- **Pause**: A break in speaking. Never underestimate the power of the pause. It can focus the audience's attention or create anticipation. Hot tip - pauses give you time to think about what you're going to say.

- **Vocalized Pauses**: Are words or sounds such as, "um," "like," "ya know," or "uh." These can take the place of an actual word or silent pause. Instead of filler words, use that moment to pause for a breath and collect your thoughts.

- **Energy and Enthusiasm**: All verbal and vocal elements are enhanced by giving the delivery energy and enthusiasm because it provides voice inflection which is a change in tonality. The more excited we are during the delivery, the more engaged the audience will be.

Nonverbal Elements

- **Eye Contact**: Use your eyes to directly connect with your audience. Eye contact lets your audience feel that you are speaking directly to them. It is the fastest, and easiest, way to create a relationship with your audience. This is the *single* most powerful nonverbal element of your delivery. Think this is important yet?

- **Gestures**: Motions with your hands or arms. You do not want to talk too much with your hands, but you do not want to stand like a statue either. Controlled body language and variety in gestures help to reinforce your points and help the audience interpret the impact of your words.

- **Facial Expressions**: How your eyes and mouth work to display the "emotional tone" of a message. Direct eye contact and smiling when appropriate, or not smiling when appropriate, will help the audience understand your message. Your face tells a story. Does it match your speech?

- **Physical Appearance:** To have the best impact on an audience, you also need to think about your clothing and appearance basics. You don't need to run and get plastic surgery or buy expensive new clothes, but you do need to think about the impression your appearance might make. If you want to be taken seriously, you must present yourself seriously. Keep in mind that your goal is to have your audience focus on your face rather than an article of clothing or your uncombed hair. You do not want to be too revealing in your choice of clothing because it is a distraction. My advice: wear what makes you feel most confident, and make sure the outfit is professional and fits the occasion. Some professors may suggest informal professional dress such as khaki pants and a collared shirt. Other professors may encourage formal professional dress such as slacks and a collared, button-up shirt. This is a good time to discuss dress with your professor.

Figure 8.5: Commencement Speech[44]

Practicing Your Speech

Have you heard the saying "practice makes perfect"? Well, forget it. Perfection is not a realistic goal. Instead, you should aim to be prepared, which is exactly what practice will give you. Try this new phrase: "practice makes better." What do you think? You might think that the purpose of practicing is to memorize the words written in your outline, but this isn't true. Usually, you aren't graded on whether or not you say the words exactly as they are written in your outline. Instead, practice lets you get comfortable with the content and find areas for improvement. It's simple, more practice means less anxiety; more practice means better delivery. Let's look at some strategies for practicing your speeches so you can feel more confident in your delivery.

Imitate the Speaking Situation

If you recall earlier in this chapter, the speaking situation is the setting, location, or platform in which you might be giving your speech. When practicing, it is ideal for you to get familiar with the speaking situation *before* you give your presentation. If you are speaking in a conference room or a classroom, it's necessary to understand how loud you need to project your voice, or how the room might affect your ability to make eye contact with your audience.

Additionally, if you only read your speech in your head, or whisper the words quietly to yourself, you aren't actually practicing for a public speech. Practicing your speech in the way in which you will deliver (stand up, speak out loud, use eye contact, etc.) helps you get more comfortable with the content and whether you tend to mispronounce or stumble over words. Also, sentences on paper do not always translate well to the spoken medium. Practicing out loud allows you to actually hear where your sentences and phrases are awkward, unnatural, or too long, and allows you to correct them before getting up in front of the audience.

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The more similar you can make the practice setting to the speaking setting, the more prepared you will be. I always tell my students: you don't want the first time you are delivering your speech to be when you are delivering your speech to the entire audience.

Get Feedback from Others

This is a challenging task, and unless you have the ability to clone yourself, you can't do this alone. Seeking useful, constructive feedback from your classmates, peers, or family can make the difference between a good speech and a great speech. By practicing your speech in front of others, they can share their opinion on your language choices, verbal and nonverbal elements, and timing.

One thing you have to ask of your observers: *be honest*. They can't just tell you, "That was great!" since that doesn't tell you what was great. It might help to give them specific questions to answer:

- How was my eye contact?
- Could you hear me?
- Was my voice engaging or monotone?
- Did I mispronounce any words?
- How was my posture?
- Were my gestures effective?
- Did I have any mannerisms or distracting habits that I should try to avoid?

Record Yourself Delivering Your Speech

We know this feels "cringey," but a video recording can help you identify elements of your speech content and delivery that another observer might not. Are you concerned about what you do with your hands when you speak? Or whether your voice is as powerful as you planned? Or how many vocalized pauses do you use? A video recording allows you to be the audience member of your own speech and is invaluable in creating the overall presentation you want.

Tips for Effective Delivery

Figure 8.6: Prateek Kalakuntla[45]

Know your material. You should know the information so well you do not have to devote your mental energy to the task of remembering the sequence of ideas and words.

Prepare well and rehearse enough so you don't have to rely heavily on notes. Many speakers, no matter how well prepared, need at least a few notes to deliver their message. Even your professors use lecture slides or outlines to help keep them on track! If you can speak effectively without notes, by all means, do so. But if you choose to use notes, they should be only a delivery outline or keyword outline. Notes are not a substitute for preparation and practice.

Establish a personal bond with listeners. Begin by selecting one person and talking to them personally. Maintain eye contact with the person long enough to establish a visual bond (about five to ten seconds). This is usually the equivalent of a sentence or a thought. Then shift your gaze to another person. In a small group, this is relatively easy to do. But, if you are addressing hundreds or thousands of people, it is impossible. What you can do is pick out one or two individuals in each section of the room and establish personal bonds. Then, each listener will get the impression you are talking directly to them.

Monitor visual feedback. While you are talking, your listeners are responding with their nonverbal messages, such as head nods, wrinkled or furrowed brows, wide eyes, or even tears. Use your eyes to actively seek out this valuable feedback. If individuals aren't looking at you, they may not be listening either. Make sure they can hear you. Consider moving towards them and work to actively engage them.

Additionally, if you look out at your audience and you notice that someone has a confused expression on their face, that is a signal that something you've said is unclear. There is *nothing* wrong with stopping and rephrasing what you are saying. After all, your speech is for the audience and their understanding. Monitoring visual feedback helps you as a speaker and helps you to be seen as a more credible speaker.

Conclusion

Good delivery is meant to support your speech and help convey your information to the audience. Anything that has the potential to distract your audience means that fewer people will be informed, persuaded, or entertained by what you have said. Practicing your speech in an environment that closely resembles the actual situation that you will be speaking in will better prepare you for what to do and how to deliver your speech when it counts.

Remember, whether you are presenting in person or virtually, all presentations are audience-centered. Their time is valuable, so honor that time by delivering the best presentation you can. No matter what kind of presentation you are giving, you must find ways to create authentic audience connection, engagement, and value.

Reflection Questions

1. After having reviewed the methods of delivery, how do you see extemporaneous speaking as an effective tool you can use in the classroom or in a career?

2. If you are delivering a speech in a virtual room, what aspects of your speaking area do you need to change so that you are clearly visible and easily heard by the audience?

3. After reading about vocal, verbal, and nonverbal elements of delivery, how will you improve your own delivery?

4. What will be your specific method of practicing for your speeches? Who can you practice in front of? Will you record your speech and watch it back to evaluate the delivery?

Key Terms

Articulation	Gestures	Pronunciation
Enunciation	Impromptu Speaking	Rate
Extemporaneous Speaking	Manuscript Speaking	Vocalized Pause
Eye Contact	Memorized Speaking	Volume
Facial Expression	Pause	
Flow of Delivery	Pitch	

Reference

Abbajay, M. (2020, April 20). *Best practices for virtual presentations: 15 expert tips that work for everyone*. Forbes. Retrieved April 15, 2022, from https://www.forbes.com/sites/maryabbajay/2020/04/20/best-practices-for-virtual-presentations-15-expert-tips-that-work-for-everyone/

Chapter 9: Presentation Aids

Victoria Leonard

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- identify the importance of using presentation aids.
- describe the types of presentation aids used for public speaking.
- examine the methods for effectively creating presentation aids.
- list the guidelines for using presentation aids effectively.

Figure 9.1: Katherine Maher[46]

Introduction

We are sure that there are days when you just throw your clothes on to go to school or work, and that is all that is important! But, there are other days when you may choose to wear jewelry, hats, belts, or other accessory items. Presentation aids can be looked at as those accessory items. They don't detract from what you are wearing, but rather the goal is to *enhance* what you are wearing! In writing a speech we all tend to put our greatest effort into the construction of the speech outline. That is still your primary goal. However, your instructor may ask you to also construct a **presentation aid**, which is anything that helps you convey the meaning of your speech to the audience. A presentation aid is a resource that goes *beyond* the words you say in a speech and enhances the message for the audience. This is not a "busy-work" activity! There are important reasons to construct presentation aids.

The Power of Presentation Aids

If you recall back to your youth, or even now, this may resonate with you. If you ever asked a parent why you had to do something, the answer you might have received would have been "Because I said so!" We hope that in looking at the value and power of presentation aids you will see that our reasons for telling you to use them in your speech go beyond what your professors have as requirements for your speech. There are six important reasons to use presentation aids.

Presentation Aids Add Clarity to Your Speech

Imagine a speech on how to do yoga. Would you know how to position your body without seeing either a picture, video, or human demonstration? Probably not. You would need something to see to be able to then go home and duplicate their movements. Presentation aids make your speech easier to understand.

Figure 9.2: Scorpion Pose[47]

Presentation Aids Add Interest to Your Speech

This does not mean you are not interesting! When we have something to look at that is interesting, unique, and meaningful, there is the "ah-ha" moment that makes the speech more exciting. Later in this chapter, you will read more about the types of things you can do, but here's an example of some of my favorite presentation aids. One student doing a speech on Harry Potter created a book that was three feet high. The cover of the book was a hand-drawn picture of Harry Potter and each subsequent page showed each of the books of the series. The detail and creativity were so compelling that the class was truly mesmerized.

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[47] Photo by Mr. Yoga is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0

Figure 9.3: Harry Potter's Cupboard under the Stairs[48]

Presentation Aids Help the Audience Remember What You Said

Before we had *WAZE* or *MAPS*, people would often give directions on how to get somewhere. Some of those directions could be complicated (especially if you live in a busy city). If you ever learned CPR, you probably remembered it for a short time, but could you replicate the process? Simply showing someone a map or watching a YouTube video on CPR can make it so much easier! You won't need to give long explanations when you have a visual. Many of us are visual learners. When we engage more than our sense of hearing, we are more apt to remember facts and details.

Figure 9.4: Demonstration of CPR[49]

Presentation Aids Make You a Credible Speaker

The effort you put into a quality visual will simply make YOU look better. Whether you design a simple PowerPoint, dress in a costume, or create posters, well-designed presentation aids will impress your audience and show that you cared enough about your speech to put in the effort.

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[48] Photo by Ank Kumar is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0
[49] Photo by John is Licensed under CC BY-SA 2.0

Figure 9.5: Business Attire[50]

Presentation Aids Prove Your Point

If you've ever heard the phrase "seeing is believing" then this will make sense to you. Whether the point is to believe that a friend can stand on their head, or a much more serious situation that might be represented in print media, presentation aids help everyone understand and believe what you say. Can you do splits while standing on one leg like Olympic ice skater Kamila Valieva? Perhaps you can, but telling an audience you can as opposed to seeing it done proves your point.

Figure 9.6: Kamila Valieva[51]

Presentation Aids Can Help with Speech Anxiety

The more you use any form of presentation aid, you have something else to focus on aside from your anxiety. Some might argue that having something else to focus on will create more anxiety, but with practice, you will find that having something to hold or show an audience will calm your nerves. If you have ever used a stress ball, that squishy object that you can hold in

[50] Photo on pxhere is licensed under CC0 1.0
[51] Photo by Luu is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0

your hand to help minimize stress, focusing on something within your speech that is outside of yourself can result in the same effect.

Types of Presentation Aids

There are many different types of presentation aids available. In this next section, we will explore the types of presentation aids you can use, and then we will look at the media for your presentation aids; what to put them on. It is always best to check with your instructor if you are unsure about the use of any presentation aid for your particular assignment.

Objects

Depending on your topic, objects can be very effective presentation aids. **Objects** consist of any item that you can hold up to show an audience. However, there are important guidelines. Objects need to be large enough to show your audience. If you are presenting a speech on how to string a necklace, chances are your necklace will not be large enough. Students presenting in a classroom need to keep in mind the distance of the audience; however, presenting in *Zoom* would allow you to show a smaller object because you can easily hold it up to the webcam.

Figure 9.7: Beaded Necklace[52]

Models

When it is not possible to bring an object into a classroom or a *Zoom* room, models are excellent alternatives. **Models** are small or large-scale representations of an object. For example, I once had a student who wanted to show the class how to bathe her dog. Since it wasn't workable to bring her dog into a classroom, she made a model of a bathtub using creative plastic materials and she brought in a stuffed toy dog. We are all only limited by our own creativity!

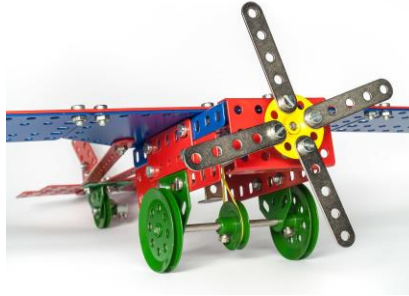[52] Photo by Auckland Museum is licensed under CC BY 4.0

Figure 9.8: Toy Airplane53

Charts

Charts consist of information that is listed or represented in some way on your presentation aid. Charts could be designed simply in a PowerPoint or could be designed on a poster board. If you are doing a speech on depression, stress, or a disease, a chart could simply list the symptoms for your audience. They can be an effective presentation aid when you have a block of text that you want to show. Just be cautious not to put too much information on the chart. For example, the Symptoms of Stress chart included below provides you with a good guideline. A header with three to five bullet points is substantial enough to make a point and will not be too much information for an audience to comprehend.

Symptoms of Stress
Feelings of fatigue
Feeling anxious
Difficulty sleeping
Stomach problems
Clenching or grinding teeth

Figure 9.9: Symptoms of Stress[54]

Infographics

Infographics are visual representations that may use icons, diagrams, illustrations, and some limited text. These have become popular due to the ease of understanding the content and the creative way in which you can use different approaches to create them. For example, an infographic can be used to show the audience information about the COVID-19 pandemic, stress, or any topic that might include data. Infographics can present complex information in a way that is easy to understand.

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[53] Photo by Uberpruster is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0
[54] Chart by Victoria Leonard is licensed under CC0 1.0
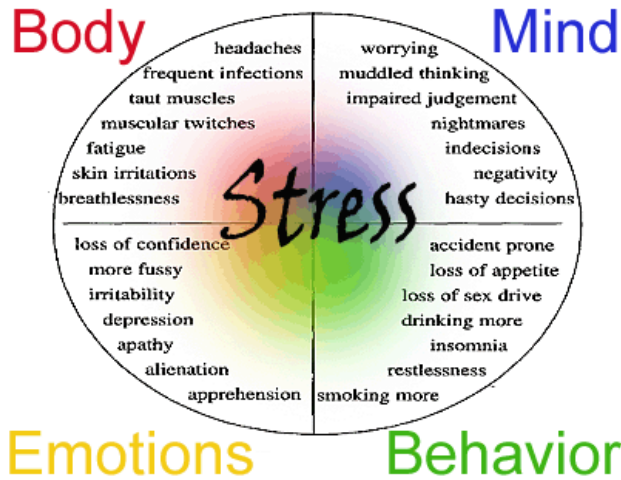
Figure 9.10: Covid-19 PSA[55]

Figure 9.11: Symptoms of Stress[56]

Graphs

Understanding what numbers or statistics mean can be difficult for anyone. **Graphs** are visual representations of data. They present important, factual information to your audience to help them better understand what statistics and numbers mean. Three common types of graphs used in speeches are pie graphs, bar graphs, and line graphs.

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[55] Graphic by California Department of Public Health is in the public domain
[56] Graphic by Gdudycha is licensed under CC BY-SA 3.0

Pie graphs allow you to show "slices" of the pie in a visually appealing and impactful way. Using color to represent different areas of the graph will help your audience make the distinction between all data points.
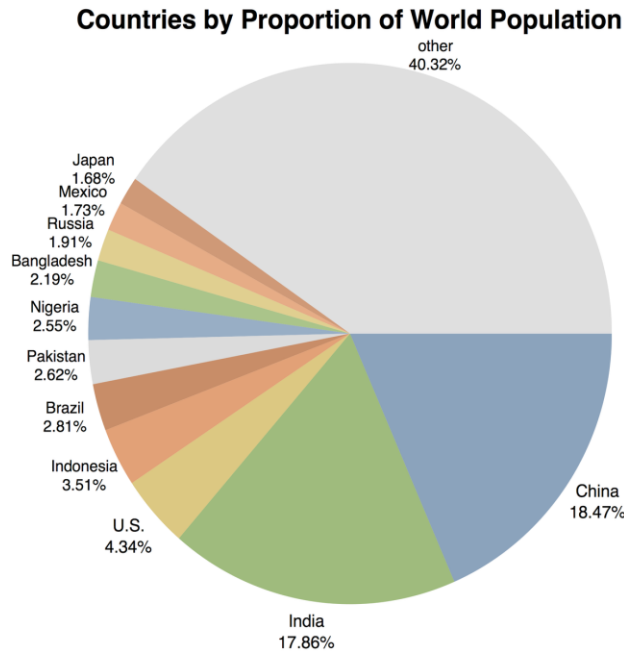

Figure 9.12: Pie Graph of World Population[57]

Bar Graphs show your data using rectangular bars that have varying heights that are proportional to what they are representing. These can be used to show comparisons between demographic information, inflation, social media, or other kinds of information.
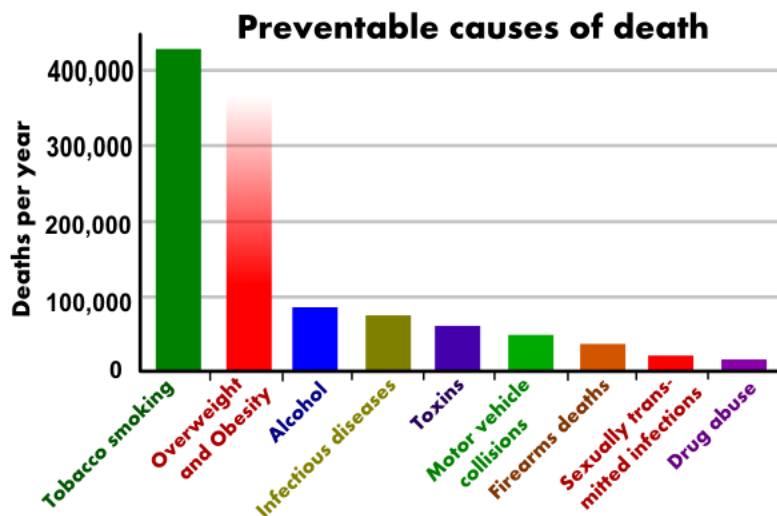

Figure 9.13: Bar Graph of Preventable Causes of Death[58]

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[57] Graph by Wikideas1 is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0
[58] Graph by Mikael Haagstrom is licensed under CC0-1.0

Line Graphs use specific markers along a path to represent how trends occur over time. More than one line can be used to show how one variable has increased over time, and how another has decreased.
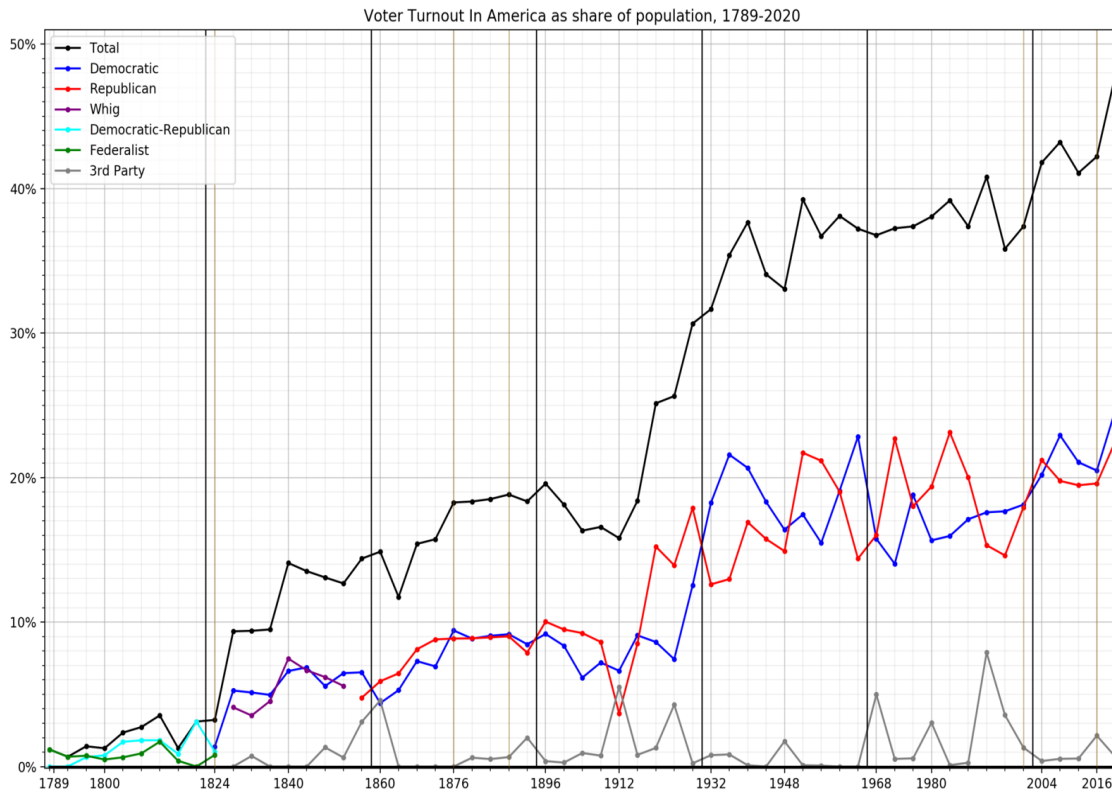
Figure 9.14: U.S. Votes for President from 1789 to 2020[59]

Diagrams/Drawings

You no longer have to be an artist in order to use a diagram or drawing as a presentation aid. A diagram or drawing is a picture of what you are trying to explain. Often people say, "a picture is worth a thousand words." You can save words if you use the right picture. Drawings or diagrams can be found online if you want to give a clear depiction of an object, process, or some other concept that cannot be easily represented in some other way.

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[59] Graph by Teddy Terminal is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0
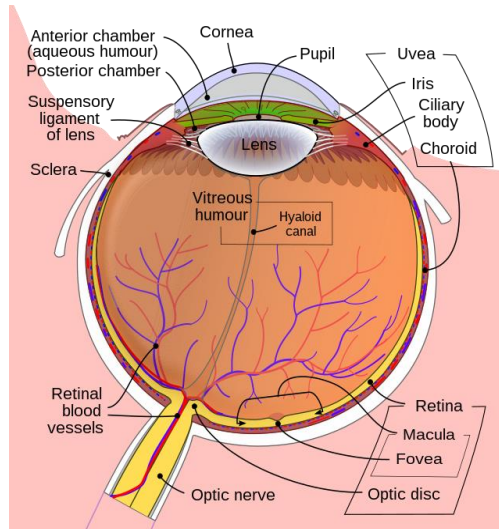
Figure 9.15: Diagram of the Human Eye[60]

Maps

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, **maps** can be used instead of providing directions to a location. But maps do much more than that. Depending on your speech, you may use a very specific type of map. If you were doing an informative speech on Disneyland, you might show a map of the park. You might show a map of U.S. voters for a persuasive speech on why people should vote.

Figure 9.16: 2004 U.S. Election Map[61]

[60] Illustration by Jmarchn is licensed under CC BY-SA 3.0
[61] 2004 U.S. Election Map by Metabohemian is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0

Photographs

One of the easiest types of presentation aids to use are **photographs**. Whether you have photos on your phone, or you download photos from an online source, these can be one of the most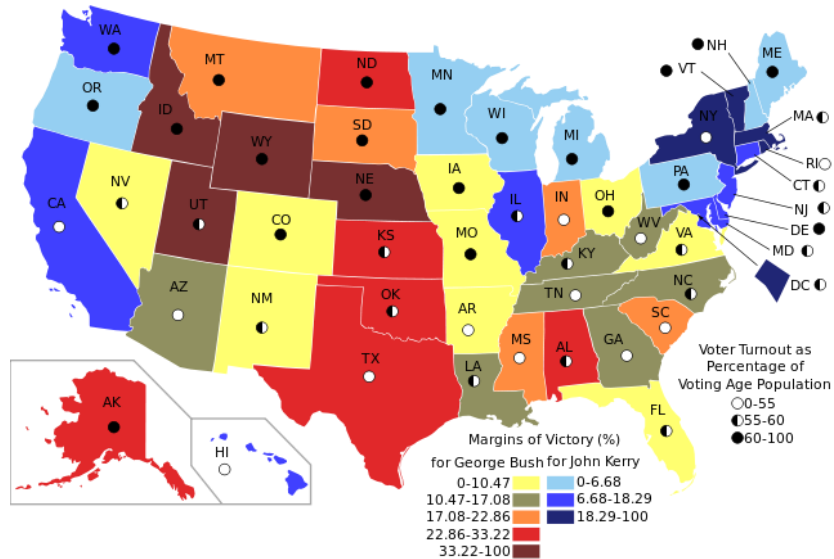 effective types of visual aids. For example, if you are doing a speech on author Maya Angelou, your audience will not experience the depth of your speech without seeing what she looked like. If you do use an image from online or any other copyrighted material, make sure to cite the photo as you have seen in this book. The copyright should go beneath the photo.

Also, make sure your photo is large enough for the audience to see. As you will see when you read about media for presentation aids, you will have a few different ways to present your photos.

Figure 9.17: Maya Angelou[62]

People

On occasion, you may choose to use yourself or others as presentation aids. For example, you can add to the tone of your speech on Salsa dancing by doing a bit of Salsa in front of the class. You can dress the part as well. Perhaps you are doing your speech on the fictional character Harry Potter. You can find a costume and dress like his character.

At times you may want to ask another student to volunteer to participate in your speech. This student might be your Salsa partner! Or, if your speech is on *How to Braid Hair*, you might ask a classmate in advance if they will participate in the speech.

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[62] Photo by John Mathew Smith is licensed under CC BY-SA 2.0

Figure 9.18: Ecuador Salsa Contest[63]

Audio or Video Recordings

Audio or video recordings can be used to highlight different points of your speech. You might find a podcast that supports your speech, or a piece of music. You might have a segment from a famous speech, such as Martin Luther King Jr.'s *I Have a Dream.*

Video has been made easier now through the use of *YouTube*. Many students rely on YouTube to find specific clips that can be utilized once or more in the speech. You might show a segment of the *I Have a Dream* speech. *YouTube* has just about everything available from movies, television shows, *TedEx* presentations, and music videos.

Media for Presentation Aids

So far, we have discussed the different types of presentation aids you can use in a speech. You may have been wondering what we put those presentation aids on! There are a variety of media that can be used for these presentation aids, ranging from high tech to low tech. The choice you make should be based on where you will deliver your speech and assignment requirements.

High Tech Presentation Aids

High tech presentation aids include the use of computer-based media and audiovisual media, such as *PowerPoint*, *Google* Slides, and *Canva*. Most instructors will let you know which they prefer you to use. *Microsoft PowerPoint* has been around for a long time and allows you to easily create animations. Some campuses provide students with free *PowerPoint* access through their student accounts. *PowerPoint* has a variety of design options that users can edit for font and color. *Google* slides also allow you to embed animations and it also has excellent template options. One advantage of Google slides is that it is accessible from the cloud at any time. *Canva* is a more unique program as it allows you numerous options for the creation of presentations that use templates and designs not available on PowerPoint or Google Slides.

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[63] Photo by Public News Agency of Ecuador and South America is licensed under CC BY-SA 2.0

One of the benefits of using one of these methods is that you can create a presentation in minutes. **You can add a chart, graph, diagram, drawing, map, or photo onto your slides quickly.** You can easily find images online and download those to use. When adding an image that has copyright it will be important to cite the source at the bottom of the image, just as you see the images cited in this textbook. When you read about the guidelines for using presentation aids you will see additional tips for creating your slideshow.

Low-Tech Presentation Aids

Low-tech presentation aids include posters or foam boards, flip charts, whiteboards, or handouts and are known for their dependability. You will never have to worry about your technology failing! These presentation aids are not reliant upon good Wi-Fi!
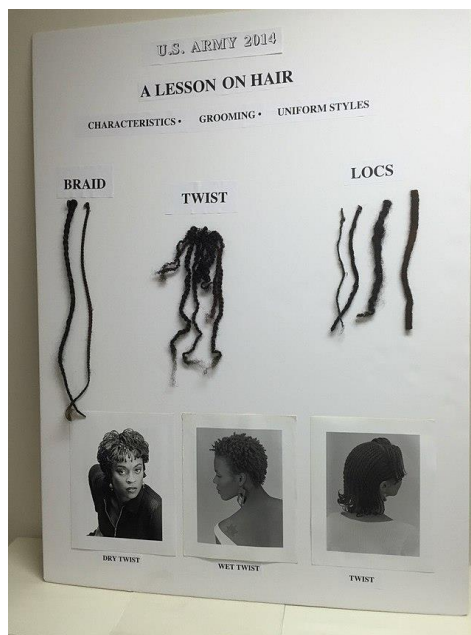
Figure 9.19: U.S. Army Posterboard NMAAHC[64]

Presenting in *Zoom*

Zoom CEO Eric Yuan began his technological journey at WebEx. In 2011 he left WebEx to launch *Zoom* In 2011. By 2013, *Zoom* had one million users. By the time the Coronavirus pandemic hit in 2020, there were over 300 million users as people were forced to stay home to work. Public speaking courses all over the world met in *Zoom* so students could still present their speeches to their classmates. When using presentation aids in *Zoom*, the most important areas that we need you to think about include screen sharing, virtual backgrounds, and holding visuals in front of the camera effectively.

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[64] Photo by Pamela Ferrell is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0

Screen Sharing

If you have created a slideshow with either *PowerPoint*, *Google Slides*, or *Canva*, you will need to learn how to share your screen. Find the "share screen" button on your device; it may look different from phone to laptop to iPad or tablet. If you have embedded any audio into your slideshow, make sure to click the box that says, "share sound."

Virtual Backgrounds

Many people have begun to create virtual backgrounds using their slideshow. Although this is a more advanced technology, it is a creative way to have the screen in the back of you show everything in your *PowerPoint*. Since all computers are different, and some computers are newer than others, you will need to see what is best for your presentation. One word of caution in using a virtual background is that any movement on your part may lead to you disappearing or floating in and out of view from your audience. You need to remain virtually still if using a *Zoom* background.

Holding Presentation Aids in *Zoom*

If you plan to hold up objects or photos while presenting in *Zoom*, it is best not to use a virtual background since a lot of movement can lead to your visuals disappearing from view depending on your position. As discussed in the chapter on delivery, it is important to find the most neutral background you can in your home so that both you and your presentation aids are the focal points.

Hold your presentation aid up to the camera for a minimum of four seconds. You want to give your audience a chance to see it, and take it in. Depending on what you need to say about your presentation aid, you may need to hold it up longer.

Checklist for Effective Use of Presentation Aids

Having clear and professional-looking presentation aids is important to enhance your credibility and ensure that your speech is supported by your presentation aids. Remember, presentation aids are used to support the body of the speech but can also be used as part of your attention getter or conclusion. Practical guidelines will make sure that you prepare thoroughly. The following list conveys best practices for the use of presentation aids. We hope you will check them off as you go!

Guidelines for Using a Slideshow Live or Virtually

- Use a minimal number of slides; perhaps one per main point.
- Label any images that you embed on a slide (where the image came from). Ask your instructor what they want you to put on the slide because some instructors will ask for more detail.

- Do not use a title slide, rather use a blank slide at the beginning so that your audience will still be captured by your attention-getter rather than focusing on your speech title.
- Also, use a blank slide in between slides so that the audience does not spend a lot of time focusing on something you have moved on from.
- Put your presentation on a USB/Flash Drive. As a backup, have your slides in your email, *Google Drive, DropBox*, etc.

Guidelines for Using Presentation Aids in a Classroom

- Avoid presentation aids that require you to turn back to the audience.
- Make presentation aids *large* enough for everyone to see from a distance.
- Display objects, posters, etc. where everyone can see.
- Display presentation aids only while discussing the point you are on.
- Do not pass anything around because this will distract your audience and they won't focus on the speech.
- Talk to the audience, not the presentation aids.

Guidelines for Using Fonts

- Use plain fonts that are easy to read, such as Arial, Times New Roman, Cambria, Palatino, Garamond, Georgia, or Helvetica. Avoid using any script font because those are harder for people to read.
- Use fonts sparingly; there is no need to use four different fonts on your slides.
- Use fonts that are large enough to read. Key ideas should be 32-point for titles. The recommended size for supporting points is 24-point font.

Guidelines for Using Color

- Create contrast on your slide. If you are using a white background, you can use black or blue font. If you have a black background, you can use a white font.
- Avoid font colors that are often difficult to read for individuals with any vision impairment, such as yellow, red, or green.

Guidelines for Preparation of Presentation Aids

- If your speech will be given in a classroom, check the room in advance and plan for emergencies (prepare to be without presentation aids if they should fail!)
- PRACTICE with your presentation aids so you know how much extra time they add to your speech.
- Proofread all materials – spelling errors affect your credibility.

Guidelines for Using Presentation Aids During your Speech

- Explain presentation aids clearly and concisely (don't just put them up and expect the audience to understand them).

Conclusion

The use of presentation aids is a critical part of your speech if your instructor requires them. Remember, presentation aids are not designed to replace what you say in your speech. Just as you put your clothes on daily, you can choose to "dress" yourself up with accessory items, such as a watch, earrings, or hat, your speech is like your clothing, and your presentation aids are like your accessories. They only add to your speech. We hope you will be creative in the process and make your presentation aids look as though you put time into them. Remember that presentation aids will add clarity and interest, help the audience understand and remember your speech, and add credibility to your speech. We encourage you to practice with them as much as you can, and that way you can also minimize your anxiety and present an impactful speech.

Reflection Questions

1. What do you feel your primary goal will be for using presentation aids in your next speech?

2. How can you use presentation aids to help the audience remember what you said?

3. What technology challenges do you have that you want to resolve early during your preparation process?

4. After reviewing the checklist for effective presentation aids, are there any boxes you could not check off? If not, why? How can you make sure you meet all of the guidelines?

Key Words

Bar Graphs

Chart

Diagram/Drawing

Graph

Infographics

Line Graphs

Low-Tech Presentation Aids

Map

Model

Object

Pie Graphs

Photographs

Presentation Aid

Chapter 10: Supporting Your Ideas

Amy Fara Edwards and Marcia Fulkerson

Victoria Leonard, Lauren Rome and Tammera Stokes Rice

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- perform the process of researching.
- identify the benefits of using the library databases.
- describe the different types of sources.
- evaluate source credibility.
- identify evidence to support your claims.
- develop complete oral citations.

Figure 10.1: NYC Public Library [65]

Introduction

When was the last time you spent hours on social media looking up an ex-partner? Maybe we are looking to see how they are doing and we try to identify the underlying meaning of their posts and wonder if it's true. As we gather clues from their posts, we tend to have more questions and we need more information, so we continue to click deeper into their profile. Whether we care to admit this or not, we have spent countless hours on this type of "research." However, this process of asking questions, gathering information, analyzing the truth of that information, then asking more questions and gathering more information *is* research.

There are similar steps we take in college when researching for a speech or essay, but instead, we search library databases, not social media apps. We pull up article after article and question the truth of new information at each turn, which then leads to more questions and more articles.

Figure 10.2: Study Group [66]

The Research Process

Formal research occurs in a step-by-step process to gather content and then we fit it into our class assignment. In this chapter, we will discuss methods of formalizing our research process so it becomes an effective tool for academic research. Let's start with the library databases.

Library Databases

The search for information about our topics can be fun when you start the speechmaking process. We know you don't believe us, but using your library databases will generate higher-quality academic work. Don't be afraid of the library databases! They work similarly to a *Google* search, but they produce more peer-reviewed, academic material. Let us explain.

In the beginning, it is okay to use the internet to search for topics, but once you identify a topic, you must use the library database to find the research. The results of a database search will all be peer-reviewed articles, primary sources, books, and other vetted or pre-screened materials; library databases act as a "background check" for your research. One of the key benefits of using library databases is free access to scholarly and full-text articles to be used as the foundation for our work. Libraries purchase subscriptions to these databases that a general internet search cannot access. When selecting research from the library databases you are using material that has been vetted or screened for credibility and reliability.

Exploring Sources

When we are looking for sources for our speech outline, we may be looking for **peer-reviewed** journals, books, newspapers, or magazines. A peer-reviewed source means that multiple expert reviewers have verified the content. You can feel confident that a peer-reviewed source is trustworthy. Your professor may guide you to the sources that are appropriate for your assignment. In academic research, we typically use a blend of sources to gain a balanced view of our topic. One way of looking at types of sources is to compare scholarly sources, substantive sources, and popular sources as the chart below illustrates (Modesto Junior College Library, 2021).

Figure 10.3: Types of Information Chart[67]

Types of Sources

Scholarly sources are written by credentialed experts for an audience of their peers. They have been vetted, or pre-screened, and selected by a committee of experts. These journal publications are also called peer-reviewed journal articles, scholarly articles, or academic journals. These journal publications may only publish five articles a month as they disseminate specialized, discipline-specific information.

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[67] Chart by Modesto Junior College is licensed under CC BY-NC 4.0

Substantive sources, on the other hand, are produced by scholars or credentialed journalists for an educated audience, but not an expert audience. Typically, one editor of the publication will vet or pre-screen articles. These publications may include newspapers or magazines. The reason for using the specific source is key. A magazine that is produced monthly has fewer articles that provide more detail. Whereas newspapers are produced daily, which give us quick statistics. For example, *The Los Angeles Times* might cover the COVID-19 pandemic in a "daily numbers" kind of way, while Newsweek Magazine will provide the detailed context and personalized stories as evidence which makes it more substantial.

Popular sources are written by journalists, staff writers, freelance writers, or sometimes hobbyists for the general public. Although they may be good sources for finding the next recipe or where to find the best beaches or the easiest teacher, they may not have been vetted properly. Largely, it is based on opinion. For academic work, we avoid such sources because they are too broad and offer limited credible information. Let's talk about the elephant in the room: Wikipedia. Wikipedia may be a good starting point to begin thinking about your research, but it is *not* up to academic standards. You may find primary resources cited at the very bottom of the Wikipedia page…but have you taken the time to scroll *all the way* down there? Many instructors will not allow Wikipedia for any portion of your assignment since it is an alterable website.

Types of Evidence

We just described different types of sources. Now, what do we use these sources for? Well, we pull out *evidence* which becomes the *content* for our main points.

Examples

Examples are types of evidence that reinforce, clarify, or personalize your ideas. Throughout the reading of this book, and many others, you have experienced the use of examples. If an author has said, "For example" or made a "such as" list, it serves to illustrate their point. *For example*, if your speech is about the top five brands of tennis shoes in the United States, you would give *examples* of different brands, *such as* Nike, and Adidas.

There are different types of examples:

- **Brief examples** are quick to illustrate a point showcased in the paragraph directly above.

- **Hypothetical examples** describe an imaginary or fictitious situation using words like "imagine" or "visualize." Imagine a world with no Internet. Can you do it? This might be used in a speech about the history of the world wide web.

- **Specific instance** is a more developed, real example where you illustrate a specific time. For example, you might be informing about the dangers of alcoholism and provide a specific instance of when one of your friends was pulled over for a DUI (don't drink and

drive!). You would provide a few sentences about your friend's situation. A specific instance can sometimes be considered a very short story. A longer story used as evidence is called a narrative.

Narratives

Humans tell a lot of stories. We run to a friend to share good news or we communicate with a sibling when something happens at work. For speeches, we call these narratives because they are more detailed stories that relate to your topic. You can use them in all types of speeches. Ultimately, a **narrative** is a spoken or written account of connected events. A narrative is a story and audiences love stories, especially in speeches. There are three types of narratives:

- **Explanatory narratives** explain the way things *are*. The story would explain the situation by giving the details related to the who, what, where, when, and how it relates to your speech topic. You might tell a story about a friend's experience having COVID-19.

- **Exemplary narratives** provide examples of *excellent work* to follow or admire. This type of story gives reasons for admiration. You might tell a story about a company that offers employees great workspace and health benefits.

- **Persuasive narratives** try to *strengthen or change beliefs and attitudes*. This type of story can grab the audience's attention because they tend to be emotional and highly effective. You might tell a story about a couple who met online and have been married for 15-years; this would be a story to persuade an audience to download their dating app.

Testimony

Testimony is a specific account of someone's experience, knowledge, or expertise. This type of evidence can be impactful because it comes directly from a person. We use testimony to support our claims. For example, witnesses in a court trial give testimony to share their personal accounts of the events. There are two types of testimony:

- **Expert testimony** comes from a person who is considered an expert in their field. For example, if our informative speech is on different types of cancer, expert testimony would come from an oncologist. You may obtain such testimony from live interviews or publications. Who else may you consider an expert on types of cancer? Does someone with cancer constitute an expert?

- **Lay testimony** (sometimes called peer testimony) is information from someone who has experience with the topic but is not a trained expert. So, thinking about the same informative speech example on types of cancer, lay testimony could come from a relative of someone with cancer. They would understand the struggle of watching someone experience cancer and would have secondhand information from the doctor. Lay testimony can provide a simplified and personalized account of the topic.

When using testimony, remember you must explicitly state the name of the person and *why* their testimony matters. Next time you watch something on CourtTV, you should be able to identify both the expert and the layperson giving testimony on the stand.

Statistics

Statistics are summary figures which help you communicate important characteristics of a complex set of numbers. Oftentimes you need the numbers to make something clear. For example, if your speech is about using dating apps safely, a good attention getter might be that one in five women in the United States has been raped or sexually assaulted in their lifetime according to the National Sexual Violence Resource Center website as of 2022. You can see that this statistic has a greater impact than just saying, "lots of women are impacted by sexual assault."

You need to think about the best way to deliver the numbers during your speech. Here are some tips when using statistics in your speeches:

- Use them to quantify an idea.

- Use statistics sparingly; too many numbers can be confusing for an audience.

- Round off complicated numbers. Instead of saying "3,867,532 people," you can say "roughly 4 million or 3.9 million people."

- Identify the source using an oral citation during delivery.

- Explain the statistics with a narrative. The numbers alone do not always tell the whole story.

- Use presentation aids, such as pie graphs, line graphs, or bar graphs to clarify statistical trends. Most people are visual learners.

Evaluating Your Sources

By now, you know that research is a critical part of the speech writing process. Using sources throughout your speech is necessary, but you have to decide which sources are the *right* sources to use. Next, we give you specific ways to evaluate the sources you find during your research.

How to Select Credible Sources and Avoid Media Bias

Finding information today is easy; it's all around you. Making sure the information you find is *reliable* can be a challenge. When you use *Google* or social media to get your information, how do you know it can be trusted? How do you know it's not biased? You can feel pretty confident

that books you get from the library, and articles you find in the library's databases are reliable because someone has checked all the facts and arguments the author made before publishing them. You still have to think about whether or not the book or article is current and suitable for your project.

CRAAP Test

Make sure every source you plan on using in your speech outline or research assignment passes the "CRAAP Test," which helps you identify if the sources use accurate information (Blakeslee, 2004). Since anyone can publish a website or write a blog with a professional-looking design, it's more important than ever to make sure your sources are legitimate.
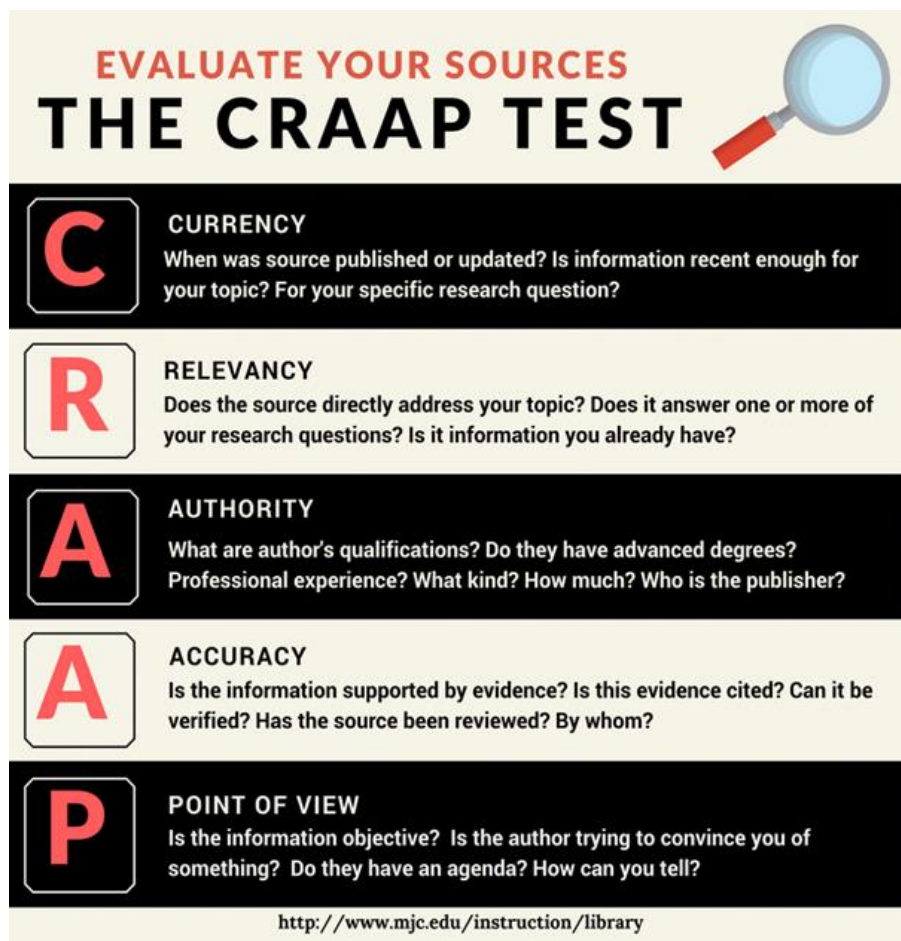
Figure 10.4: CRAAP Test[68]

CRAAP stands for:
- **Currency**
    o When was your source published or updated?
    o Is the information recent enough for your topic for your specific research question?

[68] Chart by Modesto Junior College is licensed under CC BY-NC 4.0

- **Relevancy**
  - Does the source directly address your topic?
  - Does it answer one or more of your research questions?
  - Is it information you already have?

- **Authority**
  - What are your author's qualifications?
  - Do they have advanced degrees or professional experience? What kind and how much?
  - Who is the publisher?

- **Accuracy**
  - Is the information supported by evidence?
  - Is the evidence cited?
  - Can it be verified that the source has been reviewed?

- **Point of View**
  - Is the information objective?
  - Is the author trying to convince you of something?
  - Do they have an agenda? How can you tell?

It is important to identify the good, the bad, and the ugly in our sources so we don't fall victim to poorly informed opinions. We must also be vigilant about the author's intent or motivation. Let's take a look at some of the different types of information and evaluate their intent.

Understand the Information

Information is data presented in context to make it understandable (OHair, 2019). As a speechmaker, your job is to translate data into understandable information for your audience. For example, vital signs from your doctor are data and your doctor's interpretation of the vital signs is information that helps put that data into context. Information and data themselves are neutral, but they can have the potential to be skewed.

Propaganda

Propaganda is "the dissemination of information—facts, arguments, rumors, half-truths, or lies—to influence public opinion" (Brittanica, 2022). It is often presented as advertising or publicity, and its purpose is to instill a particular attitude or emotional response.

Political messaging is a form of propaganda presenting an opposing political view unfavorably. Many political organizations, advertising companies, and for-profit and nonprofit organizations do this regularly. The political image below demonstrates how the New York Post, ABC News Online, and Reuters explain the COVID-19 statistics from their own bias.

Figure 10.5: Headline Round Up[69]

Misinformation

Misinformation refers to something that is not true. It is misinforming or using incorrect information. It isn't always based on an ulterior motive, someone could just get it wrong. The main difference is the *intention* in which it was used.

Recently, one author heard a story about two people arguing over COVID-19 statistics. One person was referencing information they had just heard from the most recent cable news story. The other person cited significantly different information based on a webpage they had kept open on their computer. Although it turned out that the webpage referenced hadn't been updated in months, you can see how misinformation can have an impact on understanding.

Stories change all of the time. The people might get the facts wrong or they may embellish the facts. Let's be clear, information is complicated and might also be incomplete. The moral of the story is to pay attention as you research!

Disinformation

Disinformation is intentionally stating or circulating inaccurate information. Photoshopped images, doctored documents, or falsified financial records are examples of disinformation (OHair, 2019). This must be avoided to be an ethical public speaker. We all watch the news and hear about "fake news." The question is how do we know what is, and is not, true. Your role as an ethical public speaker is to figure it out for the audience during the research process and offer credible information from beginning to end. Overall, identifying accurate information for our academic research assignments is a process we learn over time. As we learn to research and cite properly, we will become more critical consumers of information.

Now that we have evaluated our sources and are into the writing phase, we need to know how to cite correctly. This next part of the chapter is critical to your speech delivery.

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[69] Screenshot by Allsides is licensed under CC-BY-NC 4.0

Citing Your Sources Correctly

It is not enough to find good sources in your research, but you have to tell the audience and the readers about them during your speech and in the outline of the speech. Sometimes you may be caught unintentionally plagiarizing just because you are citing incorrectly. Citing means giving credit where credit is due. There are three places to cite for a speech: during the delivery (oral citation), in the outline (in-text citation), and in the reference page.

Oral Citations

Your instructor will most likely ask you to cite sources orally (verbally) during the delivery of your speech. You may be asked to include your oral citations in your outline exactly the way you would say them in the delivery of your speech. Many students believe that this can sound boring, however, these oral citations enhance your credibility as a speaker.

How to Develop an Oral Citation

Oral citations should be written using the following elements (check with your professor):

- **Author:** Who is it that generated the information? Are they credible?

- **Date:** When did this information get published, updated, or get accessed?

- **Type of resource:** Where can we find this information? Book? Magazine? Online database, webpage title? Etc.

- **Title:** (if there is one)

- **Credibility:** What credentials does the author or organization have?

After providing these elements, you will move into the direct quote or paraphrased information.

Direct quotations: Direct quotes use the exact language from the source without any changes. Using the above information, begin the quotation saying "quote," and end the quotation saying "unquote." Do *not* cite page numbers in your oral citation.

Paraphrasing: Paraphrasing is a way of writing the research you retrieved in your own words. Sometimes this serves to make research more understandable to your audience. It can be best to change the source's words into your *own* words while still using all correct parts of the oral citation format. Do *not* cite page numbers in your oral citation.

These are the most active verbs to use when citing a source. Active verbs are important when you write oral citations. Although there are many you can use, here are a few examples:

- States
- Supports
- Reasons
- Reveals
- Estimates
- Suggests
- Cites
- Discusses
- Shares

How to Deliver Oral Citations

REAL-LIFE EXAMPLE OF AN ONLINE FACT SHEET (TAKEN FROM THE CDC WEBSITE)

According to the Online CDC Fact Sheet entitled *Mold*, last accessed on March 26, 2022, "*Stachybotrys chartarum* is a greenish-black mold. It can grow on material with a high cellulose content, such as fiberboard, gypsum board, and paper. Growth occurs when there is moisture from water damage, water leaks, condensation, water infiltration, or flooding. Constant moisture is required for its growth." (don't forget to say "quote" at the start and "unquote" at the end).

HYPOTHETICAL EXAMPLES OF ORAL CITATIONS WITH ACTIVE VERBS

In his recent article entitled "Americans Are Killing Themselves" in the *American Journal of Medicine* accessed March 15, 2022, Dr. Jorge Ramirez, a cardiologist from the University of Southern California, **states**, "Americans are eating foods high in fat in greater numbers than ever before. This builds up plaque in arteries and raises cholesterol. Without change, we will see more Americans die from coronary artery disease."

According to staff writer Raashid Saaman, in the January 15, 2022 issue of the *Los Angeles Times,* dogs and cats have been taken in great numbers to local shelters during the COVID-19 pandemic. He **reasoned** that "most animals were abandoned because people lost income during the pandemic and were unable to afford their basic care, such as food and veterinary care.

HYPOTHETICAL EXAMPLE OF ORAL CITATION FROM AN ARTICLE

In an article in the November 2022 issue of the *South African Journal of Psychology*, Dr. Jada Smith, a professor of sociology at the London School of Psychology, **reveals** that "Racism begins with exposure to stereotypical and negative attitudes shown by those closest to us. We learn to mirror these behaviors when we are young and by the time we become teenagers, most of these attitudes have evolved into prejudice, and ultimately racism."

HYPOTHETICAL EXAMPLE OF ORAL CITATION FROM A WEB PAGE

The web page titled "The History of Apples," last updated in 2022, provided by the California Apple Advisory Board, **reveals** varied uses of the apple: as a digestive aid, an antioxidant, and a weight loss aid.

Note: You can say "last updated" or "last accessed on" for any type of oral citation for a website.

HYPOTHETICAL EXAMPLE OF CITING A STUDY

A Harvard University study made available on the *Justice* website accessed on January 16, 2022, **estimates** that accidental shootings occur more frequently when people have not had professional firearm training.

HYPOTHETICAL EXAMPLE OF CITING A SOURCE THAT IS NOT EASILY RECOGNIZABLE OR CREDIBILITY IS UNKNOWN – WEBSITE EXAMPLE

Accessing the website IMDB on February 2, 2022, I was able to trace the motion picture career of George Clooney. For those of you who may not be familiar with this site, IMDB is a web page that specializes in maintaining a history of people and works in the entertainment industry and is used to examine film facts, actors, producers, directors, and dates of various television or movie projects. IMDB claims that George Clooney was "active in sports such as basketball and baseball, and tried out for the Cincinnati Reds, but was not offered a contract" (IMDB, 2022).

HYPOTHETICAL EXAMPLE OF CITING A SOURCE THAT IS NOT EASILY RECOGNIZABLE OR CREDIBILITY IS UNKNOWN – PERIODICAL EXAMPLE

The periodical, *The Nation*, a weekly journal that tends to offer political stories from a left-leaning perspective, **suggests** in its letters to the editor on March 1, 2022, that facts about the euthanizing of pets in California are simply not true.

APA In-Text Citations

All written academic work needs to cite sources *in the outline*. The Communication Studies discipline uses the APA format which stands for the *American Psychological Association*. This formatting style is also used in other disciplines such as Psychology, Linguistics, Sociology, Economics, Criminology, Business, and Nursing. Knowing how to cite in APA format is imperative for all academic writing. This section is based on *APA Publication Manual (7th edition)* and is designed to help you learn how to format in-text citations. In-text citations are used when quoting directly and when paraphrasing from a research source. You will use parenthetical information directly *in* the outline.[70]

The APA Basics

- In-text citations in APA follow the author-date method.

- If you are directly quoting a work, you need to include the author, publication year, and also the number of the page from which you are quoting. Use the term "p." for one page and "pp." if the quote spans multiple pages.

- If you are paraphrasing a work, or simply referring to an idea from a work, you need to include the author and publication year, but you don't need to include the page number

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[70] The following section on APA citations is by Kelly Grove from Florida State University licensed under CC BY 4.0.

(though it is encouraged to include page numbers when paraphrasing or summarizing to help readers locate that information!).

CREATING IN-TEXT CITATIONS WITH A SIGNAL PHRASE

- When creating an in-text citation, you can use what's called a signal phrase to introduce a quotation or begin paraphrasing within the text of the sentence.

- The signal phrase contains the author's last name followed by the publication date in parentheses.

- If you use a signal phrase to introduce a quote, you will need to include the page number in parentheses directly after the quote.

- Examples of in-text citing with a signal phrase:
    - Research by Newsom (2004) suggests "Sailor Moon's greatest powers are eventually revealed as related to her capacity to love, and through that love to heal" (p. 10).
    - Newsom (2004) finds that Sailor Moon "illustrates the quality of love very plainly throughout the anime" (pp. 67-68).
    - According to Newsom (2004), Sailor Moon's power is derived from her emotional capacity.

CREATING IN-TEXT CITATIONS WITHOUT A SIGNAL PHRASE

- If you don't use a signal phrase to introduce a quote or begin paraphrasing within the text of a sentence, you will need to place the author name, publication date, and, if applicable, the page number in parentheses directly after the quote or paraphrased content.

- Examples of in-text citing without a signal phrase:
    - Sailor Moon is often portrayed crying, which supports the argument that emotions are central to her character (Newsom, 2004)
    - She states, "Sailor Moon's greatest powers are eventually revealed as related to her capacity to love, and through that love to heal" (Newsom, 2004, p. 10), and she goes on to illustrate how the character's love is physically expressed.

IN-TEXT CITATIONS WITH MULTIPLE AUTHORS

- In-Text Citations for Sources with 2 Authors:

    - Place "and" between authors' last names when providing them in the text of your sentence with a signal phrase.

        Example: Langford and Speight (2015) state…

- Place "&" between authors' last names when providing them in parentheses after the quote or paraphrased content.

Example: ...(Langford & Speight, 2015)

- In-Text Citations for Sources with More Than Two Authors:

  o Place "et al." after the first author's last name when providing it in the text of your sentence with a signal phrase.

Example: Ince et al. (2017) claim...

  o Place "et al." after the first author's last name when providing it in parentheses after the quote or paraphrased content.

Example: ...(Ince et al., 2017)

IN-TEXT CITATIONS WHEN CITING MULTIPLE WORKS
- In-Text Citation with More Than One Work:
  o Some of the ideas you cite will be pulled from more than one source, so you will need to include multiple sources in your in-text citations.
  o To cite multiple works in your in-text citation, place the citations in alphabetical order of the first author and separate the citations with semicolons.
  o Example: Educational Psychology is the most researched field involving human learning (Olson, 2019; Sterling & Cooper, 2020; Holloway & Hofstadt, 2000).

- In-Text Citation if One Work is the Most Directly Relevant:
  o Place the most relevant citation first, then insert a phrase such as "see also" and the other works
  o Example: Educational Psychology does not support learning styles (Palmer, 2020; see also Horne, 1999; Hayward, 1993)

IN-TEXT CITATIONS FOR INDIRECT SOURCES
- If you want to cite a source (an original source) that was cited in another source (a secondary source), name the original source author(s) in the text as you would with a signal phrase. List the secondary source in your reference list and include the author, date, and page number in your parenthetical citation, preceded by the words "as cited in."

Example: As John Dewey said, "Action is the test of comprehension. This is simply another way of saying that learning by doing is a better way to learn than by listening" (as cited in Waks, 2011, p.194).

IN-TEXT CITATIONS FOR SOURCES WITHOUT PAGE NUMBERS
- Some sources, especially electronic ones such as webpages, may not have page numbers that you can include when creating in-text citations for quotes.
- If the source you are quoting doesn't have page numbers, provide some other piece of information that will help readers locate the quote.
- You can use chapter names or numbers, heading or section names, paragraph numbers, table numbers, verse numbers, etc.
- Examples of in-text citing sources without page numbers:

  - "In *E.T.*, Spielberg made a truly personal film, an almost autobiographical trip back into his own childhood memories" (Breihan, 2020, para. 6).
  - To prevent kidney failure, patients should "get active" and "quit smoking" (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2017, "What Can You Do" section).

APA Reference Page Citation Format

The reference page is simply a list of all the sources used in the outline. This page is titled "References" and will be the last page of your outline. Each source will be listed in alphabetical order by author's last name. Each citation will be double spaced and there are specific ways they will need to be listed.

REFERENCE LIST BASICS
- List your sources in alphabetical order according to the last name of the first author of each work
- Double-space the entries and use hanging indents
- Adhere to the proper citation format for each source type

FORMATTING AUTHOR NAMES
- Use surname followed by the author's initials: Author, A. A.
- If the author's given names are hyphenated, maintain the hyphen between the initials:
  - Example: Ai-Jun Xu would by Xu, A.-J.
- Use commas to separate suffixes such as Jr. and III: Author, A. A., Jr.
- Write the surname exactly how it appears, including hyphenated surnames and two-part surnames: Santos-Garcia, A. A. or Velasco Rodriguez, A. A.
- If no author is listed, move the title of the work to the author position. Do not use Anonymous unless the work is signed as Anonymous.

FORMATTING TITLES
- Capitalize only the first letter of the first word and proper nouns.
- If it is a two-part title, capitalize the first word of the second part as well.
- Names of journals and books are italicized while article titles and book chapter titles are not italicized

CITATION STYLE FOR COMMONLY USED SOURCES

- **Journal Article:**

Format:
Author's Last Name, First Initial. Second Initial If Given. (Year of Publication). Title of article: Subtitle. *Title of Journal, Volume Number* (Issue Number), first-page number-last page number. DOI

Examples:
Without DOI

Schott, C. (2020). The house-elf problem: Why Harry Potter is more relevant now than ever. *Midwest Quarterly*, *61*(2), 259–273.

With DOI

Takhtarova, S. S., & Zubinova, A. Sh. (2018). The main characteristics of Stephen King's idiostyle. *Vestnik Volgogradskogo Gosudarstvennogo Universiteta. Seriâ 2. Âzykoznanie*, *3*, 139. https://doi.org/10.15688/jvolsu2.2018.3.14

- **Book:**

Format:
Author's Last Name, First Initial. Second Initial If Given. (Year of Publication). *Title of book: Subtitle if any.* Publisher.

Example:
Manson, M. (2019). *Subtle art of not giving a f*ck: A counterintuitive approach to living a good life.* Newbury House Publishers.

- **Chapter in an Edited Book:**

Editors are listed in the citation of an edited book. Their names are not inverted and come after the title of the book chapter. Place "In" in front of the first editor's name. If there is only one editor listed use (Ed), if more editors are listed use (Eds) after the last name of the editors.

Format:
Author's Last Name, First Initial. Second Initial If Given. (Year of Publication). Title of the book chapter. In First Initial. Second Initial & First Initial. Second Initial Last Name (Eds), *Title of the book* (Edition or volume number if given, pp. #-#). Publisher.

Example:

Zasler, N. D., Martelli, M. F., & Jordan, B. D. (2019). Civilian post-concussive headache. In J. Victoroff & E. D. Bigler (Eds.), *Concussion and traumatic encephalopathy: causes, diagnosis, and management* (pp. 728–742). Cambridge Univ Press.

- **Webpage:**

Format:

Author's Last Name, First Initial. Second Initial If Given. (Year of Publication, Month Day if given). *Webpage title.* Organization If Given. http://website.com

Example:

Horowitz, J. M., Igielnik, R., & Parker, K. (2018, September 20). *Women and leadership 2018.* Pew Research Center. http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2018/09/20/women-and-leadership-2018

Conclusion

This chapter focused on supporting your ideas with credible evidence. Although it wasn't the most exciting chapter, it is one of the most crucial elements of speech writing and speech delivery. Sometimes students think that doing a quick *Google* search and jotting notes into an outline means they are writing a speech. We hope that after reading this chapter you see that academic research is easier than you thought. Many run away from academic research or drop a class when they see a research paper in the syllabus, but if you apply the right tools for uncovering information, it can make your job simpler. Don't drop your class because it says you have a research assignment! You can do it and your college provides you with all of the tools you need to be a successful researcher. Research doesn't only happen when you are scrolling your past partners on social media, it happens every time you read a published piece of evidence. Now go impress your professors!

Reflection Questions

1. After visiting your campus library's databases, which of them do you believe will be the most relevant for your informative and persuasive speech assignments?

2. Why is it important to consider using peer-reviewed sources for an academic speech?

3. How will you test the validity and credibility of your sources?

4. Why is it important to use active verbs when you write oral citations?

Key Terms

Brief Example	Information	Popular sources
Direct Quote	Lay testimony	Propaganda
Disinformation	Misinformation	Scholarly sources
Exemplary narrative	Oral Citation	Specific instance
Expert testimony	Paraphrasing	Statistics
Explanatory narrative	Peer-reviewed	Substantive sources
Hypothetical example	Persuasive narrative	Testimony

References

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Chapter 11: Informative Speaking

Tammera Stokes Rice
Version B

Figure 11.1: Princess Reema[71]

Introduction

You may have watched a *YouTube* tutorial to learn how to make or do something, like learning how to make a quiche or how to change a tire on your car. Or, you may have watched a *TedTalk* in one of your classes providing more factual information about the topic you are learning about in class, like Nancy Duarte's 2011 presentation on "*The secret structure of great talks.*" (Google Duarte's videos; you won't regret it!) These are samples of informative speeches.

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[71] [Princess Reema](#) by [Dom Ross](#) licensed [CC BY-SA 4.0](#)

Speaking to Inform

When you are informing an audience, you are simply telling them about a topic that is important to you. You might begin your speech by telling a story so your audience can relate to this topic you find important enough to share with them. Narratives, found from credible sources, are a great way to keep your audience engaged and listening to your speech. Stories help provide a basis for your main points within the speech. Humans are natural storytellers as we want to tell and listen to stories. An informative speech is *not* opinion-based. You are providing factual information that is meaningful to your audience. You ARE NOT trying to change their beliefs or asking them to do something. This would be a persuasive speech, which we will cover in chapter 12.

Informative Speaking Goals

While informing your audience, you want to limit the information you will be explaining. You've already learned how to narrow down your topic, so now you want to make sure your explanation of the narrowed down topic can fit into the time parameter for the speech. You wouldn't expect a speaker to discuss everything about Disneyland in seven minutes, right? So, you have to narrow down the subject of Disneyland. Maybe you choose to discuss one of your favorite rides – Space Mountain. Can you cover it in seven minutes? Maybe…if your main points only discuss the founding concept behind the invention of the ride.

Remember the level of complexity you will be using to inform your audience depends on the knowledge the audience has about your topic, the time allowed for your speech, and its purpose. As we discussed in chapter five, you need to know your audience. It is crucial to always give new information to your audience by relating it to what they already know, and by combining the very general information with the very specific information to keep the attention of your audience throughout the speech. This is where an audience analysis is so important. How can you relate this information to the audience's needs, wants, or goals? Why would it be useful or interesting to them? You are not going to use architectural or engineering terms to describe the invention of Space Mountain to an audience of college students…unless those students are architecture or engineering students. You might, however, discuss this topic in your class of college students by describing why the designer chose to use a vertical climb and so many lights in the design of the ride. And, explain it in a way that makes the audience want to check it out the next time they go to Disneyland.

Types of Informative Speeches

When you inform, you may describe something, define something, or demonstrate a process. Therefore, there are three different types of informative speeches. They are the **speech of description, speech of demonstration**, and **speech of definition.** Each one maintains a different specific purpose, but all three types have the general purpose of "to inform." Let's first discuss the speech of description.

Speech of Description

A **descriptive speech** is given to describe an object, person, place, or event.

Depending on the topic of the speech, it can be organized in a topical, spatial, chronological (temporal), and causal format.

- A **topical** layout arranges the information of the speech into different subtopics. Each main point of the speech adds up to the broader topic.
- A **spatial** pattern looks at how your ideas are arranged according to their physical or geographic relationships.
- A **chronological** pattern organizes a speech based on time or sequence. Some of your instructors might use the term **temporal** to explain main points ordered in a specific sequence of time.
- A **causal** pattern of organization can be used to describe what occurred that caused something to happen, and what the effects were.

Objects

The term "object" refers to anything that can be seen or touched. When describing an object, you might use a spatial, chronological, or topical layout. The following are some sample topics - Arabian horses, astrology, Barbie doll, basset hound, Bible, bubble gum, career services, cruise, drag racing, Ford Mustang, *Godfather* trilogy, Golden Gate Bridge, iguanas, surfboards, tattoos, and tornadoes to name a few.

Figure 11.2: Tattoo[72]

Here is an example of how you might set up a speech on an object:

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[72] Tattoo by Khayri R.R. Woulfe licensed CC BY-SA 4.0

Topic: Tattoos

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience about the history of tattoos in the United States.

Thesis: The history of tattoos in the United States starts in the 19th century.

Preview: First, we will look at the history of the word tattoo. Then, we will learn how tattoos became fashionable. Thirdly, we examine the role tattoos have played in the circus. Finally, we will cover tattoos on public figures today.

I. Explorer Captain James Hook is credited for the word tattoo after his sailing voyages led him to Tahitian and Polynesian cultures.
II. Tattoos became fashionable in the 19th century.
III. Tattoos used in sideshow acts in the early 20th century were an integral part of a circus' success.
IV. Tattoos are now worn by public figures such as celebrities, athletes, and people within the fashion industry.

People

This category applies both to specific individuals or to specific roles. When discussing people, you may want to describe them in a chronological (temporal) or topical layout. Here are some sample topics on people: Albert Einstein, Barack Obama, Bruce Lee, CEO of Google, Ronald Reagan, First Lady of the United States, Henry Ford, Jackie Chan, Mariah Carey, Malala Yousafzai, Marilyn Monroe, Oprah Winfrey, Pope of the Catholic Church, Sacagawea, and Walt Disney to name a few.

Figure 11.3: Marilyn Monroe[73]

Here is an example of how you might set up a speech about Marilyn Monroe:

Topic: Marilyn Monroe

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience about Marilyn Monroe's interesting love life during the creation of her most famous films.

Thesis: Marilyn Monroe is known for both her famous love life and films.

Preview: First, we will explore her intriguing love life and marriages. Last, we will examine her various films.

Main Points:
  I.   First, we will examine Marilyn Monroe's infamous love life.
  II.   Lastly, let's discuss her most famous films.

Depending on the timeframe allowed for your speech, you might consider the example above, which used a topical order. Another way to organize the main points of the same topic could be in a chronological (temporal) pattern.

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience about the childhood, professional career, and death of Marilyn Monroe.

Thesis: Marilyn Monroe's early childhood influenced her professional career and ultimately her untimely death.

Preview: First, we will look at how Marilyn's childhood influenced

Main Points:
  I.   First, we will discuss Marilyn's birth and early childhood.
  II.   Second, we will learn about her professional life, and the impact her upbringing had on her career.
  III. Lastly, we will better understand her untimely death.

Place

A speech about a place can range from a historical location to a vacation spot. However, you should make sure to check with your instructor because very few speeches should focus on your own personal journey. Rather, the focus should be based on a place you can research. When discussing places, you may want to describe them in a spatial, temporal, or topical layout. Here are some sample places you might do an informative speech on - Alaska, Albania, Australia, Catalina, Ukraine, Honolulu, Lake Arrowhead, Las Vegas, Museum of Tolerance, Sri Lanka, Singapore, Stonehenge, and Yosemite to name a few.

Figure 11.4: Kauai[74]

Here is an example of how you might set up a speech about a place:

Topic: The island of Kauai, Hawaii

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience about Kauai's regions and locations to explore.

Thesis: Kauai has five regions and many beautiful areas to explore.

Preview: First, I will break down the five major regions of the island. Lastly, I will share my favorite places to explore.

Main Points:
  I.   Five regions (subpoints could be broken down in a spatial pattern of the regions).
  II. Places to explore

Events

An event can be something that occurred only once or can be a repeated event. When discussing events, you will most likely use a chronological (temporal) or topical layout. Here are some sample events you might do an informative speech on - Academy Awards, Christmas, Coachella, Los Angeles Marathon, Quinceañera, Rose Parade, Stagecoach, or World War II.

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[74] Kauai by TC_Perch from Pixabay

Figure 11.5: Los Angeles Marathon[75]

Here is an example of how you might set up a speech about an event:

Topic: Los Angeles Marathon

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience about the timeline of events of the L.A. Marathon.

Thesis: The L.A. Marathon consists of three days of events.

Preview: First, I will explain the day of orientation for the race. Second, I will discuss the main event day. Lastly, I will talk about the clean-up and breakdown of the event.

Main Points:
  I.   The first day of the event is Friday, which is Expo Day & Bib pick up.
  II.   Second, the main event is on Saturday, which is the 5K and 1/2K kids' run.
  III. Lastly, Sunday goes from 3:00 am - 3:00 pm marathon ending with the finish festival.

Now that you have a good idea about what comprises the descriptive speech, let's now look at the speech of demonstration.

Speech of Demonstration

The **speech of demonstration** is commonly referred to as the process, or "how-to," speech. It intends to teach the audience how to complete a task through step-by-step instructions. It generally uses a chronological (temporal) pattern with each "step" of the process taking the audience through a sequence of time. Here are some sample demonstrative speech topics - (How to) avoid ID theft, bake a cake, bath a dog, build a website, change car oil, color Easter eggs, meditate, make ice cream, play tennis, register to vote, snowboard, tie a tie, and write a resume to name a few.

Figure 11.6: Bakers[76]

Here is an example of how you might set up a speech of demonstration:

Topic: Baking a cake

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience how to bake a cake in 30 minutes with the right equipment and ingredients.

Thesis: Baking a cake in 30 minutes is easy with the right equipment and ingredients.

Preview: First, I will go over the preparation process. Then I will provide the steps involved in making the cake. Finally, I will explain how to finish the process of decorating the cake.

    I.   First, preset the oven and gather other equipment and ingredients.

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[76] Bakers by Official Navy Page is in the Public Domain CC0

II.   Next, mix the dry ingredients with the wet ingredients to specification before putting them in the pan to bake.
III.   Finally, let the cake cool and decorate.

You've learned about both the descriptive and demonstrative speeches, let's discuss the last type of informative speech, the speech of definition.

Speech of Definition

A speech of definition deals with explaining a concept or term. A concept is an idea, belief, principle, or theory. What all concepts have in common is that they are abstract or general ideas. As a result, speeches about concepts need to be grounded in clear examples. Generally, it is laid out in a topical or chronological (temporal) format. Here are some sample definitive speech topics – Artificial Intelligence, Buddhism, cultural diversity, Democracy, femininity, freedom, hatred, love, respect, Selfie, and Socialism to name a few.

Figure 11.7: Music and Dance of Ghana[77]

Here is an example of a speech of definition:

Topic: Culture

Specific Purpose: To inform my audience about the definition of culture.

Thesis: Culture consists of beliefs, values, norms, and ways of behaving.

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[77] Music and Dance of Ghana by Enzo Rivos is licensed CC BY-SA 3.0

Preview: First, I will explain what beliefs are. Second, I will discuss various values. Third, I will share different cultural norms. Finally, I will explain various ways of behaving within cultures.

    I.   First, I will explain the role of beliefs within culture.

    II.   Second, I will discuss the role of values in culture.

    III.   Third, I will share different cultural norms.

    IV.   Finally, we will put these all together and examine the different ways of behaving in cultures.

Conclusion

A variety of different topics can be utilized for informative speaking. If you are educating your audience about a particular topic by describing, demonstrating, or defining, then you are giving an informative speech. It is crucial to always give new information to your audience by relating it to what they already know, and by combining the very *general* information with the very *specific* information to keep the attention of your audience throughout the speech. We give informative speeches all the time even if it is just to inform our audience about our day.

Reflection Questions

1. What is the purpose of an informative speech?

2. How can you determine the best pattern of organization for your informative speech topic?

3. What do you need to keep in mind about your audience to develop your informative speech?

4. How do you distinguish an informative speech from storytelling, even though you may use stories in your speech?

Key Terms

Causal

Chronological (temporal)

Definition

Demonstration

Descriptive

Informative speech

Spatial

Temporal (chronological)

Topical

Chapter 12: Persuasive Speaking

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LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- define and explain persuasive propositions.
- complete a persuasive speech outline in a persuasive organizational pattern.
- enhance persuasiveness and credibility by using ethos, pathos, and logos.
- define and explain inductive and deductive reasoning.
- identify argumentative fallacies.

Figure 12.1: Abubaccar Tambadou[78]

Introduction

The American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals (ASPCA) was founded on April 10, 1866. You may remember their television commercial. It starts with images of neglected and lonely-looking cats and dogs while the screen text says: "Every hour… an animal is beaten or abused. They suffer… alone and terrified…" Cue the sad song and the request for donations on the screen. This commercial causes audiences to run for the television remote because they can't bear to see those images again! Yet it *is* a very persuasive commercial and has proven to be very successful for this organization. According to the ASPCA website, they have raised 30 million dollars since 2006 and their membership has grown to over 1.2 million people. The audience's reaction to this commercial showcases how persuasion works! In this chapter, we will examine strategies used to create a powerful persuasive speech.

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[78] Photo by Shafiur Rahman is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0

Figure 12.2: Caged Dogs [79]

Defining Persuasive Speaking

Persuasion is the process of creating, reinforcing, or changing people's beliefs or actions. It is not manipulation! The speaker's intention should be clear to the audience in an ethical way. As you learned in chapter five on audience analysis, you must consider the psychological characteristics of the audience. You will discover in this chapter the attitudes, beliefs, and values of the audience become relevant to the speechmaking process. The key question for persuasion is the speaker's intent. You must intend to create, reinforce, and/or change people's beliefs or actions in an ethical way.

Persuasive Propositions

A **proposition**, or speech claim**,** is a statement you want your audience to agree with. We use evidence and reasoning to support our propositions. There are three types of persuasive propositions: fact, value, and policy. These propositions can help the speaker determine what forms of argument and reasoning are necessary to support a specific purpose statement.

Proposition of Fact

A **proposition of fact** determines whether something is true or untrue, what does or does not exist, or what did or did not happen. Propositions of fact are based on research, and you may find research on both sides of an argument! You may even find that you change your mind about a subject when researching. Ultimately, you must use sufficient evidence to support your proposition, ethically.

Here is an example of a proposition of fact:

Recreational marijuana **does not** lead to hard drug use.

(or)

Recreational marijuana **does** lead to hard drug use.

Proposition of Value

A **proposition of value** determines whether something is good or bad, moral or immoral, just or unjust, fair or unfair. You will have to take a definitive stance on which side you're arguing. For this proposition, your opinion alone is not enough; you must have evidence and reasoning. You must also recognize both sides of the argument to better argue your point throughout the speech.

Here is an example of a proposition of value:

Recreational marijuana use is **immoral**.

(or)

Recreational marijuana use is **moral**.

Proposition of Policy

A **proposition of policy** advances a specific course of action based on facts and values. You are telling the audience what you believe should be done; you are asking your audience to act in a particular way to make a change. Whether it is stated or implied, all policy speeches focus on the values. To be the most persuasive and get your audience to act, you must determine their beliefs, which will help you organize and argue your proposition.

Here is an example of a proposition of policy:

Recreational marijuana use **should** be legal in all 50 states.

(or)

Recreational marijuana use **should** **not** be legal in all 50 states.

Persuasive Speech Organizational Patterns

There are several methods of organizing persuasive speeches. Remember, you must use an organizational pattern to outline your speech (think back to chapter six). Most professors will specify which pattern they prefer you use for your assignment. This section will explain four common formats of persuasive outlines: Problem-Solution, Problem-Cause-Solution, Monroe's Motivated Sequence, and Claim to Proof. Each pattern is determined by the type of proposition. It is important to understand you may not combine these patterns in any way. Let's look at each one!

Problem-Solution Pattern

Sometimes it is necessary to share a problem and a solution with an audience. In cases like these, the **problem-solution organizational pattern** is an appropriate way to arrange the main points of a speech. It's important to reflect on what is of interest to you, but also what is critical to engage your audience. This pattern is used intentionally because, for most problems in society, the audience is unaware of their severity. Problems can exist at a local, state, national, or global level.

For example, today, the nation has become much more aware of the problem of human sex trafficking. Although the US has been aware of this global issue for some time, many communities are finally learning this problem is occurring in their own backyards. Colleges and universities have become engaged in the fight. Student clubs and organizations are getting involved and bringing awareness to this problem.

Let's look at how you might organize a problem-solution speech centered on this topic. There will only be two main points; a problem and a solution. This pattern will only be used for policy proposition speeches.

> **Topic:** Human Sex Trafficking
>
> **Thesis (Central Idea):** Human sex trafficking should be acknowledged in our local government because it is not just a global issue anymore.
>
> **Preview:** First, I will define and explain the extent of the problem of sex trafficking within our community while examining the effects this has on the victims. Then, I will offer possible solutions to take the predators off the streets and allow the victims to reclaim their lives and autonomy.
>
> I. The problem of human sex trafficking is best understood by looking at the severity of the problem, the methods by which traffickers kidnap or lure their victims, and its impact on the victim.

II.   The problem of human sex trafficking can be solved by working with local law enforcement, changing the laws currently in place for prosecuting the traffickers and pimps, and raising funds to help agencies rescue and restore victims.

Problem-Cause-Solution Pattern

To review the problem-solution pattern, recall that main points do not explain the cause of the problem and in some cases, the *cause* is not necessary to explain. For example, in discussing the problem of teenage pregnancy, most audiences will not need to be informed about what causes someone to get pregnant. However, there *are* topics where discussing the cause is imperative to understanding the solution. The **Problem-Cause-Solution** organizational pattern adds a main point between the problem and solution by discussing the *cause* of the problem. There will be three main points: the problem, the cause, and finally, the solution. This pattern will only be used for *policy proposition* speeches. One of the reasons you might consider this pattern is when an audience is not familiar with the cause. For example, if gang activity is on the rise in the community you live in, you might need to explain what *causes* an individual to join a gang in the first place. By explaining the causes of a problem, an audience might be more likely to accept the solution(s) you've proposed? Let's look at an example of a speech on gangs.

Topic: The Rise of Gangs in Los Angeles County

Thesis (Central Idea): The uptick in gang affiliation and gang violence in Los Angeles County should be examined because too many young people are being enticed into a life that may end in harm to themselves or others.

Preview: First, I will explain the growing problem of gang affiliation and violence in Los Angeles County. Then, I will discuss what causes an individual to join a gang. Finally, I will offer possible solutions to curtail this problem and get gangs off the streets of our community.

I.   The problem of gang affiliation and violence is growing rapidly, leading to tragic consequences for both gang members and their families.
II.   The causes of the proliferation of gangs can be best explained by feeling disconnected from others, a need to fit in, and a lack of supervision after school hours.
III.   The problem of the rise in gangs can be solved, or minimized, by offering after-school programs for youth, education about the consequences of joining a gang, and parent education programs offered at all levels of secondary education.

Let's revisit the human sex trafficking topic from above. Instead of using only a problem-solution pattern, the example that follows adds "cause" to their main points.

Topic: Human Sex Trafficking

Thesis (Central Idea): Human sex trafficking should be acknowledged in our local government because it is not just a global issue anymore.

Preview: First, I will define and explain the extent of the problem of sex trafficking within our community while examining the effects this has on the victims. Second, I will discuss the main causes of the problem. Finally, I will offer possible solutions to take the predators off the streets and allow the victims to reclaim their lives.

I.   The problem of human sex trafficking is best understood by looking at the severity of the problem, the methods by which traffickers kidnap or lure their victims, and its impact on the victim.
II. The cause of the problem can be recognized by the monetary value of sex slavery.
III. The problem of human sex trafficking can be solved by working with local law enforcement, changing the laws currently in place for prosecuting the traffickers, and raising funds to help agencies rescue and restore victims.

Monroe's Motivated Sequence Format

Alan H. Monroe, a Purdue University professor, used the psychology of persuasion to develop an outline for making speeches that will deliver results and wrote about it in his book *Monroe's Principles of Speech* (1951). It is now known as **Monroe's Motivated Sequence**. This is a well-used and time-proven method to organize policy speech presentations for maximum impact. You can use it for a variety of situations to create and arrange the components of any message. The five steps are explained below and must be followed explicitly to have the greatest impact on the audience. Remember, this pattern is only used for policy proposition speeches.

Step One: Attention

In this step, you must get the attention of the audience. The speaker brings attention to the importance of the topic as well as their own credibility and connection to the topic. This step of the sequence should be completed in your introduction like in other speeches you have delivered in class, but you must continue to keep the audience's attention throughout the speech for maximum impact for persuasion.

Step Two: Need

In this step, you will establish the need; you must define and defend the problem. You will identify the problem and the causes of the problem. Later in this chapter, you will find that audiences seek logic in their arguments, so the speaker should address the underlying causes as well as the external effects of a problem. It is important to make the audience see the severity of the problem, and how it affects them, their family, and/or their community. The harm, or need, can be physical, financial, psychological, legal, emotional, educational, social, or a combination. It must be supported by evidence. Ultimately, in this step, you outline and showcase that there is a true problem that needs the audience's immediate attention. For

example, it is not enough to say "pollution is a problem in California," you must prove it with evidence that *showcases* that pollution is a problem.

Step Three: Satisfaction

In this step, the need must be "satisfied" with a solution. As the speaker, you must present the solution and describe it, but you must also *defend* that it works and will *address* the causes and symptoms of the problem. This is *not* the section where you provide specific steps for the audience to follow. Rather, this is the section where you describe "the business" of the solution. For example, you might want to change the age to vote in the United States. You would not explain *how* to do it here, you would explain *what* the new law would be and *how* that new law satisfies the problem of people not voting. Satisfy the need!

Step Four: Visualization

In this step, your arguments must look to the future either positively or negatively. If positive, the benefits of enacting or choosing your proposed solution are explained. If negative, the disadvantages of *not* doing anything to solve the problem are explained. The purpose of visualization is to *motivate* the audience by revealing future benefits or using possible fear appeals by showing future harms if no changes are enacted. Ultimately, the audience must visualize a world where your solution is actually solving the problem. What does this new world look like? If you can help the audience picture their role in this new world, you should be able to get them to act. For example, watching a new president take office, an increased number of people voted because of the age change that was enacted.

Step Five: Action

In this final step of Monroe's Motivated Sequence, we tell the audience exactly what needs to be done *by them*. Not a general "we should lower the voting age" statement, but rather, exact steps for the people sitting in front of you to do. If you *really* want to move the audience to action, this step should be a full main point within the body of the speech and should outline *exactly* what you need them to do. It isn't enough to say "now, go vote!" You need to tell them where to click, who to write to, how much to donate, and then how to share the information with others in their orbit. In the action step, the goal is to give specific steps for the audience to take, as soon as possible, to move towards solving the problem. So, the satisfaction step explains the solution overall, but the action section gives concrete ways to begin making the solution happen. The more concrete you can make the action step, the better. People are more likely to act if they know how accessible the action can be. For example, if you want your audience to be vaccinated against the Covid-19 virus, you can give them directions to, and hours, a clinic or health center where vaccinations are offered free of charge and on-site. Do not leave anything to chance. Tell them what to do and you will be surprised that if you have convinced them of the need/problem, you will get them to act, which is your overall goal.

Claim-to-Proof Pattern

A **claim-to-proof pattern** basically provides the audience with a statement of reasons to accept your speech proposition (Mudd & Sillars, 1962). State your claim (your thesis) and then prove your point with reasons (main points). The proposition is presented at the beginning of the speech, and in the preview, tells the audience how many reasons will be provided for the claim. Do not reveal too much information until you get to that point in your speech. We all hear stories on the news about someone who is killed by a handgun, but it is not every day that it affects us directly, or that we know someone who is affected by it. One of my students had a cousin who was killed in a drive-by shooting, and he was not even a member of a gang.

Here is how the setup for this speech would look:

> **Thesis and Policy Claim:** Handgun ownership in America continues to be a controversial subject, and I believe that private ownership of handguns *should* be illegal.

> **Preview:** I will provide you with three reasons why handgun ownership should be illegal.

When presenting the reasons for accepting the claim, it is important to consider the use of **primacy-recency**. If the audience is against your claim, put your most important argument first. For this example, the audience believes in no background checks for gun ownership. As a result, this is how the main points may be written to try and capture the audience who disagrees with your position. We want to get their attention quickly and hold it throughout the speech. You will also need to support these main points. Here is the example:

I. The first reason why background checks should be mandatory is that when firearms are too easily accessed by criminals, more gun violence occurs.
II. A second reason why background checks should be mandatory is that it would lower firearm trafficking.

Moving forward, the speaker would select one or two other reasons to bring into the speech and support them with evidence. The decision on how many main points to have will depend on how much time you have for this speech, and how much research you are able to find on the topic. If this is a pattern your instructor allows, speak with them about sample outlines. This pattern can be used for fact, value, or policy proposition speeches.

Methods of Persuasion

The three methods of persuasion were first identified by Aristotle, a Greek philosopher in the time of Ancient Greece. In his teachings and book, *Rhetoric,* he advised that a speaker could persuade their audience using three different methods: **Ethos** (persuasion through credibility), **Pathos** (persuasion through emotion), and **Logos** (persuasion through logic). In fact, he said these are the three methods of persuasion a speaker *must* rely on.
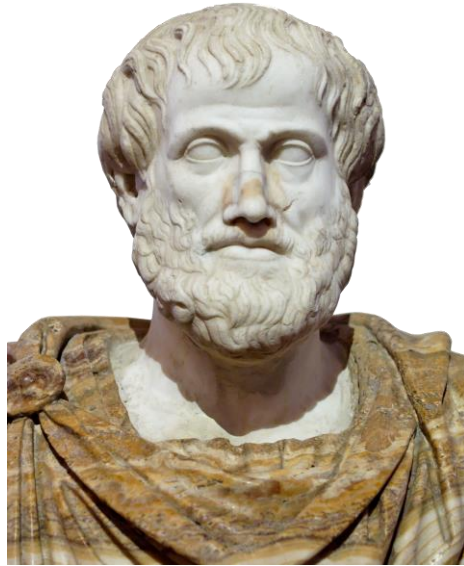
Figure 12.3: Aristotle[80]

Ethos

By definition, **ethos** is the influence of a speaker's credibility, which includes their character, competence, and charisma. Remember in earlier chapters when we learned about credibility? Well, it plays a role here, too. The more credible or believable you are, the stronger your ethos. If you can make an audience see *you* believe in what you say and have *knowledge* about what you say, they are more likely to believe you and, therefore, be more persuaded by you. If your arguments are made based on credibility and expertise, then you may be able to change someone's mind or move them to action. Let's look at some examples.

If you are considering joining the U.S. Air Force, do you think someone in a military uniform would be more persuasive than someone who was not in uniform? Do you think a firefighter in uniform could get you to make your house more fire-safe than someone who was not in uniform? Their uniform works, in part, as their ethos. You automatically know they understand fire safety without them even opening their mouths to speak. If their arguments are as strong as the uniform, you may have already started putting your fire emergency kit together! Ultimately, we tend to believe people in powerful positions. We often obey authority figures

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[80] Photo by Alvaro Marques Hijazo is licensed under CC0 1.0

because that's what we have been taught to do. In this case, it works to help us persuade an audience.

Advertising campaigns also use ethos well. Think about how many celebrities sell you products. Whose faces do you regularly see? I can think of Selena Gomez, Kerry Washington, Jennifer Aniston, and Halsey. Do they pick better cosmetics than the average woman, or are they using their celebrity influence to persuade you to buy? If you walk into a store to purchase makeup and remember it was Selena's favorite makeup, you are more likely to purchase it. Pop culture has power, which is why you see so many celebrities selling products on social media. Now, Selena may not want to join you in class for your speech (sorry!), so you will have to be creative with ethos and use experts from your research and evidence. For example, you need to cite sources if you want people to get a flu shot; using a doctor's opinion or a nurse's opinion is critical to get people to make an appointment to get the shot. Further, *you* have to be credible; you need to become an authority on your topic and persuade people with all of your character and charisma.

Finally, ethos also relates to ethics. The audience needs to trust you and your speech needs to be truthful. It also means your own personal involvement is important and the topic should be something you are either personally connected to or passionate about. For example, if you are asking the audience to adopt a puppy from a rescue, will your ethos be strong enough if you bought your own puppy from a pet store or breeder? How about if you ask your audience to donate to a charity; have you supported them yourself? Will the audience want to donate if you haven't ever donated? How will you prove your support? Think about your *own* role in the speech while you are also thinking about the evidence you provide.

Pathos

The second appeal you should include in your speech is **pathos**. By definition, pathos are appeals that evoke strong feelings or emotions like anger, joy, desire, and love. The goal of pathos is to get people to feel something and, therefore, be moved to change their minds or to act. You want your arguments to arouse empathy, sympathy, and/or compassion. So, for persuasive speeches, you can use emotional visual aids or thoughtful stories to get the audience's attention and hook them in. If you want someone to donate to a local women's shelter organization to help the women further their education at the local community college, you might share a real story of a woman you met who stayed at the local shelter before earning her degree with the help of the organization. We see a lot of advertisement campaigns rely on this. They show injured military veterans to get you to donate to the *Wounded Warriors Project*, or they show you injured animals to get you to donate to animal shelters. Are you thinking about how your own topic is emotional yet? We hope so!

In addition, we all know that emotions are complex. So, you can't just tell a sad story or yell out a bad word to shock them and think they will be persuaded. You need to make sure the emotions you engage relate directly to the speech and to the audience. Negative emotions can backfire, so make sure you know what will work best by understanding the audience. Don't just

yell at people that they need to brush their teeth for two minutes or show a picture of gross teeth; make them see the benefits of brushing for two minutes by showing beautiful teeth too.

One way to do this is to connect to the familiar theory by Abraham Maslow, **Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs,** which states our actions are motivated by basic needs (physiological and safety needs), psychological (belongingness and love, and esteem needs), and self-fulfillment needs (self-actualization). To persuade, we have to connect *what* we say to the audience's *real* lives. Here is a visual of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Pyramid:
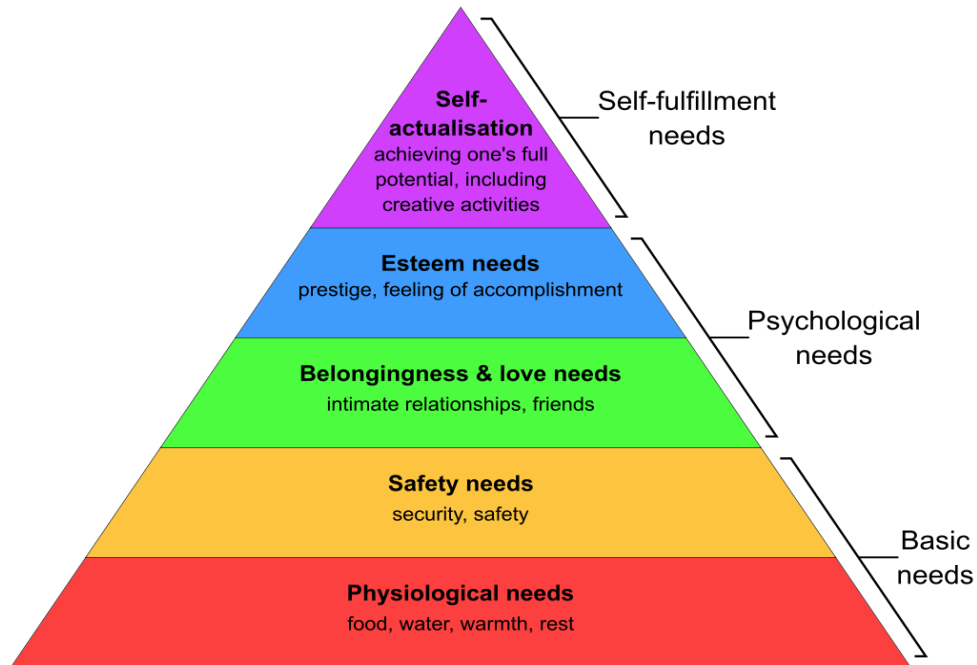
Figure 12.4: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs[81]

Notice the pyramid is largest at the base because our basic needs are the first that must be met. Ever been so hungry you can't think of anything except for when and what you will eat? (Hangry anyone?) Well, you can't easily persuade people if they are only thinking about food. It doesn't mean you need to bring snacks to your speech class on the day of your speech (although they could be delicious), you need to know if you are giving a food speech or persuading someone to become a vegetarian, it might be more difficult if they are food insecure. Can you think about other ways pathos connects to this pyramid? How about safety and security needs, the second level on the hierarchy? Maybe your speech is about persuading people to purchase more car insurance? You might argue they need more insurance so they can feel safer on the road. Or maybe your family should put in a camera doorbell in order to make sure the home is safe. Are you seeing how we can use arguments that connect to emotions and needs at the same time?

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[81] Graphic by Androidmarsexpress is licensed under CC BY-SA 4.0

The third level up in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, love and belongingness, is about the need to feel connected to others. This need level is related to the groups of people we spend time with like friends and family. This also relates to the feeling of being "left out" or isolated from others. If we can use arguments that connect us to other humans, emotionally or physically, we will appeal to more of the audience. If your topic is about becoming more involved in the church or temple, you might highlight the social groups one may join if they connect to the church or temple. If your topic is on trying to persuade people to do a walk for charity, you might showcase how doing the event with your friends and family becomes a way of raising money for the charity and carving out time with, or to support, the people you love. For this need, your pathos will be focused on connection. You want your audience to feel like they belong, in order for them to be persuaded. People are also more likely to follow through on their commitments if their friends and family are doing it. We know that if our friends go to the party, we are more likely to also go to the party so we don't have FOMO. The same is true for donating money; if you see that your friends have donated to a charity, you might want to be "in" the group, so you would donate also.

Finally, we will end this pathos section with one complete example that connects Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs to pathos. Maybe your speech is to convince people to remove the Instagram app from their phones so they are less distracted from their life. You could argue staying away from social media means you won't be threatened online (safety), you will spend more real-time with your friends (belongingness) and devote more time to writing your speech outlines (esteem and achievement). Therefore, you can use Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs as a roadmap for finding key needs that relate to your proposition which helps you incorporate emotional appeals.

Logos

The third and final appeal Aristotle described is **logos**, which, by definition, is the use of logical and organized arguments that stem from credible pieces of evidence supporting your proposition. When the arguments in your speech are based on logic, you are utilizing logos. You need experts in your corner in order to persuade; you need to provide the true, raw evidence for someone to be convinced. You can't just tell them that something is good or bad for them, you have to *prove* it with logic. You might like to buy that product, but how much does it cost? When you provide the dollar amount, you provide some of the logos for someone to decide if they can and want to actually purchase that product. How much should I donate to that charity? Provide a dollar amount reasonable for the audience and you will likely persuade them. If you asked a room full of students to donate $500.00 to a charity, it isn't logical. If you asked them to donate $10.00 instead of buying Starbucks for two days, then you may actually persuade them.

So, it is obvious that sources are a part of logos, but so is your own honest involvement with the topics. If you want people to vote, you need to prove voting matters and make logical appeals to vote. We all know there are many people who say, "my vote doesn't count." Your speech needs to logically prove that *all* votes count, and you need to showcase that you always vote in

the local and national elections. In this example, we bring together your ethos and your pathos to sell us on the logos. All three appeals together help you make your case. Audiences are not only persuaded by experts, or by emotions, they want it all to make sense! Don't make up a story to "make it fit;" find a real story that is truthful, emotional, and one your audience can relate to in order to make your speech logical from beginning to end and, therefore, persuasive.

Reasoning and Fallacies in Your Speech

In this chapter so far, we have provided you with several important concepts in the persuasive speech process, including patterns of organization for your outline. Now, we want to make sure your speech content is clear and includes strong and appropriate arguments. We want to help you ensure that you do not have any flaws in your arguments. Thus, we will now look at different forms of reasoning and fallacies in logic.

Reasoning

Thus far, you have read how Aristotle's proofs can and should be used in a persuasive speech. But, you might wonder how that influences the approach you take in writing your speech outline. You already know your research needs to be credible, and one way to do this is through research. Let's now put this all together by explaining how reasoning is used in a speech, as well as the argumentative fallacies that often occur when writing a speech.

You may have seen graduation requirements include the category of **critical thinking,** which is the ability to think about what information you are given and make sense of it in order to draw conclusions. Today, colleges, universities, and employers are seeking individuals who have these critical thinking skills. Critical thinking can include abilities like problem-solving or decision-making. How *did* you decide to go to a community college, or did you start at a university first? Was it a decision based on finances, being close to home, or your work? This involves critical thinking. Even if you had an emotional investment in this decision (pathos), you still needed to use logic, or logos, in your thought process. **Reasoning** is the process of constructing arguments in a logical way. The use of evidence, also known as **data**, is what we use to prove our claims. We have two basic and important approaches for how we come to believe something is true. These are known as induction and deduction. Let us explain.

Inductive Reasoning

You have probably used inductive reasoning in your life without even knowing it! **Inductive reasoning** is a type of reasoning in which examples or specific instances are used to provide strong evidence for (though not absolute proof of) the truth of the conclusion (Garcia, 2022). In other words, you are *led* to a conclusion through your proof. With inductive reasoning, we are exposed to several different examples of a situation, and from those examples, we conclude a general truth because there is no theory to test. Think of it this way: you first make an observation, then, observe a pattern, and finally, develop a theory or general conclusion.

For instance, you visit your local grocery store daily to pick up necessary items. You notice that on Friday, two weeks ago, all the clerks in the store were wearing football jerseys. Again, last Friday, the clerks wore their football jerseys. Today, also a Friday, they're wearing them again. From just these observations, you can conclude that on all Fridays, these supermarket employees will wear football jerseys to support their local team.

In another example, imagine you ate an avocado and soon afterward, the inside of your mouth swelled. Now imagine a few weeks later you ate another avocado and again the inside of your mouth swelled. The following month, you ate yet another avocado, and you had the same reaction as the last two times. You are aware that swelling on the inside of your mouth can be a sign of an allergy to avocados. Using induction, you conclude, more likely than not, you are allergic to avocados.

> **Data (evidence):** After I ate an avocado, the inside of my mouth was swollen (1st time).
>
> **Data (evidence):** After I ate an avocado, the inside of my mouth was swollen (2nd time).
>
> **Data (evidence):** I ate an avocado, and the inside of my mouth was swollen (3rd time).
>
> **Additional Information:** Swollen lips after eating strawberries may be a sign of an allergy.
>
> **Conclusion:** Likely, I am allergic to avocados.

Inductive reasoning can never lead to absolute certainty. Instead, induction allows you to say, given the examples provided for support, the conclusion is most likely true. Because of the limitations of inductive reasoning, a conclusion will be more credible if multiple lines of reasoning are presented in its support. This is how inductive reasoning works. Now, let's examine four common methods of inductive reasoning to help you think critically about your persuasive speech.

ANALOGIES

An **analogy** allows you to draw conclusions about an object or phenomenon based on similarities to something else (Garcia, 2022). Sometimes the easiest way to understand reasoning is to start with a simple analogy. As an avid DIY enthusiast, I love to paint. I paint walls, furniture, and objects. To paint well you need to think about what materials you will need, a knowledge of the specific steps to paint, and the knowledge of how to use an approach to painting so that your paint doesn't run and your project comes out perfect! Let's examine how this example works as an analogy.

Analogies can be figurative or literal. A **figurative analogy** is comparing two things that share a common feature, but are still different in many ways. For example, we could say that painting is like baking; they both involve making sure that you have the correct supplies and follow a specific procedure. There are similarities in these features, but there are profound differences.

However, a **literal analogy** is where the two things under comparison have sufficient or significant similarities to be compared fairly (Garcia, 2022). A literal analogy might examine the campuses where your authors teach. If we claim that you *should* go to College of the Canyons or Oxnard College, we could address the programs and courses offered, the available student services, and the modalities of courses, such as online or face-to-face.

If we use the more literal analogy of where you choose to go to college, we are using an analogy of two similar "things" and hopefully, this makes your analogy carry more weight. What this form of reasoning does is lead your audience to a conclusion: You should go to college "X." When we address fallacies later in this chapter, you will see where you might make an error, or what we call a *false analogy fallacy.*

GENERALIZATION

Another effective form of reasoning is through the use of generalizations. **Generalization** is a form of inductive reasoning that draws conclusions based on recurring patterns or repeated observations (Garcia, 2022). Observing multiple examples and looking for commonalities in those examples to make a broad statement about them. For example, if I tried four different types of keto bread (the new craze), and found that each of them tasted like *Styrofoam*, I could generalize and say all keto bread is NOT tasty! Or, if in your college experience you had two professors that you perceived as "bad professors," you might take a big leap and say that *all* professors at your campus are "bad." As you will see later in the discussion on fallacies, this type of reasoning can get us into trouble with a *hasty generalization*. For now, we want you to just process how many times you might have stereotyped a group of people or avoided a place of business based on one or two experiences.

CAUSAL REASONING

Causal reasoning is a form of inductive reasoning that seeks to make cause-effect connections (Garcia, 2022). We don't typically give this a lot of thought. In the city where one of your authors lives, there are periodic street closures with cones up or signs to redirect drivers. The past several times this has happened, it has been because there was a community 5K run. It is easy to understand why each time I see cones I think there is a 5K event. However, there could be a completely different cause that I didn't even think about. There could have been a major accident or road work.

REASONING FROM SIGN

Reasoning from sign is a form of inductive reasoning in which conclusions are drawn about phenomena based on events that precede or co-exist with (but not cause) a subsequent event (Garcia, 2022). In Southern California, probably known as the part of the country with the worst drought, I can always predict when summer is coming. My lawn begins to die, and my beautiful garden goes limp. All of this occurs before the temperature reaches 113 degrees and before the calendar changes from spring to summer. Based on this observation, there are *signs* that summer has arrived.

Like many forms of reasoning, it is easy to confuse "reasoning from sign" from "causal reasoning." Remember, that for this form of reasoning we looked at an event that *preceded* another, or co-existed, *not* an event that occurred later. IF the weather turned to 113 degrees, and *then* all my grass and flowers began to die, *then* it would be causal.

Deductive Reasoning

The second type of reasoning is known as **deductive reasoning**, or deduction, which is a conclusion based on the combination of multiple premises that are generally assumed to be true (Garcia, 2022). Whereas with inductive reasoning, we were led to a conclusion, deductive reasoning *starts* with the overall statement and *then* identifies examples that support it.

Deductive reasoning is built on two statements whose logical relationship should lead to a third statement that is an unquestionably correct conclusion, as in the following example:

Grocery store employees wear football jerseys on Fridays.

Today is Friday.

Grocery store employees will be wearing football jerseys today.

If the first statement is true (Grocery store employees wear football jerseys on Fridays) and the second statement is true (Today is Friday.), then the conclusion (Grocery store employees will be wearing football jerseys today) is unavoidable. If a group must have a certain quality, and an individual is a member of that group, then the individual must have that quality.

Unlike inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning allows for certainty as long as certain rules are followed.

Fallacies in Reasoning

As you might recall from our discussion, we alluded to several fallacies. **Fallacies** can be considered faulty logic, or making a mistake when constructing an inductive or deductive argument. There are dozens of fallacies we could discuss here, but we are going to highlight those we find to be the most common. Our goal is to help you think through the process of writing your persuasive speech so that it is based on sound reasoning and no fallacies in your arguments.

Table 12.1 describes fifteen different fallacies that can be avoided once you understand how to identify them.

Table 12.1: Fallacies

Type of Fallacy	Definition of Fallacy	Example of Fallacy
Ad Hominem	Criticizing the person (such as their character or some other attribute) rather than the issue, assumption, or point of view.	"I could never vote for Donald Trump. His hair looks ridiculous." "I could never vote for Joe Biden. He's in his 70's."
Appeal to Novelty	This occurs when we assert that something is superior because it is new.	"The latest iPhone update is better than any other because it now allows face recognition while wearing a mask."
Appeal to Tradition	When we try to legitimize a position based on tradition alone; it's always been done this way.	"Public speaking is only proper when a student is at a lectern in a classroom."
Bandwagon	Asserting that an argument should be accepted because it is popular and done by others.	"You should buy stock in *Zoom* because the stock prices have soared since the pandemic, and everyone is jumping in!"
Circular Reasoning	Assuming a conclusion in a premise (saying the same thing twice as both the premise and the conclusion). The argument begins with a claim the speaker is trying to conclude with.	"Of course the use of performance enhancing drugs in sports should be illegal! After all, it's against the law!"
Either-Or	Provides only two alternatives when more exist.	"We better eliminate the Social Security system in the United States or our country will go broke."
False Analogy	States that since an argument has one thing in common, they will have everything in common.	"As a student, I should be able to look at my notes when I take exams. After all, my doctor looks at his notes about me every time I go into the office. He isn't expected to memorize my chart!"

Type of Fallacy	Definition of Fallacy	Example of Fallacy
False Cause	A fallacy that mistakenly assumes that one event causes another, when in fact there are many possible causes.	"I went out of the house for a walk on my street and didn't wear my mask, so I contracted COVID-19." (Walking outside on the street without a mask does not cause you to get the virus).
Hasty Generalization	Appealing to a rather small sample or unrepresentative number of cases to prove a larger issue.	"So far I've met three British people that were nice to me in England. I know that all people I meet in the U.K. will be nice to me."
Non-Sequitur	Occurs when a conclusion does not follow logically from a premise.	"It's time to get my nails done. I wonder if my hairstylist is available next week" "My washing machine is making noise. I better take my car to the shop soon."
Red Herring	Introduces irrelevant material into a discussion so that attention is diverted from the real issue; changing the subject or giving an irrelevant response to distract.	Mom: "You got home really late last night." You: "I wanted to let you know I'm getting an A in math." "I would support the President with the sanctions against Russia, but I don't like his health care policy."
Slippery Slope	Assumes consequences for which there is no evidence they will follow an earlier (harmful) act	"All types of killing, like premeditated murder, or manslaughter, will become legal if we legalize physician assistant suicide in all states." "If we eliminate plastic straws everywhere, we will probably be seeing the elimination of resealable bags."

Type of Fallacy	Definition of Fallacy	Example of Fallacy
Straw Man	Misrepresents a position so that it can more easily be attacked; Distorts the opponent's argument so that no one could agree with it.	"People who are in favor of eliminating aerosol sprays think it's okay to destroy the environment."
Sweeping Generalization	Assuming that a generalization about a class of things/people necessarily applies to everything/person as if there are no exceptions. Like stereotyping.	"Oh, you're a student. You just want to party all the time and don't want to work hard." "I heard you were a football player. Football players never do well in school."
Two Wrongs Make a Right	Argues that it is okay to do something wrong if someone else did something wrong first.	Bronte defends the lie that she told her boss by saying, "Well, you lied last month when you said you were home with the flu."

Conclusion

In this chapter, you can feel confident that you have learned what you need to know to complete an effective persuasive speech. We have defined persuasion, explained speech propositions and patterns, and offered strategies to persuade, including ways to build logic. We also helped you learn more about inductive and deductive reasoning and all of the various ways these methods help you construct your speeches. Finally, we provided you with the most common fallacies that could trip you up if you aren't careful. The goal is to be clear, logical, and persuasive! Motivate your audience. Hey, have you been persuaded to start your speech outline yet? We hope so!

Reflection Questions

1. What is the difference between propositions of fact, value, and policy?

2. How will you determine which pattern of organization to use for your persuasive speech?

3. How might you use ethos, pathos, and logos effectively in your speech? How do you write these three proofs into your content?

4. What form(s) of reasoning will you use in your speech? How can you ensure you are not using any fallacies?

Key Terms

Ad Hominem	Figurative Analogy	Problem-Cause-Solution
Appeal to Novelty	Generalization	Problem-Solution
Appeal to Tradition	Hasty Generalization	Proposition
Bandwagon	Inductive Reasoning	Proposition of Fact
Causal Reasoning	Literal Analogy	Proposition of Policy
Circular Reasoning	Logos	Proposition of Value
Claim-to-Proof	Maslow's Hierarchy of	Reasoning
Critical Thinking	Needs	Reasoning from Sign
Data	Monroe's Motivated	Red Herring
Deductive Reasoning	Sequence	Slippery Slope
Either-Or	Non-Sequitur	Straw Man
Ethos	Pathos	Sweeping Generalization
False Analogy	Persuasion	Two Wrongs Make a Right
False Cause	Primacy-recency	

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Chapter 13: Special Occasion Speaking

Tammera Stokes Rice

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:
- define special occasion speeches.
- explain the types of special occasion speeches.
- identify the guidelines for delivering a special occasion speech.

Figure 13.1: "The 86th Annual Academy Awards"[82]

Introduction

"And, the Oscar goes to…!" If you've ever watched an award show, you have caught those famous last words anytime someone wins at the Academy Awards. You've probably also heard speeches given at special occasions like graduations, wedding receptions, birthday parties, funerals, corporate meetings, etc. All of these speeches are very common, so you will probably hear them several times throughout your life. You may even need to present one yourself, so it is important to learn how to prepare them.

Special Occasion Speaking

Unlike informative speeches that *inform* an audience and persuasive speeches that *persuade* the audience, a special occasion speech is given by a speaker at a unique or special event that

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[82] Image by Walt Disney Television is licensed under CC BY-ND 2.0

dictates the specific purpose. These speeches are also unique because each one of them is generally shorter in length than informative and persuasive speeches and is presented to a specific audience for a specific purpose. These special occasion speeches will be given in either a topical or chronological (temporal) order.

Nine Types of Special Occasion Speeches

In this chapter, we will cover nine different types of special occasion speeches and provide the guidelines to follow for each one of them. Although there are other types, these are the most common speeches and might be part of your course assignments. The nine speeches are a speech of introduction, presentation speech, acceptance speech, toast, eulogy, speech to secure goodwill, dedication speech, commencement speech, and farewell speech. Let's start with the first of nine.

Speech of Introduction

This is a speech introducing the featured speaker to the audience. Its main purpose is to gain attention and create interest for the upcoming speaker. It is like an informative speech because you are *informing* the audience about the main speaker, so you will follow the general pattern of informative speeches (topical or chronological/temporal). The guidelines to follow for this type of speech are:

- Be brief.
- Make sure your remarks about the main speaker are accurate!
- Adapt your remarks for the occasion. If it is a formal occasion, then it requires a formal speech.
- Adapt your remarks to the main speaker. Make sure the style and manner of your introduction are consistent with the main speech that will follow.
- Adapt your remarks to the audience, so they want to hear the main speaker's speech that follows your introduction.
- Try to create a sense of anticipation. You can build excitement by holding off and giving the name of the speaker at the climax of the introduction.

Example: Introducing Ms. Oprah Winfrey at a Lifetime Achievement Television Awards banquet.

Find a sample online: Stanford University President's introduction of Oprah in 2008. You can find the full text of the speech from June 15, 2008.

Presentation Speech

This speech is given when someone is publicly receiving a gift, an award, or some other form of public recognition. In this speech, you want to highlight the reason for the award or recognition by providing specific details. These speeches are most often heard at award show ceremonies.

You can find videos from the Grammys, Tonys, Oscars, etc., and easily find good samples of presentation speeches. Here are the basic guidelines to follow for this type of speech:

- Be brief.
- State the reason for the presentation.
- State the importance of the award.

Example: Presenting an award for technical merit in a film at the Academy Awards.

Figure 13.2: Academy Awards[83]

Acceptance Speech

If there is going to be a presentation of an award, then someone must accept it, right? This speech is given to say thank you for a gift, award, or some other form of recognition. The guidelines to follow for this type of speech are:

- Be brief.
- Thank the people responsible for giving the award.
- Acknowledge those who helped you achieve the award.
- Explain what the award means to you currently and what it might mean to you in the future.

Example: Accepting an Oscar for Best Female Performance in a motion picture or an award for Employee of the Year.

Find a sample online: You can find the full transcript for when the cast and crew of the film *CODA accept* their award for Best Picture in 2022.

Toast

This speech is designed to celebrate a person(s) or an occasion. You will often hear them at anniversary parties, weddings, dinner parties, etc. The guidelines to follow for this type of speech are:

- Be brief.
- Place focus on the person(s) you are celebrating.
- Avoid inside jokes, so you do not offend others.
- Do not get intoxicated before your speech.
- Most cultures have an "ending action," so incorporate it into the speech. For example, in the United States, we tend to raise our glass as the ending action, so make sure the audience knows your speech has ended by raising your glass and signaling to drink. Make sure you research the cultural significance of the event.

Example: Toasting the couple at their wedding.

Find a sample online: You can find the full transcript of President Obama's White House Correspondents' Association dinner toast in 2015.

Figure 13.3: Wedding Hands[84]

Eulogy

The word eulogy is from Greek origins that means "to praise," so this tribute speech is given to praise the life of someone who has passed away. The guidelines to follow for this type of speech are:

- Research the history of the person.
- Think about who this person was in relation to the audience to have the greatest impact.

- Give accolades about the person who passed to showcase the personality and legacy of the individual.
- Think about how to incorporate emotional elements and humor to help the audience celebrate their life.

Example: Praising the life of someone dear to you who has passed away.

Find a sample online: You can find the full transcript of the eulogy for Rosa Parks. On October 31, 2005, at the Metropolitan AME Church in Washington D.C., Oprah Winfrey delivered a memorable eulogy of Rosa Parks. In it, she repeatedly stated, "We shall not be moved." This famous line is indicative of Rosa Park's refusal to give up her seat on the bus.

Figure 13.4: Rosa Parks[85]

Speech to Secure Goodwill

This speech informs the audience about a particular product, company, profession, institution, person, etc. while trying to heighten the image of that product, company, profession, institution, person, etc. Online influencers do this all the time. They are hired by companies to "sell" their products or garner goodwill from new customers. The guidelines to follow for this type of speech are:

- Establish credibility by explaining why the audience should listen to you speak about this product, company, etc. Do you work for the company? Have you tried the product?
- Always show the audience how they may benefit from whatever it is you are speaking about.

- Stress the uniqueness of it.
- This is an informative speech, while slightly hinting at the persuasive speech. Don't be obvious about trying to persuade by saying "You should buy this product." Rather, use your language to highlight the *benefits* of the product.

Example: Giving a speech to local high school seniors about their local community college and its incredible programs. In this example, you are informing the audience of the programs with the hope of getting them to enroll in community college, but the speech is not to persuade them to register. The speech is to tell them about the programs in hopes of their consideration for registering. See…it's an informative speech with a hint of persuasion.

Dedication Speech

This speech gives special meaning to something being presented to the public. It is usually given at a ceremony of an official opening or the completion of something. You may have heard about a ribbon-cutting ceremony in your town celebrating the opening of a new business, or a new building at your college. Typically, a dedication speech is given by the developer, college president, mayor, etc. The guidelines to follow for this type of speech are:

- You want to state the reason you are giving the dedication.
- Explain exactly what is being dedicated.
- Tell the audience who is responsible for the item that is being presented.
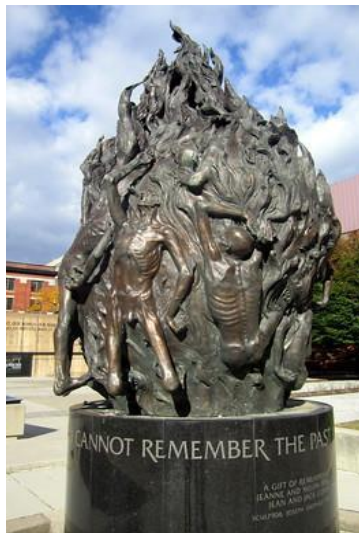- Explain why this item is significant.

Figure 13.5: Baltimore Holocaust Memorial[86]

Example: Elie Wiesel's dedication speech at the opening of the US Holocaust Memorial Museum in Washington D.C.

Find a sample online: You can find the full transcript of Elie Wiesel's Remarks at the Dedication Ceremonies for the United States Holocaust Memorial Museum on April 22, 1993.

Commencement Speech

This speech is given to graduating students at a high school, college, university, or military academy. It is generally the main speech at the celebration providing the speaker the opportunity to offer experience and advice to the new graduates. The guidelines to follow for this type of speech are:

- It should be organized in a chronological (temporal) pattern.
- Research the event and people involved.
- Time the speech appropriate for the event.
- Congratulate those that finished the training.
- Offer a motivational message, guidance, or suggestion.
- Offer best wishes to those who finished the training.

Example: The Valedictorian at your university giving a speech to the new college graduates at the Commencement ceremony.

Figure 13.6: Mayor Michael Hancock[87]

Farewell Speech

This speech is meant to say goodbye or give tribute to a person because they are retiring or taking a new position. You could give the speech because *you* are leaving your current position, or someone could give the speech *to you* because you are leaving the position. The guidelines to follow for this type of speech are:

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[87]

- Be brief.
- Provide praise towards the person.
- Acknowledge their role in the position.
- Say "thank you's" where appropriate.

Example: Saying goodbye to College of the Canyons after working in your position for 28 years.

Find a sample online: You can find the full transcript of Ronald Reagan's farewell address to the nation on January 11, 1989.

Conclusion

In this chapter, we discussed nine different types of special occasion speeches. Each one is organized for a specific audience within a particular context. They are all unique and the speaker must follow the particular guidelines to make an impact on the audience.

All you need to do is listen to the speeches during an awards show like the Academy Awards, and you will hear introductory, presentation, and acceptance speeches for sure. Always keep in mind that each culture celebrates people in different ways, so be sure to analyze the audience before preparing the content of the speech. If you are the next valedictorian at your college or university or are delivering a speech at a friend's wedding, we hope that you will reflect on all that you have learned in this chapter so that you deliver a memorable speech!

Reflection Questions

1. What occasions in your life do you foresee using a special occasion speech?

2. How would you begin the process of developing a special occasion speech?

3. What methods might you use to research the information you need for this type of speech?

4. What stylistic differences might you employ that are different from your previous informative speeches?

Key Terms

Acceptance Speech

Commencement Speech

Dedication Speech

Eulogy

Farewell Speech

Introduction Speech

Presentation Speech

Speech to Secure Goodwill

Toast

Glossary

Acceptance Speech is given after a presentation speech to say thanks for a gift, award, or some other form of recognition.

Action–Oriented Listener values clear, organized, and error-free messages.

Active Listening is when you are present and fully engaged as a listener, not just hearing the words.

Ad Hominem is a fallacy where you criticize the person (such as their character or some other attribute) rather than the issue, assumption, or point of view.

Aggressive listening, also referred to as ambushing, is a pitfall of listening where individuals listen specifically so that they can attack back.

Appeal to Novelty is a fallacy occurring when we assert that something is superior because it is new.

Appeal to Tradition is a fallacy used when we try to legitimize a position based on tradition alone; it's always been done this way.

Appreciative Listening is our ability to listen for enjoyment and is considered the easiest of all listening functions.

Articulation is using your mouth, tongue, and airflow as the instrument to produce sound.

Attending in listening means filtering out what is salient, noticeable or important.

Attention Getter is the first part of the introduction using a specific strategy in order to grab an audience's attention.

Attitude is the likes and/or dislikes of an individual.

Audience is listeners who are actively involved in receiving the message from the speaker.

Audience Analysis is the gathering of personal information about your audience to help in the creation, practice and post reflection of your speech.

Audience Centered is shifting the focus of the speech from yourself to your audience.

Back–channel Cues are verbal or nonverbal forms of feedback that indicate we are listening.

Bandwagon is a fallacy asserting an argument should be accepted because it is popular and done by others.

Bar Graphs visual aids that show your data using rectangular bars that have varying heights that are proportional to what they are representing.

Beliefs are convictions or ways of thinking about the world around us that are reflected in statements that we believe are true or false.

Body of the Speech it's where all the points in the preview statement are explained.

Brief Examples are quick to illustrate a point.

Call to Action is used in the conclusion of a persuasive speech as the last chance to tell your audience the specific steps to take.

Causal Pattern is used to describe what occurred that caused something to happen, and what the effects were

Causal Reasoning is a form of inductive reasoning that seeks to make cause-effect connections.

Central Idea (see thesis) is one-sentence encapsulation of the main idea of a speech.

Channel is the medium through which the message is sent from the sender to the receiver.

Charts consist of information that is listed or represented in some way on your presentation aid.

Chronological Pattern is the layout of a speech where the main points are delivered according to when they happened and could be traced on a calendar or clock.

Circular Reasoning is a fallacy that assumes a conclusion in a premise (saying the same thing twice as both the premise and the conclusion). It is the one reasoning that begins with a claim they are trying to conclude with.

Claim-to-Proof Pattern is an organizational pattern for policy persuasive speeches providing the audience with a statement of reasons to accept your speech proposition.

Commencement Speech celebrates the end of a training period.

Communication is the sending and receiving of messages.

Communication Apprehension is a broad term used to describe the anxiety or fear related to real or anticipated communication with others.

Comprehensive Listening, or listening to comprehend, is the type of listening we engage in with the goal of *understanding* information.

Conclusion is the last part of the speech and includes the thesis or summary of the speech and the final thought or clincher.

Connotation is the personal, social, cultural, or emotional association the receiver has with the message.

Content–Oriented Listener is a style of listening for individuals who favor technical information.

Context the situation that influences the speaker, audience, and message.

Coordination is used in outline organization so that all of the numbers or letters represent the same idea

Credibility (Ethos) is your authority on a subject and your currency as a speaker.

Critical Thinking is the ability to think about what information you are given and make sense of it in order to draw conclusions.

Culture Context is the collection of beliefs, attitudes, values, and ways of behaving shared by a group.

Data use of evidence; it is what we use to prove our claims.

Databases are organized collections of information stored and accessed electronically.

Decoding where the receiver interprets words or actions into meaning.

Dedication Speech is given at a public ceremony to provide special meaning to something being presented to the public.

Deductive Reasoning is used when a conclusion is based on the combination of multiple premises that are generally assumed to be true.

Definition is a type of informative speech explaining a concept or term.

Delivery is the method used to send the message to the audience.

Delivery Outline (see speaking outline) is a succinct outline using words or short phrases to represent the components of a speech and that is used during speech delivery.

Demographic Analysis statistical data gathered from your audience relating to the population and particular groups within it.

Demonstration is a type of informative speech commonly referred to as the process or "how to" speech.

Denotation is the literal or dictionary definition of a word.

Descriptive is a type of informative speech describing an object, person, place, or event.

Diagrams are drawings used as visual aids in your speech.

Direct Quotes are quotes that use the exact phrasing from the source without any changes.

Discriminative Listening is a unique function of listening occurring during the receiving stage of the listening process and involves the ability to discern sounds.

Disinformation is intentionally stating or circulating inaccurate information.

Division is a principle of outlining that requires balance between two subpoints in an outline. If you have an A, you need a B, etc.

Either–Or is a fallacy providing only two alternatives when more exist.

Empathy is the ability to understand and share the feelings of another person.

Empathetic Listening occurs when we receive and interpret messages by trying to understand and feel another person's feelings.

Encoding is converting ideas, thoughts, and feelings into words or actions.

Enunciation is how clearly the speaker pronounces words.

Ethics examine what society deems as issues of morality, such as what is right, fair, or just. Both the speaker and the audience have an obligation to do right by one another.

Ethos is one of Aristotle's proofs when the writer establishes competence through the use of their own credibility, status, professionalism, research, or the credibility of their sources.

Eulogy is a type of special occasion speech given as a tribute to praise the life of someone who has passed away.

Evaluating is the process of listening where one assesses the validity and credibility of the message.

Evaluative Listening is listening to assess the credibility of the speaker and/or message, the types of persuasive messages that are being sent, and any fallacies, or faulty logic, that the message contains.

Examples are types of evidence that reinforce, clarify, or personalize your ideas.

Exemplary Narratives stories that provide examples of *excellent work* to follow or admire.

Expert Testimony comes from a person who is considered an expert in their field.

Explanatory Narratives are stories that explain the way things *are*.

Extemporaneous is the method of delivery used for formal speeches in the public speaking classroom whereby you research, prepare, and rehearse.

Eye Contact is a form of nonverbal communication whereby you use your eyes to directly connect with your audience.

Facial Expressions is how your eyes and mouth work to display the "emotional tone" of a message.

Farewell Speech is a type of special occasion speech given to say goodbye to either a person or a position.

False Analogy is a fallacy stating that since an argument has one thing in common, they will have everything in common.

False Cause is a fallacy that mistakenly assumes that one event causes another, when in fact there are many possible causes

Figurative Analogy is comparing two things that share a common feature but are still different in many ways.

Flow of Delivery is the consistency of delivery, whether smooth or disruptive.

Frame of Reference is the lens through which you view the world that inform how we encode and decode messages.

General Purpose Statement is the overarching goal of a speech whether to inform, to persuade, to inspire, to celebrate, to mourn, or to entertain.

Generalization is a form of inductive reasoning that draws conclusions based on recurring patterns or repeated observations

Gestures are a form of nonverbal communication with movements by hands or arms.

Graphs are visual representations of data.

Hasty Generalization is a fallacy appealing to a rather small sample or unrepresentative number of cases to prove a larger issue.

Hearing is the physiological process of taking in sound.

Hypothetical Examples describe an imaginary or fictitious situation using words like "imagine" or "visualize."

Impromptu is the method of speech delivery which is off the cuff with little to no preparation.

Inclusive Language avoids the use of words that may exclude or disrespect particular groups of people.

Inductive Reasoning is a type of reasoning in which examples or specific instances are used to provide strong evidence for (though not absolute proof of) the truth of the conclusion (citation).

Inference is making tentative, reasoned conclusions about your audience.

Infographics are visual representations that may use icons, diagrams, illustrations, and some limited text.

Information is data presented in context to make it understandable.

Information Overload is when you have so much information coming at you (for example, tons of statistics), that it's easy to become overwhelmed.

Informative Speech is a speech providing factual information to the audience without persuasion.

Insensitive Listening (Literal Listening) focuses only on the words, not the deeper meaning.

Intentional Plagiarism is purposefully using content not originating from the speaker.

Internal Reviews (Summaries) and Previews are short descriptions of what a speaker has said and what will be said between main points.

Interpreting is combining visual and auditory cues to make sense and attribute meaning to what we hear.

Introduction is the first part of a speech including the attention getter, speaker's credibility, relationship to the audience and thesis statement with preview.

Introduction Speech is a type of special occasion speech introducing the main speaker to the audience.

Lay Testimony (sometimes called peer testimony) is information from someone who has experience with the topic, but is not a direct expert.

Line Graphs show data by using specific markers along a path to represent how trends occur over time.

Linear Communication Model is a straight line of communication from sender to receiver.

Listening is an active process where we make sense of, interpret, and respond to the messages we receive.

Listening Barrier is anything that physically or psychologically hinders you from recognizing, understanding, and accurately interpreting the message that you are receiving.

Listening Style is a set of attitudes and beliefs about receiving and interpreting messages.

Literal Analogy is where the two things under comparison have sufficient or significant similarities to be compared fairly.

Logos is one of Aristotle's proofs used when the writer establishes persuasion through logic.

Low-tech Presentation Aids include aids not reliant on technology, such as posters or foam boards, flip charts, white boards, or handouts.

Main Points are the key pieces of information or arguments contained within a talk or presentation.

Manuscript this method of delivery is a word-for-word iteration of a written message when reading the speech off a page or teleprompter.

Maps are visual layouts used instead of providing directions to a location.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is a theory by Abraham Maslow where our actions are motivated by physiological, safety, love and belonging, esteem and self-actualization needs.

Message is the main idea(s) the sender conveys to the listener.

Memory (Memorized Delivery) is a method of delivery whereby the speech is committed to memory and delivered exactly as rehearsed.

Mindfulness means being present in the moment and focusing on the communicative acts you are encountering.

Misinformation refers to information that is not true.

Models are small or large-scale representations of an object.

Monroe's Motivated Sequence is a five-step organizational speech pattern for policy persuasive speeches.

Narrative is a spoken or written account of connected events.

Nonverbal Transition is a transition that does not use words.

Noise is anything that interferes with the message being encoded or decoded.

Non-Sequitur is a fallacy that occurs when a conclusion does not follow logically from a premise.

Objects consist of any item that you can hold up to show an audience.

Oral Citation is when you verbally give credit to your sources during the delivery of your speech.

Outline uses symbols in a hierarchical textual arrangement of all the various parts of a speech.

Parallelism is beginning sentences in a similar way, using a similar grammatical structure.

Paraphrasing is putting information that you've researched into your own words for oral citation purposes.

Pathos is one of Aristotle's proofs when the writer establishes persuasion through emotion.

Pause is a break in speaking.

Peer–reviewed means a source has multiple expert reviewers who have verified the content.

People–oriented Listener is the ability to tune into people's emotions, feelings, and moods.

Persuasion is the process of creating, reinforcing, or changing people's beliefs or actions.

Persuasive Narratives are stories that try to strengthen or change beliefs and attitudes.

Photographs are visual representations of an image.

Physical Noise is interference from external sounds that can interfere with your ability to attend to messages.

Physiological Noise is interference from internal physical state that prevents you from attending to a message.

Pie graphs show data as "slices" of the pie in a visually appealing and impactful way.

Pitch is the highness or lowness of a speaker's voice.

Plagiarism is the passing off of other people's work as your own.

Popular sources are written by journalists, staff writers, freelance writers, or sometimes hobbyists for the general public, and most likely have not been pre-screened and based on opinion.

Preparation Outline is a full-sentence outline used during the planning stages to flesh out ideas, arrange main and subpoints, and rehearse the speech.

Presentation Aid is anything that helps you convey the meaning of your speech to the audience.

Presentation Speech is a type of special occasion speech given when someone is publicly receiving a gift, an award, or some other form of public recognition.

Preview Statement (or series of statements) is a guide to your speech or the main points you will cover during your speech. (e.g. First, I will describe…, Second, I will explain…. Finally, I will let you know…)

Primacy-Recency is used when laying out arguments for the claim by placing the most important reason at the beginning and end of the body of the speech so the audience can retain the information better.

Problem-Cause-Solution is an organizational speech pattern for policy persuasive speeches whereby you share a problem, the cause(s) of the problem, and solution(s) with an audience.

Problem-Solution is an organizational speech pattern for policy persuasive speeches whereby you share a problem and solution(s) with an audience.

Pronunciation is the conventional patterns of speech used to form a word.

Propaganda is "the dissemination of information—facts, arguments, rumors, half-truths, or lies—to influence public opinion" (libguides, 2022).

Proposition, or speech claim**,** is a statement that you want your audience to agree with.

Proposition of Fact is a type of persuasive speech determining whether something is true or untrue, does or does not exist, or did or did not happen.

Proposition of Policy is a type of persuasive speech advancing a specific course of action based on values.

Proposition of Value is a type of persuasive speech influencing whether something is good or bad, moral or immoral, just or unjust, fair or unfair.

Psychological Analysis demographic characteristics of the audience that help explain the inner qualities (attitudes, beliefs, and values).

Pseudolistening is behaving as *if* you are listening and paying attention to who is speaking when you are not listening.

Psychological Noise is a form of internal interference or distraction caused by your thought process.

Public Speaking is when a speaker presents a message to a relatively large audience in a unique context.

Rate is how quickly or slowly you speak.

Reasoning is the process of constructing arguments in a logical way.

Reasoning from Sign is a form of inductive reasoning in which conclusions are drawn about phenomena based on events that precede or co-exist with (but not cause) a subsequent event.

Recalling is the ability to remember what you hear.

Receiving is taking in information using both auditory and visual channels.

Receiver anyone who hears or sees your message.

Red Herring is a fallacy introducing irrelevant material into a discussion so that attention is diverted from the real issue; changing the subject or giving an irrelevant response to distract.

Responding is sending verbal and nonverbal feedback to a message.

Scholarly sources are written by credentialed experts for an audience of their peers and pre-screened and selected by a committee of experts.

Selective Listening is only listening to the points someone makes that are important to you, that impact you, or that you agree with, you might be engaging in.

Self-fulfilling Prophecy is an individual's expectations about another person or entity eventually resulting in the other person or entity acting in ways that confirm the expectations.

Semantic Noise is interference from misunderstood meanings.

Sender is the sender is the originator of the message.

Signposts are transitions that are not full sentences, but connect ideas using words like "first," "next," "also," "moreover," etc.

Situational Analysis is used to determine the audience's relationship to the location and surroundings of the speaking engagement.

Slippery Slope is a fallacy assuming consequences for which there is no evidence they will follow an earlier (harmful) act.

Socio-psychological Context is the relationship between the speaker and the audience.

Spatial Pattern is the organizational pattern where the main points are arranged according to their physical and geographic relationships.

Speaker is the person who sends a *message* to the audience.

Speaking Outline (see delivery outline) is a succinct outline using words or short phrases to represent the components of a speech and is used during speech delivery.

Specific Instance is a more developed real example where you illustrate/showcase a specific time.

Specific Purpose Statement is a declaration starting with the general purpose and then providing the topic with the precise objectives of the speech.

Speech to Secure Goodwill is a type of special occasion speech informing the audience about a particular product, company, profession, institution, person, etc. while trying to heighten the image of that product, company, profession, institution, person, etc.

Statistics are summary figures which help you communicate important characteristics of a complex set of numbers.

Straw Man is a fallacy that misrepresents a position so that it can more easily be attacked; it distorts the opponent's argument so that no one could agree with it.

Subordination is an outline organization that formats the speech content in a hierarchical order.

Substantive Sources are sources written by scholars or credentialed journalists for an educated audience, but not an expert audience, and typically, one editor of the publication pre-screen articles.

Sweeping Generalization is a fallacy assuming a generalization about a class of things/people necessarily applies to everything/person as if there are no exceptions. Like stereotyping.

Sympathy is "feeling for" someone.

Temporal Context is the time of day and where the speech fits into the sequence of events.

Temporal Pattern is the layout of a speech where the main points are delivered according to when they happened and could be traced on a calendar or clock.

Testimony is a specific account of someone's experience, knowledge, or expertise.

Thesis Statement (see central idea) is a simple, declarative, one-sentence encapsulation of the main points of a speech.

Tie–Back is when you end your speech by connecting it back directly to your attention getter.

Time–Oriented Listener is a listening style where one is efficient with their use of time.

Toast is a type of special occasion speech given to celebrate the honor of person(s) or an occasion.

Topical Pattern is a layout that arranges the information of the speech into different subtopics.

Transactional Model of Communication the model that reflects a simultaneous exchange of messages from both the sender and receiver.

Transitions are words or phrases that help you connect all sections of your speech.

Two Wrongs Make a Right is a fallacy, arguing it is okay to do something wrong if someone else did something wrong first.

Unintentional Plagiarism is plagiarism that occurs inadvertently.

Values are the underlying principles or standards of ideal behavior that we use to justify our beliefs and attitudes.

Vocalized Pauses take the place of an actual word or silent pause, such as "um," "like," "ya know," or "uh."

Volume is the loudness or softness of a speaker's voice.