

Public Speaking

Public Speaking

Finding Your Voice

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PART I

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC SPEAKING

While public speaking is not a favorite activity for many, it is one of the most important skills we can develop. It helps us to articulate our thoughts clearly to inform and persuade others about important issues in our lives. This first chapter will begin by examining elements that influence our public speaking success: the transactional model of communication, speech anxiety, and audience analysis to give us a solid foundation with which to understand how to be successful. First, the transactional model of communication provides insight into the contextual elements of the speaking situation we must consider in order to be a successful speaker. Second, we must examine our speech anxiety in order to be able to employ strategies that will help us overcome it. Finally, we strive to be an audience centered speaker, meaning that we do not make any decision during the speech making process that does not include consideration of the audience.

I. Introduction to the Public Speaking Context

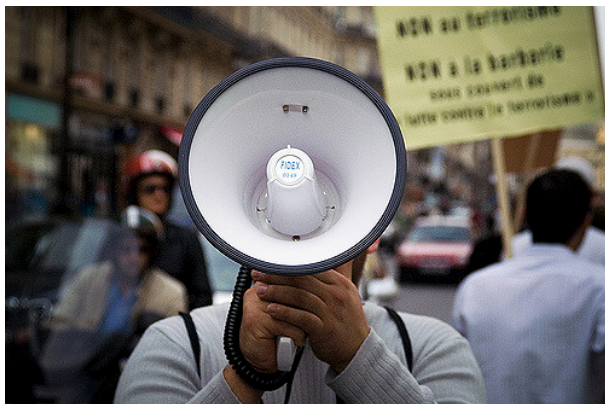
Learning Objectives

1. Identify the three components of getting your message across to others.
2. Describe elements in the transactional model of communication.

Communication is a Process

Communication is a process, not a singular event. A basic definition of **communication** is “sharing meaning between two or more people.” By definition of a process, we must take a series of actions or steps in order to reach a defined end goal. When we follow this process, we carefully consider how to best present information to reach our goals in a given context. When we do not follow the process, we leave our speaking success up to chance.

How do you get your message heard?



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We live in a world with a lot of noise. Getting your message heard above others depends on three fundamental components: **message, skill, and passion.**

Message: When what you are saying is clear and coherent, people are more likely to pay attention to it. On the other hand, when a message is ambiguous, people will often stop paying attention. Working through the speechmaking process in the next chapter will help us to create clear and coherent messages.

Effective communication skills: You may have the best ideas in the world, but if you do not possess the skills to communicate those ideas effectively, you're going to have a problem getting anyone to listen. In this book, we will address the skills you must possess to effectively communicate your ideas to others.

Passion: One mistake that novice public speakers make is picking topics in which they have no emotional investment. If you are not interested in your message, you cannot expect others to be. Passion is the extra spark that draws people's attention and makes them want to listen to your message. Your audience can tell if you don't

really care about your topic, and they will just tune you out. We will explore how to choose topics in the next chapter.

Public Speaking Elements

Most who study the speech communication process agree that there are several critical components present in nearly every speech. Understanding these elements can provide us with information that will help us to navigate any speaking context successfully.

All communication is a process composed of certain necessary elements:

- Senders (encoders)
- Receivers (decoders)
- context;
- message;
- channel;
- noise;
- feedback; and
- outcome.

With all these elements working together, the act of communication can be very complex. Let's examine each element.

Sender: The sender creates a message through the process of encoding. **Encoding** entails putting thoughts and feelings into words or other symbols to share with the audience.

Receiver: The receiver **decodes** by listening and understanding those words and symbols and making meaning of them personally.

Context: There are four major types of context happening simultaneously in any communication act.

- *Historical:* What has gone on between the sender(s) and receiver(s) before the speech. The historical elements can be positive or negative, recent or further back in time. These contexts can influence the speaker's credibility with the

audience, as well as their understanding.

- **Cultural:** This may be ethnic, racial, religious, and/or regional cultures or co-cultures. Culture is defined (Floyd, 2017) as “the system of learned and shared symbols, language, values, and norms that distinguish one group of people from another.”
- **Social:** The kind of relationship the sender(s) and receiver(s) are involved in, such as teacher-student, co-workers, employer-employee, or members of the same civic organization, faith, profession, or community.
- **Physical:** Where the communication is taking place and the attributes of that location. The physical context can have cultural meaning (a famous shrine or monument) that influences the form and purpose of the communication or attributes that influence audience attention (temperature, seating arrangements, or external noise).

Message: Messages are the content of what you are communicating. They may be informal and spontaneous, such as small talk, or formal, intentional, and planned, such as a commencement address. In public speaking, we focus on the creation of formal and deliberate messages.

Channel: The channel is the means through which the message travels. In face-to-face communication the channel involves all of our senses, so the channel is what we see, hear, touch, smell and perhaps what we taste. When we’re communicating with someone online, the channel is the computer; when texting the channel is the cell phone; and when watching a movie on cable, the channel is the TV.

Noise: Noise refers to anything that interferes with message transmission or reception (i.e., getting the image from your head into others’ heads). There are four types of noise.

- **Physiological noise:** Physiological processes and states that interfere with a message. For instance, if a speaker has a headache or the flu, or if audience members are hot or they’re

hungry, these conditions may interfere with message accuracy.

- *Psychological noise*: This refers to the mental states or emotional states that impede message transmission or reception. For example, audience members may be thinking about what they want to eat for lunch, or about a date they had last night. Or a speaker may be anxious about the speech.
- *Physical noise*: This is the actual sound level in a room. There may be noise from the air conditioner or the projector. Or maybe the person next to you clicking their pen.
- *Cultural*: Message interference that results from differences in people's worldviews is cultural noise. The greater the difference in worldview, the more difficult it is to understand one another and communicate effectively.

Feedback: This is the message sent from the receiver back to the sender. Feedback in public speaking is usually nonverbal, such as head movement, facial expressions, laughter, eye contact, posture, and other behaviors that we use to judge audience involvement, understanding, and approval. These types of feedback can be positive (nodding, sitting up, leaning forward, smiling) or less than positive (tapping fingers, fidgeting, lack of eye contact, checking devices). There are times when verbal feedback from the audience is appropriate. You may stop and entertain questions about your content, or the audience may fill out a comment card at the end of the speech.

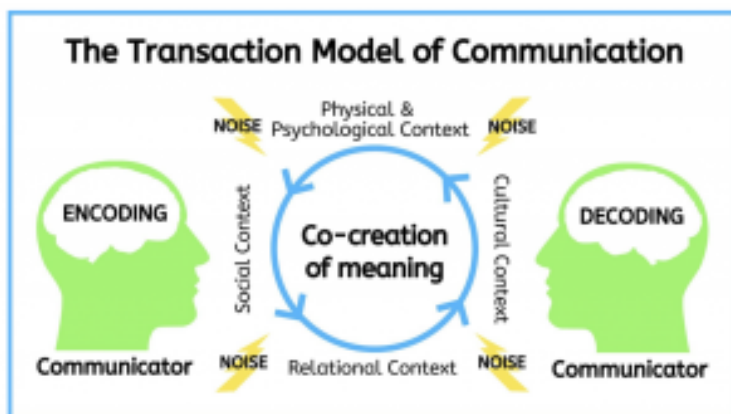
Outcome: The outcome is the result of the public speaking situation. For example, if you ask an audience to consider becoming bone marrow donors, there are certain outcomes. They will either have more information about the subject and feel more informed; they will disagree with you; they will take in the information but do nothing about the topic; and/or they will decide it's a good idea to become a donor and go through the steps to do so. If they become potential donors, they will add to the pool of existing donors and perhaps save a life. Thus, either they have changed or the social context has changed, or both.



[Public Speaking Context](#) - CC BY-NC-ND 2.0.

Now that we have looked at the process of communication, let's apply it to public speaking. The speaker originates and creates a structured message and sends it through the visual/oral channel using symbols and nonverbal means to the audience members as a group, who provide (mostly nonverbal) feedback. The speaker and audience may or may not be aware of the types of interference or noise that exist, and the speaker may try to deal with them. As a result of public speaking, the audience's minds, emotions, and/or actions are affected.

The Transactional Model of Public Speaking



[The Transactional Model of Communication](#) – CC BY-NC-ND 2.0.

The transactional model of communication illustrates the elements in public speaking visually so we can understand how meaning is co-created. Transactional communication means that there is a continuous and simultaneous exchange of information between people. The process of encoding and decoding is an important consideration because it takes into account misunderstandings. How often have you had a message that you thought you shared effectively only for the receiving party to completely misinterpret your meaning? Although interpreting a speaker's message may sound easy in theory, in practice many problems can arise. A speaker's verbal message, nonverbal communication, and mediated presentation aids can make a message either clearer or harder to understand. For example, unfamiliar vocabulary, speaking too fast or too softly, or small print on presentation aids may make it difficult for you to figure out what the speaker means. Conversely, by providing definitions of complex terms, using well-timed gestures, or displaying graphs of quantitative information, the

speaker can help you interpret his or her meaning. Once you have interpreted what the speaker is communicating, you then evaluate the message. Was it good? Do you agree or disagree with the speaker? Is a speaker's argument logical? These are all questions that you may ask yourself when listening to a speech.

The idea that meanings are cocreated between people is based on a concept called the “field of experience.” According to West and Turner, a field of experience involves “how a person's culture, experiences, and heredity influence his or her ability to communicate with another” (West & Turner, 2010). Our education, race, gender, ethnicity, religion, personality, beliefs, actions, attitudes, languages, social status, past experiences, and customs are all aspects of our field of experience, which we bring to every interaction. For meaning to occur, we must have some shared experiences with our audience; this makes it challenging to speak effectively to audiences with very different experiences from our own. Our goal as public speakers is to build upon shared fields of experience so that we can help audience members interpret our message.

Key Takeaways

- Getting your message across to others effectively requires attention to message content, skill in communicating content, and your passion for the information presented.
- The interactional models of communication provide a useful foundation for understanding communication and outline basic concepts such as sender, receiver, context noise, message, channel, feedback, and outcomes.

- Examining each public speaking situation using the elements of public speaking will help us to create more effective messages for our audience.

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2. Using Your Voice

Learning Objectives

- Explain the importance of public speaking skills.

Using Your Voice

Public Speaking is an important skill for all career minded individuals. Yet, an estimated 73% of the population report a fear of public speaking or *glossophobia* (Montopoli, 2017). That percentage illustrates that there are millions of people that are literally fearful of speaking in public settings, *but what does this really mean?* Why do we speak in public? Why do we put ourselves through something that is terrifying?

What are people really afraid of in public speaking situations:

- Fear of Judgement – People are afraid of “messaging up” and forgetting their speech which may lead to judgement from the audience.
 - Hint: we will practice this skill – if you are organized, well-rehearsed, and prepared, you are less likely to forget your speech.
- The Unknown – People report that uncertainty is heightened during public speaking situations; they may not know the

audience well, the demographic of the audience, or if the audience will be receptive.

- Hint: we will practice this throughout this course. You CAN decrease this unknown through proper audience analysis.
- Fear of Conflict – People wonder if their audience will agree or disagree with their message. This can cause a fear of delivering a difficult message.
 - Hint: we will research our speeches to avoid fallacies (information that sounds too good to be true, or information with half-truths) and we will consider the opposition in our audience through our persuasive deliveries. You cannot please everyone; however, you can thoughtfully integrate your position and research to decrease conflicts.
- Fear of Status/Education – People worry that their audience might be of higher status (socio-economic or career) or more educated than they are; this can cause imposture syndrome. Although, there is always a possibility of the audience being of a higher socio-economic status or have obtained higher degrees than the speaker, this does not mean that the speaker doesn't have incredibly useful information for their audience.
 - Hint: Well-developed outlines, research, and confident verbal and non verbal public speaking skills will go A LONG WAY! You will develop all of these skills through this course.

This is not an exhaustive list but it gives you a general idea of why people claim a fear of public speaking and how you will work to overcome these fears as a public speaking student. Read on!

Public speaking skills are perhaps the most relevant life skills we can build

We will be presented with many opportunities throughout our lives to speak out. It may be presenting our school research, trying to land a big account at work, or expressing our joy at our best friends' marriage. Some of us may lead corporations one day. Some of us may need to corral a group of third graders back into the classroom after recess. There are many reasons we will engage in public speaking during our lives.

Perhaps the most important reason we will engage in public speaking though is to express ourselves. Through public speaking, we can make people think differently, share our stories, motivate others to change, and change the narrative. If we do not learn how to speak out, the same old stories will be the ones that are told.

Watch this TED talk of an incredible student of Rhetoric. She found herself on a national stage at the age of 24 delivering a powerful poem to the American people at President Joe Biden's inaugural address! This speech delivered on the TED stage, illustrates the power of her voice and the ability to transcend her fears of sharing vulnerable information to many types of audiences.





One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=171#oembed-1>

Key Takeaways

Public Speaking is a key skill to many facets of a career in corporate culture.

- Public Speaking, although a known fear, can be cultivated into a key skill by learning, practicing, developing material, and supporting evidence.
- Students of public speaking will have the opportunity to overcome their fears by engaging in speech topic selections, perform an audience analysis, researching, outlining, preparing, and delivering to an audience in a public speaking setting.

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3. Speech Anxiety

Learning Objectives

- Identify types of speech anxiety.
- Discuss steps to managing speech anxiety.
- Implement strategies to manage speech anxiety.

Speech Anxiety

Whether it is a small or substantial amount, most of us have some form of anxiety when it comes to public speaking. The National Institute of Mental Health reports that public speaking anxiety, or glossophobia, affects about 73% of the population (National Social Anxiety Center, 2016). While this anxiety is “normal” it is difficult to manage without exploring the root cause. It is important for each person to recognize that their particular sort of speech anxiety has developed uniquely through each of their lives and experiences.

Types of Speech Anxiety

Trait-anxiety: This type of anxiety is typically aligned with an individual’s personality. People who would call themselves “shy” often seek to avoid interaction with others because they are uncertain of how they will be perceived. Those with trait anxiety may experience higher levels of anxiety in other areas of their lives. These folks, according to researchers, are likely to view any chance to express themselves publicly with skepticism and hesitation.

State-anxiety: This type of anxiety is usually due to the external situation in which individuals find themselves. Some people may have had a negative experience in public at an early age—they forgot a line in a play, they lost a spelling bee, they did poorly when called on in front of their class—something that resulted in a bit of public embarrassment. Others may have never actually experienced that stress themselves but may have watched friends struggle and thus empathized with them. These sorts of experiences can often lead to the formation of state anxiety in an individual.

Scrutiny fear: This type of anxiety does not necessarily involve anxiety of interacting with other people but is simply the fear of being in a situation where one is being watched or observed, or one perceives him or herself as being watched while undertaking an activity.

Steps to Managing Speech Anxiety

The good news is that you can manage speech anxiety! While you may never completely alleviate all stress associated with public speaking, taking a reflective approach can help you to identify ways that will help to lessen anxiety and deliver an effective speech. Think about your speech anxiety using the step-by-step process below:

1. **Identify speech anxiety:** Which type of speech anxiety do you have? Where do you think it stems from?
2. **Pinpoint onset:** Just as we suffer from different types of anxiety or anxiety may appear at different (or all) times during the speech making process. Knowing when our nerves will hit can help us to prepare for them and avoid behaviors that will make them worse.
 - *During the preparation process:* Anxiety during this stage may include feeling overwhelmed with the process of thought of public speaking. Individuals may procrastinate preparation or avoid the preparation process altogether.
 - *Before the speech:* Anxiety during this stage may come after the speech writing is complete and it is time to rehearse. As anxiety arises, individuals may avoid practicing because of the stress it is causing.
 - *During the speech:* This type of anxiety peaks once the speaker begins the speech. While it may lessen as the speech progresses, individuals may stumble over the introduction due to heightened nerves and damage credibility.
3. **Determine and implement strategies:** Depending on the type and onset of anxiety, different strategies can help speakers to manage anxiety.



When you use strategies to reduce your nerves you can connect with the audience more effectively. CC BY-NC-ND 2.0.

Strategies to Manage Anxiety

Prepare: This strategy cannot be overstated. We are more comfortable when we have researched our topic thoroughly, understand our audience, are familiar with our venue, and know our content comprehensively. Following the speech making process (chapter 2) will help us to prepare and feel prepared.

Practice: While this is the most well-known strategy, it is also the most overlooked one. Effective practice is more than reading through your speech a time or two. It is a process that allows you to identify potential issues so you can revise your content, visuals, and delivery plan. We will examine a step by step process for effective practice in chapter 3.

Self-talk and visualizing success: Your internal dialogue can be positive or negative. While positive self-talk can be difficult when we are nervous, it also can lead to positive results. Both positive and negative self-talk can lead to a *self-fulfilling prophecy*. In a self-fulfilling prophecy, an individual's expectations lead to behaviors

that cause those expectations to become reality. For instance, when you think you are going to fail at a test, you may decide to go out with your friends instead of studying, and you fail the test. On the other hand, if you think you will be successful on a presentation, you may take the steps necessary to prepare and practice, and in the end, you will be successful. Create a positive self-fulfilling prophecy for yourself!

Reframing: The process of reframing changes the perception of something so that our experience of it is different. Not all jitters are negative – many public speakers use anxiety as a tool for success. Psychologically anxiety and excitement are almost identical. The difference is how we interpret them – positively or negatively. You can reframe your thoughts about nervousness and use that to your advantage – nervous energy in the body can be transformed to positive nonverbal communication that connects directly with your audience. Embrace the jitters – while easier said than done – can help you deliver a strong speech.

The following video further explores sources of public speaking anxiety and identifies specific, academically validated, anxiety management techniques to help presenters become more confident.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=107#oembed-1>

Key Takeaways

- Individuals will experience different types of speech anxiety. It is important to understand where our speech anxiety stems from.
- Speech anxiety can be managed! Identify the type and onset of your anxiety and determine strategies that help to reduce the stress.
- Preparation, practice, positive self-talk, visualizing success, and reframing are effective methods of reducing our fear of public speaking.

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4. Extemporaneous Speaking: The Basics

Learning Objectives

- Demonstrate an understanding of proper speech delivery by learning the key elements of extemporaneous speaking and the time it will take to deliver the well-developed speech.

Extemporaneous Speaking

Extemporaneous speaking is a fancy way of saying: delivering a well-prepared speech. Extemporaneous speaking is not delivering a monologue or a memorized speech. Public speaking students often fall into the trap of under-preparing and under-practicing their speeches. This results in an, “Oh! no! I am not prepared and now I must read this outline word-for-word and hope for the best.” However, the best does not come to fruition and students that engage in this practice are disappointed when they lose substantial points from their speech grade due to lack of preparation, practice, and reading word-for-word from an outline. Just – don’t – do -it.

Here are a few ways you can engage in extemporaneous speaking:

- Know your speech topic

- Research your topic
- Create a timeline – research, writing, peer-review, practicing, editing, practicing again
- Create note cards to guide your speech
- Practice, practice, practice
- Know the difference between a memorized speech/
monologue and dialogue
 - connecting with your audience is key in extemporaneous speaking

Dialogue vs. Monologue

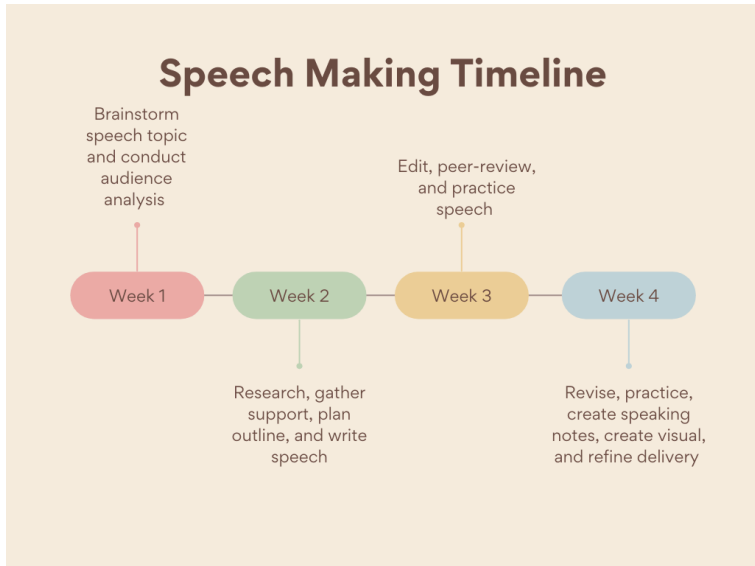
The first tenet of the dialogic perspective is that communication should be a dialogue and not a monologue. Lev Yakubinsky argued that even public speaking situations often turn into dialogues when audience members actively engage speakers by asking questions. He even claimed that nonverbal behavior (e.g., nodding one's head in agreement or scowling) functions as feedback for speakers and contributes to a dialogue (Yakubinsky, 1997). Overall, if you approach your public speaking experience as a dialogue, you'll be more actively engaged as a speaker and more attentive to how your audience is responding, which will, in turn, lead to more actively engaged audience members.

Build a Proper Timeline

- To ensure you have enough time for the assignment, create a timeline that works for your schedule
- It will take approximately four weeks to deliver an extemporaneous speech:
 - Week 1 – Brainstorm your speech topic and conduct an

audience analysis

- Week 2 – Research, gather support, plan outline, and write a speech
- Week 3 – Edit, peer-review, begin practicing your speech
- Week 4 – Revise, practice, create note cards, create a visual aid, and refine your delivery



Use this timeline to plan your informative speech making process for weeks 1-4 of the semester.

Building on This Information

As you progress through this course, you will revisit proper extemporaneous speaking, the use of outlining, proper use of

notecards, and delivering a strong speech. It is important to note that your audience deserves a speech that is interesting, thoughtful, and well-rehearsed. The audience is listening to you as the credible speaker in the room; in order to remain credible and professional, you will want to deliver an extemporaneous speech.

Key Takeaways

Students will want to become familiar with extemporaneous speaking in order to work towards a speech delivery that relies on effective speech strategies and not reading word-for-word from an outline.

- Extemporaneous speaking is a skill that public speaking students must hone in on before delivering their speech to an audience.
- Students will want to plan ahead to deliver a strong speech in the informative and persuasive speech weeks of this course.
- Creating a proper timeline will assist in delivering a well-developed extemporaneous speech.

5. Audience Analysis

Learning Objectives

1. Define audience-centered speaking and audience analysis.
2. Explain reasons for conducting an audience analysis.
3. Explore types of information speakers can gather to understand their audience members.
4. Determine ways to use the information gathered.

Audience Analysis

At the heart of any speech is the audience. While audience analysis does not guarantee against errors in judgment, it will help you make good choices in topic, language, style of presentation, and other aspects of your speech. The more you know about your audience, the better you can serve their interests and needs. Knowing how to gather and use information through audience analysis is an essential skill for successful speakers.

An Audience-Centered Approach

Many times we are so focused on ourselves that we forget to include

our audience in our decision making during the speech preparation process. Since there is usually limited communication between the speaker and the audience, there is limited opportunity to go back to explain your meaning if there are misunderstandings. In order to prepare, it is important to know about the audience and adapt the message to the audience. You want to prepare your speech with a focus on the audience, not just you, the speaker, or your message. We call this approach audience-centered.



Audience-centered speakers make decisions based on who they are speaking to. CC BY-NC-ND 2.0.

What is an Audience Analysis

Audience analysis involves gathering and interpreting information about the recipients of the speech. In audience-centered speaking, getting to know your target audience is one of the most important tasks that you face.

Why Conduct an Audience Analysis

Uncover Blinders

Public speakers should turn their mental magnifying glass inward to examine the values, beliefs, attitudes, and biases that may influence their perception of others. The speaker should use this mental picture to look at the audience and view the world from the audience's perspective. By looking at the audience, the speaker understands their reality.

When the speaker views the audience only through their mental perception, she is likely to engage in egocentrism. **Egocentrism** is characterized by the preoccupation with one's own internal world. Egocentrics regard themselves and their own opinions or interests as being the most important or valid. Egocentric people are unable to fully understand or cope with other people's opinions and a reality that is different from what they are ready to accept.

Finding Common Ground

You want to analyze your audience prior to your speech so you can create a link between you, the speaker and the audience during the speech. You want to be able to step inside the minds of the

audience to understand the world from their perspective. Through this process, you can find common ground with the audience, which allows you to align your message with what the audience already knows or believes.

Types of Audience Analysis

Demographic Information

Demographic information includes factors such as gender, age range, marital status, race and ethnicity, and socioeconomic status. Demographic information can provide information about the characteristics of people in your audience. This can help us to know what to avoid so as not to alienate our audience and what to do to engage with them on a deeper level.

Age: There are certain things you can learn about an audience based on age. Knowing that your audience is 18, 30, 55, or 70 is important to understand how to connect with them. Age groups tend to have different concerns, drives, and motivations based on generational identities. Different generations also tend to adopt different norms and slang.

Gender: Gender can define human experience. This area is open to misunderstanding as much as any other. Despite stereotypes, not all women have fifty pairs of shoes with stiletto heels in their closets, and not all men love football. Today, more people openly

identify as a gender other than traditionally male or female. Even those of us who identify as strictly male or female do not fully follow traditional gender roles. In almost all cases you will be speaking to a “mixed” audience, and keeping this in mind will help you avoid ethnocentrism.

Culture: In past generations, Americans often used the metaphor of a “melting pot” to symbolize the assimilation of immigrants from various countries and cultures into a unified, harmonious “American people.” Today, we are aware of the limitations in that metaphor, and have largely replaced it with a multiculturalist view that describes the American fabric as a “patchwork” or a “mosaic.” People who immigrate do not abandon their cultures of origin in order to conform to a standard American identity. Additionally, subcultures and cocultures exist within and alongside larger cultural groups. Not all cultural membership is visibly obvious. Differences are what make each group interesting and are important sources of knowledge, perspectives, and creativity.

Religion: There is wide variability in religion as well. Even within a given denomination, a great deal of diversity can be found. The dimensions of diversity in the religious demographic are almost endless, and they are not limited by denomination. Yet, even with these multiple facets, religion is still a meaningful demographic lens. It can be an indicator of probable patterns in family relationships, family size, and moral attitudes.

Group membership: Audience members will identify with groups based on educational or career focus, extracurricular activities, and family status, just to name a few. Because public speaking audiences are very often members of one or more groups, group membership is a useful and often easy to access facet of audience analysis.

Education: People pursue education for many reasons. Some people seek to become educated, while others seek to earn professional credentials. Both are important motivations. The kind of education is also important. This means that not only the attained

level of education but also the particular field is important in your understanding of your audience.

Occupation: People choose occupations for reasons of motivation and interest, but their occupations also influence their perceptions and their interests. There are many misconceptions about most occupations. Learning about those occupational realities is important in avoiding wrong assumptions and stereotypes.

Psychological Information – Attitudes, Beliefs, Values, and Knowledge

While demographic information is fairly straightforward and verifiable, information about audience values, opinions, attitudes, beliefs, and knowledge is much less clear-cut. Two different people who both say they believe in equal educational opportunity may have very different interpretations of what “equal opportunity” means. People who say they don’t buy junk food may have very different standards for what specific kinds of foods are considered “junk food.”

Attitude: In basic terms, an attitude is a learned disposition to respond in a consistently favorable or unfavorable manner with respect to a person, an object, an idea, or an event.¹ Attitudes come in different forms. You are very likely to see an attitude present itself when someone says that they are “pro” or “anti” something. But, above all else, attitudes are learned and not necessarily enduring. Attitudes can change, and sometimes do, whereas beliefs and values do not shift as easily.

1.²

2. [5]

Beliefs: Beliefs are principles³ or assumptions about the universe. They are more durable than attitudes because beliefs are hinged on ideals and not issues. For example, you may believe in the principle: “what goes around comes around.” If you do, you believe in the notion of karma.

Value: A value, on the other hand, is a guiding belief that regulates our attitudes.⁵ Values are the core principles driving our attitudes. If you probe into someone’s attitudes and beliefs far enough, you will inevitably find an underlying value. Importantly, you should also know that we structure our values in accordance with our own value hierarchy, or mental schema of values placed in order of their relative individual importance. Each of us has our own values that we subscribe to and a value hierarchy that we use to navigate the issues of the world. But we really aren’t even aware that we have a value hierarchy until some of our values come in direct conflict with each other.

Knowledge: What does your audience know about your topic? What don’t they know? Different audiences will have differing levels of existing knowledge about your topic.

Psychographic analysis can reveal preexisting notions that limit your audience’s frame of reference. By knowing about such notions ahead of time, you can address them in your speech. Audiences are likely to have two basic kinds of preexisting notions: those about the topic and those about the speaker. We will discuss these two ideas in later chapters.

3.⁴

4. [6]

5.⁶

6. [7]

Situational Information

This type of information focuses on characteristics related to the specific speaking situation. Understanding the audience size and the occasion can help you adjust your speech and delivery to one that is appropriate for the contextual norms.

Audience Size: How many people came to hear my speech and why are they here? What events, concerns, and needs motivated them to come? What is their interest level, and what else might be competing for their attention? In a typical public speaking class, your audience is likely to consist of smaller audiences. It isn't too difficult to let each audience member feel as though you're speaking to him or her. With larger audiences, it's more difficult to reach out to each listener, and your speech will tend to be more formal and you will have to work harder to prepare visual and audio material that reaches the people sitting at the back of the room, including possibly using amplification.

Occasion: There are many occasions for speeches. Awards ceremonies, conventions and conferences, holidays, and other celebrations are some examples. There are also less joyful reasons for a speech, such as funerals, disasters, and the delivery of bad news. Matching your content and strategy to the occasion is essential for successful delivery.

Reason for attendance: A voluntary audience gathers because they want to hear the speech, attend the event, or participate in an event. A classroom audience, in contrast, is likely to be a captive audience. Captive audiences are required to be present or feel obligated to do so. Given the limited choices perceived, a captive audience might give only grudging attention making them more difficult to reach. Even when there's an element of choice, the likely consequences of nonattendance will keep audience members from leaving. The audience's relative perception of choice increases the importance of holding their interest.

How to use the Information

Prepare Content with Your Audience in Mind

The first thing a good audience analysis can do is help you focus your content for your specific audience. Understanding which jargon to use or avoid will help you connect with your audience members. Knowing which terms you need to define based on audience knowledge of the topic can help you to clarify your message. Using visuals and examples that will resonate with your audience members will maintain interest and keep them engaged.

Adjusting Speech Strategies

In addition to using audience analysis to help formulate speech content, we can also use our audience analysis to make adjustments to your speech strategies. If you're speaking after lunch you may need to use strategies to liven up the tone of your speech. Or perhaps your situational analysis may reveal that you'll be speaking in a large auditorium. In this case, you may need to account for a microphone or adjust your visuals for effective viewing.

This first chapter on audiences analysis is intended to overview what, why, and how we conduct an audience analysis. We will revisit this topic in more depth in chapter 5.

Key Takeaways

- Knowing your audience is key to public speaking success.
- Speakers can gather audience members' demographics as well as information about opinions,

attitudes, beliefs, values, and knowledge to engage them.

- Speakers can use information about the situation to determine speech strategies.
- An audience-centered speaker gathers information about their audience and uses it to adjust speaking content and strategies.

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6. Types of Speeches

Learning Objectives

- Differentiate between speaking to inform and speaking to persuade.
- Watch an informative and persuasive speech.

General Purposes of Speaking

The two general purposes of speeches this section will discuss are speaking to inform and speaking to persuade. Public speaking students will write and deliver these two types of speeches in this class. It is important to understand the differences before we begin our first *LIVE* speech, the informative speech. While any topic can be informative or persuasive, the difference is in the speaker's purpose.

To Inform

Simply put, this is about helping audience members acquire information that they do not already possess. The most important characteristic of informative topics is that the goal is to **share knowledge**. The goal is not to encourage people to use that knowledge in any specific way. When a speaker starts encouraging people to use knowledge in a specific way, they are no longer informing but persuading. Let's say you are assigned to inform an audience about a new vaccination program. In an informative

speech, the purpose of the speech is to explain to your audience what the program is and how it works. If, however, you start encouraging your audience to participate or not in the vaccination program, you are no longer informing them about the program but rather persuading them to do something.

One of the most common mistakes new public speaking students make is to blur the line between informing and persuading. Often times it is difficult for us to just share information without trying to convince others to agree with us or change their behaviors. People are typically opinionated and we like our opinions and want others to agree with us. However, knowledge sharing is an important part of every society. You may be asked to share your knowledge in a class or deliver a presentation to inform colleagues in the workplace. Learning how to deliver informative speeches is a valuable skill.

Example Informative Speech

The following video is an example of an informative speech. Take note of the strategies Andrea Ambam uses to share knowledge about bias in the judicial system. She shares research to support her points. Her opinion is apparent, based on her approach; yet, she does not ask the audience to do anything with the information she shares (a call to action). Additionally, she does not offer a solution to the issue. She simply shares researched information (facts, stats, examples, anecdotes) with her audience.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded

from this version of the text. You can view them online here:
<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=116#oembed-2>

To Persuade

When we speak to persuade, we attempt to get listeners to embrace a point of view or to adopt a behavior that they may not have done otherwise. While persuasive speaking includes informing the audience about a topic, a persuasive speech is distinguished by the fact that it includes a **call to action** for the audience to make some change in their behavior or thinking. Persuasion can address behaviors—observable actions on the part of listeners—and it can also address intangible thought processes in the form of attitudes, values, and beliefs.

Behavior change: When the speaker attempts to persuade an audience to change behavior. This may be asking your audience to donate money to a cause, to participate in a recycling program, or to adopt a cat. In these examples, the speaker is asking the audience to do something.

Attitude change: An attitude is defined as an individual's general predisposition toward something as being good or bad, right or wrong, negative or positive. If you believe that dress codes on college campuses are a good idea, you want to give a speech persuading others to adopt a positive attitude toward campus dress codes.

Value change: A value refers to an individual's perception of the usefulness, importance, or worth of something. We can value a college education, we can value technology, and we can value

freedom. Values, as a general concept, are fairly ambiguous and tend to be very lofty ideas. Ultimately, what we value in life actually motivates us to engage in a range of behaviors. For example, if you value protecting the environment, you may recycle more of your trash than someone who does not hold this value. If you value family history and heritage, you may be more motivated to spend time with your older relatives and ask them about their early lives than someone who does not hold this value.

Belief change: Beliefs are propositions or positions that an individual holds as true or false without positive knowledge or proof. *Core beliefs* are beliefs that people have actively engaged in and created over the course of their lives (e.g., belief in a higher power, belief in extraterrestrial life forms). *Dispositional beliefs* the other hand, are beliefs that people have not actively engaged in; they are judgments based on related subjects, which people make when they encounter a proposition. Persuading audiences to change core beliefs is more difficult than persuading audiences to change dispositional beliefs. If you find a topic related to dispositional beliefs, using your speech to help listeners alter their processing of the belief is a realistic possibility. But as a novice public speaker, you are probably best advised to avoid core beliefs. Although core beliefs often appear to be more exciting and interesting than dispositional ones, you are very unlikely to alter anyone's core beliefs in a five- to ten-minute classroom speech.

Example Persuasive Speech

The following video is an example of a persuasive speech. Ron Finley uses persuasive strategies to convince the audience that planting community gardens can have a positive impact on health and hunger in South Central LA.



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We will be creating and delivering both an informative and persuasive speech to a live audience this semester. Be sure to have a solid understanding of the differences between the two.

Key Takeaways

- Speaking to inform is sharing knowledge with your audience.
- Speaking to persuade is attempting to convince your audience to change a behavior, attitude, value, or belief.
- Any topic can be informative or persuasive. The difference is in the speaker's purpose and approach.

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7. Types of Informative Speeches

Learning Objectives

- Distinguish types of general informative speech topics.
- Determine an appropriate informative approach.

Informative Speeches

Now that you know the difference between informative and persuasive approaches, this chapter will explore types of topics and approaches suited well for informative speeches. Again, while any topic can be informative or persuasive, certain topics and approaches will help you to ensure you are delivering an informative speech. As you read the chapter, consider specific topics for each category that you may be able to deliver an informative speech on.

Types of Informative Speech Topics

O'Hair, Stewart, and Rubenstein identified six general types of informative speech topics: objects, people, events, concepts, processes, and issues (O'Hair, et al., 2007).

Objects: Your speech may include how objects are designed, how they function, and what they mean. For example, a student of one of our coauthors gave a speech on the design of corsets, using a mannequin to demonstrate how corsets were placed on women and the amount of force necessary to lace one up. Or you may speak about an artifact and what it means to a certain culture. For instance, the belt (and color of the belt) is significant to the karate culture.

People: People-based speeches tend to be biography-oriented. Such topics could include recounting an individual's achievements and explaining why the person is important in history. Some speakers, who are famous themselves, will focus on their own lives and how various events shaped who they ultimately became. Dottie Walters is most noted as being the first female in the United States to run an advertising agency. In addition to her work in advertising, Dottie also spent a great deal of time as a professional speaker. She often would tell the story about her early years in advertising when she would push around a stroller with her daughter inside as she went from business to business trying to generate interest in her copywriting abilities. You don't have to be famous, however, to give a people-based speech. Instead, you could inform your audience about a historical or contemporary hero whose achievements are not widely known.

Events: These are typically either historical or contemporary. For example, you could deliver a speech on a specific battle of World War II or a specific event that changed the course of history. If you're a history buff, event-oriented speeches may be right up your alley. There are countless historical events that many people aren't familiar with and would find interesting. You could also inform your audience about a more recent or contemporary event. Some examples include concerts, plays, and arts festivals; athletic competitions; and natural phenomena, such as storms, eclipses, and

earthquakes. The point is to make sure that an informative speech is talking about the event (who, what, when, where, and why) and not attempting to persuade people to pass judgment upon the event or its effects.

Concepts: Concepts are “abstract and difficult ideas or theories” (O’Hair, et al., 2007). For example, you may want to explain a specific communication theory, a religious idea, or inflation. Whether you want to discuss theories related to business, sociology, psychology, religion, politics, art, or any other major area of study, this type of speech can be very useful in helping people to understand complex ideas.

Process: A process speech helps audience members understand how a specific object or system works. For example, you could explain how a bill becomes a law in the United States. There is a very specific set of steps that a bill must go through before it becomes a law, so there is a very clear process that could be explained to an audience.

Issues: This informative speech topic is probably the most difficult for novice public speakers because it requires walking a fine line between informing and persuading. If you attempt to deliver this type of speech, remember the goal is to be balanced when discussing both sides of the issue. You are only explaining an issue, you are not proposing solutions or trying to get your audience to agree with your ideas.

If you are struggling with an informative topic, it helps to brainstorm ideas in each of these categories. Once you have a list of potential ideas, you can begin to narrow your ideas. One way to narrow your ideas is to consider the approach you will use with potential topics.

Approaches to Informative Speeches

Once you have decided on a potential topic, you can help to narrow

your focus by determining an informative approach. There are three common informative approaches we will discuss in this section. Those are speeches of definition, description, and explanation.

Definitional Speeches

In **definitional speeches** the speaker attempts to set forth the meaning of concepts, theories, philosophies, or issues that may be unfamiliar to the audience. In these types of speeches, speakers may begin by giving the historical derivation, classification, or synonyms of terms or the background of the subject. In a speech on “How to identify a sociopath,” the speaker may answer these questions: Where did the word ‘sociopath’ come from? What is a sociopath? How many sociopaths are there in the population? What are the symptoms? Carefully define your terminology to give shape to things the audience cannot directly sense. Describing the essential attributes of one concept compared to another (as through the use of analogies) can increase understanding as well. For a speech on “Elderly Abuse,” the speaker may compare this type of abuse to a child or spousal abuse for contrast.

Regardless of the listeners’ level of knowledge about the subject, it is very important in these types of speeches to show the relevance of the topic to their lives. Often the topics discussed in definitional speeches are abstract—distanced from reality. Speakers need to provide explicit, real-life examples and applications of the subject matter to engage audience members. If you were going to give a speech about civil rights, you would need to go beyond commonly held meanings and show the topic in a new light. In this type of speech, the speaker points out the unique and distinguishing properties or boundaries of a concept *in a particular context* (Rinehart, 2002). The meaning of “civil rights” has changed significantly over time. What does it mean today compared to the 1960s? How will knowing this distinction help audience members? What are some specific incidents involving civil rights issues in current news? What changes in civil rights legislation might listeners see in their lifetimes?

DEFINITIONAL EXAMPLE

Title: “Life is suffering,” and Other Buddhist Teachings (Thompson, 1999)

Specific Purpose: At the end of my speech, my audience will understand the Four Noble Truths and the Eightfold Path in Buddhism

Central Idea: Regardless of your religious beliefs, Buddhist philosophy teaches a number of useful lessons you can apply to your own life.

1. Four Noble Truths
 1. All life involves *dukkha* (suffering)
 2. Suffering is caused by *tanha* (longing for things to be other than they are)
 3. If this longing stops (*nirodha*), suffering will cease
 4. The way to eliminate longing is to follow the Eightfold Path
2. The Noble Eightfold Path (the Middle Way)
 1. Right view
 2. Right intention
 3. Right speech
 4. Right action
 5. Right livelihood
 6. Right effort
 7. Right mindfulness
 8. Right contemplation

Descriptive Speeches



The purpose of **descriptive speeches** is to provide a detailed, vivid, word picture of a person, animal, place, or object. Audiences should carry away in their minds a clear vision of the subject (Osborn & Osborn, 1991). Consider this description of the Taj Mahal in Agra, India by Steve Cassidy (edited for length).

To gaze in wonder at that magnificent dome and elegant gardens will be a moment that you remember for the rest of your life. The Taj Mahal just takes your breath away. What is immediately striking is its graceful symmetry—geometric lines run through formal gardens ending in a white marble platform. Atop this platform is great white bulbous dome complemented by four towering minarets in each corner. The whole image shimmers in a reflecting pool flanked by beautiful gardens—the effect is magical. The first stretch

by the reflecting pool is where most people pose for their photos. But we were impressed by the fresh, green gardens. As you approach through the gardens two mosques come into view flanking the Taj—both exquisitely carved and built of red sandstone.

In the descriptive speech, determine the characteristics, features, functions, or fine points of the topic. What makes the person unique? How did the person make you feel? What adjectives apply to the subject? What kind of material is the object made from? What shape is it? What color is it? What does it smell like? Is it part of a larger system? Can it be seen by the naked eye? What is its geography or location in space? How has it changed or evolved over time? How does it compare to a similar object? When preparing for the speech, try to think of ways to appeal to as many of the senses as possible. As an example, in a speech about different types of curried dishes, you could probably verbally describe the difference between yellow, red, and green curry, but the speech will have more impact if the audience can see, smell, and taste samples.

DESCRIPTIVE EXAMPLE

Title: *Easter Island: The Navel of the World* (Fischer, 2006)

Specific Purpose: At the end of my speech, my audience will be able to visualize some of the main attractions on Easter Island.

Central Idea: Easter Island hosts a number of ancient, mysterious, and beautiful attractions that make it an ideal vacation destination.



1. Stone Giants—"Moai"
 1. Average 13 feet high; 14 tons
 2. Play sacred role for Rapa Nui (native inhabitants)
 3. Central Ahu ceremonial sites
2. Coastline activities
 1. Beaches
 2. Snorkeling & Scuba
 3. Surfing
3. Rano Kau Chilean National Park
 1. Giant crater

2. Sheer cliffs to ocean
3. Sea birds

Explanatory Speeches

An **explanatory speech** (also known as a briefing) is similar to a descriptive speech in that they both share the function of clarifying the topic. But explanatory speeches focus on reports of current and historical events, customs, transformations, inventions, policies, outcomes, and options. Whereas descriptive speeches attempt to paint a picture with words so that audiences can vicariously experience it, explanatory speeches focus on the *how* or *why* of a subject and its consequences. Thus, a speaker might give a *descriptive* speech on the daily life of Marie Antoinette, or an *explanatory* speech on how she came to her death. Recall that definitional speeches focus on delineating concepts or issues. In this case, a speaker might give a *definitional* speech about the Emergency Economic Stabilization Act of 2008, or an *explanatory* speech on why the financial bailout was necessary for U.S. financial stability.

If a manager wanted to inform employees about a new workplace internet use policy, s/he might cover questions like: Why was a policy implemented? How will it help? What happens if people do not follow established policies? Explanatory speeches are less concerned with appealing to the senses than connecting the topic to a series of related other subjects to enhance a deep understanding (McKerrow, Gronbeck, Ehninger, & Monroe, 2000). For example, to explain the custom of the Thai *wai* greeting (hands pressed together as in prayer), you also need to explain how it

originated to show one had no weapons, and the ways it is tied to religion, gender, age, and status.

EXPLANATORY EXAMPLE

Title: *Giant Waves, Death, and Devastation: The 2004 Indian Ocean Tsunami* (National Geographic, 2006)

Specific Purpose: At the end of my speech, my audience will be aware of the nature of the 2004 Tsunami and the destruction it caused.

Central Idea: The 2004 Asian Tsunami was one of the worst natural disasters in human history in terms of magnitude, loss of human life, and enduring impact.

1. Geological event
 1. Earthquake epicenter and magnitude
 2. Tsunami forms (waves reach up to 100 feet)
 3. Tsunami strikes land of various countries with no warning
2. Human casualties reach almost 230,000—top 10 of all natural disasters
 1. The countries and people involved
 2. Loss of food, water, hospitals, housing, electricity, and plumbing
 3. Threat of disease
3. Ongoing effects
 1. Environmental destruction

2. Economic devastation
3. Psychological trauma

Setting yourself up for a successful informative speech begins in the early stages when you first start thinking about your topic. Remember to consider the type of informative speech topics and the informative approaches you can take as you are selecting a topic.

Key Takeaways

- Six general informative speech topics are objects, people, events, concepts, processes, and issues. Use these general categories to brainstorm ideas for your upcoming informative speech.
- Once you have decided on a potential topic, you can help to narrow down your topic by considering which informative approach you will use. Will you define, describe, or explain your topic?

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8. Informative Speech Example

Learning Objectives

- Evaluate an informative speech

The following speech is an example of the same informative speech assignment that you will deliver in week 4 of this class.

While no speech is perfect, this is a strong example of a successful informative speech. Take note of strategies the speaker uses to ensure her message is relevant, clear, and interesting.



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Activity



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Additional Informative Speech Example



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9. Public Speaking for Non-Native Speakers of English (optional reading)

Learning Objectives

- Understand that prior knowledge is an asset.
- Recognize the value of group work.
- Differentiate between accent reduction and clarity.
- Recognize and be able to describe the benefits of outlining.
- Create and use mind maps.

Public Speaking Skills for Non-native Speakers of English

ANGELA ELBANNA, M.S.ED.

“To learn a language is to have one more window from which to look at the world.” – Chinese proverb



There are many terms to refer to students whose first language is not English such as ESL (English as a second language), EFL (English as a foreign learner), EAL (English as an additional language), and ESOL (English for speakers of other languages). Some of these terms are now outdated and considered condescending, implying that students whose native language is not English are coming in with a deficit, that there is something lacking in the languages and cultures they already have. Countless studies have shown that students whose first language is not English bring a plethora of information, insight, and valuable contributions to classrooms. Rather than viewing English Learners (EL) as deficient, acknowledging

their diversity and background knowledge will lead to a more inclusive and equitable learning experience for all. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, students whose first language is not English consisted of approximately 10.2 percent of public school students in 2018, that's roughly 5 million students, and that number is steadily increasing. While English Learners may not be necessarily proficient in English, that doesn't mean that they can't take and excel in a traditional public speaking class. Non-native speakers of English must fulfill the same academic requirements as any other student. While a public speaking course may seem out of reach for a non-native English speaker, an introductory speech course is actually recommended to help English learners ease into the standard college curriculum. Non-native speakers of English benefit from taking speech courses because it provides students the chance to improve their listening comprehension, fluency, as well as benefiting from the interaction with native English speakers and viewing examples of speeches made by well-versed public speakers.

Equity, Inclusion, and Diversity

A non-native speaker of English brings an abundance of culture, knowledge, and diversity to the classroom. By engaging and promoting cross-cultural knowledge, we can enhance our classrooms for all students. According to the Education Technology leader Cengage, “Non-native speakers of English enrich the traditional public speaking class by challenging other students and

instructors to think about public speaking within the broader context of the many diverse voices that are increasingly a part of the American “chorus.” The EAL population is steadily increasing; as a result speech instructors need to be prepared to meet the needs of this diverse, growing population. Viewing this growth as an opportunity to promote equity, inclusion, and diversity would serve and enhance the education of all students. This chapter provides information and suggestions on how to actively engage EAL students in a public speaking classroom while meeting learning outcomes.

Culture Shock and Anxiety

Ask any student if they are excited about taking a Speech course, and the answer will probably be “No!” We know that public speaking can be a source of great anxiety to many people, even people who are native speakers of English. Non-native speakers of English may be doubly worried about public speaking. Not only are they dealing with all of the anxiety and stress that goes along with public speaking, but in addition they may also feel anxiety about their level of fluency in English and their accent. It is important to note that having an accent does not make you a ‘bad’ speaker. On the contrary, having an accent signifies that you have something that most Americans don’t...a second language! That is something to be proud of. So don’t strive to hide your accent, but embrace it! This may seem easier said than done, and we will go into further detail on accents later in this chapter. In the meantime, the following techniques can help you overcome communication anxiety and make the speech process easier:

- Accept that being nervous isn’t a bad thing
- Know your topic well
- Do some breathing exercises

- Engage in relaxation activities/yoga
- Meditation
- Visualize your success
- Organize your material
- Practice! Practice often, and out loud.
- Reach out for support

Benefits of Group Work

As a student, you may often groan when your professor announces group work. The idea of working with others may seem inefficient or more time-consuming than working alone, and students who have had bad group-work experiences in the past may be hesitant to embrace the idea of working with classmates. However, there are countless studies that provide strong scientific support for the benefits of group work. Studies also show the benefits of group work in lessening communication anxiety. Working with peers can help students relax and give them the opportunity to freely express their feelings without the pressure of the entire class and the instructor observing them. Within small groups (approximately 2-6) students can give feedback and encourage each other. While it may be tempting to form small groups based on cultural background, this may actually hinder language progression because students may be tempted to speak in their native language. Create groups with a variety of cultural backgrounds as well as levels of fluency so that the maximum benefits can be attained. It is also helpful to assign a group leader, someone whose language skills are strong enough to guide the group through the task.

Accents and Pronunciation

BMCC Student describing her experience learning English:

I started studying English when I was 7. It's mandatory in Sweden that children learn it, and most people study it in school for 10-11 years. I decided to study an extra year, the highest level available before university, so I ended up taking English for a total of 12 years in school. When I graduated "high school", my skills in English were good, I had excellent grades and I considered myself very proficient when it came to reading and listening comprehension, oral presentation, and writing. About one year after graduation, I had gone through the process of becoming an au pair, and I arrived on American soil for the first time in August 2018. I had never spoken English daily before and was nervous about messing it up and not making myself understood, despite knowing that my English was still excellent. I practiced every day and became more comfortable talking, and my vocabulary and pronunciation became better. Still, after maybe a month or so, my jaw started to ache a lot. I couldn't figure out what was going on and why I had to try and relax my jaw once it began to ache. The more I thought about it, I realized the pain or discomfort usually came at the end of the day when I had done a lot of talking. The thought hit me that maybe it was hurting because I was speaking another language, with another rhythm, and in order to sound native, I was moving my jaw more than when speaking Swedish.

Swedish is a language when we use our lips, tongue, and sometimes our throat to form sounds. I found that I had to move my jaw more when trying to sound like a native English speaker than I had ever done speaking Swedish back at home. After some time, my jaw stopped aching, even after long days of speaking, but I found it fascinating that languages require different movements and techniques.

Pronunciation refers to the ability to use the correct stress, rhythm, and intonation of a word in a spoken language. Basically it is how we make the sounds of words. In order to speak, we expel the air from our lungs and through our throats; this air then passes across our vocal chords, over the tongue, and and through the teeth and lips. The muscles in our mouths, tongue, and lips control the way we shape the flow of air. If the shape of the mouth controls airflow correctly, the words will be pronounced correctly.

Speakers whose native language is not English use different muscles of the mouth for pronunciation. According to the Oxford Languages Dictionary, an accent is “a distinctive mode of pronunciation of a language, especially one associated with a particular nation, locality, or social class.” Your accent is the unique way the muscles of your mouth shape the language you speak based on your first language. Basically your accent is how you sound when you speak. I mentioned that everyone has an accent, but how is this possible? There are two types of accents: foreign and the way a group of people speak their native language. Foreign accents are a result of someone speaking one language while using the rules and sounds of another language. For example, in Spanish there is no distinction between long and short vowels. Spanish speakers tend to stretch out vowel sounds and confuse pairs of short and long English vowels. Words like “ship” and “sheep” may be pronounced

the same by a Spanish speaker because they are stretching out the vowels equally in both words. Spanish speakers also tend to add an ‘e’ sound to the beginning of words that start with a consonant. For example, instead of saying ‘school’ a Spanish speaker commonly says ‘eschool’ because they are following the rules of the Spanish language and applying it to English. By applying rules from their native language to English, ESL students may sound “foreign” to native English speakers. This is called a foreign accent.

It makes sense for foreigners to have an accent because they have a language other than English as their primary language. But how do Americans have accents? If they all speak English as their main language, how is it possible to have an accent? This is possible because people have accents based on where they were raised, where they live, and the social groups that they belong to; these are called regional dialects. Researchers identify at least five distinctive American accents with as many as twenty four dialects! It is clear that someone who is from Texas speaks very differently from someone from Boston. They are both speaking in English, yet a clear, distinctive accent is evident. Besides there being a difference in accent, which as we said is how someone pronounces a word, there are numerous dialects of English. According to the Oxford Languages Dictionary, a dialect is a particular form of a language which is peculiar to a specific region or social group. Basically, a dialect includes vocabulary and grammar along with pronunciation.

The bottom line is that English Language Learners face a lot of confusing factors beyond the basics of learning the English language. As you have learned, even native born American speakers of English have accents. Josh Katz, the author of “Speaking American: How Y’all, Youse, and You Guys Talk: A Visual Guide” says:

No matter how much media we consume, we inevitably acquire the speech patterns of the people we surround ourselves with. Our parents, our siblings, and our childhood friends have an impact that far outweighs any homogenizing effects of television, film, or the internet. The words we use will continue to reveal the contours of

our cultural geography, as each ensuing generation redefines what it means to speak American (Katz 197).

Indeed language is not static, it is constantly changing. Even native speakers of English have accents. There is no such a thing as a simple American accent. English Language Learners should not be intimidated or made to feel that they are “wrong” because they have an accent.

Accent Modification

“Do you know what a foreign accent is? It’s a sign of bravery.”— Amy Chu

In recent years there has been growing controversy over the rise in accent reduction or accent modification services offered to ESL students. According to the American Speech-Language Hearing Association (ASHA), accent modification is a service that individuals seek to decrease or modify their accent. It involves pronunciation training that modifies speech patterns. The service is controversial because many non-native English speakers try to reduce their foreign accent to sound more “American,” which can be seen as devaluing their own language and culture. The term “accent reduction” implies that there is something wrong with a foreign accent. Opponents of accent reduction training argue that rather than reducing or eliminating an accent, English Language Learners should aim for clarity in their pronunciation. As long as the speaker is clear and understandable, accent reduction training is unnecessary. Most English Language Learners have the goal of reducing their accent in order to be understood easily. Rather than feel that their accent is “wrong”, EAL students should aim for clarity in their speech.

Communicating with Clarity

¿Qué?	뭐라고요	ماذا
什么	What?	co?
hvað?	какые?	Ano?

Good communicators don't just read the words of a speech, they care that the audience understands their message. Clear communication skills are a goal that all public speakers should have, not just Non-Native Speakers of English. Clarity is important because a speaker wants the audience to relate to what they are saying; a speaker wants their message to not only be heard, but understood. Communicating with clarity also shows respect to your audience. The following tips will be useful to all public speakers to ensure clarity:

- Know what it is you are trying to say before you say it. In other words, think before you speak. Consider what your topic is and ask yourself what is the information that you are actually trying to convey to your audience. Once you know what it is that you would like to get across, then you can choose appropriate vocabulary to help you communicate your message.
- Use simple language. Don't use large, unfamiliar words when simple words will do. While you may be trying to impress your

audience with your large vocabulary, pronouncing unfamiliar words incorrectly may hurt your credibility as well as distract your audience.

- **Speak slowly.** Often speakers speak at a very fast rate because they are nervous and just want to get the experience over with; the result is an unintelligible speech. By slowing your rate of speaking, you give yourself time to pronounce sounds accurately and you also give your audience a chance to comprehend and reflect on what you've said.
- **Global connections.** Reach out to your audience by sharing a personal story or anecdote. Not only do studies show that audiences relate better to presenters who share stories or personal information, but they help connect us. Take advantage of the fact that you are in a diverse environment and use the opportunity to expand your audience's horizons. In turn, you will learn a lot from diverse speakers as well.
- **Practice, Practice, and then Practice again!** There is nothing worse for an audience member than listening to a speech when it is the first time the speaker has delivered it! Practice ahead of time, identify the words that you have difficulty pronouncing and listen to the dictionary pronunciation of them. This is a time when having a group for support is beneficial because group members can listen to you practicing and help you correct unclear pronunciation. It may also be helpful to record yourself practicing and watch the recording.
- **Use Presentation Aids.** Good presentation aids can help you get your message across and visually engage your audience. Studies show people remember more when presented information both visually and verbally. Presentation aids are particularly helpful to EAL students because they can help them remember key vocabulary words.

Outlining

Imagine that you wanted to build a house. You have a beautiful piece of land and decide that you are knowledgeable enough to build your dream home yourself. Do you go to the hardware store, buy some wood and nails and start building? Or do you first plan how the house will look? How many rooms will it have? How large will it be? Based on these answers you probably would draw or design a layout of the house; this is called a blueprint. Just as no builder ever starts buying materials and throwing them together without a blueprint, writers should also have a layout or a plan for what should be included in their speech. We call this an outline.

Outlining is an important tool for both writers and public speakers. Outlining allows you to visually look at your information and decide what to put in, what to keep out, allows you to see if you are being repetitive, or if you are missing an important point. It may seem like an unnecessary step when you want to just start typing away, but in reality, taking the time to outline will save you a lot of time overall. Just as a builder organizes their materials and sees if things fit well together, an outline helps writers and speakers organize their thoughts and visually see them on paper without the hassle of having to write out complete sentences or paragraphs. Outlines are great because short phrases are sufficient for seeing if ideas actually connect and if the overall information included relates back to your topic or thesis.

English Language Learners may have a difficult time with the idea of outlining because in many cultures, discourse patterns are not linear, which means that structuring may be difficult for EAL students that come from these cultures. As educator Tan Huynh states, “Many of my Asian students come from schools who practice a traditional approach to learning English that focuses on learning grammar rules. They were not asked to create language – just to memorize it.” This approach, while successful in teaching grammar rules, does not help students with creating oral communication.

Outlining helps students produce language because they are free from the pressures of having to organize their thoughts while worrying about the mechanics of language.

Mind Mapping

One way to make the outlining process easier for non-native speakers of English is through the use of mind maps. Mind maps are a tool that can be used to brainstorm ideas and start building an outline. Mind mapping is a visual exercise that allows you to graphically organize your ideas. The basic idea behind a mind map is that there is a central, main idea. From that central idea, you start “branching” out and jotting down whatever ideas you think connect to this central idea. Think of mind mapping as visual note-taking, all mind maps have a natural hierarchical structure that radiates from the center and uses lines, symbols, words, phrases, and color to actually “map out” what ideas and thoughts you may have. When you are finished, you will have a colorful and probably messy diagram that you can examine and use to determine which parts of your map actually do relate to your central topic, what are the most important points to include and what order will you include them in? Mind mapping is a creative way to generate key points and can lead to a free flow of ideas. Because it is unstructured, it can be a very valuable tool for non-native speakers of English.

There are many online programs that students can now use to create mind maps digitally. View the sample mind map below:

[Mind Map](#)

Mind Mapping Basic Steps:

1. Choose a general topic.
2. Place that main topic in the center and draw lines or “branches” from the central topic. Draw as many branches as

needed and jot down whatever words or phrases come to mind. Don't worry about spelling or grammar! The point is to brainstorm and get down whatever thoughts come to mind.

3. Then create sub-branches that extend from the main branches to further develop your ideas.
4. Feel free to even draw pictures and use colors to help you organize your ideas.
5. Your finished map can then be used to see if your ideas actually relate back to the main topic and can help you decide which subpoints you would like to include in your speech.

Outlining may seem like a tedious, unnecessary task for many students. For non-native speakers of English, it may actually be difficult for language structuring reasons. Mind mapping is a useful tool that allows students to creatively brainstorm their topics and make connections without being hindered with grammar and other language mechanics at the start of the process. Mind mapping offers an excellent starting point for reviewing and regrouping key ideas.

Conclusion

Taking a public speaking class is a daunting experience for any student. Most people simply do not like the idea of giving speeches in front of an audience. If you are a native speaker of English listening to a non-native speaker of English give a speech, place yourself in their shoes. Imagine how difficult it must be for your classmate to not only face the challenge of public speaking but to do so in a new, unfamiliar language. Be patient as you listen and if you don't understand something that is said, politely ask for clarification. Look at the situation as an opportunity to learn from your classmate as you are exposed to diverse speakers.

If you are a non-native speaker of English then take comfort in the fact that even native speakers get nervous about public speaking.

Having communication anxiety is something that many people experience regardless of language proficiency. Use the Public Speaking classroom as an opportunity to expand your English language skills. You can benefit greatly from watching your classmates present, researching and outlining your own material, practicing speaking and listening skills with group members, and exposing yourself to diverse viewpoints in a multicultural classroom.

The goals of public speaking classrooms are to help all students enhance and improve their communication skills. By empowering our voices we can transform and deliver high impact presentations that will allow our messages to be heard beyond the classroom.

Student Voices



Tanzil Fatima, a community and human health and biology major and an international student from Pakistan, studied at UWC Pearson College in Canada. It wasn't until she arrived at OU that she said she started feeling conscious of her accent:

Photo by [Naassom Azevedo](#) on [Unsplash](#)

"The first two weeks were a roller coaster," Fatima said. "Every time it would be a lot of different things about me — my skin color or the country that I come from, my accent or just a variety of different things. People were like, 'Oh, where are you from? You have a unique accent,' (and) I'm like, 'Okay, I don't know what that means.'" Patterns emerged in people's comments

regarding Fatima's accent, including phrases like "you speak English very well." She said she became aware of the different connotations it had – from someone being genuinely interested in her to simply being microaggressive. "For some people, (it) is just a compliment, for (others, it is) like, 'Oh you speak English well for the race you come from, or for the country you come from, or you speak well compared to other people who look like you,'" Fatima said. "So, it depends if it's a microaggression or not, and I feel like this is one of the biggest indicators of discrimination in language."

(https://www.oudaily.com/news/the-accent-tells-where-im-from-the-accent-tells-my-story-ou-international-students-discuss/article_42358248-d8f7-11eb-b7a5-c3bb129bb178.html)

A BMCC student:

I came to the United States in the Summer of 2006. I was only 6 years old at the time. All I remember was saying goodbye to my family members in Mexico, I was crying in confusion. When I arrived here in the United States, I was really confused, it was like I was on a totally different planet. I went from having a wide-open space to being in an apartment. And I couldn't understand anything except my mother, who spoke Spanish. When September came, my mom had already registered to the elementary school P.S 169. I was so nervous because I didn't know anyone and didn't speak their language. My

first day of first grade was frightening. I was nervous but I didn't cry the first day. I went to school for about a week. That first week was a nightmare, I had no idea what was happening. I couldn't keep up with my work. I had no friends and would be made fun of. I would cry every day, begging my mom to take me home. One of my ESL teachers, who took me out for small group work, saw the amount of stress everything was causing me. My ESL teacher with other school administrators suggested that my mother, putting me back in kindergarten. They told her that it would be the best choice for me since it was still the beginning of the school year, and it would have helped me pick up the language easily and faster. Now I realized it was the best decision, but back then I hated it, I would cry every day because I was sent back to kindergarten, I was the tallest girl there, the kids made fun of me. And I felt like everyone thought I was dumb. The teacher was really nice and made sure I was ok. That helped me so much. I started learning new songs, phonics and learned to read, and slowly started to learn and understand. And I had ESL up until the 3rd grade. My English is not perfect, but I can't thank my mother enough for how grateful I am to be here. And see the number of opportunities I have speaking, writing, and understanding two languages. This is also a reason I want to be a Bilingual Childhood Education Teacher, to help those kids who are learning English as their second language and be able to teach in my primary language.

Key Takeaways

1. Prior knowledge is an asset and helps create a multicultural learning environment.
2. Group work is beneficial to EAL students by boosting confidence and helping students practice language skills.
3. Communicating with clarity should be a goal for all public speakers.
4. Outlining offers students many benefits in speech preparation. Mind maps are a great way to start an outline.

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PART II

CHAPTER 2: BEGINNING THE SPEECH MAKING PROCESS

Now that we have a handle on public speaking from a theory perspective, we are going to put the development of a speech into practice. In order to deliver a speech, you must first brainstorm a topic. We cannot deliver an extemporaneous speech without ground-work. This work is essential to an effective speech delivery. In this chapter, you will learn effective brainstorming skills to narrow down your topic, create a general and specific purpose for your speech topic, construct a thesis statement, preview the main points of your speech, and consider the support and/research within the main points. This section is essential for the success of your delivery. Often times, students breeze through this process believing that this is time-wasted. However, as you read through this chapter, you will see each step is an essential part of the overall speech making process. Take your time with each section, take notes, and think creatively. You will not be disappointed if you spend copious amounts of time thinking through each of these sections.

10. Process of Speech Making

Learning Objectives

Public Speaking students are often surprised at the amount of work that goes into delivering a strong speech.

- Develop an extemporaneous speech by following the steps of preparing a speech.

Process of Preparing a Speech

Many students are surprised by the amount of work that is required to deliver an extemporaneous speech. Public Speaking requires students to choose a topic, consider their audience, analyze the audience, consider their own biases to avoid ethnocentrism, research their topic, craft an outline, and practice the delivery of the speech. If you are thinking, “Oh! My!” You are right, “Oh, My”. This chapter will break down the importance of each step and highlight best practices for strong speech delivery.

Choosing a Topic

There is no “right” topic for a speech class; however, there are topics that are more suitable for a particular audience, the occasion of the speech, and the type of speech. Therefore, it is important for students to spend quality time in the brainstorming phase of selecting a topic and narrowing in on the scope of their speech.

Analyzing the Who, Why, and Where

Knowing and understanding your audience is one of the most important parts of developing an effective speech. The next steps in the speech making process include knowing and understanding your audience. What are their motives, intentions, and goals? You will be required to engage in an audience analysis process in order to learn your public speaking audience and tailor your speech to this particular audience. Stay tuned!

Topic Research: Gathering Materials and Evidence

You now have a topic and an understanding of the audience – you are ready to begin researching! You will use the library (your institution's library, the local library, online databases, etc.) to begin researching. Researching takes time and skill. Simply going to Google, typing in a few keywords, and choosing the first three results, is not research. You will need to carve out hours of time to gather materials and evidence to support your claims. These skills will be introduced in the research section for both informative and persuasive speaking.

The Thesis Statement

In any opinion piece, written or spoken, the main argument – the thesis statement – comes at the end of your introduction. You want your audience to know right away the point you are trying to make. It is important to remember that your thesis statement only

addresses one main issue; the ways in which you choose to support your thesis add complexity and depth to your speech.

Preparing Supporting Materials

Once you have solidified your position in your thesis statement, you want to back up your thesis with a variety of supporting ideas and examples. To do this, there are several ways you can support your claims while adding variety and interest to the overall story of your speech. In order to prepare supporting materials, you will need to consider elements of your research and determine how the research (facts, statistics, anecdotes, testimonies, etc.) fits into the main points of your speech. The main points will carry the main message of your speech; it is important to construct strong supporting materials.

Organizing and Outlining Your Speech

Now that you have decided on your topic, analyzed your audience, arrived at your thesis, and determined how you will support your claims, it is time to organize your notes and research into one coherent speech.

You *did* keep all of your notes centrally collected and easily accessible, right? If you put all of your research notes and thoughts onto notecards, it is particularly helpful to lay them out in front of you and begin to organize your points and sub-points in ways that make the most logical sense.

Outlining

The main points of your speech will be supported by research; however, you will need to determine the order of the main points and how you present the information. In public speaking, we call these “organizational patterns”. The stronger the pattern, the easier it is to listen to a speaker AND the easier it is for the speaker to remember what comes next – it is like a road map! You should choose an organizational pattern that works for your speech topic and builds logically from one point to the next. There are several patterns to choose from; you will learn key differences between the patterns and the strategy behind utilization.

Creating Presentation Notecards

Public Speaking professors often lament that college students just simply read their outlines word-for-word. NOTE: This is NOT public speaking, it is public reading. There is very little skill involved in reading an outline in a public speaking class. The intention of this course is to deliver an extemporaneous speech. Therefore, it is recommended to take your polished outline and turn it into keyword note cards. Your note cards should have a few words or phrases to remind the speaker of what comes next. You should avoid long sentences and word-for-word phrasing. Less is more. After you have created your note cards, you should begin practicing your speech aloud.

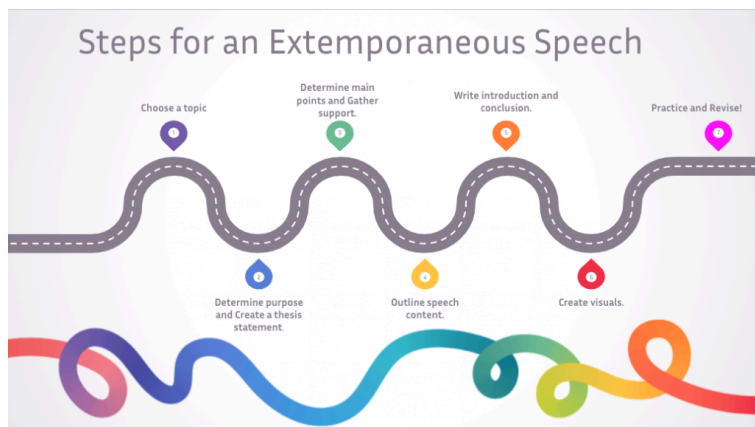
Practice Makes Darn Good

Perfect does not exist in public speaking. However, pretty darn good DOES! The bolded concepts, when built upon, will allow a public speaker to begin the speech making process. Once you have gone through each step, you can then begin to put the pieces together. Then, when you are ready, you can practice your speech in front of a mirror, record yourself and watch your speech, or ask a peer to practice with you. You should practice using the method of delivery. Face to face? Practice in a classroom-type setting. Virtual? Practice on Zoom or Google Meet. You will also want to practice with your technology and/or props – forgetting to add this step is detrimental to students and their success. Practice as if your intended audience is in front of you.

Speech Making Steps

As crafting a speech is a process, there are steps that must be

followed – in order – to be successful. Below is a roadmap of the steps that will be addressed in the following readings.



Activity

As speech making is a process, this process will require time, effort, and pre-planning to execute effectively. Use the tool below to plan out your process to meet project deadlines (note: you will be delivering your informative speech in week 4).



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=126#h5p-10>

Key Takeaways

Preparing a speech requires time, research, practice, and skill.

- Remember to plan ahead and give yourself enough time to plan and execute on your speaking expectations.
- Extemporaneous speaking requires a step-by-step process to be successful.

II. Speech Parts

Learning Objectives

- Use the parts of a speech to create an effective speech format.

All speeches are comprised of three sections or parts. The introduction, the body, and the conclusion. The following video will overview these parts before we get into the specifics about creating these parts in the following readings.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1478#oembed-1>

Key Takeaways

- Every successful speech has an introduction, body, and conclusion.
- The introduction grabs the audience's attention and orients them to your central message.
- The body of the speech develops your ideas with supporting material.
- The conclusion wraps up your speech content by summarizing and leaving the audience with a memorable thought.

12. Selecting a Topic: Brainstorming your ideas

Learning Objectives

It is important to spend time thinking about your speech topic before you begin the speech making process.

- Select a topic that you can research.
- Connect the topic to your own interests and the audience.

Selecting a Topic

Before crafting the body of your speech, you must select a topic, determine a purpose, and write a thesis statement. When choosing your speech topic, brainstorm to generate many ideas, and distill those ideas to find your singular topic. As you begin to prepare for any speech, it's important to pin down exactly about what you plan to talk. You might have been given a specific topic by a professor or supervisor, or you may be simply invited to speak at an event where the topic is up to you. Knowing how to carefully select your topic is an important first step in preparing for a successful speech.

Start by thinking about your venue

Where will you be giving your speech? To whom will you be speaking? (We'll get to analyzing your audience in the next section.

) Then, start to think about what you know about the topic, and move towards those subjects or tangents about which you *don't* know. It's helpful to speak about a topic with which you are already familiar, but sometimes you may be called into situations where you have no prior knowledge about a given subject.

In either instance, it's helpful to approach your topic through **brainstorming**.



*Clustering:
An example
of an idea
cluster for
the subject
“gardening.”*

Brainstorming

One of the best ways to help solidify your speech topic is to brainstorm. You can brainstorm by yourself, or you might want to bring in a few friends, colleagues, or classmates to help you come up with ideas in a group setting. You can brainstorm using a number of different exercises.

Word Association

Start with a broad topic idea. What words, topics, or other subjects do you associate with that first topic? Now what words, topics, or other subjects do you associate with the following word? Continue this chain of word association to give you a broad spectrum of ideas.

Clustering

Also known as mind-mapping, clustering gives your word association a visual form. Start with your main idea and draw a circle around it, thinking of it as the hub of a wheel. Now, begin to write other associated ideas, topics, or subcategories related to that main topic around the hub, and connect them as separate spokes. From each spoke, begin to jot down other associated ideas and thoughts. As your cluster begins to grow, you might want to connect smaller spokes to one another and create new links between subjects.

Freewriting

This is probably the simplest brainstorming method of all. Set a timer and begin writing whatever thoughts or ideas come to mind about your particular subject. You might find it easier to type your freewriting instead of writing it by hand, so you can keep up with your thoughts faster. Whatever you do, don't stop writing.

Another way of freewriting is to record yourself talking for a set period of time and then transcribe your key points to go back to and clarify later. Once your time is up, go back and highlight or circle relevant points or topics that stick out for you. You'll refine these later.

Distill Your Ideas into One Topic

Once you've brainstormed your many ideas, it's time to refine your ideas and distill them into one topic. Look for themes, patterns, and commonalities when going through your brainstorming notes. Use these themes to help guide you toward a singular topic.

Do a Little Homework

While you will definitely research your topic, you might want to do some “presearch” – that is, a little research before the real research. Do a quick scan to see what others have said or written about your topic. This might give you even more ideas on how to refine and distill your topic, or more appropriately adapt it to your audience or venue.

Activity



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1110#h5p-1>

Key Takeaways

It is important to brainstorm your topic and the possibilities of the topic.

- Consider how you will continue to develop this topic through researching and connecting with your audience.
- You might consider audience's understanding of this topic and how you can add value to their knowledge.
- Once you have selected a topic, you can move to your next speech making step.

13. Specific Purpose

Learning Objectives

- Create a specific purpose to determine speech goals.

What Is Your Purpose?

There are two purposes for public speaking: general and specific. Purpose statements are especially helpful for guiding you as you prepare your speech. The general purpose refers to the broad goal for creating and delivering the speech. The specific purpose, on the other hand, starts with one of those broad goals and then further informs the listener about the *who, what, when, where, why,* and *how* of the speech. The specific purpose answers the question: What do you want to accomplish by the end of your speech?

The specific purpose is the combination of factors that make speeches and other discourse meaningful and a useful way to change the way something is. It is stated as a sentence incorporating the general purpose, the specific audience for the

speech, and a prepositional phrase that summarizes the topic. Suppose you are going to give a speech about using open-source software. Here are two examples, each with a similar topic but a different general purpose and a different audience:

General Purpose	To inform
Specific Purpose	To inform a group of school administrators about the various open
General Purpose	To persuade
Specific Purpose	To persuade a group of college students to make the switch from M

In each of these examples, you will notice that there is a general purpose (to inform or to persuade); the specific purpose follows the goal of the speech and allows the speaker to fine-tune their purpose by being more specific. Before you can think strategically about your speech content, you need to know what your specific purpose is. Once you have decided on the topic, intention, and general purpose of your speech, you can begin to write your specific purpose statement. You will not state this purpose verbatim in your speech but you will use it to craft a thesis statement that you will state verbatim in your speech.

Activity

Write your general and specific purpose for your informative speech now.



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this



version of the text. You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=507#h5p-12>

Key Takeaways

Specific purposes are important to the speech making process.

- Your specific purpose will support your speech by informing the listener about your speech and the goals of your speech.
- You may not specifically state the specific purpose but it will guide your intention of the speech.
- The specific purpose will help guide your speech. You can always refer back to the specific purpose if you begin to “get in the weeds” with your information, research, and support.
- Ask yourself: What do you want to accomplish by the end of your speech?

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14. Crafting a Thesis Statement

Learning Objectives

- Craft a thesis statement that is clear, concise, and declarative.
- Narrow your topic based on your thesis statement and consider the ways that your main points will support the thesis.

Crafting a Thesis Statement

A thesis statement is a short, **declarative sentence** that states the purpose, intent, or main idea of a speech. A strong, clear thesis statement is very valuable within an introduction because it lays out the basic goal of the entire speech. We strongly believe that it is worthwhile to invest some time in framing and writing a good thesis statement. You may even want to write your thesis statement before you even begin conducting research for your speech. While you may end up rewriting your thesis statement later, having a clear idea of your purpose, intent, or main idea before you start searching for research will help you focus on the most appropriate material. To help us understand thesis statements, we will first explore their basic functions and then discuss how to write a thesis statement.

Basic Functions of a Thesis Statement

A thesis statement helps your audience by letting them know, clearly and concisely, what you are going to talk about. A strong thesis statement will allow your reader to understand the central message of your speech. You will want to be as specific as possible. A thesis statement for informative speaking should be a declarative statement that is clear and concise; it will tell the audience what to expect in your speech. For persuasive speaking, a thesis statement should have a narrow focus and should be arguable, there must be an argument to explore within the speech. The exploration piece will come with research, but we will discuss that in the main points. For now, you will need to consider your specific purpose and how this relates directly to what you want to tell this audience. Remember, no matter if your general purpose is to inform or persuade, your thesis will be a declarative statement that reflects your purpose.

How to Write a Thesis Statement

Now that we've looked at why a thesis statement is crucial in a

speech, let's switch gears and talk about how we go about writing a solid thesis statement. A thesis statement is related to the general and specific purposes of a speech.

Narrow Your Topic

Once you have chosen your topic and determined your purpose, you will need to make sure your topic is narrow. One of the hardest parts of writing a thesis statement is narrowing a speech from a broad topic to one that can be easily covered during a five- to seven-minute speech. While five to seven minutes may sound like a long time for new public speakers, the time flies by very quickly when you are speaking. You can easily run out of time if your topic is too broad. To ascertain if your topic is narrow enough for a specific time frame, ask yourself three questions.

Is your speech topic a broad overgeneralization of a topic?

Overgeneralization occurs when we classify everyone in a specific group as having a specific characteristic. For example, a speaker's thesis statement that "all members of the National Council of La Raza are militant" is an overgeneralization of all members of the organization. Furthermore, a speaker would have to correctly demonstrate that all members of the organization are militant for the thesis statement to be proven, which is a very difficult task since the National Council of La Raza consists of millions of Hispanic Americans. A more appropriate thesis related to this topic could be, "Since the creation of the National Council of La Raza [NCLR] in 1968, the NCLR has become increasingly militant in addressing the causes of Hispanics in the United States."

Is your speech's topic one clear topic or multiple topics?

A strong thesis statement consists of only a single topic. The

following is an example of a thesis statement that contains too many topics: “Medical marijuana, prostitution, and Women’s Equal Rights Amendment should all be legalized in the United States.” Not only are all three fairly broad, but you also have three completely unrelated topics thrown into a single thesis statement. Instead of a thesis statement that has multiple topics, limit yourself to only one topic. Here’s an example of a thesis statement examining only one topic: **Ratifying the Women’s Equal Rights Amendment as equal citizens under the United States law would protect women by requiring state and federal law to engage in equitable freedoms among the sexes.**

Does the topic have direction?

If your basic topic is too broad, you will never have a solid thesis statement or a coherent speech. For example, if you start off with the topic “Barack Obama is a role model for everyone,” what do you mean by this statement? Do you think President Obama is a role model because of his dedication to civic service? Do you think he’s a role model because he’s a good basketball player? Do you think he’s a good role model because he’s an excellent public speaker? When your topic is too broad, almost anything can become part of the topic. This ultimately leads to a lack of direction and coherence within the speech itself. To make a cleaner topic, a speaker needs to narrow her or his topic to one specific area. For example, you may want to examine why President Obama is a good public speaker.

Put Your Topic into a Declarative Sentence

You wrote your general and specific purpose. Use this information to guide your thesis statement. If you wrote a clear purpose, it will be easy to turn this into a declarative statement.

General purpose: To inform

Specific purpose: To inform my audience about the lyricism of former President Barack Obama's presentation skills.

Your thesis statement needs to be a declarative statement. This means it needs to actually state something. If a speaker says, "I am going to talk to you about the effects of social media," this tells you nothing about the speech content. Are the effects positive? Are they negative? Are they both? We don't know. This sentence is an announcement, not a thesis statement. A declarative statement clearly states the message of your speech.

For example, you could turn the topic of President Obama's public speaking skills into the following sentence: "Because of his unique sense of lyricism and his well-developed presentational skills, President Barack Obama is a modern symbol of the power of public speaking." Or you could state, "Social media has both positive and negative effects on users."

Adding your Argument, Viewpoint, or Opinion

If your topic is informative, your job is to make sure that the thesis statement is nonargumentative and focuses on facts. For example, in the preceding thesis statement, we have a couple of opinion-oriented terms that should be avoided for informative speeches: "unique sense," "well-developed," and "power." All three of these

terms are laced with an individual's opinion, which is fine for a persuasive speech but not for an informative speech. For informative speeches, the goal of a thesis statement is to explain what the speech will be informing the audience about, not attempting to add the speaker's opinion about the speech's topic. For an informative speech, you could rewrite the thesis statement to read, **“Barack Obama’s use of lyricism in his speech, ‘A World That Stands as One,’ delivered July 2008 in Berlin demonstrates exceptional use of rhetorical strategies.**

On the other hand, if your topic is persuasive, you want to make sure that your argument, viewpoint, or opinion is clearly indicated within the thesis statement. If you are going to argue that Barack Obama is a great speaker, then you should set up this argument within your thesis statement.

For example, you could turn the topic of President Obama's public speaking skills into the following sentence: “Because of his unique sense of lyricism and his well-developed presentational skills, President Barack Obama is a modern symbol of the power of public speaking.” Once you have a clear topic sentence, you can start tweaking the thesis statement to help set up the purpose of your speech.

Thesis Checklist

Once you have written a first draft of your thesis statement, you're probably going to end up revising your thesis statement a number of times prior to delivering your actual speech. A thesis statement is something that is constantly tweaked until the speech is given. As your speech develops, often your thesis will need to be rewritten to whatever direction the speech itself has taken. We often start with a speech going in one direction, and find out through our research that we should have gone in a different direction. When you think you finally have a thesis statement that is good to go for

your speech, take a second and make sure it adheres to the criteria shown below.

Thesis Checklist

Thesis Checklist

Questions to ask yourself

☐ Does your thesis clearly reflect the topic of your speech?

☐ Can you adequately cover the topic indicated in your thesis within the time you have for your speech?

☐ Is your thesis statement simple and direct?

☐ Does your thesis statement gain an audience's interest?

☐ Is your thesis statement declarative?

Additional Questions for Persuasive Speeches

☐ Does your thesis statement introduce a clear argument?

☐ Does your thesis statement clearly indicate what your audience should do or how your audience should think?

All of your answers should be YES!

After you have drafted your thesis, ask yourself these questions. If any answers are no, revise your thesis statement.

Preview of Speech

The preview, as stated in the introduction portion of our readings,

reminds us that we will need to let the audience know what the main points in our speech will be. You will want to follow the thesis with the preview of your speech. Your preview will allow the audience to follow your main points in a sequential manner. Spoiler alert: The preview when stated out loud will remind you of main point 1, main point 2, and main point 3 (etc. if you have more or less main points). It is a built in memory card!

For Future Reference | How to organize this in an outline |

Introduction

Attention Getter:

Background information:

Credibility:

Thesis:

Preview:

Key Takeaways

Introductions are foundational to an effective public speech.

- A thesis statement is instrumental to a speech that is well-developed and supported.
- Be sure that you are spending enough time brainstorming strong attention getters and considering your audience's goal(s) for the introduction.
- A strong thesis will allow you to follow a roadmap throughout the rest of your speech: it is worth spending the extra time to ensure you have a strong thesis statement.

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15. Determining Your Main Ideas

Learning Objectives

1. Revisit the function of a specific purpose.
2. Use a specific purpose to create a series of main points.
3. Narrow a speech from all the possible points to the main points.
4. Explain how to prepare meaningful main points.



Matt Wynn – [Lightbulb!](#) – CC BY 2.0.

Every speech has three parts: the introduction, body, and conclusion. The **introduction** establishes the topic and whets your audience's appetite, and the **conclusion** wraps everything up at

the end of your speech. The real “meat” of your speech happens in the **body**. In this section, we’re going to discuss how to think strategically about the body of your speech.

We like the word *strategic* because it refers to determining what is important or essential to the overall plan or purpose of your speech. **Too often, new speakers just throw information together and stand up and start speaking.** NOTE: *Don’t Do That!!* When that happens, audience members are left confused and the reason for the speech may get lost. To avoid being seen as disorganized, we want you to start thinking critically about the organization of your speech. In this section, we will discuss how to take your speech from a specific purpose to creating the main points of your speech.

From Thesis to Main Points

Once you’ve written down your thesis statement, you can now start thinking about the best way to turn that into a series of main points. The main points are the key ideas you present to enable your speech to accomplish its specific purpose. In this section, we’re going to discuss how to determine your main points and how to organize those main points into a coherent, strategic speech.

How Many Main Points Do I Need?

While there is no magic number for how many main points a speech should have, speech experts generally agree that the fewer the number of main points the better. **For the speeches you will be delivering in a typical public speaking class, you will usually have just two or three main points.** If your speech is less than three minutes long, then two main points will probably work best. If your speech is between five and ten minutes in length, then it makes more sense to use three main points. As a speaker, you will use your best judgment to determine what works best for your speech based on your topic, research, and integration of support within the main points.

You may be wondering why we are recommending only **two or three main points**. The reason comes straight out of the research on listening. According to LeFrancois, people are more likely to remember information that is meaningful, useful, and of interest to them; different or unique; organized; visual; and simple (LeFrancois, 1999). **Two or three main points** are much easier for listeners to remember than ten or even five. In addition, if you have **two or three main points**, you'll be able to develop each one with examples, statistics, or other forms of support. Including support for each point will make your speech more interesting and more memorable for your audience.

Narrowing Down Your Main Points

When you write your specific purpose and review the research you have done on your topic, you will probably find yourself thinking of

quite a few points that you'd like to make in your speech. Whether that's the case or not, we recommend taking a few minutes to brainstorm and develop a list of points. In brainstorming, your goal is simply to think of as many different points as you can, not to judge how valuable or important they are. What information does your audience need to know to understand your topic? What information does your speech need to convey to accomplish its specific purpose? Consider the following example:

Specific Purpose	<p>To inform a group of school administrators about the various open-source software packages that could be utilized in their school districts</p> <p>Define open-source software.</p> <p>Define educational software.</p> <p>List and describe the software commonly used by school districts.</p> <p>Explain the advantages of using open-source software.</p> <p>Explain the disadvantages of using open-source software.</p>
Brainstorming List of Points	<p>Review the history of open-source software.</p> <p>Describe the value of open-source software.</p> <p>Describe some educational open-source software packages.</p> <p>Review the software needs of my specific audience.</p> <p>Describe some problems that have occurred with open-source software.</p>

Now that you have brainstormed and developed a list of possible points, how do you go about narrowing them down to just two or three main ones? Remember, your main points are the key ideas that help build your speech. When you look over the preceding list, you can then start to see that many of the points are related to one another. Your goal in narrowing down your main points is to identify which individual, potentially minor points can be combined to make main points. This process is called chunking because it involves taking smaller chunks of information and putting them

together with like chunks to create more fully developed chunks of information. Before reading our chunking of the preceding list, see if you can determine three large chunks out of the list (note that not all chunks are equal).

Specific Purpose	To inform a group of school administrators about the various open-source software packages that could be utilized in their school districts
	School districts use software in their operations.
Main Point 1	Define educational software. List and describe the software commonly used by school districts. What is open-source software? Define open-source software. Review the history of open-source software.
Main Point 2	Explain the advantages of using open-source software. Describe the value of open-source software. Explain the disadvantages of using open-source software. Describe some problems that have occurred with open-source software.
	Name some specific open-source software packages that may be appropriate for these school administrators to consider.
Main Point 3	Review the software needs of my specific audience. Describe some educational open-source software packages.

You may notice that in the preceding list, the number of subpoints under each of the three main points is a little disjointed or the topics don't go together clearly. That's all right. Remember that these are just general ideas at this point. It's also important to remember that there is often more than one way to organize a speech. Some of these points could be left out and others developed more fully, depending on the purpose and audience. We'll develop the preceding main points more fully in a moment.

Hints for Selecting Main Points

Now that we've discussed how to take a specific purpose and turn it into a series of main points, here are some helpful hints for creating your main points.

Do They Reflect Your Thesis?

Once you've generated a possible list of main points, you want to ask yourself this question: "When you look at your main points, do they serve to communicate my thesis?" For example, if you look at the three preceding main points (school districts use software in their operations; what is open-source software; name some specific open-source software packages that may be appropriate for these school administrators to consider), ask yourself, "Do these main points help my audience understand my specific purpose and thesis statement?"

Suppose you added a fourth main point about open-source software for musicians—would this fourth main point go with the other three? Probably not. While you may have a strong passion for open-source music software, that main point is extraneous information for the speech you are giving. It does not help accomplish your specific purpose, so you'd need to toss it out.

Note: This is also where adjusting your thesis statement may come in. If you determine you want to cover main points that don't directly reflect your thesis, you may need to tweak your thesis at this point.

Keeping Main Points Separate

The next question to ask yourself about your main points is whether they overlap too much. While some overlap may happen naturally because of the singular nature of a specific topic, the information covered within each main point should be clearly distinct from the other main points. Imagine you're giving a speech with the specific purpose "to inform my audience about the health reasons for eating apples and oranges." You could then have three main points: that eating fruits is healthy, that eating apples is healthy, and that eating oranges is healthy. While the two points related to apples and oranges are clearly distinct, both of those main points would probably overlap too much with the first point "that eating fruits is healthy," so you would probably decide to eliminate the first point and focus on the second and third. On the other hand, you could keep the first point and then develop two new points giving additional support to why people should eat fruit.

Balancing Main Points

One of the biggest mistakes some speakers make is to spend most of their time talking about one of their main points, completely neglecting their other main points. To avoid this mistake, **organize your speech so as to spend roughly the same amount of time on each main point.** If you find that one of your main points is simply too large, you may need to divide that main point into two main

points and consolidate your other main points into a single main point.

Let's see if our preceding example is balanced (school districts use software in their operations; what is open-source software; name some specific open-source software packages that may be appropriate for these school administrators to consider). What do you think? Obviously, the answer depends on how much time a speaker will have to talk about each of these main points. If you have an hour to talk, then you may find that these three main points are balanced. However, you may also find them wildly unbalanced if you only have five minutes to speak because five minutes is not enough time to even explain what open-source software is. If that's the case, then you probably need to rethink your specific purpose to ensure that you can cover the material in the allotted time.

Creating Parallel Structure for Main Points

Another major question to ask yourself about your main points is whether or not they have a parallel structure. By parallel structure, we mean that you should structure your main points so that they all sound similar. When all your main points sound similar, it's simply easier for your audiences to remember your main points and retain them for later. Let's look at our sample (school districts use software in their operations; what is open-source software; name some specific open-source software packages that may be appropriate for

these school administrators to consider). Notice that the first and third main points are statements, but the second one is a question. Basically, we have an example here of main points that are not parallel in structure. You could fix this in one of two ways. You could make them all questions: what are some common school district software programs; what is open-source software; and what are some specific open-source software packages that may be appropriate for these school administrators to consider. Or you could turn them all into statements: school districts use software in their operations; define and describe open-source software; name some specific open-source software packages that may be appropriate for these school administrators to consider. Either of these changes will make the grammatical structure of the main points parallel.

Maintaining Logical Flow of Main Points

The last question you want to ask yourself about your main points is whether the main points make sense in the order you've placed them. The next section goes into more detail about common organizational patterns for speeches, but for now, we want you to just think logically about the flow of your main points. When you look at your main points, can you see them as progressive, or does it make sense to talk about one first, another one second, and the final one last? If you look at your order, and it doesn't make sense to

you, you probably need to think about the flow of your main points. Often, this process is an art and not a science. But let's look at a couple of examples.

School Dress Codes Example

Main Point 1 History of school dress codes

Main Point 2 Problems with school dress codes

Main Point 3 Eliminating school dress codes

Rider Law Legislation

Main Point 1 Why should states have rider laws?

Main Point 2 What are the effects of a lack of rider laws?

Main Point 3 What is rider law legislation?

When you look at these two examples, what are your immediate impressions of the two examples? In the first example, does it make sense to talk about history, and then the problems, and finally how to eliminate school dress codes? Would it make sense to put history as your last main point? Probably not. In this case, the main points are in a logical sequential order. What about the second example? Does it make sense to talk about your solution, then your problem, and then define the solution? Not really! What order do you think these main points should be placed in for a logical flow? Maybe you should explain the problem (lack of rider laws), then define your solution (what is rider law legislation), and then argue for your solution (why states should have rider laws). Notice that in this example you don't even need to know what "rider laws" are to see that the flow didn't make sense.

Devising Main Points

As you begin to draft your main points, there are a few things you need to keep in mind.

Each main point should be one idea: Each main point should only focus on one idea. If you have too many ideas in a main point, this may confuse the audience.

Consider the following main points:

1. Our educational system needs reform to effectively educate youth on life skills, and it can be more engaging for students.

This main point has two completely separate topics. These separate ideas should be in separate points.

1. Our education system needs reform to effectively educate youth on life skills.
2. Education reform will provide more opportunities for engaging students.

A topic is not a main point: When a speaker states, “Education reform” this is stating the topic, not the main point. Stating the topic does not adequately prepare the audience because the audience does not know what the actual point is.

Avoid announcements: Announcements also do not adequately communicate the main point. “I am going to talk about education reform” does not tell the audience what the speaker will be discussing. Is education reform good? Bad? Necessary? What?

Each main point should be a full, declarative statement.

Consider the following statements:

1. “Education reform”
2. “I am going to talk about education reform.”
3. “Education reform will provide more opportunities to engage students in the curriculum.”

The final statement is a *full, declarative statement*. It tells the audience, specifically, what the main point is. You must tell the audience your main point to effectively get your message across.

For Future Reference | How to organize this in an outline |

Body of your Speech

Body

(The number of main-points and sub-points will vary for each speech)

I. (First main-point)

1. (First level sub-point)
 1. (Second level sub-point)
 2. (Second level sub-point)
2. (First level sub-point)
 1. (Second level sub-point)
 2. (Second level sub-point)

Transition: (complete sentence, phrase, or word)

II. (Second main-point)

1. (First level sub-point)
 1. (Second level sub-point)
 2. (Second level sub-point)
2. (First level sub-point)
 1. (Second level sub-point)
 2. (Second level sub-point)

Transition: (complete sentence, phrase, or word)

III. (Third main-point)

1. (First level sub-point)
 1. (Second level sub-point)
 2. (Second level sub-point)
2. (First level sub-point)
 1. (Second level sub-point)
 2. (Second level sub-point)

Transition: (complete sentence, phrase, or word)

Key Takeaways

- All speeches start with a general purpose and then move to a specific purpose that gives the *who*, *what*, *where*, and *how* for the speech.
- Transitioning from the specific purpose to possible main points means developing a list of potential main points you could discuss. Then you can narrow your focus by looking for similarities among your potential main points and combining ones that are similar.
- Shorter speeches will have two main points while longer speeches will generally have three or more main points. When creating your main points, make sure that they are united, separate, balanced, parallel, and logical.
- Main points should be one idea stated in a full, declarative sentence.

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16. Supporting Materials: Using Research as Support

Learning Objectives

1. Define the term “support.”
2. Explain reasons we use support in speeches.
3. Explain four criteria used to evaluate support options.

Using Research as Support



Pixel Fantasy
– Support –
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In public speaking, the word “support” refers to a range of strategies

that are used to develop the central idea and specific purpose by providing corroborating evidence. Whether you are speaking to inform, persuade, or entertain, using support helps you create a more substantive and polished speech. We sometimes use the words “support” or “evidence” synonymously or interchangeably because both are designed to help ground a speech’s specific purpose. However, “evidence” tends to be associated specifically with persuasive speeches, so we opt to use the more general term “support” for most of this chapter. In this section, we are going to explore why speakers use support.

Why We Use Support

Speakers use support to help provide a foundation for their message. You can think of support as the legs on a table. Without the legs, the table becomes a slab of wood or glass lying on the ground; as such, it cannot fully serve the purpose of a table. In the same way, without support, a speech is nothing more than fluff. Audience members may ignore the speech’s message, dismissing it as just so much hot air. In addition to being the foundation that a speech stands on, support also helps us clarify content, increase speaker credibility, and make the speech more vivid.

To Clarify Content

The first reason to use support in a speech is to clarify content. Speakers often choose a piece of support because a previous writer or speaker has phrased something in a way that evokes a clear mental picture of the point they want to make. For example, suppose you're preparing a speech about hazing in college fraternities. You may read your school's code of student conduct to find out how your campus defines hazing. You could use this definition to make sure your audience understands what hazing is and what types of behaviors your campus identifies as hazing.

To Add Credibility

Another important reason to use support is that it adds to your credibility as a speaker. The less an audience perceives you as an expert on a given topic, the more important it is to use a range of support. By doing so, you let your audience know that you've done your homework on the topic.

At the same time, you could hurt your credibility if you use inadequate support or support from questionable sources. Your credibility will also suffer if you distort the intent of a source to try to force it to support a point that the previous author did not address. For example, the famous 1798 publication by Thomas Malthus, *An Essay on the Principle of Population*, has been used

as support for various arguments far beyond what Malthus could have intended. Malthus's thesis was that as the human population increases at a greater rate than food production, societies will go to war over scarce food resources (Malthus, 1798). Some modern writers have suggested that, according to the Malthusian line of thinking, almost anything that leads to a food shortage could lead to nuclear war. For example, better health care leads to longer life spans, which leads to an increased need for food, leading to food shortages, which lead to nuclear war. Clearly, this argument makes some giant leaps of logic that would be hard for an audience to accept.

For this reason, it is important to evaluate your support to ensure that it will not detract from your credibility as a speaker. Here are four characteristics to evaluate when looking at support options: accuracy, authority, currency, and objectivity.

Accuracy

One of the quickest ways to lose credibility in the eyes of your audience is to use support that is inaccurate or even questionably accurate. Admittedly, determining the accuracy of support can be difficult if you are not an expert in a given area, but here are some questions to ask yourself to help assess a source's accuracy:

- Does the information within one piece of supporting evidence completely contradict other supporting evidence you've seen?
- If the support is using a statistic, does the supporting evidence explain where that statistic came from and how it was

determined?

- Does the logic behind the support make sense?

One of this book's authors recently observed a speech in which a student said, "The amount of pollution produced by using paper towels instead of hand dryers is equivalent to driving a car from the east coast to St. Louis." The other students in the class, as well as the instructor, recognized that this information sounded wrong and asked questions about the information source, the amount of time it would take to produce this much pollution, and the number of hand dryers used. The audience demonstrated strong listening skills by questioning the information, but the speaker lost credibility by being unable to answer their questions.

Authority

The second way to use support in building your credibility is to cite authoritative sources—those who are experts on the topic. In today's world, there are all kinds of people who call themselves "experts" on a range of topics. There are even books that tell you how to get people to regard you as an expert in a given industry (Lizotte, 2007). Today there are "experts" on every street corner or website spouting off information that some listeners will view as legitimate.

So what truly makes someone an expert? Bruce D. Weinstein, a professor at West Virginia University's Center for Health Ethics and Law, defined expertise as having two senses. In his definition, the first sense of expertise is "knowledge *in* or *about* a particular

field, and statements about it generally take the form, ‘S is an expert *in* or *about* D’... The second sense of expertise refers to domains of demonstrable skills, and statements about it generally take the form, ‘S is an expert *at skill* D (Weinstein, 1993).’” Thus, to be an expert, someone needs to have considerable knowledge on a topic or considerable skill in accomplishing something.

As a novice researcher, how can you determine whether an individual is truly an expert? Unfortunately, there is no clear-cut way to wade through the masses of “experts” and determine each one’s legitimacy quickly. However, below is a list of questions based on the research of Marie-Line Germain that you can ask yourself to help determine whether someone is an expert (Germain, 2006).

Questions to ask yourself:

1. Is the person widely recognized as an expert?
2. Does the person have the appropriate credentials to make them an expert?
3. Is the person a member of a recognized profession in their claimed area of expertise?
4. Has the person published articles or books on the claimed area of expertise?
5. Does the person have appropriate experience in the claimed area of expertise?
6. Does the person have clear knowledge about their claimed area of expertise?
7. Is the person clearly knowledgeable about the field related to the claimed area of expertise?
8. After answering these questions, does the person truly have the qualifications to be considered an expert?

You don’t have to answer “yes” to all the preceding questions to conclude that a source is credible, but a string of “no” answers should be a warning signal. In a *Columbia Journalism Review* article, Allisa Quart raised the question of expert credibility regarding the sensitive subject of autism. Specifically, Quart questioned whether

the celebrity spokesperson and autism advocate Jennifer McCarthy (<http://www.generationrescue.org/>) qualifies as an expert. Quart notes that McCarthy “insists that vaccines caused her son’s neurological disorder, a claim that has near-zero support in scientific literature” (Quart, 2010). Providing an opposing view is a widely read blog called *Respectful Insolence* (<http://scienceblogs.com/insolence/>), whose author is allegedly a surgeon/scientist who often speaks out about autism and “antivaccination lunacy.” *Respectful Insolence* received the 2008 Best Weblog Award from *MedGagdet: The Internet Journal of Emerging Medical Technologies*. We used the word “allegedly” when referring to the author of *Respectful Insolence* because as the website explains that the author’s name, Orac, is the “*nom de blog* of a (not so) humble pseudonymous surgeon/scientist with an ego just big enough to delude himself that someone, somewhere might actually give a rodent’s posterior about his miscellaneous verbal meanderings, but just barely small enough to admit to himself that few will” (ScienceBlogs LLC).

When comparing the celebrity Jenny McCarthy to the blogger Orac, who do you think is the better expert? Were you able to answer “yes” to the questions above for both “experts”? If not, why not? Overall, determining the authority of support is clearly a complicated task, and one that you should spend time thinking about as you prepare the support for your speech.

Currency

The third consideration in using support to build your credibility is how current the information is. Some ideas stay fairly consistent over time, like the date of the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor or the mathematical formula for finding the area of a circle, but other ideas change wildly in a short period of time, including ideas about technology, health treatments, and laws.

Although we never want to discount classic supporting information that has withstood the test of time, as a general rule for most topics, we recommend that information be less than five years old. Obviously, this is just a general guideline and can change depending on the topic. If you're giving a speech on the history of mining in West Virginia, then you may use support from sources that are much older. However, if you're discussing a medical topic, then your support information should probably be from the past five years or less. Some industries change even faster, so the best support may come from the past month. For example, if are speaking about advances in word processing, using information about Microsoft Word from 2003 would be woefully out-of-date because two upgrades have been released since 2003 (2007 and 2010). As a credible speaker, it is your responsibility to give your audience up-to-date information.

Objectivity

The last question you should ask yourself when examining support is whether the person or organization behind the information is objective or biased. Bias refers to a predisposition or preconception of a topic that prevents impartiality. Although there is a certain logic to the view that every one of us is innately biased, as a credible speaker, you want to avoid just passing along someone's unfounded bias in your speech. Ideally, you would use support that is unbiased. Below are some questions to ask yourself when evaluating a potential piece of support to detect bias.

Questions to Ask Yourself	Yes	No
1. Does the source represent an individual's, an organization's, or another group's viewpoint?		
2. Does the source sound unfair in its judgment, either for or against a specific topic?		
3. Does the source sound like personal prejudices, opinions, or thoughts?		
4. Does the source exist only on a website (i.e., not in print or any other format)?		
5. Is the information published or posted anonymously or pseudonymously?		
6. Does the source have any political or financial interests related to the information being disseminated?		
7. Does the source demonstrate any specific political orientation, religious affiliation, or other ideology?		
8. Does the source's viewpoint differ from all other information you've read?		

As with the questions about expertise, you don't have to have all "no" or "yes" responses to decide on bias. However, being aware of the possibility of bias and where your audience might see bias will help you to select the best possible support to include in your speech.

To Add Vividness

In addition to clarifying content and enhancing credibility, support helps make a speech more vivid. Vividness refers to a speaker's ability to present information in a striking, exciting manner. The goal of vividness is to make your speech more memorable. One of the authors still remembers a vivid example from a student speech given several years ago. The student was speaking about the importance of wearing seat belts and stated that the impact from hitting a windshield at just twenty miles per hour without a seat belt would be equivalent to falling out of the window of their second-floor classroom and landing face-first on the pavement below.

Because they were in that classroom several times each week, students were easily able to visualize the speaker's analogy and it was successful at creating an image that is remembered years later. Support helps make your speech more interesting and memorable to an audience member.

Types of Support

Facts and Statistics

Many of the facts that speakers cite are based on statistics. Statistics is the mathematical subfield that gathers, analyzes, and makes inferences about collected data. Data can come in a wide range of forms—the number of people who buy a certain magazine, the average number of telephone calls made in a month, the incidence of a certain disease. Though few people realize it, much of our daily lives are governed by statistics. Everything from seat-belt laws, to the food we eat, to the amount of money public schools receive, to the medications you are prescribed are based on the collection and interpretation of numerical data.

It is important to realize that a public speaking textbook cannot begin to cover statistics in depth. If you plan to do statistical research yourself, or gain an understanding of the intricacies of such research, we strongly recommend taking a basic class in statistics or quantitative research methods. These courses will

better prepare you to understand the various statistics you will encounter.

However, even without a background in statistics, finding useful statistical information related to your topic is quite easy. Table 8.3 provides a list of some websites where you can find a range of statistical information that may be useful for your speeches.

Table 8.3 *Statistics-oriented Websites*

Website	Type of Information
http://www.bls.gov/bls/other.htm	Bureau of Labor Statistics provides links to a range of websites for labor issues related to a vast range of countries.
http://bjs.gov	Bureau of Justice Statistics provides information on crime statistics in the United States.
http://www.census.gov	US Census Bureau provides a wide range of information about people living in the United States.
https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/	National Center for Health Statistics is a program conducted by the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. It provides information on a range of health issues in the United States.
http://www.stats.org	STATS is a nonprofit organization that helps people understand quantitative data. It also provides a range of data on its website.
http://ropercenter.cornell.edu/	Roper Center for Public Opinion provides data related to a range of issues in the United States.
http://www.nielsen.com	Nielsen provides data on consumer use of various media forms.
http://www.gallup.com	Gallup provides public opinion data on a range of social and political issues in the United States and around the world.
http://www.adherents.com	Adherents provides both domestic and international data related to religious affiliation.
http://people-press.org	Pew Research Center provides public opinion data on a range of social and political issues in the United States and around the world.

Statistics are probably the most used—and misused—form of support in any type of speaking. People like numbers. People are

impressed by numbers. However, most people do not know how to correctly interpret numbers. Unfortunately, there are many speakers who do not know how to interpret them either or who intentionally manipulate them to mislead their listeners. As the saying popularized by Mark Twain goes, “There are three kinds of lies: lies, damned lies, and statistics” (Twain, 1924).

To avoid misusing statistics when you speak in public, do three things. First, be honest with yourself and your audience. If you are distorting a statistic or leaving out other statistics that contradict your point, you are not living up to the level of honesty your audience is entitled to expect. Second, run a few basic calculations to see if a statistic is believable. Sometimes a source may contain a mistake—for example, a decimal point may be in the wrong place or a verbal expression like “increased by 50 percent” may conflict with data showing an increase of 100 percent. Third, evaluate sources (even those in table 3 which are generally reputable) according to the criteria discussed earlier in the chapter: accuracy, authority, currency, and objectivity.

Expert Testimony

Expert testimony accompanies the discussion we had earlier in this chapter related to what qualifies someone as an expert. In essence, expert testimony expresses the attitudes, values, beliefs, or behaviors recommended by someone who is an acknowledged expert on a topic. For example, imagine that you're going to give a speech on why physical education should be mandatory for all grades K–12 in public schools. During the course of your research,

you come across *The Surgeon General's Vision for a Fit and Healthy Nation* (<http://www.surgeongeneral.gov/library/obesityvision/obesityvision2010.pdf>). You might decide to cite information from within the report written by US Surgeon General Dr. Regina Benjamin about her strategies for combating the problem of childhood obesity within the United States. If so, you are using the words from Dr. Benjamin, a noted expert on the subject, to support your speech's basic premise. Her expertise is being used to give credibility to your claims.

Eyewitness Testimony

Eyewitness testimony, on the other hand, is given by someone who has direct contact with the phenomenon of your speech topic. Imagine that you are giving a speech on the effects of the 2010 “Deepwater Horizon” disaster in the Gulf of Mexico. Perhaps one of your friends happened to be on a flight that passed over the Gulf of Mexico and the pilot pointed out where the platform was. You could tell your listeners about your friend’s testimony of what she saw as she was flying over the spill.

However, using eyewitness testimony as support can be a little tricky because you are relying on someone’s firsthand account, and firsthand accounts may not always be reliable. As such, you evaluate the credibility of your witness and the recency of the testimony.

To evaluate your witness’s credibility, you should first consider how you received the testimony. Did you ask the person for the testimony, or did he or she give you the information without being asked? Second, consider whether your witness has anything to gain from his or her testimony. Basically, you want to know that your witness isn’t biased.

Second, consider whether your witness’ account was recent or something that happened some time ago. With a situation like the BP oil spill, the date when the spill was seen from the air makes a

big difference. If the witness saw the oil spill when the oil was still localized, he or she could not have seen the eventual scope of the disaster.

Overall, the more detail you can give about the witness and when the witness made his or her observation, the more useful that witness testimony will be when attempting to create a solid argument. However, never rely completely on eyewitness testimony because this form of support is not always the most reliable and may still be perceived as biased by a segment of your audience.

Analogies

An analogy is a figure of speech that compares two ideas or objects, showing how they are similar in some way. Analogies, for public speaking purposes, can also be based in logic. The logical notion of analogies starts with the idea that two ideas or objects are similar, and because of this similarity, the two ideas or objects must be similar in other ways as well. There are two different types of analogies that speakers can employ: figurative and literal.

Figurative Analogies

Figurative analogies compare two ideas or objects from two different classes. For the purposes of understanding analogies, a “class” refers to a group that has common attributes, characteristics, qualities, or traits. For example, you can compare a

new airplane to an eagle. In this case, airplanes and eagles clearly are not the same type of objects. While both may have the ability to fly, airplanes are made by humans and eagles exist in nature.

Alternatively, you could attempt to compare ideas such as the struggle of The Church of Reality (http://www.churchofreality.org/wisdom/welcome_home/, a group that sees the use of marijuana as a religious sacrament) to the struggle of the civil rights movement. Is a church's attempt to get marijuana legalized truly the same as the 1960s civil rights movement? Probably not, in most people's view, as fighting for human rights is not typically seen as equivalent to being able to use a controlled substance.

Figurative analogies are innately problematic because people often hear them and immediately dismiss them as far-fetched. While figurative analogies may be very vivid and help a listener create a mental picture, they do not really help a listener determine the validity of the information being presented. Furthermore, speakers often overly rely on figurative analogies when they really don't have any other solid evidence. Overall, while figurative analogies may be useful, we recommend solidifying them with other, more tangible support.

Literal Analogies

Literal analogies, on the other hand, compare two objects or ideas that clearly belong to the same class. The goal of the literal analogy is to demonstrate that the two objects or ideas are similar; therefore, they should have further similarities that support your argument. For example, maybe you're giving a speech on a new fast-

food brand that you think will be a great investment. You could easily compare that new fast-food brand to preexisting brands like McDonald's, Subway, or Taco Bell. If you can show that the new start-up brand functions similarly to other brands, you can use that logic to suggest that the new brand will also have the same kind of success as the existing brands.

When using literal analogies related to ideas, make sure that the ideas are closely related and can be viewed as similar. For example, take the Church of Reality discussed above. You could compare the Church of Reality's use of marijuana to the Native American Church's legal exemption to use peyote in its religious practices. In this instance, comparing two different religious groups' use of illegal drugs and demonstrating that one has legal exemption supports the idea that the other should have an exemption, too.

As with figurative analogies, make sure that the audience can see a reasonable connection between the two ideas or objects being compared. If your audience sees your new fast-food brand as very different from McDonald's or Subway, then they will not accept your analogy. You are basically asking your audience to confirm the logic of your comparison, so if they don't see the comparison as valid, it won't help to support your message.

Key Takeaways

- The strategies a public speaker can use to provide corroborating evidence for the speech's central idea and specific purpose are called support.
- There are three primary reasons to use support: to clarify content, to increase speaker credibility, and to make the speech more vivid.
- A good piece of support should be accurate,

authoritative, current, and unbiased.

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17. Organizational Patterns

Learning Objectives

- Decide on an effective organizational pattern.

Now that we have gotten this far, we need to consider how we will organize our material. There are several ways you can organize your speech content to ensure your information is easy for your audience to follow. The following video explains different organizing patterns. Note that some of the organizing patterns are better for information speech and some are better for persuasive speeches.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1480#oembed-1>

Organizational Patterns

After deciding which main points and sub-points you must include, you can get to work writing up the speech. Before you do so, however, it is helpful to consider how you will organize the ideas. There are many ways you can organize speeches, and these approaches will be different depending on whether you are preparing an informative or persuasive speech. These are referred to as organizational patterns for arranging your main points in a speech. The chronological, topical, spatial, or causal patterns may be better suited to informative speeches, whereas the Problem-Solution, Monroe's Motivated Sequence (Monroe, 1949) would work best for persuasive speeches.

Chronological Pattern

When you speak about events that are linked together by time, it is sensible to engage the chronological organization pattern. In a chronological speech, the main points are delivered according to when they happened and could be traced on a calendar or clock. Some professors use the term temporal to reflect any speech pattern dealing with taking the audience through time. Arranging main points in chronological order can be helpful when describing historical events to an audience as well as when the order of events is necessary to understand what you wish to convey. Informative speeches about a series of events most commonly engage the chronological style, as do many process speeches (e.g., how to bake a cake or build an airplane). Another time when the chronological style makes sense is when you tell the story of someone's life or career. For instance, a speech about Oprah Winfrey might be arranged chronologically. In this case, the main points are arranged by following Winfrey's life from birth to the present time. Life events

(e.g., early life, her early career, her life after ending the Oprah Winfrey Show) are connected together according to when they happened and highlight the progression of Winfrey's career. Organizing the speech in this way illustrates the interconnectedness of life events. Below you will find a way in which you can organize your main points chronologically:

Topic: Oprah Winfrey (Chronological Pattern)

Thesis: Oprah's career can be understood by four key, interconnected life stages.

Preview: First, let's look at Oprah's early life. Then, we will look at her early career, followed by her years during the Oprah Winfrey show. Finally, we will explore what she is doing now.

- I. Oprah's childhood was spent in rural Mississippi, where she endured sexual abuse from family members
- II. Oprah's early career was characterized by stints on local radio and television networks in Nashville and Chicago.
- III. Oprah's tenure as host of the Oprah Winfrey Show began in 1986 and lasted until 2011, a period of time marked by much success.
- IV. Oprah's most recent media venture is OWN: The Oprah Winfrey Network, which plays host to a variety of television shows including *Oprah's Next Chapter*.

Topical Pattern

When the main points of your speech center on ideas that are more distinct from one another, a topical organization pattern may be used. In a topical speech, main points are developed according to the different aspects, subtopics, or topics within an overall topic. Although they are all part of the overall topic, the order in which they are presented really doesn't matter. For example, you are currently attending college. Within your college, there are various

student services that are important for you to use while you are here. You may use the library, The Learning Center (TLC), Student Development office, ASG Computer Lab, and Financial Aid. 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

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.

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 paying for both tuition and books.

Spatial Pattern

Another way to organize the points of a speech is through a spatial speech, which arranges the main points according to their physical and geographic relationships. The spatial style is an especially useful organization pattern when the main point's importance is derived

from its location or directional focus. Things can be described from top to bottom, inside to outside, left to right, north to south, and so on. Importantly, speakers using a spatial style should offer commentary about the placement of the main points as they move through the speech, alerting audience members to the location changes. For instance, a speech about The University of Georgia might be arranged spatially; in this example, the spatial organization frames the discussion in terms of the campus layout. The spatial style is fitting since the differences in architecture and uses of space are related to particular geographic areas, making the location a central organizing factor. As such, the spatial style highlights these location differences.

Topic: University of Georgia (Spatial Pattern)

Thesis: The University of Georgia is arranged into four distinct sections, which are characterized by architectural and disciplinary differences.

I. In North Campus, one will find the University's oldest building,

a sprawling treelined quad, and the famous Arches, all of which are nestled against Athens' downtown district.

II. In West Campus, dozens of dormitories provide housing for the University's large

undergraduate population and students can regularly be found lounging outside

or at one of the dining halls.

III. In East Campus, students delight in newly constructed, modern buildings and

enjoy the benefits of the University's health center, recreational facilities, and

science research buildings.

IV. In South Campus, pharmacy, veterinary, and biomedical science students traverse

newly constructed parts of campus featuring well-kept

landscaping and modern
architecture.

Causal Pattern

A causal speech informs audience members about causes and effects that have already happened with respect to some condition, event, etc. One approach can be to share what caused something to happen, and what the effects were. Or, the reverse approach can be taken where a speaker can begin by sharing the effects of something that occurred, and then share what caused it. For example, in 1994, there was a 6.7 magnitude earthquake that occurred in the San Fernando Valley in Northridge, California. Let's look at how we can arrange this speech first by using a cause-effect pattern:

Topic: Northridge Earthquake

Thesis: The Northridge 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 earthquake was a devastating event that was 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.

Organizational patterns help you to organize your thoughts and speech content so that you are able to develop your ideas in a way that makes sense to the audience. Having a solid idea of which organization pattern is best for your speech will make your speech writing process so much easier!

Activity



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1480#h5p-13>

Key Takeaways

- Speech organizational patterns help us to arrange our speech content in a way that will communicate our ideas clearly to our audience.
- Different organizational patterns are better for different types of speeches and topics.
- Some organizational patterns are better for informative speeches: Chronological, spatial, topical, and narrative.
- Although cause-effect and problem-solution can be used for an informative speech, use these patterns with caution as they are better used for persuasive speeches.

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18. Introductions

Learning Objectives

- Grab the audience's attention with rhetorical strategies that are memorable and effective.
- Organize your introduction to gain the audience's attention.

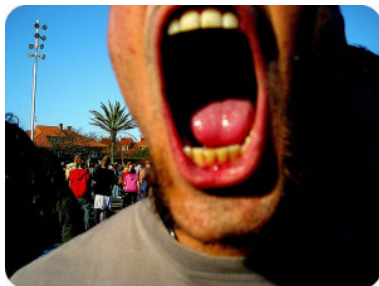
Introductions

Speech introductions are an essential element of an effective public speech. Introductions have four specific functions that must be met in a short period of time. In a proper introduction you will want to:

1. Gain the audiences attention
2. Provide background information
3. Establish credibility
4. State the purpose of the speech (thesis statement) and preview the main points

Gaining the audience's attention

The first function of the introduction is to get the attention AND the interest of the audience. The “and” here is important. Anyone can walk into a room full of people sitting quietly, and YELL AT THE TOP OF THEIR LUNGS. That will get attention. However, it will probably not garner much interest—at least not much positive interest.



“Yell” by Vetustense
Photorogue. [CC-BY-NC](#).

Gaining attention and interest is essential if you want the audience to listen to what you have to say, and audiences will decide fairly quickly if they want to pay attention. Standing in front of an audience, slouched, hands in pockets, cap pulled low over your head, and mumbling, “my name is... and I am going to tell you about...” is an effective method of NOT getting attention and interest. Before you even open your mouth, your attire, stance, and physical presence are all sending out loud signals that you have no interest in the speech, so why should the audience.

There are several ways to captivate an audience. Here are a few ideas to gain the audience's attention:

- Startling statistics – “23 percent of Facebook’s users check their account five or more times every day”. [Source Link](#)
- Story telling – “There was a time in my life when I decided to quit working, sell my house, and backpack through Europe. One day, I met the most interesting person that changed the outlook of my life”
- Refer to recent or historical events – During the recent pandemic...
- Directing the audience to do something – Close your eyes and imagine... turn your head and look at...
- Analogy – “Life is like a box of chocolates, you never know what you are going to get”.
- Quotation – “Well behaved women seldom make history.” Eleanor Roosevelt
- Use Humor – “Knock-knock...” In all seriousness, if you are not funny or do not have a gift of joke-telling, you might consider steering clear of this one!
- Ask a Rhetorical Question – “What is the purpose of life?”

Deciding on an attention getting strategy

Great, you now have a few options in your tool-kit; but, which one do you choose? Consider the audience – how effective will this attention getter be for this audience? How confident and comfortable are you in delivering these first few sentences? For example, if you choose story-telling but are uncertain you can be clear and concise, perhaps that strategy is not for you. You might refer back to the brainstorming process to narrow down the

attention getter – what are you planning on telling this audience later in the speech? Your attention getter can serve as a way to hook them in... how will you keep them engaged throughout the rest of the speech? These are important questions to ask when developing the introduction. Often times students over-load their introductions with TOO MUCH INFORMATION. If you do not nail down a proper attention-getter, it is easy to get off track right away and engage in information overload. To avoid this, decide on ONE attention getter and move on to your next step.

Activity



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text.

You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1152#h5p-11>

Background information

The background information will demonstrate a basic understanding of the speech topic and the specific purpose of the speech. Background information should follow the attention-getter and set the tone of the speech. If you are speaking about the use of social media across college students you might consider defining what social media is or how college students are using social media. The background is brief, you are attempting to give general information about your speech topic in this section. You will elaborate on these ideas in the main point.

Credibility

This is vital to the success of your speech. Credibility lets the audience know you are qualified to speak on the topic; it gives them a reason to trust and believe the information you are sharing. Ask yourself: Why am I credible to speak on this topic to this audience? What credentials do I have? What former training do I have? What research and/or classes have I taken? Any and/or all of these questions can lead to your credibility. Knowledge or experience you have are considered your internal credibility. When you use and state sources the audience finds credible, it is considered external credibility. Your credibility should be stated in a succinct sentence or two.

As a college student interested in the effects of social media, I have spent the past two years reading the effects of social media on students in my age-group. During these two years, I have taken 3 courses that covered social media and self-esteem, social media and culture, and social media and peer-pressure.

Thesis/Preview

A thesis is a declarative statement that lets your audience know what your speech is about. The preview is often referred to as a “road map”. We will cover the construction of thesis statements in a future reading. It is important to note that the thesis statement comes after your credibility and builds to the preview of the speech. Some instructors teach these separately or as a conjoined sentence. Either way, you will want to have a clear thesis statement and a preview of the main points of your speech.

Preview of Speech

The final part of an introduction contains a preview of the major points to be covered within your speech. The preview statement will come **directly** after you state your thesis statement. I'm sure we've all seen signs that have three cities listed on them with the mileage to reach each city. This mileage sign is an indication of what is to come. A preview works the same way. A preview foreshadows what the main body points will be in the speech.

- For example, to preview a speech on bullying in the workplace, one could say:
 - “To understand the nature of bullying in the modern workplace, I will first define what workplace bullying is and the types of bullying, I will then discuss the common characteristics of both workplace bullies and their targets, and lastly, I will explore some possible solutions to workplace bullying.”
 - In this case, each of the phrases mentioned in the preview would be a single distinct point made in the speech itself. In other words, the first major body point in this speech would examine what workplace bullying is and the types of bullying; the second major body point in this speech would discuss the common characteristics of both workplace bullies and their targets; and lastly, the third body point in this speech would explore some possible solutions to workplace bullying.

Key Takeaways

Now that you know the Introduction basics, you can begin considering how to format an introduction and connect to the audience by utilizing a strong attention getter.

- In order to start a speech that is coherent and captivating, students must spend time crafting a well-developed introduction.
- Attention-getters are the first thing your audience should hear, be sure that it is verbally and nonverbally enticing.
- The introduction should be carefully planned and executed; the introduction lasts with the audience throughout the speech.

References

1. Aristotle (1982). *The art of rhetoric*. (J.H. Freese, Trans.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press. ↵
2. Townsend, C. (2007, February 5). Spring break in Mexico. Speech posted at <http://msustr0.campus.mnsu.edu:8080/cah/gorgias/333/MMS/Cassie.wmv> ↵

19. Functions of Conclusions

Learning Objectives

Your conclusion is the last statement you will share with the audience, let's make it memorable.

- Create and deliver a conclusion that recaps main points, restates your thesis, and leaves the audience with something to consider.

Functions of Conclusions

So: You are at the end of your speech, and you can't wait to sit down and be done! You start speeding up your rate of delivery, but your volume goes down a bit because you are rushing and running out of breath. You finish the last main point of your speech and race off to your seat: That is not the best way to conclude a speech.

Just as with introductions, conclusions have specific functions to fulfill within a speech. And just as with introductions, there are a number of types of conclusions. In this section of this chapter, we will look at these functions, discuss the relationship between introductions and conclusions, and offer some strategies for preparing and delivering an effective conclusion.

The basic structure of a speech is not linear but circular. Speeches should not take you on a straight line from A to Z. Speeches should take you in a circle from A to Z. Speeches start at the top of the circle with the introduction, work their way all around the circle, and end up back at the top with the conclusion. All the parts fit together and flow together in this circle, and the conclusion takes you right back to the introduction—with an enhanced understanding of the topic.



"Cool Park Architecture / Tianjin, China" by SamHakes. morgueFile license.

Prepare the Audience for the End of the Speech

A speech does not just stop—or, to be more precise, a speech should not just stop. A speech, effectively structured and delivered, should move smoothly from point to point and then to the conclusion. One of the most important functions of the conclusion is to prepare the audience for the end of the speech.

Throughout the speech, you have been providing the audience with verbal and nonverbal cues to where you are going in the speech. As you move to the conclusion, you need to continue to provide these cues. You can use language cues (“now that we have seen that we can solve this problem effectively, we can review the entire situation”), movement cues (physically moving back to the center of the room where you began the speech), and paralinguistic cues (slow the rate of the speech, use more pauses) to help prepare your audience for the end of the speech.

When you prepare the audience for the end of the speech, you let them know that they need to be ready for any final comments or appeals from you, and that they should be prepared to acknowledge you as a speaker.

Present any Final Appeals

Depending on the type of speech you are presenting, you may be asking the audience for something. You may be asking them to act in a certain way or to change their attitude toward a certain person or topic. You may be asking them to simply understand what you have had to say in your presentation. Regardless, one of the tasks of the conclusion is to leave the audience motivated positively toward you and the topic you have been presenting.

Psychologists and sociologists (as well as communication scholars) know that there is both a **primacy** and **recency** effect in

presenting the information.¹ Essentially, people tend to better remember information presented first or last—they remember what they hear at the beginning of the speech or at the end. In presenting your appeals to the audience, you can take advantage of the recency effect to increase the likelihood of your audience acting on your appeals.

Former President Lyndon Johnson, in a speech announcing a major policy initiative known as the Great Society, concluded his speech with a series of challenges and appeals to his audience.



[“LBJ at the University of Michigan”](#) by Cecil W. Stoughton. Public domain.

For better or for worse, your generation has been appointed by history to deal with those problems and to lead America toward a new age. You have the chance never before afforded to any people in any age. You can help build a society where the demands of morality, and the needs of the spirit, can be realized in the life of the Nation.

So, will you join in the battle to give every citizen the full equality which God enjoins and the law requires, whatever his belief, or race, or the color of his skin?

Will you join in the battle to give every citizen an escape from the crushing weight of poverty?

Will you join in the battle to make it possible for all nations to live in enduring peace — as neighbors and not as mortal enemies?

Will you join in the battle to build the Great Society, to prove that our material progress is only the foundation on which we will build a richer life of mind and spirit?

1.²

2. [1]

*There are those timid souls that say this battle cannot be won; that we are condemned to a soulless wealth. I do not agree. We have the power to shape the civilization that we want. But we need your will and your labor and your hearts, if we are to build that kind of society.*³

The appeals were significant in that the speech was delivered as a commencement address at the University of Michigan, at a time in American society when college and university students were protesting many government actions.



["President Johnson poverty tour"](#) by Cecil W. Stoughton. Public domain.

When Demosthenes was asked what were the three most important aspects of oratory, he answered, Action, Action, Action. – Plutarch

Summarize and Close

A conclusion is structural in function. Just as the introduction must include a thesis statement, as well as a preview of the main ideas of the speech, the conclusion must include a restatement of the thesis and a review of the main ideas of the speech. The review and restatement are mirror images of the preview statement in the introduction. Structurally, the restatement and review bring the speech back to the top of the circle and remind the audience where we started. Functionally, they help cue the audience that the end of the speech is coming up.

3.⁴

4. [2]

Let's go back to the thesis and preview example. The example was from a speech on ethanol, and the sample thesis was "So right now let's see how dependence on fossil fuels costs you money and how the use of ethanol as a supplement will save you money and save the world from energy obsolescence."

In the conclusion of this speech, one effective method to summarize and wrap-up is to simply restate the thesis and preview—but in the past tense, since we have now heard the speech.

Today we have seen how dependence on fossil fuels costs you money and how the use of ethanol as a supplement will save you money and save the world from energy obsolescence. We learned first why we as a society are so dependent upon fossil fuels in the first place, and then secondly we found out what causes this dependence, and third, we saw how ethanol as a fuel supplement will help end this dependence, and finally, we discovered how simple it is to implement this solution and make the world a better place for all of us.

By restating the thesis and reviewing the main ideas, you once again take advantage of both the primacy and recency effect, and you create a complete and coherent structure to your speech.



["BP Oil Flood Protest in New Orleans"](#) by Derek Bridges. [CC-BY](#).

End with an Informative Clincher

With conclusions, however, there are some additional forms you may wish to use, and there are some variations and adaptations of the introductions that you will want to use as you prepare your conclusions.

Earlier in this section when we discussed introductions, it was argued that stories are quite possibly the most effective form of introduction: Stories appear to be almost “hard-wired” into our individual and cultural make-up, and stories have a built-in structure. Stories, then, also make excellent conclusions, and can be used as conclusions in at least two ways. First, you can complete the story that you started in the introduction. Remember: You stopped right before the climax or denouement, and now, you can finish the story. Alternatively, you can retell the story, and this time the story will reflect what the audience has learned from your speech. Either method provides coherence and closure to the story and the speech.

Humor also remains an effective type of conclusion, but the same dangers with the use of humor discussed in the section on introductions applies to the conclusion. Still, effective use of humor leaves the audience in a receptive frame of mind, and, so long as the humor is relevant to the speech, provides a positive reminder to the audience of the main purpose of the speech.

There are several other ways to end a speech; here are some alternative ideas to help finalize your speech and leave the audience with something to consider. There is no right way to end a speech; however, there are ways in which to connect better with your audience and the context of your speaking event. You can brainstorm a few and narrow them down to the best one!

Ideas for informative clinchers:

- Refer back to the introduction
- Quotes

- Answer a question asked earlier
- Use an anecdote
- Ask a rhetorical question
- Use a visualization

For Future Reference | How to organize this in an outline |

Conclusion

1. Summarize main points and restate thesis:
2. Provide Closure:
3. Informative Clincher:

Key Takeaways

Conclusions are just as important as any other part of the speech.

- Be sure to end on a strong note. You will need a strong clincher!
- Avoid rushing in the end; you will want to recap the main points, restate your thesis, provide closer and leave the audience with something to think about.
- Don't forget to end confidently, too! Non-verbals matter throughout your whole speech.

References

Garlick, R. (1993). Verbal descriptions, communicative encounters and impressions. *Communication Quarterly*, 41, 394–404. ↵

Johnson, L. (1964, May 22). The great society. Speech posted at <http://www.americanrhetoric.com/speeches/lbjthegreatsociety.htm> ↵

20. Analyzing a Sample Conclusion

Learning Objectives

1. Differentiate parts of a conclusion.



Theirl – [blank dossier](#) – CC BY-SA 2.0.

So far this chapter has focused on how to go about creating a clear conclusion. We discussed why conclusions are important, the three steps of effective conclusions, and ten different ways to conclude a speech. In this section, we're going to examine an actual conclusion

to a speech. Please read the sample conclusion paragraph for the smart dust speech.

Sample Conclusion: Smart Dust

Today, we've explored how smart dust may impact all of our lives in the near future by examining what smart dust is, how smart dust could be utilized by the US military, and how smart dust could impact all of our lives sooner rather than later. While smart dust is quickly transforming from science fiction to science fact, experts agree that the full potential of smart dust will probably not occur until 2025. While smart dust is definitely coming, swarms of smart dust eating people as was depicted in Michael Crichton's 2002 novel, *Prey*, aren't reality. However, as with any technological advance, there are definite ethical considerations and worries to consider. Even Dr. Kris Pister's Smart Dust Project website admits that as smart dust becomes more readily available, one of the trade-offs will be privacy. Pister responds to these critiques by saying, "As an engineer, or a scientist, or a hair stylist, everyone needs to evaluate what they do in terms of its positive and negative effect. If I thought that the negatives of working on this project were larger than or even comparable to the positives, I wouldn't be working on it. As it turns out, I think

that the potential benefits of this technology far outweigh the risks to personal privacy.”

Now that you’ve had a chance to read the conclusion to the speech on smart dust, read it a second time and try to find the three parts of an introduction as discussed earlier in this chapter. Once you’re finished analyzing this conclusion, take a look at the example below which shows you how the speech was broken down into the various parts of a conclusion.

Parts of a Conclusion	Analysis
<p>Today we've explored how smart dust may impact all of our lives in the near future by</p>	<p><i>Restate Thesis</i></p> <p>The first part of the conclusion is a restatement of the thesis statement.</p>
<p>examining what smart dust is, how smart dust could be utilized by the US military, and how smart dust could impact all of our lives in the near future.</p>	<p><i>Review Main Points</i></p> <p>Following the thesis statement, the speech briefly reiterates the three main points discussed in the speech.</p>
<p>While smart dust is quickly transferring from science fiction to science fact, experts agree that the full potential of smart dust will probably not occur until 2025. While smart dust is definitely in our near future, swarms of smart dust eating people as was depicted in Michael Crichton's 2002 novel, <i>Prey</i>, isn't reality. However, as with any technological advance, there are definite ethical considerations and worries to consider. Even Dr. Kris Pister's Smart Dust Project website admits that as smart dust becomes more readily available, one of the trade-offs will be privacy. Pister responds to these critiques by saying, "As an engineer, or a scientist, or a hair stylist, everyone needs to evaluate what they do in terms of its positive and negative effect. If I thought that the negatives of working on this project were larger than or even comparable to the positives, I wouldn't be working on it. As it turns out, I think that the potential benefits of this technology far outweigh the risks to personal privacy."</p>	<p><i>Concluding Device</i></p> <p>In this concluding device, we see not only a referral to the attention getter (Michael Crichton's book <i>Prey</i>), we also see a visualizing of some future oriented factors people need to consider related to smart dust, which is then followed by a direct quotation.</p>

Parts of a Conclusion	Analysis
	<p>Notice that in an informative speech this type of conclusion is appropriate because we are trying to inform people about smart dust, but would you want to end a persuasive speech in this fashion? Definitely not!</p> <p>However, you could create an entire persuasive speech advocating for smart dust (its many applications are more important than the loss of privacy) or against smart dust (privacy is more important than its many applications).</p>

Key Takeaways

A solid conclusion will leave a lasting impression on an audience.

- To ensure you have a strong conclusion, you might consider comparing your work to that of the Smart Dust conclusion.

2I. Outlining Your Informative Speech

Learning Objectives

Students will learn to outline an informative speech.

- Demonstrate an understanding of outlining.
- Create a proper outline for an informative speech.

Outlining Your Speech

Most speakers and audience members would agree that an organized speech is both easier to present as well as more persuasive. Public speaking teachers especially believe in the power of organizing your speech, which is why they encourage (and often require) that you create an outline for your speech. **Outlines**, or textual arrangements of all the various elements of a speech, are a very common way of organizing a speech before it is delivered. Most extemporaneous speakers keep their outlines with them during the speech as a way to ensure that they do not leave out any important elements and to keep them on track. Writing an outline is also important to the speechwriting process since doing so forces the speakers to think about the main points and sub-points, the examples they wish to include, and the ways in which these elements correspond to one another. In short, the outline functions both as an organization tool and as a reference for delivering a speech.

Preparation Outline

There are two types of outlines.

The first outline you will write is called the **preparation outline**. Also called a working, practice, or rough outline, the preparation outline is used to work through the various

components of your speech in an inventive format. Stephen E. Lucas¹ put it simply: “The preparation outline is just what its name implies—an outline that helps you prepare the speech” (p. 248).



*“Alpena Mayor
Carol Shafro
Speaks at 2011
Michigan
Municipal League
Convention” by
Michigan
Municipal
League. CC-BY-ND.*

¹2

2. [1]

When writing the preparation outline, you should focus on finalizing the purpose and thesis statements, logically ordering your main points, deciding where supporting material should be included and refining the overall organizational pattern of your speech. As you write the preparation outline, you may find it necessary to rearrange your points or to add or subtract supporting material. You may also realize that some of your main points are sufficiently supported while others are lacking. The final draft of your preparation outline should include full sentences, making up a complete script of your entire speech. In most cases, however, the preparation outline is reserved for planning purposes only and is translated into a speaking outline before you deliver the speech.



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text.

You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=771#h5p-42>

OUTLINE FORMATTING GUIDE

Title: Organizing Your Public Speech

Topic: Organizing public speeches

Specific Purpose Statement: To inform listeners about the various ways in which they can organize their public speeches.

Thesis Statement: A variety of organizational styles can be used to organize public speeches.

Introduction

1. Attention Getter
2. Topic/ Audience relevance
3. Establish Your Credibility

4. Central Idea/Thesis statement
5. Preview Main Points

(Transition)

Body

I. Main point #1

A. First sub-point

1. Support

a. Support

B. Second sub-point

1. Support

2. Support

(Transition)

I. Main point #2

A. First sub-point

1. Support

a. Support

b. Support

B. Second sub-point

1. Support

2. Support

a. Support

(Transition)

Conclusion

1. Summary
2. Provide closure
3. Clincher

Of course, your actual outline may look different based on your content. You may have three main points or different levels of sub-points. Use this guide to help format your own content for your preparation outline.

Include the title, topic, specific purpose statement, and thesis statement at the top of the outline. These elements are helpful to

you, the speechwriter, since they remind you what, specifically, you are trying to accomplish in your speech. They are also helpful to anyone reading and assessing your outline since knowing what you want to accomplish will determine how they perceive the elements included in your outline. Additionally, write out the transitional statements that you will use to alert audiences that you are moving from one point to another. These are included in parentheses between main points.

On a separate page, you should include a **reference page** for any outside resources you mention during the speech. These should be cited using whatever citations style your professor requires.

Speaking Outline

A **speaking outline** is an outline you will prepare for use when delivering the speech. The speaking outline is much more succinct than the preparation outline and includes brief phrases or words that remind the speakers of the points they need to make, plus supporting material and signposts.³ The words or phrases used on the speaking outline should briefly encapsulate all of the information needed to prompt the speaker to accurately deliver the speech. Although some cases call for reading a speech verbatim from the full-sentence outline, in most cases speakers will simply refer to their speaking outline for quick reminders and to ensure that they do not omit any important information. Because it uses just words or short phrases, and not full sentences, the speaking outline can easily be transferred to index cards that can be referenced during a speech.

3.⁴

4. [2]

Using the Speaking Outline

Using a speaking outline will help you to deliver an effective speech. Under no circumstances should you ever attempt to use your preparation outline or a word for word written out speech during your speech delivery. You will end up reading a sequence of words to your audience instead of delivering your message extemporaneously.



"TAG speaks of others first" by Texas Military Forces. CC-BY-ND.

Whether you decide to use index cards or the printed outline, here are a few tips. First, write large enough so that you do not have to bring the cards or pages close to your eyes to read them. Second, make sure you have the cards/pages in the correct order and bound together in some way so that they do not get out of order. Third, just in case the cards/pages do get out of order (this happens too often!), be sure that you number each in the top right corner so you can quickly and easily get things organized. Fourth, try not to fiddle with the cards/pages when you are speaking. It is best to lay them down if you have a podium or table in front of you. If not, practice reading from them in front of a mirror. You should be able to look down quickly, read the text, and then return to your gaze to the audience.

Key Takeaways

- Outlining our speech helps us to organize our speech content so that we can communicate it effectively to the audience.
- You will create two outlines for successful speech delivery.
- The preparation outline is intended to help you prepare your delivery.
- The speaking note outline is intended to help you deliver your speech extemporaneously.

References

1. Lucas, Stephen E. (2004). *The art of public speaking* (8th edition). New York: McGraw-Hill. [↓](#)
2. Beebe, S. A. & Beebe, S. J. (2003). *The public speaking handbook* (5th edition). Boston: Pearson. [↓](#)

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22. Transition Statements

Learning Objectives

1. Discuss the importance of transitions within a speech.
2. Identify and be able to use a variety of transition words to create effective transitions within a speech.
3. Use a variety of strategies to help audience members keep up with a speech's content: internal previews, internal summaries, and signposts.



Chris
Marquardt
– REWIND –
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Transition Statements

Have you ever been listening to a speech or a lecture and found yourself thinking, “I am so lost!” or “Where the heck is this speaker going?” Chances are one of the reasons you weren’t sure what the speaker was talking about was that the speaker didn’t effectively keep the speech moving. When we are reading and encounter

something we don't understand, we have the ability to reread the paragraph and try to make sense of what we're trying to read. Unfortunately, we are not that lucky when it comes to listening to a speaker. We cannot pick up our universal remote and rewind the person. For this reason, speakers need to really think about how they keep a speech moving so that audience members are easily able to keep up with the speech. Transition statements are phrases or sentences that lead from one distinct- but-connected idea to another. In this section, we're going to look at four specific techniques speakers can use that make following a speech much easier for an audience: transitions, internal previews, internal summaries, and signposts.

Transitions between Main Points

A transition is a phrase or sentence that indicates that a speaker is moving from one main point to another main point in a speech. Basically, a transition is a sentence where the speaker summarizes what was said in one point and previews what is going to be discussed in the next point. Let's look at some examples:

- Now that we've seen the problems caused by lack of adolescent curfew laws, let's examine how curfew laws could benefit our community.
- Thus far we've examined the history and prevalence of alcohol abuse among Native Americans, but it is the impact that this

abuse has on the health of Native Americans that is of the greatest concern.

- Now that we've thoroughly examined how these two medications are similar to one another, we can consider the many clear differences between the two medications.
- Although he was one of the most prolific writers in Great Britain prior to World War II, Winston Churchill continued to publish during the war years as well.

You'll notice that in each of these transition examples, the beginning phrase of the sentence indicates the conclusion of a period of time (now that, thus far). The below examples are transition words that will be useful when keeping your speech moving.

Transition Words

Addition	also, again, as well as, besides, coupled with, following this, further, furthermore, in addition, in the same way, additionally, likewise, moreover, similarly
Consequence	accordingly, as a result, consequently, for this reason, for this purpose, hence, otherwise, so then, subsequently, therefore, thus, thereupon, wherefore
Generalizing	as a rule, as usual, for the most part, generally, generally speaking, ordinarily, usually
Exemplifying	chiefly, especially, for instance, in particular, markedly, namely, particularly, including, specifically, such as
Illustration	for example, for instance, for one thing, as an illustration, illustrated with, as an example, in this case
Emphasis	above all, chiefly, with attention to, especially, particularly, singularly
Similarity	comparatively, coupled with, correspondingly, identically, likewise, similar, moreover, together with
Exception	aside from, barring, besides, except, excepting, excluding, exclusive of, other than, outside of, save
Restatement	in essence, in other words, namely, that is, that is to say, in short, in brief, to put it differently
Contrast and Comparison	contrast, by the same token, conversely, instead, likewise, on one hand, on the other hand, on the contrary, nevertheless, rather, similarly, yet, but, however, still, nevertheless, in contrast
Sequence	at first, first of all, to begin with, in the first place, at the same time, for now, for the time being, the next step, in time, in turn, later on, meanwhile, next, then, soon, the meantime, later, while, earlier, simultaneously, afterward, in conclusion, with this in mind first, second, third... generally, furthermore, finally
Common Sequence Patterns	in the first place, also, lastly in the first place, pursuing this further, finally to be sure, additionally, lastly in the first place, just in the same way, finally basically, similarly, as well
Summarizing	after all, all in all, all things considered, briefly, by and large, in any case, in any event, in brief, in conclusion, on the whole, in short, in summary, in the final analysis, in the long run, on balance, to sum up, to summarize, finally

Diversion	by the way, incidentally
Direction	here, there, over there, beyond, nearly, opposite, under, above, to the left, to the right, in the distance
Location	above, behind, by, near, throughout, across, below, down, off, to the right, against, beneath, in back of, onto, under, along, beside, in front of, on top of, among, between, inside, outside, around, beyond, into, over

Beyond transitions, there are several other techniques that you can use to clarify your speech organization for your audience. The next sections address several of these techniques, including internal previews, internal summaries, and signposts.

Internal Previews

An internal preview phrase or sentence that gives an audience an idea of what is to come within a section of a speech. An internal preview works similarly to the preview that a speaker gives at the end of a speech introduction, quickly outlining what he or she is going to talk about (i.e., the speech's three main body points). In an internal preview, the speaker highlights what he or she is going to discuss within a specific main point during a speech.

Ausubel was the first person to examine the effect that internal previews had on retention of oral information (Ausubel, 1968). Basically, when a speaker clearly informs an audience what he or she is going to be talking about in a clear and organized manner, the audience listens for those main points, which leads to higher

retention of the speaker's message. Let's look at a sample internal preview:

To help us further understand why recycling is important, we will first explain the positive benefits of recycling and then explore how recycling can help our community.

When an audience hears that you will be exploring two different ideas within this main point, they are ready to listen for those main points as you talk about them. In essence, you're helping your audience keep up with your speech.

Rather than being given alone, internal previews often come after a speaker has transitioned to that main topic area. Using the previous internal preview, let's see it along with the transition to that main point.

Now that we've explored the effect that a lack of consistent recycling has on our community, let's explore the importance of recycling for our community (transition). To help us further understand why recycling is important, we will first explain the positive benefits of recycling and then explore how recycling can help our community (internal preview).

While internal previews are definitely helpful, you do not need to include one for every main point of your speech. In fact, we recommend that you use internal previews sparingly to highlight only main points containing relatively complex information.

Internal Summaries

Whereas an internal preview helps an audience know what you are going to talk about within a main point at the beginning, an internal summary is delivered to remind an audience of what they just heard within the speech. In general, internal summaries are best used when the information within a specific main point of a speech was complicated. To write your own internal summaries, look at the

summarizing transition words in [Table 10.1 “Transition Words”](#) Let’s look at an example.

To sum up, school bullying is a definite problem. Bullying in schools has been shown to be detrimental to the victim’s grades, the victim’s scores on standardized tests, and the victim’s future educational outlook.

In this example, the speaker was probably talking about the impact that bullying has on an individual victim educationally. Of course, an internal summary can also be a great way to lead into a transition to the next point of a speech.

In this section, we have explored how bullying in schools has been shown to be detrimental to the victim’s grades, the victim’s scores on standardized tests, and the victim’s future educational outlook (internal summary). Therefore, schools need to implement campus-wide, comprehensive antibullying programs (transition).

While not sounding like the more traditional transition, this internal summary helps readers summarize the content of that main point. The sentence that follows then leads to the next major part of the speech, which is going to discuss the importance of antibullying programs.

Signposts

Have you ever been on a road trip and watched the green rectangular mile signs pass you by? Fifty miles to go. Twenty-five miles to go. One mile to go. Signposts within a speech function the same way. A signpost is a guide a speaker gives her or his audience to help the audience keep up with the content of a speech. Look at the transition words above for “common sequence patterns,” and you’ll see a series of possible signpost options. In essence, we use these short phrases at the beginning of a piece of information to help our audience members keep up with what we’re discussing. For

example, if you were giving a speech whose main point was about the three functions of credibility, you could use internal signposts like this:

- The first function of credibility is competence.
- The second function of credibility is trustworthiness.
- The final function of credibility is caring/goodwill.

Signposts are simply meant to help your audience keep up with your speech, so the more simplistic your signposts are, the easier it is for your audience to follow.

In addition to helping audience members keep up with a speech, signposts can also be used to highlight specific information the speaker thinks is important. Where the other signposts were designed to show the way (like highway markers), signposts that call attention to specific pieces of information are more like billboards. Words and phrases that are useful for highlighting information can be found above under the category “emphasis.” All these words are designed to help you call attention to what you are saying so that the audience will also recognize the importance of the information.

Key Takeaways

- Transitions are very important because they help an audience stay on top of the information that is being presented to them. Without transitions, audiences are often left lost and the ultimate goal of the speech is not accomplished.
- Specific transition words can be useful in constructing effective transitions.

- In addition to major transitions between the main points of a speech, speakers can utilize internal previews, internal summaries, and signposts to help focus audience members on the information contained within a speech.

References

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23. Informative Speech Outline Student Example

Student Example

Informative Speech Outline

- This is a student example for you to use for your own outline preparation.
- This student's outline is well developed, coherent, integrates research, follows a strong organizational pattern, and meets all expectations of an outline in a public speaking course.
- Click on the Google Document provided for a sample speech outline.

[Informative Speech Outline](#)

24. Me Speech - TED Talk

Learning Objectives

- Watch this TED talk to assist you in generating ideas for your own Me Speech.

Me Speech – TED Talk Example

Instructions:

- Watch the Lizzie Velasquez's Ted Talk
- Listen to her message, she discusses her “self”, her upbringing, her disease, her family, and her goals in life.
- Although you do not have 13 minutes to talk about yourself, you can use her organization and narration to consider crafting your own speech.
- She “messes up” – A BIG FEAR FOR MAY PUBLIC SPEAKERS – But watch what she does to get herself back on track. *Spoiler, she does a fantastic job!*

Lizzie Velasquez's TED TALK





One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=132#oembed-1>

Key Takeaways

Utilize Lizzie's Me Speech as a strong example of delivery, content, and audience connection.

- Your Me Speech will set the tone for the audience analysis your peers will do in the coming days. This speech will allow them to learn more about you and your interests.
- Your peers will gather information from each Me Speech and craft an audience analysis response – be sure to incorporate aspects of yourself that will be useful to a future speaker in your group.

25. Live Virtual Speeches: Production Quality, Clear Videos, Professional Backgrounds

Learning Objectives

- Identify strategies for effective video delivery.
- Apply the best practices to the Me Speech.

Your nonverbal communication matters, even in a video! Your first speech in this class is a video speech. You will need to think about your appearance and your background as these are two nonverbal aspects of video speeches. Appearance includes not only your clothing and grooming but also the lighting and camera angles – it is everything your audience is seeing. Your background includes what is in your camera frame – again what the audience can see. You should see a pattern here. Anything the audience can see communicates nonverbally to them. Make sure you are nonverbally communicating the right message!

Watch the speeches below provide tips to enhance your visual appearance while delivering a LIVE speech in a virtual setting.

The first video demonstrates the importance of lighting, camera angel, and your ZOOM/Webex background.

The second video introduces you to ring lights and the “do’s and don’ts” of lighting while delivering a speech.

Activities



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=264#h5p-43>



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=264#h5p-17>

Key Takeaways

- Everything the audience can see nonverbally communicates to them.
- Set yourself up for success by taking the time and putting in the effort to create a professional video.

PART III

CHAPTER 3: DELIVERY TECHNIQUES

There is no one perfect way to deliver a speech, although there are ways that will not be effective. While we all have our own speaking styles with different strengths, there are strategies we can employ that will help us to engage with the audience, keep their interest, and get our message across more clearly. In this chapter, we will first examine nonverbal and verbal strategies that will make our speech delivery more engaging. We will then discuss specific considerations for online delivery. Next, we will explore using presentation aids to enhance audience understanding and interest. Finally, we will execute a step-by-step method of speech rehearsal where you can practice delivery skills that will enhance your speech day success.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=148#oembed-1>

26. Methods of Delivery

Learning Objectives

- Differentiate between four common delivery methods.
- Identify the most effective delivery method: extemporaneous speaking.

There are four basic methods or styles of presenting a speech: manuscript, memorized, extemporaneous, and impromptu. Each style will work well for differing speaking contexts. In this chapter, we will explore when each style should (and shouldn't) be used.

Manuscript Style

In this delivery style, the speech is written and the speaker reads it word for word to the audience. This style is common with newscasters and television personalities. A teleprompter (working like a periscope) is attached to the camera so the newscaster is looking at the lens while reading. Another example of manuscript delivery is by the U.S. President. The speeches a President gives will often reflect national policy, define international relationships, and the press will scrutinize every syllable. It has to be more than brilliantly accurate; it has to be impeccably phased. Professional writers and policy experts compose the speech, and the President delivers it as though he not only wrote it but made it up on the spot. That is the skill of a good politician, actor, or speaker.

Why is this speaking style used? Precision. In the news reporting industry, every fraction of second counts because broadcast time is costly. Also, the facts and names must be exact and accurate so there is no room for error. Errors in reporting decrease the credibility of the news organization and the newscaster.

Those who are not skilled in using a teleprompter or manuscript will sound stilted and boring. Public speaking is about presenting, not reading, to an audience. Because of this, manuscript style



*Marketing Mix” by
Matthew
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should only be used in specific situations (such as those mentioned above) and never in a classroom speech.

Memorized style

This style is used when the manuscript is committed to memory and recited to the audience verbatim (word for word). Think about your fifth grade poetry contest where students received poems to the class.

There are several contexts where this style is appropriate. Often times actors on stage are obligated to memorize the script of the play and perform it exactly as written. Speakers on high school and university speech and debate teams may memorize their competitive speeches. Some monologists (such as the stand-up comics) also use a memorized delivery style. In all cases, they create the impression that the speech is spontaneous.

When we use memorization to present our speech, we are often times so focused on remembering what comes next that we lose focus on our audience. Our focus is internal and this causes us to sound robotic and monotone. We are disengaged from our audience and this causes them to be disengaged from our message. A better technique is to memorize your key points, not your word-for-word speech. We will talk about this strategy more when we discuss extemporaneous speaking.

Impromptu Style

Impromptu speaking is typically a short presentation without advance preparation. Impromptu speeches often occur when someone is asked to “say a few words” or give a toast on a special occasion. You have probably done impromptu speaking many times

in informal, conversational settings. Self-introductions in group settings are examples of impromptu speaking. Another example of impromptu speaking occurs when you answer a question in class.

The advantage of this kind of speaking is that it's spontaneous and we tend to deliver our message more naturally and conversationally. The disadvantage is that the speaker is given little or no time to contemplate the central theme or how to organize their message. As a result, the message may be disorganized and difficult for listeners to follow.

Impromptu speaking is an important skill to have. It can help us to get the job, stand out at work, be a good leader, and persuade others. However, it is a skill that takes time and effort to develop. Whenever you are given time to prepare for a presentation, this should not be your go-to style.

Extemporaneous Style

This speaking style is carefully planned and rehearsed, spoken in a conversational manner using brief notes. Speaking extemporaneously has many advantages. It promotes the likelihood that you, the speaker, will be perceived as knowledgeable and credible. In addition, your audience is likely to pay better attention to the message because it is engaging both verbally and nonverbally.

Extemporaneous speaking requires a great deal of preparation for both the verbal and the nonverbal components of the speech. Adequate preparation cannot be achieved the day before you're scheduled to speak. The key to this speaking style is that it is carefully planned yet appears to be natural and conversational. Speaking extemporaneously requires speakers to work through the speechmaking process, create a preparation outline, use that outline to create speaking notes, and practice, practice, and practice some more.

Because extemporaneous speaking is the style used in the great

majority of public speaking situations, this is the style we will learn and employ in this course.

Why Extemporaneous Style?

While there are several methods you can choose from to deliver a speech, the easiest approach to speech delivery is not always the best. Substantial work goes into the careful preparation of an effective speech, so it is understandable that students may have the impulse to avoid “messaging it up” by simply reading it word for word. But students who do this miss out on one of the major reasons for studying public speaking: to learn ways to “connect” with one’s audience and to increase one’s confidence in doing so. You already know how to read, and you already know how to talk. But public speaking is neither reading nor talking. Speaking allows for meaningful pauses, eye contact, small changes in word order, and vocal emphasis. Reading is a more or less exact replication of words on paper without the use of any nonverbal interpretation. Extemporaneous speaking, as you will realize if you think about excellent speakers you have seen and heard, provides a more animated message that will connect with your audience and leave a lasting impression.

Activity



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=161#h5p-15>

Key Takeaways

- There are four common methods of delivering speeches.
- Extemporaneous speaking is the most effective delivery method to engage your audience.

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27. Speaking Notes

Learning Objectives

Public Speaking students will need to utilize effective speaking notes in order to deliver a proper extemporaneous speech.

- Create speaking notes to assist with extemporaneous delivery.

Speaking Notes

You have successfully written your speech, now what? Writing and delivering a successful speech are not the same. You may have written the most brilliant of speeches but if you cannot deliver it effectively, your message will not reach your audience and you will have failed as a speaker. Remember that we are aiming for an extemporaneous delivery. This delivery method takes extensive preparation. This section explores how you can prepare your notes and practice for effective speech delivery.

Why Prepare Speaking Notes?

Your preparation outline and speaking notes are separate documents.

- Your *preparation outline* helps you to get prepared for your speech by providing the opportunity to organize and write your ideas in a speech format. This is the “formal” outline you use to organize your ideas.
- Your *speaking notes* help you achieve a conversational and natural speech delivery.

Your preparation outline is designed to help you *prepare* for the speech while your speaking notes are designed to help you *deliver* the speech. Using your preparation outline (a full manuscript) while delivering your speech is sure to set you up for failure. The temptation to read the entire speech directly from a manuscript, even if you're only carrying it as a safety net, is nearly overwhelming. Reading your speech will cause your audience to lose faith in you as a speaker and bore them because of a lack of audience connection. Carefully prepared speaking notes, together with practice, will add credibility and confidence to your delivery.

Once you have created a preparation outline, you will be able to create your speaking notes. Common forms of speaking notes are note cards, paper, or electronic. You can use what has worked for you in the past or what you think will work for you. Practicing with different forms of speaking notes will help you to get comfortable with the best format for your speaking style.

Preparing Speaking Notes

While speaking notes are personal to each speaker, there are several

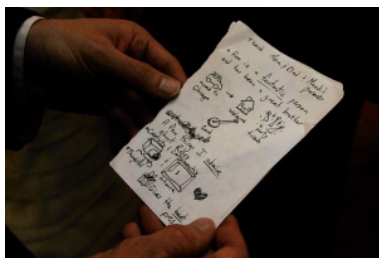
things you should think about as you are preparing your speaking notes.

Keywords: Your cards should only include keywords and phrases, *not full sentences*. The only exception to the keyword guideline would be an extended or highly technical quotation from a source. If it is critically important to present an exact quotation, you may write out the quotation together with its citation word for word to ensure accuracy.

- The “trick” to selecting the words to write on your cards is to identify the keywords that will trigger recall for your speech content.
- The fewer words the better. This will help you to remain conversational during your delivery.
- You should not have more than one note card for each minute of your speech. If you are using paper, you should have no more than one sheet of paper.

Organization: Your notes should help you deliver your content in the precise order that you have planned.

- You can organize your notes by speech part (introduction, main point #1, main point #2, conclusion, etc.) to keep your thoughts organized.
- If you are using cards, number your cards so you can keep them in order.



"Best man's speech notes" by stacey shintani. CC-BY-NC-SA.

Easy to Read: You should be able to glance at the cards, get your bearings, and look back at the audience.

- Color-coding is often done to easily distinguish the cards at a glance. Losing your place can be very stressful to you and distracting to the audience.
- Use large print. You should be able to read something on your card by glancing, not peering at it. A few keywords and phrases, written in large, bold print with plenty of white space between them, will help you.

For additional tips on preparing speaking notes, visit this website: <https://www.wikihow.com/Prepare-Notes-for-Public-Speaking>

Using Speaking Notes

Now that you have created your speaking notes, how will you ensure you use them effectively?

Rehearse using your notes: You will not know if your speaking notes are effective (easy to read, have the “right” keywords, and help you to deliver effectively) if you do not rehearse with them. Just like your preparation outline, your speaking notes will go through several revisions. This process will make your speech delivery stronger.

Figure out how to hold your notes: Notes are a normal part of giving a presentation. You do not need to conceal them from the audience but you also need to make sure they are not distracting. Practice how you will use your notes while engaging in eye contact with the audience and using other nonverbal delivery strategies (such as movement and gestures).

Revise your notes while rehearsing: Your speaking notes may change as you practice your speech. Practicing will help you to know which keywords are working and which are not. You may need to add reminders (click to next slide, smile, breath, etc.) or markers to draw your attention quickly to certain parts of the speech. Revisions will help you to deliver a natural and conversational speech while not leaving out important content.

Extemporaneous speaking requires the ability to alternate one’s gaze between the audience and one’s notes. Practicing while using your notes will help you to develop the ability to maintain eye contact with your audience while referring to your notes. When you are giving a speech that is well prepared and well-rehearsed, you will only need to look at your notes occasionally. This is an ability that will develop even further with practice.

Key Takeaways

- Effective notes keep you from reading to your audience.
- Speaking notes are carefully based on keywords and phrases to promote recall.
- Notes should be organized and easy to read.
- Using notes well requires practice and revision.

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28. Nonverbal Aspects of Delivery

Learning Objectives

- Demonstrate nonverbal delivery by utilizing key elements of professional appearance, body language, facial expressions, gestures, and eye contact to deliver an effective extemporaneous speech.

Nonverbal Aspects of Delivery

While we are focusing on online delivery in this course, you must consider the same aspects as you would for a face to face delivery. We will discuss these aspects generally first, then address any differences for online delivery as necessary.

Nonverbal cues account for much of the content from which we form initial impressions, so it's important to know that people make judgments about our identities and skills after only brief exposure. Our competence regarding and awareness of nonverbal communication can help determine how an interaction will proceed and, in fact, whether it will take place at all. People who are skilled at encoding nonverbal messages are more favorably evaluated after initial encounters. This is likely due to the fact that people who are more nonverbally expressive are also more attention getting and

engaging and make people feel more welcome and warm due to increased immediacy behaviors, all of which enhance perceptions of charisma.

Personal Appearance

Your appearance is often the easiest way to build (or destroy) credibility as a speaker. Your appearance will be the first and most noticeable thing your audience focuses on as you give your speech. How do you use your appearance to build credibility?



[Women in Business Leadership Conf.](#) by UCLA Anderson. [CC-BY-NC-SA](#).

Consider how your appearance might send a negative message. Appearance is anything that can be seen by the audience. This may be dress or grooming. Messy hair and wrinkled clothes may send the message, “I don’t care.” A low-cut neckline, dirty jeans, or a graphic design t-shirt may not convey the right message for a formal or serious public speaking event.

What is considered appropriate attire has changed over history and changes based on the occasion and culture. For instance, a large number of American businesses require “business casual” as the standard dress whereas in the 50s “business” dress was more appropriate. Also, business casual on the east coast looks different than on the west coast due to weather and cultural differences.

Pro Tips:

- Dress for the occasion. Consider what dress is appropriate for the event and the culture of the audience.
- Consider the audience. You should look one step above the audience. For instance, if they are dressed casually, you should be dressed business casual.
- Consider the purpose. Is this a professional or formal event? Is this for a grade? What impression do you want to leave on your audience?
- By showing positive aspects of yourself through dress and

grooming, you can inspire confidence in your abilities.



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Body Language

Your overall movement is integral to successful speech delivery. Body stance, gestures, and facial expressions can be generally categorized as **body language**. Body language should be relaxed and natural, and purposeful. How you use body language takes practice. Some people are naturally more expressive with body language when they speak. This can be helpful but anyone can learn how to use your body language effectively.



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Posture

“Stand up tall!” I’m sure we’ve all heard this statement from a parent

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

Posture can convey information about confidence and openness. Open and closed body positions communicate different messages to the audience and can be desirable or undesirable based on the type of visual delivery that is desired.

Closed: Closed posture often gives the impression of detachment, disinterest, and hostility.

- Arms crossed on the chest or abdomen, hands clasped in front of the body, and crossed legs.
- Showing the back of hands or clenched fists can represent a closed posture.
- Hands clasped behind the back may also signal closed posture even though the front is exposed because it can give the impression of hiding something or resisting closer contact.
- A stiff and unnatural looking posture can distract the audience from your message.

Open: Open posture communicates a friendly and positive attitude.

- The feet are spread wide and the head is straight and raised, looking at the audience.
- Showing the palms of the hands can be a signal of open

posture, especially if the hand is relaxed.

- Relaxed, yet professional body and head positioning can give the perception of confidence.

Pro Tips:

- Practice open body posture in front of a mirror so you can see what the audience will see.
- If you are presenting online, use the camera to practice open body posture so you know what the audience will see.

Movement

Unless you are stuck behind a podium because of the need to use a nonmovable microphone, you should never stand in one place during a speech. However, movement during a speech should also not resemble pacing. As speakers, we must be mindful of how we go about moving while speaking.

Movement that supports your delivery:

- Upper body toward the audience – Leaning into your audience slightly helps to make a connection with them.
- Transition steps – take a few steps any time you transition from one idea to the next. By only moving at transition points, not only do you help focus your audience's attention on the transition from one idea to the next, but you also are able to increase your nonverbal immediacy by getting closer to different segments of your audience.
- Stand still without movement – If you are listening to a question, you can stand still without movement to show your interest.

- Moving toward your visuals – you can move toward your visual (or away) to focus audience attention where you want it.

Unnecessary movement that can distract from your delivery:

- Swaying back and forth
- Pacing from one side to another
- Moving a hand repetitively without purpose.

Pro Tips

- Have a friend observe or record yourself while you speak. Review the recording for distracting, repetitive movements.
- Remember to strive for natural movements of the body. Body movements that are planned and mechanical will call undue attention to you and distract the audience's attention.
- If you are having difficulty focusing while speaking you might consider mind-body exercises which combine body movement with mental focus and controlled breathing.

Gestures

A **gesture** is a form of non-verbal communication in which visible bodily actions communicate particular messages. Effective gestures are purposeful and natural. They should add to not distract from, your vocal delivery.

Gestures that support your message:

- **Emblems** are gestures that have a specific agreed-on meaning. These are often used to substitute for verbal communication such as waving goodbye. You may use them while telling a story as support or trying to make a dramatic point during

your speech.

- **Illustrators** help emphasize or explain a word. Illustrators are the most common type of gesture and are used to illustrate the verbal message they accompany. For example, you might use hand gestures to indicate the size or shape of something during your speech.
- **Affect displays** show feelings and emotions. Consider how you would use gestures to convey “I give up” or “we will be victorious!”
- **Regulators** are gestures that help coordinate the flow of conversation. If you would like your audience to answer a question you may use a head nod toward them or a hand movement indicating that you are handing over the “speaker” roll to them.

Gestures that distract from your delivery:

- **Repetitive gestures:** If you are using the same hand movement over and over throughout the speech, it will distract from your message.
- **Contradictory:** If you are using gestures that contradict your message, you may confuse your audience.
- **Wild or erratic:** Wild gesturing can draw the audience attention away from your message and have them wondering what you are trying to communicate.

Pro Tips

- Make sure that the audience can see your hands. This applies in person and online. Your audience should be able to see your gestures fully and easily.
- While practicing your speech note places you can use purposeful gestures. Are you talking about something big? How can you use nonverbal communication to accompany your

description?

- Keep your hands free. This will give you more opportunities for spontaneous gesturing.



“Barack Obama at Las Vegas Presidential Forum” by Center for American Progress Action Fund. CC-BY-SA.

Gestures should be natural, not overdramatic nor subdued. At one extreme, arm-waving and fist-pounding will distract from your message and reduce your credibility. At the other extreme, refraining from the use of gestures is a waste of an opportunity to suggest emphasis, enthusiasm, or other personal connection with your topic.

Facial Expressions



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The face as a whole indicates much about human moods. Specific emotional states, such as happiness or sadness, are expressed through a smile or a frown, respectively. There are seven universally recognized emotions shown through facial expressions:

1. fear
2. anger
3. surprise
4. contempt
5. disgust
6. happiness
7. sadness

Faces are amazing things and convey so much information. As speakers, we must be acutely aware of what our face looks like while speaking. While many of us do not look forward to seeing ourselves on videotape, often the only way you can critically evaluate what

your face is doing while you are speaking is to watch a recording of your speech. If video is not available, you can practice speaking in front of a mirror.

Facial expressions that distract:

- **No expression:** You do not want to have a completely blank face while speaking. Some people just do not show much emotion with their faces naturally, but this blankness is often increased when the speaker is nervous. Audiences will react negatively to the message of such a speaker because they will sense that something is amiss. If a speaker is talking about the joys of Disney World and his face doesn't show any excitement, the audience is going to be turned off by the speaker and his message.
- **Over animated expression:** On the other extreme end is the speaker whose face looks like that of an exaggerated cartoon character. Instead, your goal is to show a variety of appropriate facial expressions while speaking.
- **Contradicting expressions:** You should not smile throughout a speech on drug addiction, poverty, or the oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico. An inappropriate smile creates confusion about your meaning and may make your audience feel uncomfortable.

Use facial expressions strategically to enhance meaning. Watch the below video for more tips on using your face to enhance your delivery:

Pro Tips

- People smile when they are happy. Smile before you begin speaking to show the audience that you are happy to be there, and they will smile back. Smiling is contagious.
- Be aware of facial expressions that may contradict your verbal message. If you are talking about something sad, your face

should reflect this!

Eye Contact

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

Many have offered bad advice about how to engage an audience through eye contact:

- Look at the foreheads: Just for fun, walk up to a friend and begin to speak to their forehead to see how they react. Really, try it. It just looks weird. Chances are your friend will say, "What the heck are you doing?" That is the same thing your audience will think if you stare at their foreheads. Honestly, it is harder to focus on foreheads than it is to look in the eyes.
- Imagine your audience naked: Maybe you too have heard this advice, and it is the worst. If you are in my audience and I imagine you naked, I guarantee there will be NO EYE CONTACT. No eye contact at all! This piece of advice is designed to make you feel more at ease, but it doesn't work. I do not know about you, but the thought of speaking to a room full of naked people does not make me feel relaxed.
- Stare at random spots in the room: You may have heard "Just look at the back wall." If you look over the person, you miss the person. Your audience can tell if you are looking at them or somewhere else. This strategy will cause you to lose credibility

with the audience. Even in a large audience where you can't make eye contact with everyone, you should at least find people throughout the room to look at.

Ask yourself, why is eye contact so frightening? Is it because there is a person connected to those eyes? Is it because if we look at the person, we have to acknowledge their existence? Public speaking is an interaction (remember chapter 1), not a monologue. Your audience is important and your eye contact helps to establish this importance.

Pro Tips

- Practice making eye contact – you can use animals, pictures, and stuffed animals (it doesn't matter) while practicing but get used to directly looking at things in your audience's path.
- Alternate talking to the audience members to the right, left, and in front of you.
- If you struggle with eye contact, at the top of every page of your notes write—"Make eye contact."
- Find friendly faces throughout the room where you feel comfortable speaking to the person.
- Practice with people. Sure, it is helpful to record yourself, to practice talking to a wall, and to speak to a mirror, but those are no substitutes for what happens when you speak to people. Find some friends and practice with them.
- Do not have your notes on the screen during virtual presentations. This will create challenges for you in using your notes effectively while maintaining eye contact with your audience.

Cultural Note

Eye contact can vary from culture to culture and person to person. Just because an audience member looks away from you, it may not mean they are not interested. Consider the following differences.

- In some cultures, it would be considered inappropriate to make eye contact with someone of different gender (or sex).
- When in a high-power culture (a culture where those in power are given higher status and have deferential body language), you may notice those in lower status lower their eyes or avoid eye contact with those of higher status.
- Arabs, Latin Americans, and Southern Europeans tend to make direct eye contact
- Those from Asia and parts of Africa tend to make less eye contact.
- Those on the Autism Spectrum may avoid eye contact to help them focus on the words you are saying.

Key Takeaways

Body language can make or break a speech.

- Public speaking students will want to practice and refine their nonverbal behaviors in similar ways they are refining their verbal delivery.
- Verbal and nonverbal delivery work “hand-in-hand” in an effective speech – failing to refine your non-verbals in a speech will result in an ineffective delivery.

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29. Using Language Effectively

Learning Objectives

- Use language effectively during speech preparation, practice, and delivery.
- Identify inclusive language.

Using Language Effectively

Language is an important consideration for your speech because at the most fundamental level, this is how your audience will understand what you're saying. From the actual words that come out of your mouth to the points and topics you articulate, language is the vehicle that helps your audience understand and agree with your statement or argument. What you actually choose to say in your speech—every single word—must be carefully selected. Is each individual word the best word you can use to convey your message or meaning? Is your phrasing easy to understand? Are you using descriptive language? Do you connect similar thoughts for your audience? Have you included points of contrast to illustrate broader points? These are all important questions to consider as you begin to select each and every word that makes it into your speech. Even more important are the words you choose to leave out: consider too, what you *aren't* saying.

This section explores strategies to use language effectively.

Simple Language

When asked to write a speech or a paper, many of us pull out the thesaurus (or call it up on our computer) when we want to replace a common word with one that we believe is more elevated or intellectual. There are certainly times when using a thesaurus is a good thing, but if you're pulling that big book out to turn a simple idea into one that *sounds* more complex, put it back on the shelf.

Using a complex word when a well-known or simpler term will do inhibits your ability to communicate clearly. Your goal as a speaker should be to be as clear as you possibly can. Using language that makes it more difficult for your audience to understand your message can negatively impact your ability to get a clear message

across to your audience. If your audience can't understand your vocabulary, they can't understand your message.

Additionally, part of having strong credibility as a speaker is convincing your audience of your sincerity, both in terms of your ideas and your character. When you use words that are not typically used in conversational language, audiences may perceive you as insincere and therefore less credible. Also, when the audience's attention is focused on questions about your character and veracity, they are less likely to pay attention to your message.

Specific Language

Concrete and precise language is specific, language that details an idea, action, sensation, event. You will give clearer information if you use specific rather than general words. Evoke senses of taste, smell, hearing, sight, and touch with specific word choices. But specifics do clarify your meaning. Look for general words such as “things,” “very,” or “many,” which you can replace with more specific terminology.

Concrete versus abstract language

Many misunderstandings stem from the language we use. You say you will call your friend “later” and your friend got angry because you didn't. By “later” you may have meant later in the week while your friend thought later meant later that day. Often in these cases, both people are right. So, how did the misunderstanding happen? One of the primary reasons we miscommunicate is because language is abstract. As illustrated in the previous example, meanings exist in people's understandings of words, not the actual words. If you're telling a story about “a dog” you could be talking

about a German Shepherd while your audience is envisioning a Chihuahua. If you do not use concrete language, you risk at least sending a different message than you intended. If you are speaking about a German Shepherd, you want to use the concrete term “German Shepherd” over the more abstract term “dog” to increase audience understanding.

Below are two strategies to help you use concrete language.

Replace abstract terms with concrete words that have a clear and direct meaning.

- **Abstract:** The case sought to establish *equality* for people of all sexual orientations.
 - *Equality* can mean a variety of things to different people:
What does *equality* mean in this instance?
- **Concrete:** The case sought to legalize gay marriage.

Use language that appeals to the senses.

- **Abstract:** The waiting room was *unpleasant*.
 - What makes this setting *unpleasant*? Replace this term with specific, descriptive language.
- **Concrete:** The waiting room was cold, antiseptic-smelling, and crowded with sick people who were coughing, groaning, or crying.

When you are writing your speech, look for words that you might need to define more clearly. Many words mean different things to different people, so use concrete language over abstract words to better your chances of communicating your message as intended.

The following video offers additional examples of using concrete versus abstract language.

Precise Language

Just as abstract language may be confusing, vague, overly general, subjective, or ambiguous terms may be interpreted differently by different audience members, thus confusing the intent of your message. As with concrete vs. abstract language, you do not want to choose words and phrasing that could be interpreted in multiple ways. Choose words that most precisely, concisely, and accurately convey your point. Someone might call a sweater “green” while someone else calls it “teal.” Even though those are just differences in perception not purposeful or mindless communication meant to be inaccurate, not being clear about exactly which color you’re talking about can lead to confusion. It is best to remember to be as precise as possible when choosing words. Don’t say something was “big”—tell us its weight or height, and to be sure you’re communicating clearly compare that weight or height to something we understand.

The table below lists some examples of vague words and phrases edited to be precise. As you’ll see, the precise versions of the phrases anticipate and answer questions that an audience may have.

Vague	Precise
many, a lot	ten, sixteen, one thousand, etc.
cool (referring to temperature)	50 degrees Fahrenheit, 35 degrees Celsius, etc.
most	90%, 94%, etc.
later / very soon	4:00 p.m., 10:00 p.m., etc. / in ten minutes, tomorrow morning at 8:00 a.m., etc.
staff	supervisors, accountants, Nurse Practitioners, etc.
We are making good progress on the project.	In the two weeks since inception, our four-member team has achieved three of the six objectives we identified for project completion; we are on track to complete the project in another four weeks, by Friday, November 19.
For the same amount spent, we expected more value added.	We examined several proposals in the \$10,000 range, and they all offer more features than what we see in the \$12,500 system ABC Corp. is offering.
Officers were called to the scene.	Responding to a 911 call, State Police Officers Arellano and Chavez sped to the intersection of County Route 53 and State Highway 21.
Several different colors are available.	The silk jacquard fabric is available in ivory, moss, cinnamon, and topaz.
This smartphone has more applications than customers can imagine.	At last count, the Apple iPhone had more than 500 applications, many costing 99 cents or less; users can get real-time sports scores, upload videos, browse commuter train schedules, edit e-mails, and find recipes—but so far, it doesn't do the cooking for you.

Note that clichés, or over-used expressions, are often vague. Clichés can be vague because they have an agreed-upon meaning among a particular culture or group. However, professionally, you

may be working with people from many backgrounds who do not understand the agreed-upon meaning. For example, ask a non-native speaker of English if “things are looking up,” and the person may respond by physically looking upwards. So avoid clichés or, if you have used them in an initial draft, make sure to replace them with more precise language. For example:

Vague Clichés Precise Language

ballpark figure	approximately, about
few and far between	rare, infrequent
as plain as day	obvious, clear, plain
needless to say	obvious, of course
as clear as mud	unclear, vague

The following video offers a quick definition and a few examples of precise language.

Vivid Language

Vivid Language helps your listeners create strong, distinct, clear, and memorable mental images. Good vivid language usage helps an audience member truly understand and imagine what a speaker is saying. Several strategies will help you to use vivid language.

Metaphors and Similes

Metaphors are comparisons made by speaking of one thing in terms of another. **Similes** are similar to metaphors in how they function; however, similes make comparisons by using the word “like” or “as,” whereas metaphors do not. The power of a metaphor is in its ability to create an image that is linked to emotion in the mind of the audience. It is one thing to talk about racial injustice, it is quite another for the Reverend Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. to note that people have been “...battered by storms of persecution and staggered by the winds of police brutality.” Throughout his “I Have a Dream” speech the Reverend Dr. King uses the metaphor of the checking account to make his point.

He notes that the crowd has come to the March on Washington to “cash a check” and claims that America has “defaulted on this promissory note” by giving “the Negro people a bad check, a check that has come back “insufficient funds.” By using checking and bank account terms that most people are familiar with, the Reverend Dr. King is able to more clearly communicate what he believes has occurred. In addition, the use of this metaphor acts as a sort of “shortcut.” He gets his point across very quickly by comparing the problems of civil rights to the problems of a checking account.

In the same speech the Reverend Dr. King also makes use of similes, which also compare two things but do so using “like” or “as.” In discussing his goals for the Civil Rights movement in his “I

Have a Dream” speech, the Reverend Dr. exclaims: “No, no we are not satisfied and we will not be satisfied until justice rolls down like waters and righteousness like a mighty stream.” Similes also help make your message clearer by using ideas that are more concrete for your audience. For example, to give the audience an idea of what a winter day looked like you could note that the “snow looked as solid as pearls.” To communicate sweltering heat you could say that “the tar on the road looked like satin.” A simile most of us are familiar with is the notion of the United States being “like a melting pot” with regard to its diversity. We also often note that a friend or colleague that stays out of conflicts between friends is “like Switzerland.” In each of these instances similes have been used to more clearly and vividly communicate a message.

Rhythm

Rhythm refers to the patterned, recurring variance of elements of sound or speech. Whether someone is striking a drum with a stick or standing in front of a group speaking, rhythm is an important aspect of human communication. Think about your favorite public speaker. If you analyze his or her speaking pattern, you’ll notice that there is a certain cadence to the speech. While much of this cadence is a result of the nonverbal components of speaking, some of the cadence comes from the language that is chosen as well.

Alliteration

Remember challenging yourself or a friend to repeat a tongue twister “five times fast?” Perhaps it was “Sally sold seashells by the seashore” or “Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers.” Tongue twisters are difficult to say to say but very easy to remember. Why? Alliteration. **Alliteration** is the repetition of the initial sounds of words. Alliteration is a useful tool for helping people remember your message, and it’s as simple as taking a few minutes to see if there are ways to reword your speech so that you can add some alliteration—this is a great time to use that thesaurus we talked about putting away early in this chapter. Look for alternative words to use that allow for alliteration in your speech. You might consider doing this especially when it comes to the points that you would like your audience to remember most.

Antithesis

Antithesis allows you to use contrasting statements in order to make a rhetorical point. Perhaps the most famous example of antithesis comes from the Inaugural Address of President John F. Kennedy when he stated, “And so, my fellow Americans, ask not what your country can do for you; ask what you can do for your country.” Going back to Reverend Jackson’s “Rainbow Coalition” speech he notes, “I challenge them to put hope in their brains and not dope in their veins.” In each of these cases, the speakers have juxtaposed two competing ideas in one statement to make an argument in order to draw the listener’s attention.

Parallel Structure and Language

Antithesis is often worded using parallel structure or language.

Parallel structure is the balance of two or more similar phrases or clauses, and parallel wording is the balance of two or more similar words. The Reverend Dr. King’s “I Have a Dream” speech exemplifies both strategies in action. Indeed, the section where he repeats “I Have a Dream” over and over again is an example of the use of both parallel structure and language. The use of parallel structure and language helps your audience remember without beating them over the head with repetition. If worded and delivered carefully, you can communicate a main point over and over again, as did the Reverend Dr. King, and it doesn’t seem as though you are simply repeating the same phrase over and over. You are often doing just that, of course, but because you are careful with your wording (it should be powerful and creative, not pedantic) and your delivery (the correct use of pause, volume, and other elements of delivery), the audience often perceives the repetition as dramatic and memorable. The use of parallel language and structure can also help you when you are speaking persuasively. Through the use of these strategies you can create a speech that takes your audience through a series of ideas or arguments that seem to “naturally” build to your conclusion.

Repetition

As we mentioned earlier in this chapter, one of the major differences between oral and written language is the use of repetition. Because speeches are communicated orally, audience members need to hear the core of the message repeated consistently. Repetition as a linguistic device is designed to help audiences become familiar with a short piece of the speech as they hear it over and over again. By

repeating a phrase during a speech, you create a specific rhythm. Probably the most famous and memorable use of repetition within a speech is Martin Luther King Jr.'s use of "I have a dream" in his speech at the Lincoln Memorial on August 1963 during the March on Washington for Jobs and Freedom. In that speech, Martin Luther King Jr. repeated the phrase "I have a dream" eight times to great effect.

Inclusive Language

Language can either inspire your listeners or turn them off very quickly. One of the fastest ways to alienate an audience is through the use of non-inclusive language. Inclusive language avoids placing any one group of people above or below other groups while speaking. Let's look at some common problem areas related to language about gender, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and disabilities.

Gender-Specific Language

The first common form of noninclusive language is language that privileges one of the sexes over the other. There are three common problem areas that speakers run into while speaking: using “he” as generic, using “man” to mean all humans and gender typing jobs.

Generic “He”

The generic “he” happens when a speaker labels all people within a group as “he” when in reality there is a mixed sex group involved. Consider the statement, “Every morning when an officer of the law puts on his badge, he risks his life to serve and protect his fellow citizens.” In this case, we have a police officer that is labeled as male four different times in one sentence. Obviously, both male and female police officers risk their lives when they put on their badges. A better way to word the sentence would be, “Every morning when officers of the law put on their badges, they risk their lives to serve and protect their fellow citizens.” Notice that in the better sentence, we made the subject plural (“officers”) and used neutral pronouns (“they” and “their”) to avoid the generic “he.”

Use of “Man”

Traditionally, speakers of English have used terms like “man,” “mankind,” and (in casual contexts) “guys” when referring to both

females and males. In the second half of the twentieth century, as society became more aware of gender bias in language, organizations like the National Council of Teachers of English developed guidelines for nonsexist language (National Council of Teachers of English, 2002). For example, instead of using the word “man,” you could refer to the “human race.” Instead of saying, “hey, guys,” you could say, “OK, everyone.” By using gender-fair language you will be able to convey your meaning just as well, and you won’t risk alienating half of your audience.

Gender-Typed Jobs

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

The below table lists some common gender-specific jobs titles along with more inclusive versions of those job titles.

Exclusive Language	Inclusive Language
Policeman	Police officer
Businessman	Businessperson
Fireman	Firefighter
Stewardess	Flight attendant
Waiters	Wait staff / servers
Mailman	Letter carrier / postal worker
Barmaid	Bartender

Ethnic Identity

Another type of inclusive language relates to the categories used to highlight an individual's ethnic identity. Ethnic identity refers to a group an individual identifies with based on a common culture. For example, within the United States, we have numerous ethnic groups, including Italian Americans, Irish Americans, Japanese Americans, Vietnamese Americans, Cuban Americans, and Mexican Americans. As with the earlier example of “male nurse,” avoid statements such as “The committee is made up of four women and a Vietnamese man.” Instead, say, “The committee is made up of four women and a man” or, if race and ethnicity are central to the discussion, “The committee is made up of three European American women, an Israeli American woman, a Brazilian American woman, and a Vietnamese American man.” In recent years, there has been a trend toward steering inclusive language away from broad terms like “Asians” and “Hispanics” because these terms are not considered precise labels for the groups they actually represent. If you want to be safe, the best thing you can do is ask a couple of people who belong to an ethnic group how they prefer to label themselves.

Sexual Orientation

Another area that can cause some problems is referred to as heterosexism. Heterosexism occurs when a speaker presumes that everyone in an audience is heterosexual or that opposite-sex relationships are the only norm. For example, a speaker might begin a speech by saying, “I am going to talk about the legal obligations you will have with your future husband or wife.” While this speech starts with the notion that everyone plans on getting married, which isn't the case, it also assumes that everyone will label their significant others as either “husbands” or “wives.” Although some members of the gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender/transsexual community will use these terms, others prefer for more gender neutral terms like “spouse” and “partner.” Moreover, legal obligations for same-sex couples may be very different from those for heterosexual couples. Notice also that we have used the phrase

“members of the gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender/transexual community” instead of the more clinical-sounding term “homosexual.”

Disability

The last category of exclusive versus inclusive language that causes problems for some speakers relates to individuals with physical or mental disabilities. Below are some other examples of exclusive versus inclusive language.

Exclusive Language	Inclusive Language
Handicapped People	People with disabilities
Insane Person	Person with a psychiatric disability (or label the psychiatric diagnosis, e.g. “person with schizophrenia”)
Person in a wheelchair	Person who uses a wheelchair
Crippled	Person with a physical disability
Special needs program	Accessible needs program
Mentally retarded	Person with an intellectual disability

Use Familiar Language

The last category related to using language appropriately simply asks you to use language that is familiar both to yourself and to your audience. If you are not comfortable with the language you are using, then you are going to be more nervous speaking, which will definitely have an impact on how your audience receives your speech. You may have a hard time speaking genuinely and sincerely if you use unfamiliar language, and this can impair your credibility. Furthermore, you want to make sure that the language you are using is familiar to your audience. If your audience cannot understand what you are saying, you will not have an effective speech.

Jargon

Jargon is a specialized language used by members of a profession. It is appropriate to use jargon when you know that your audience understands the terms you are using. Jargon is often used when communicating with other members of your profession. It makes sense, for example, for a doctor performing a medical procedure to use jargon in speaking with the anesthetist, nurses, and other medical professionals, since all of those others understand the terms in the same way and the medical jargon eliminates the need for lengthy explanations.

However, jargon is not useful in situations in which your audience does not have the same technical or professional background. If some technical terms are absolutely necessary to your communication, be sure to explain each term and its context. Whether or not to use jargon is often a judgment call and one that's sometimes easier to make in speaking than in writing. In an oral context, you may be able to know from immediate feedback whether

or not your audience understands a technical term, based on their facial expressions or body language. If not, you can define the term immediately. If you must use jargon while speaking to a general audience, be sure to define your terms and err on the side of over-clarification.

Slang

Slang is language that some people might understand but that is typically not considered acceptable in formal conversation. It is informal language and can be a poor choice for a speaker because some members of your audience may not be familiar with the slang term(s) you use. Slang is often based on a very specific audience, defined by age, region, subculture, etc. If you are speaking to an audience that you know will understand and respond positively, you may choose to include that language in your speech. Otherwise, do not use slang, or you may confuse and frustrate audience members and cause them to lose interest in your speech. In addition, because slang is often not considered appropriate in formal and polite conversation, using it in your speech may communicate negative ideas about you to audience members. Don't let a mindless use of slang negatively impact your audience's perception of you and your message.

Using Stylized Language

Stylized language is language that communicates your meaning clearly, vividly and with flair. Stylized language doesn't just make you sound better; it also helps make your speeches more memorable. Speakers who are thoughtful about using language strategies in their speeches are more memorable as speakers and therefore so too are their messages more unforgettable as well.

Personalized Language

We're all very busy people. Perhaps you've got work, studying, classes, a job, and extracurricular activities to juggle. Because we are all so busy, one problem that speakers often face is trying to get their audience interested in their topic or motivated to care about their argument. A way to help solve this problem is through the use of language that personalizes your topic. Rather than saying, "One might argue" say "You might argue." Rather than saying "This could impact the country in ways we have not yet imagined," say "This could impact your life in ways that you have not imagined." By using language that directly connects your topic or argument to the audience you better your chances of getting your audience to listen and to be persuaded that your subject matter is serious and important to them. Using words like "us," "you," and "we" can be a subtle means of getting your audience to pay attention to your speech. Most people are most interested in things that they believe impact their lives directly—make those connections clear for your audience by using personal language.

Key Takeaways

- Using concrete and specific language will increase audience understanding.
- Using vivid language will increase the audience's interest in your presentation.
- Using inclusive language will help you to reach more audience members.

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30. Vocal Aspects of Delivery

Learning Objectives

- Practice elements of effective vocal delivery.

Extemporaneous speaking sounds conversational and natural. This conversational style sounds the way you normally express yourself in a much smaller group than your classroom audience. While you are well prepared, you still sound natural and even spontaneous. No one wants to hear a speech that is so well rehearsed that it sounds fake or robotic. One of the hardest parts of public speaking is rehearsing to the point where it can appear to your audience that the thoughts are magically coming to you while you're speaking, but in reality you've spent a great deal of time thinking through each idea. When you can sound conversational, people pay attention. When we are having a conversation with a friend or small group, we tend to use a vocal variety or changes in our tone, pitch, volume, and other vocal aspects.

Vocal Variety

Vocal variety has to do with changes in our vocals. No one wants to hear the same volume, pitch, rate, or use of pauses over and over again in a speech. Your audience should never be able to detect that you're about to slow down or your voice is going to get deeper because you're making an important point. When you think about how you sound in a normal conversation, your use of volume, pitch, rate, and pauses are all done spontaneously. If you try to over rehearse your vocals, your speech will end up sounding artificial. Vocal variety should flow naturally from your wish to speak with expression. In that way, it will animate your speech and invite your listeners to understand your topic the way you do.

The following video provides examples of what vocal variety sounds like.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online

here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=152#oembed-1>

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

Just like some of us are more expressive nonverbally, some of us are also more expressive vocally. Even if you are not expressive, vocal delivery skills can be learned and practiced to engage your audience and maintain their attention. Below we will discuss several aspects of vocal delivery you should consider and practice while rehearsing your speech.

Articulation

We are often judged by how well we speak in general. A measure of perceived intellect or education is how well we **articulate**. That is: how well and correctly we form our vowels and consonants using our lips, jaw, tongue, and palate to form the sounds that are identified as speech.

Enunciation refers to how clearly and distinctly sounds are formed. For instance, saying “going to” instead of “gonna” or “did not” instead of “dint” are examples of good versus poor articulation.

Pronunciation refers to how a particular word should sound. At

times this may be challenging because it's not always possible to tell how a word should sound by the way it is spelled.

Pro tips

- Look up the pronunciation of words you do not know. This is your speech – you should be able to pronounce words.
- Substitute words that you have difficulty pronouncing if possible.
- Practice enunciation while rehearsing.
- Use your speaking notes to provide reminders about words that you tend to articulate incorrectly.

Your ability to articulate your speech content accurately will influence your credibility as a speaker.

Pitch and Inflection

Pitch refers to the highness or lowness of a speaker's voice. Some speakers have deep voices and others have high voices. As with one's singing voice range, the pitch of one's speaking voice is determined to a large extent by physiology (specifically, the length of one's vocal folds, or cords, and the size of one's vocal tract). We all have a normal speaking pitch where our voice is naturally settled, the pitch where we are most comfortable speaking, and most teachers advise speaking at the pitch that feels natural to you.

While our voices may be generally comfortable at a specific pitch level, we all have the ability to modulate, or move, our pitch up or down. In fact, we do this all the time. When we change the pitch of our voices, we are using **inflection**. Just as you can use volume strategically, you can also use pitch inflections to make your delivery more interesting and emphatic. If you ordinarily speak with

a soprano voice, you may want to drop your voice to a slightly lower range to call attention to a particular point. How we use inflections can even change the entire meaning of what we are saying. For example, try saying the sentence “I love public speaking” with a higher pitch on one of the words—first raise the pitch on “I,” then say it again with the pitch raised on “love,” and so on. “I love public speaking” conveys a different meaning from “I love *public* speaking,” doesn’t it?

There are some speakers who don’t change their pitch at all while speaking, which is called monotone. While very few people are completely monotone, some speakers slip into monotone patterns because of nerves. One way to ascertain whether you sound monotone is to record your voice and see how you sound. If you notice that your voice doesn’t fluctuate very much, you will need to be intentional in altering your pitch to ensure that the emphasis of your speech isn’t completely lost on your audience.

Pro Tips

- Resist the habit of pitching your voice “up” at the ends of sentences. It makes them sound like questions instead of statements. This habit can be disorienting and distracting, interfering with the audience’s ability to focus entirely on the message. The speaker sounds uncertain or sounds as though he or she is seeking the understanding or approval of the listener.
- Practice reading children’s books to adjust pitch (and other vocals) and see how they feel different.
- Inflection and varied pitch must be “organic,” that is to say, natural for the speaker. You cannot fake it, or it sounds artificial and disingenuous. It is a skill that needs to develop over a period of time.
- Practice saying sentences with different intonation patterns to change the meaning. For example, if you make a statement

with falling intonation at the end, you can turn it into a question by raising the intonation at the end. Try for example, “See what I mean,” and “See what I mean?”

The effective use of pitch is one of the keys to an interesting delivery that will hold your audience’s attention.

Rate

Rate is how fast or slow a person speaks. You can vary the rate depending on the emotions you are feeling or the type of message you are communicating. For example, if you are experiencing joy, you will speak at a fast rate compared to a speaker who is expressing surprise who will speak at a much faster rate. Normally, you speak about 125 words per minute. But you may speak much slower at about 100 wpm if you are giving a slide presentation.

Table 12.1: Finding the Right Pace for Your Speech	
If you speak too quickly...	If you speak too slowly...
the audience might get the impression you have nothing important to say.	the audience might think you are too tired to be presenting.
the audience has a difficult time catching up and comprehending what you are saying. They need time to digest the information. So plan on periodic pauses.	the audience can forget the first part of your sentence by the time you get to the last! (It happens!) And they lose interest.
the audience might think you really do not want to be there.	the audience might think you are wasting their time by taking longer than necessary to relay your message.
As a speaker, you cannot race with the audience, nor drag their attention down. Like Goldilocks, look for the pace that is “just right.”	

In order to retain clarity of the speech with articulation and inflection, the speaker must be aware that there is a range of

appropriate tempo for speaking. If the tempo is too slow, the speech might resemble a monotonous peal. If it is too fast, the articulation could suffer if consonants or vowels are dropped or rushed to keep up the speed. An audience could become frustrated with either extreme. The tempo needs to be appropriate to the speaker's style while maintaining a comfortable and clear pace is. An ideal speaking rate will allow you to comfortably increase your pace to create a sense of excitement or slow down to emphasize the seriousness of a topic.

Pro Tips

- When speaking you want to speak at a varied rate so that you can emphasize important parts of your message.
- You also want to change the rate for the mood or emotion of the message and the occasion. If you want to show excitement at a pep rally you will naturally speak at a faster rate than if you were speaking at a funeral where you would speak slower because you are sad or contemplative.
- You might also speak slower if you are making choices and thinking carefully about what you are saying; a slower pace may convey your thoughtfulness to the audience.
- Use a recorder to record your speech so you can clock your actual speaking rate.
- Finally, ask yourself if you are speaking too fast because you are nervous!

Pauses Versus Vocalized Pauses

Pauses can enhance delivery or be filled needlessly and distract the audience.

A pause may refer to a rest, hesitation, or temporary stop. It is

an interval of silence and may vary in length. The speaker may use pauses to enhance the message delivery or fill the pauses needlessly and distract the audience from the message. You may use a pause to emphasize that the information coming next is important, or to give the audience time to process what you have just said. Consider some of the ways that you might use pauses effectively in your delivery.

Effective Pauses

- Pause enables the speaker to gather thoughts before delivering the final appeal: pause just before the utterance, think about what you want to say, and then deliver your final appeal with renewed strength.
- Pause prepares the listener to receive your message: pause and give the attention powers of your audience a rest. The thought that follows a pause is much more dynamic than if no pause had occurred.
- Pause creates effective suspense: suspense can create interest. The audience will want to find out the conclusion or what happened if you pause before the punch line or conclusion.
- Pause after an important idea: pausing gives the audience time to process what you have just said before you continue with your delivery.
- Pause at the end of a unit: you may pause to signal the close of a unit of thought, such as a sentence or main point.

Different types of pauses that could present problems for the speaker:

Ineffective Pauses

- *Speech Disfluencies* are breaks, irregularities, or non-lexical vocables that occur within the flow of otherwise fluent speech, including false starts (words and sentences that are cut off in the middle), phrases that are restarted and repeated, grunts, or

fillers like uh, erm, and well.

- *Filled Pauses* are repetitions of syllables and words; reformulations; or false starts, where the speaker rephrases to fit the representation of grammatical repairs, partial repeats, or searching for words to carry the meaning.
- *Filler Words* are spoken in conversation by one participant to signal to others that he or she has paused to think, but is not yet finished speaking. Different languages have different characteristic filler sounds. The most common filler sounds in English are: uh /ə/, er /ɜ/, and um /əm/.
 - y'know
 - so
 - actually
 - literally
 - basically
 - right
 - I'm tellin' ya
 - you know what I mean.
- *Placeholder Names* are filler words like thingamajig, which refer to objects or people whose names are temporarily forgotten, irrelevant, or unknown.

Pro Tips

- Record a conversation and count the use of unnecessary pauses and filler words in relation to the other words in the speech. See if you can reduce the ratio over time.
- Remember that as you become more confident and familiar with speaking it will be easier to reduce the frequency of many of the unnecessary filler words and pauses.
- Read aloud a text using purposeful pauses.

Projection

Volume is the loudness of the speaker. The volume produced by the vocal instrument is **projection**. Supporting the voice volume with good breathing and energy can be practiced, and helping a speaker develop the correct volume is the main task of a vocal trainer, teacher, or coach. Good vocal support with good posture, breathing, and energy should be practiced regularly, long before a speech is delivered.

When speaking naturally without any amplification you need to keep in mind the distance to be covered by your voice. You might compare speaking with the act of throwing a ball. Consider how much more muscular effort is needed to throw the ball a long distance than is required to throw it a short one. As you speak, think of your words as balls and mentally watch them covering the space between you and your audience. Notice how you unconsciously lengthen the voice. If speaking in a face-to-face group without a microphone ask yourself if you are loud enough to be heard by audience members in the last row. Speaking to a large group will require more energy to breathe and control your sound production.

While there is no need to shout, a speaker should project to be easily heard from the furthest part of the audience. Even if the speech is amplified with a microphone/sound system, one must speak with projection and energy. As with your rate of speech, you should speak at a volume that comfortably allows you to increase the volume of your voice without seeming to shout or decrease the volume of your voice and still be heard by all audience members.

Pro Tips

- Practice speaking in a large room with a friend who moves farther and farther away from you until the friend reaches the rear of the room and can still hear you.

- Make sure that you are standing straight and not cramped so you have the maximum capacity for breathing and forcing air out of the lungs for sound production.
- Practice speaking by thinking of people at different distances from you such as at your elbow, across the room, or in the back of a large hall.

Exercises

Practice vocal variation!

Find a listening partner. Using only the sounds of “la” ha,” and “oh,” convey the meaning of the following:

1. It's the biggest thing I've ever seen!
2. I've fallen and can't get up!
3. I've got a crush on him/her.
4. That soup is disgusting and spoiled.
5. I got an “A” in my Speech Final!

If you cannot relay the meaning with just sounds, try a second time (each) with gestures and facial expressions until the listener understands. Then say the lines with the expressive inflections you have developed using only the sounds.

Key Takeaways

- Vocal variety adds interest to your speech.
- We can use changes in our vocals to emphasize points, lead the audience in a direction, transfer emotions, and build credibility.
- For some of us, vocal variety is more natural and some of us need to practice vocal variety.

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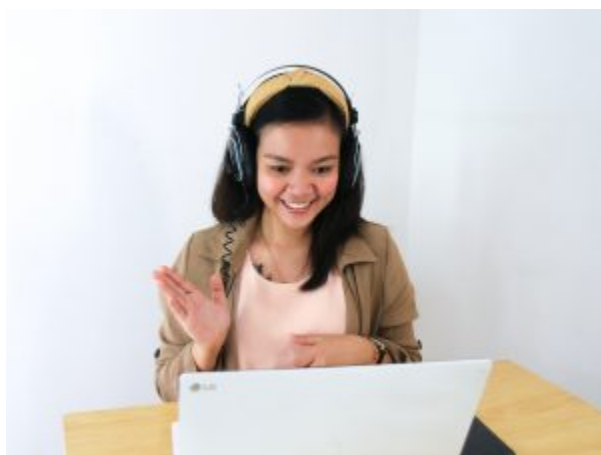
31. Online Delivery Considerations

Learning Objectives

- Identity specific differences in virtual delivery.
- Implement best practices for virtual delivery in a speech.

Online Delivery Considerations

While the previously mentioned delivery aspects apply if you are presenting face to face or virtually, some important differences must be considered while presenting virtually. This section will discuss those considerations.



Eye Contact

Perhaps one of the biggest differences between online and face-to-face presentations is effective eye contact. Do you look at your notes on the screen? Do you look at the faces of the people on the screen? Do you look at the camera? Watch the following video for tips on how to engage in effective eye contact virtually.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=608#oembed-1>

What to Wear

While you should strive to appear professional and a “step above” your audience no matter if you are face-to-face or virtual, there are additional considerations when presenting virtually. The following video discusses how to look your best on camera.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=608#oembed-2>

How to Look Your Best on Camera

Everything in the camera shot is communicating nonverbally to our audience, and remember you are center stage. What is your nonverbal communication saying about you? It is amazing how just a few small things can make such a huge difference in our professional appearance on camera. Watch this video to learn tips a few tips on how your nonverbal presentation delivery can be improved.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=608#oembed-3>

Where Do I Put My Speaking Notes?

A final note about online delivery. You may be tempted to pull up your speech transcript on your computer so you can read your speech. **DO NOT DO THIS.** You may think that your audience will not know you are reading your speech because you are looking toward your screen. You are mistaken. It is obvious to the audience when you are reading versus presenting your speech. Everything about your delivery is different – nonverbal and vocally. If you read vs presenting it comes across as if you are disengaged, your vocal variety is not conversational, and you are not making eye contact. All of this is apparent to your audience and you lose credibility as you appear to be unprepared for your presentation. Even more importantly, you will not earn delivery points if you are reading your speech!

As an extemporaneous speaker, create your speaking notes and practice with them so you can use them effectively during the actual presentation.

Pro Tips

- Tape your note cards to the top of your computer screen, hang them on something behind your computer, or place them on the side of your computer.
- **DO NOT** use a word for word transcript of your speech – take the time to create effective speaking notes.
- Refer to the reading on speaking notes for tips on how to create and use speaking notes effectively.

Key Takeaways

Remember This!

- Always check your equipment: Camera, microphone, lighting.
- Make “eye contact” by looking into your camera.
- Adjust your camera so it is eye level or slightly above eye level.

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32. Practicing Your Speech

Learning Objectives

- Use a six-step method to practice speech.

Practicing Your Speech

Practice makes Extemporaneous!

In public speaking, we are striving for a natural and conversational delivery. We are not reading or memorizing our speech content. We are presenting it in a way that connects with our audience verbally and nonverbally. The following six-step method of speech practice will ensure you are prepared for your best speech delivery!

Rehearing your Speech

Rehearsing your speech offers many benefits to extemporaneous speaking. It provides an opportunity to work out any challenges with wording, nonverbal delivery, speaking notes, and visuals. Also, the more you practice, the more confident you will become because you will be more familiar with your content. Below is a six-step process to help you deliver a strong speech.

Step 1

- Write your presentation, word for word (you can use your preparation outline)
- Read your presentation to yourself several times

Step 2

- Read the presentation out loud several times
- Time your presentation
- Make necessary adjustments to wording and content
- Transfer presentation to your first draft of speaking notes

Step 3

- Get up and practice in as realistic of a situation as you can make it
- Use your visuals – walk around the room – practice physical as well as vocal delivery

Step 4

- Record your presentation (audio and/or visual)
- Listen to vocal delivery and note um's, uh's, garbled words, etc
- Watch your physical delivery and identify areas of improvement, awkward habits, etc.

Step 5

- Practice in front of friends, family, etc.
- Get honest feedback
- ASK specific questions
- Revise speaking notes as necessary

Step 6

- Continue practicing out loud over and over

Key Takeaways

- Extemporaneous speaking requires extensive preparation and practice.
- Using the six step method of practice will help speakers to deliver a successful speech.

33. Presentation Aids

Learning Objectives

- Explain reasons to use presentation aids.
- Differentiate between different types of presentation aids.
- Consider effective design for presentation aids.
- Utilize best practices for designing and using presentation aids.

Presentation Aids

If you have prepared and rehearsed your speech adequately, shouldn't a good speech with a good delivery be enough to stand on its own? While it is true that impressive presentation aids will not rescue a poor speech, it is also important to recognize that a good speech can often be made even better by the strategic use of presentation aids.

Presentation aids are designed to enhance your presentation. We often fall into the "I'll just make a slide show" mentality. However, this is not always the best choice for a presentation aid. This section will explore reasons to use presentation aids, different types, and tips on how to prepare them.

Slide and slide show design have a major impact on your ability to get your message across to your audience. Numerous books address various design fundamentals and slide design, but there isn't always

consensus on what is “best.” What research has shown, though, is that people have trouble grasping information when it comes at them simultaneously. “They will either listen to you or read your slides; they cannot do both.” This leaves you, the presenter, with a lot of power to direct or scatter your audience’s attention. This section will serve as an overview of basic design considerations that even novices can use to improve their slides.

First and foremost, design with your audience in mind. Your slide show is not your outline. The show is also not your handout. As discussed earlier, you can make a significantly more meaningful, content-rich handout that complements your presentation if you do not try to save time by making a slide show that serves as both. Keep your slides short, create a separate handout if needed, and write as many notes for yourself as you need.

All decisions, from the images you use to their placement, should be done with a focus on your message, your medium, and your audience. Each slide should reinforce or enhance your message, so make conscious decisions about each element and concept you include and edit mercilessly. Taken a step further, graphic designer Robin Williams suggests each element be placed on the slide deliberately in relation to every other element on the slide.



Figure 3.1 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.

Providing the right amount of information, neither too much nor too little, is one of the key aspects in effective communication. See Figure 3.1 as an example of slides with too little or too much information. The foundation of this idea is that if the viewers have too little information, they must struggle to put the pieces of the presentation together. Most people, however, include too much information (e.g., slides full of text, meaningless images, overly complicated charts), which taxes the audience's ability to process the message. "There is simply a limit to a person's ability to process new information efficiently and effectively." As a presenter, reducing the amount of information directed at your audience (words, images, sounds, etc.) will help them to better remember your message. In this case, less is actually more.

The first strategy to keeping it simple is to include only one

concept or idea per slide. If you need more than one slide, use it, but don't cram more than one idea on a slide. While many have tried to proscribe the number of slides you need based on the length of your talk, there is no formula that works for every presentation. Use only the number of slides necessary to communicate your message, and make sure the number of slides corresponds to the amount of time allotted for your speech. Practice with more and fewer slides and more and less content on each slide to find the balance between too much information and too little.

With simplicity in mind, the goal is to have a slide that can be understood in 3 seconds. Think of it like a billboard you are passing on the highway. You can achieve this by reducing the amount of irrelevant information, also known as **noise**, in your slide as much as possible. This might include eliminating background images, using clear icons and images, or creating simplified graphs. Your approach should be to remove as much from your slide as possible until it no longer makes any sense if you remove more.

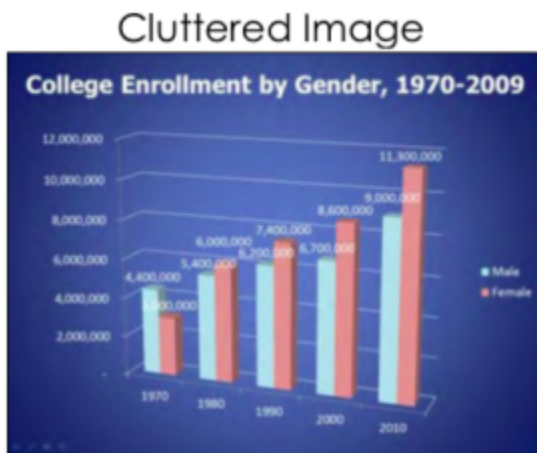


Figure 3.2 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.

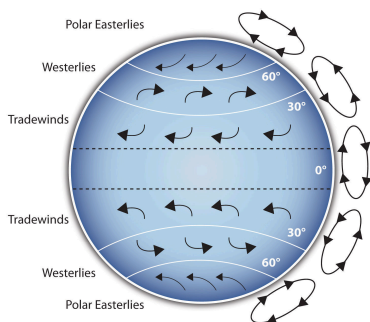
What is the purpose?

Effective presentation aids are used for a specific purpose. They can help to clarify and emphasize ideas, increase audience recall, and increase interest in your speech. Your job as a speaker is to choose the correct presentation aid to enhance your speech.

Clarify

Clarification is important in a speech because if some of the information you convey is unclear, your listeners will come away puzzled or possibly even misled. Presentation aids can help clarify a message if the information is complex or if the point being made is a visual one.

If your speech is about the impact of the Coriolis effect on tropical storms, for instance, you will have great difficulty clarifying it without a diagram because the process is a complex one. The diagram below may be an effective presentation aid because it shows the audience the interaction between equatorial wind patterns and wind patterns moving in other



This Coriolis Effect diagram may help the audience to understand a complex process quickly and more accurately.

directions. The diagram allows the audience to process the information in two ways: through your verbal explanation and through the visual elements of the diagram.



If the audience is unfamiliar with the topic, a visual can help them to visualize more clearly what the speaker is presenting.

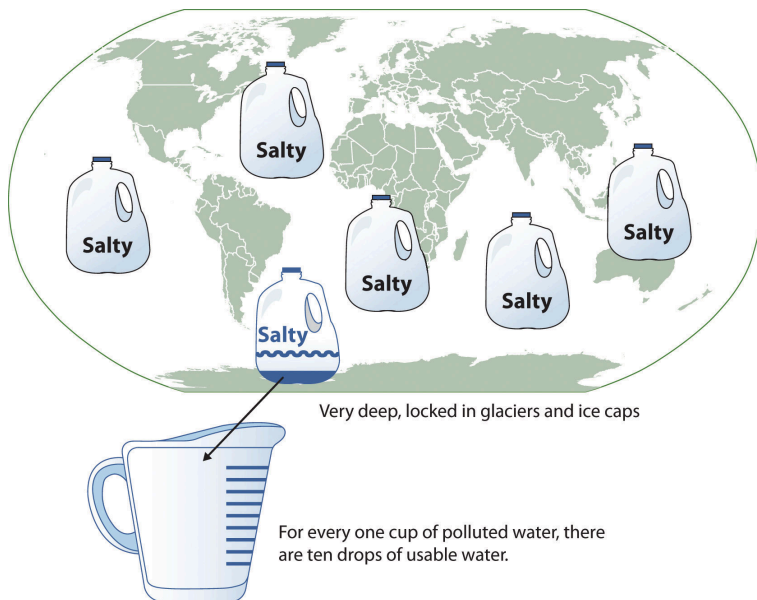
Another example of clarifying occurs when a speaker wants to visually help audience members understand a visual concept. For example, if a speaker is talking about the importance of petroglyphs in Native American culture, just describing the

petroglyphs won't completely help your audience to visualize what they look like. Instead, showing an example of a petroglyph can more easily help your audience form a clear mental image of your intended meaning.

Emphasize

When you use a presentational aid for emphasis, you highlight the importance of an idea. In a speech on water conservation, you might try to show the environmental proportions of the resource. When you use a conceptual drawing like the one below, you show that if the world water supply were equal to ten gallons, only ten

drops would be available and potable for human or household consumption. This drawing is effective because it emphasizes the scarcity of useful water and thus draws attention to this important information in your speech.



Using visuals can help your audience to focus on the important points of your presentation.

Recall

Visual images can serve as a memory aid to your listeners. When your graphic images deliver information effectively and when your listeners understand them clearly, audience members are likely to remember your message long after your speech is over.

An added plus of using presentation aids is that they can boost your memory while you are speaking. Using your presentation aids while you rehearse your speech will familiarize you with the

association between a given place in your speech and the presentation aid that accompanies that material.

Variety and Interest

Presentation aids make your speech more interesting. While it is true that a good speech and a well-rehearsed delivery will already include variety in several aspects of the presentation, in many cases, a speech can be made even more interesting by the use of well-chosen presentation aids.

For example, you may have prepared a very good speech to inform a group of gardeners about several new varieties of roses suitable for growing in your local area. Although your listeners will undoubtedly understand and remember your message very well without any presentation aids, wouldn't your speech have a greater impact if you accompanied your remarks with a picture of each rose? You can imagine that your audience would be even more enthralled if you had the ability to display an actual flower of each variety in a bud vase.

Remember, as you are thinking about possible presentation aids, they should be purposeful. You should not have a presentation aid you do not directly use just to have one. If you do not have a purpose for the presentation aid, leave it out.

What should I consider before choosing a presentation aid?

With a little forethought and adequate practice, you can choose presentation aids that enhance your message and boost your professional appearance in front of an audience.

Less is more: One principle to keep in mind is to use only as many presentation aids as necessary to present your message.

1. The number and the technical sophistication of your presentation aids should never overshadow your speech. Your presentation aid must deliver clear information, and it must not distract from the message.
2. Avoid overly elaborate presentation aids because they can distract the audience's attention from your message. Instead, simplify as much as possible, emphasizing the information you want your audience to understand.

Technology: You will need to keep presentation aids within the limits of the working technology available to you.

1. Know the physical context of the room. Will there be a projector, computer with internet, and sound system? Knowing what is available will help you to plan effective aids.
2. Have a back up plan. Whether or not technology works on the day of your speech, you will still have to present. What will you do if the computer file containing your slides is corrupted? You must be prepared to adapt to an uncomfortable and scary situation.

It is an AID: Presentation aids do not “speak for themselves.” You need to use it. Don’t think you can just show it and it makes the point you want it to make. If you do not use it, then it probably isn’t necessary.

1. When you display a visual aid, you should explain what it shows, pointing out and naming the most important features.
2. If you use an audio aid such as a musical excerpt, you need to tell your audience what to listen for.
3. If you use a video clip, it is up to you as the speaker to point out the characteristics in the video that support the point you are making.

Best Choice: Think about the purpose of your presentation aid (see above) to help you determine which is the best option.

What types of presentation aids can I use?

Now that you know why you are using a presentation aid, let's look at your options.

Slideshows

In most careers in business, industry, and other professions for which students are preparing themselves, computer-based presentation aids are the norm today. Whether the context is a weekly department meeting in a small conference room or an annual convention in a huge amphitheater, speakers are expected to be comfortable with using slideshow software to create and display presentation aids.

Slides show design and theme should be consistent. It should be easy to read, free of clutter, and enhance your message. Below are several common slideshow software programs.

Name	Website	Price
Google Presentations	https://www.google.com/slides/about/	Free
Harvard Graphics	http://www.harvardgraphics.com	\$
Keynote	http://www.apple.com/keynote	\$
OpenOffice Impress	http://www.openoffice.org/product/impress.html	Free
PowerPoint	https://products.office.com/en-us/powerpoint	\$
PrezentIt	http://prezentit.com	Free
Prezi	http://prezi.com	Free/\$
ThinkFree Show	http://member.thinkfree.com	Free
Zoho Show	http://show.zoho.com	Free

Slide Layout

It is easy to simply open up your slideware and start typing in the bullet points that outline your talk. If you do this, you will likely fall into the traps for which PowerPoint is infamous. Presentation design experts Reynolds and Duarte both recommend starting with paper and pen. This will help you break away from the text-based, bullet-filled slide shows we all dread. Instead, consider how you can turn your words and concepts into images. Don't let the software lead you into making a mediocre slide show.

Regarding slide design, focus on simplicity. Don't over-crowd your slide with text and images.

Cluttered slides are hard to understand (see Figure 3.1). Leaving empty space, also known as **white space**, gives breathing room to your design. The white space actually draws attention to your focus point and makes your slide appear more elegant and professional. Using repetition of color, font, images, and layout throughout your presentation will help tie all of your slides together. This is especially important if a group is putting visuals together collaboratively. If you have handouts, they should also match this formatting in order to convey a more professional look and tie all your pieces together.

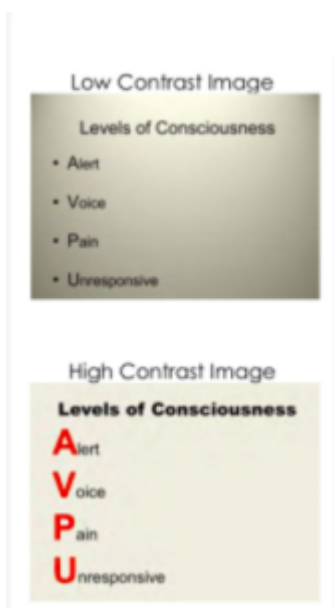


Figure 3.3 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.



Figure 3.4 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.

Another general principle is to use contrast to highlight your message. Contrast should not be subtle. Make type sizes significantly different. Make contrasting image placements, such as horizontal and vertical, glaringly obvious. A general principle to follow: if things are not the same, then make them very, very different, as in Figure 3.3.

A common layout design is called the **rule of thirds**. If you divide the screen using two imaginary lines horizontally and two vertically, you end up with nine sections. The most visually interesting and pleasing portions of the screen will be at the points

where the lines intersect.

Aligning your text and images with these points is preferred to centering everything on the screen. See Figure 3.4. Feel free to experiment with the right and left aligned content for contrast and interest. Sticking with a centered layout means more work trying to make the slide interesting.

Understanding how people view images (and thus slides) can help you direct the viewer's attention to the main point of your slide. In countries that read text from left to right and top to bottom, like English-speaking countries, people tend to also read images and slides the same way. Starting in the upper left of the screen, they read in a **Z pattern**, exiting the page in the bottom right corner unless their vision is side-tracked by the objects they are looking at (as in Figure 3.5).

Viewers' eyes are scanning from focus point to focus point in an image, so you need to consciously create visual cues to direct them to the relevant information. Cues can be created subtly by the placement of objects in the slide, by showing movement, or more obviously by using a simple arrow. Make sure all people and pets are facing into your slide and preferably at your main point, as in Figure 3.6. If your slide contains a road, path, car, plane, etc., have them also facing into your slide. When the natural motion or gaze of your images points away from your slide, your viewers look that way too. Being aware of this and addressing the natural tendencies of people when viewing images can help you select images and design slides that keep the viewer engaged in your message.



Figure 3.5 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.



Figure 3.6 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.

Text

Nothing is more hotly debated in slide design than the amount of text that should be on a slide. Godin says “no more than six words on a slide. EVER.” Other common approaches include the 5×5 rule—5 lines of text, 5 words per line—and similar 6×6 and 7×7 rules. Even with these recommendations, it is still painfully common to see slides with so much text on them that they can’t be read by the audience. The type has to be so small to fit all the words on the slide that no one can read it. Duarte keenly points out that if you have too many words, you no longer have a visual aid. You have either a paper or a teleprompter, and she recommends opting for a small number of words.

Once you understand that the words on the screen are competing

for your audience's attention, it will be easier to edit your slide text down to a minimum. The next time you are watching a presentation and the slide changes, notice how you aren't really grasping what the speaker is saying, and you also aren't really understanding what you are reading. Studies have proved this split-attention affects our ability to retain information; so when presenting, you need to give your audience silent reading time when you display a new slide. That is: talk, advance to your next slide, wait for them to read the slide, and resume talking. If you consider how much time your audience is reading rather than listening, hopefully you will decide to reduce the text on your slide and return the focus back to you, the speaker, and your message.

There are several ways to reduce the number of words on your page, but don't do it haphazardly. Tufte warns against abbreviating your message just to make it fit. He says this dumbs down your message, which does a disservice to your purpose and insults your audience's intelligence. Instead, Duarte and Reynolds recommend turning as many concepts as possible into images. Studies have shown that people retain more information when they see images that relate to the words they are hearing. And when people are presented information for a very short time, they remember images better than words.

The ubiquitous use of bulleted lists is also hotly debated. PowerPoint is practically designed around the bulleted-list format, even though it is regularly blamed for dull, tedious presentations with either overly dense or overly superficial content. Mostly this format is used (incorrectly) as a presenter's outline. *"No one can do a good presentation with*

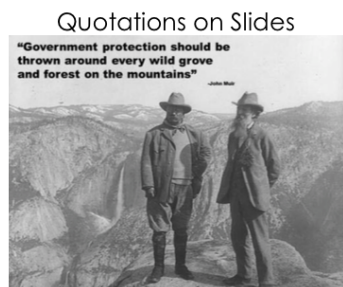


Figure 3.10 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.

slide after slide of bullet points. No One.” Reserve bulleted lists for specifications or explaining the order of processes. In all other cases, look for ways to use images, a short phrase, or even no visual at all.

Quotes, on the other hand, are not as offensive to design when they are short, legible, and infrequently used. They can be a very powerful way to hammer a point home or to launch into your next topic. See Figure 3.10 for an example. If you do use a quote in your slide show, immediately stop and read it out loud or allow time for it to be read silently. If the quote is important enough for you to include it in the talk, the quote deserves the audience’s time to read and think about it. Alternately, use a photo of the speaker or of the subject with a phrase from the quote you will be reading them, making the slide enhance the point of the quote.

Images

Images can be powerful and efficient ways to tap into your audience's emotions. Use photographs to introduce an abstract idea, to evoke emotion, to present evidence, or to direct the audience attention, just make sure it is compatible with your message. Photos aren't the only images available. You might consider using simplified images like **silhouettes**, **line art**, diagrams, enlargements, or **exploded views**, but these should be high quality and relevant. Simplified can be easier to understand,

particularly if you are showing something that has a lot of detail. Simple images also translate better than words to a multicultural audience. In all cases, choose only images that enhance your spoken words and are professional-quality. This generally rules out the clip art that comes with slideware, whose use is a sign of amateurism. Select high-quality images and don't be afraid to use your entire slide to display the image. Boldness with images often adds impact.

When using images, do not enlarge them to the point that the image becomes blurry, also known as **pixelation**. Pixelation, (Figure 3.11) is caused when the resolution of your image is too low for your output device (e.g. printer, monitor, projector). When selecting images, look for clear ones that can be placed in your presentation without enlarging them. A good rule of thumb is to use images over 1,000 pixels wide for filling an entire slide. If your images begin to



Figure 3.11 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.

pixelate, either reduce the size of the image or select a different image.

Never use an image that has a **watermark** on it, as in Figure 3.2. A watermark is text or a logo that is placed in a digital image to prevent people from re-using it. It is common for companies that sell images to have a preview available that has a watermark on it. This allows you, the potential customer, to see the image, but prevents you from using the image until you have paid for it. Using a watermarked image in your presentation is unprofessional. Select another image without a watermark, take a similar photo yourself, or pay to get the watermark-free version.

You can create images yourself, use free images, or pay for images from companies like iStockphoto for your presentations. Purchasing images can get expensive quickly, and searching for free images is time consuming. Be sure to only use images that you have permission or rights to use and give proper credit for their use. If you are looking for free images, try searching



Figure 3.12 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.

the [Creative Commons database](#) for images from places like Flickr, Google, and others. The creators of images with a **Creative Commons License** allow others to use their work, but with specific restrictions. What is and isn't allowed is described in the license for each image. Generally, images can be used in educational or non-commercial settings at no cost as long as you give the photographer credit. Also, images created by the U.S. government and its agencies are copyright free and can be used at no cost.

One final consideration with using images: having the same image on every page, be it part of the slide background or your company logo, can be distracting and should be removed or minimized. As

mentioned earlier, the more you can simplify your slide, the easier it will be for your message to be understood.

Backgrounds and Effects

PowerPoint and other slideware has a variety of templates containing backgrounds that are easy to implement for a consistent slide show. Most of them, however, contain distracting graphics that are counter to the simplicity you are aiming for in order to produce a clear message. It is best to use solid colors, if you even need a background at all. For some slide shows, you can make the slides with full-screen images, thus eliminating the need for a background color.

Graphic design is the paradise of individuality, eccentricity, heresy, abnormality, hobbies and humors. ~ George Santayana

Should you choose to use a background color, make sure you are consistent throughout your presentation. Different colors portray different meanings, but much of this is cultural and contextual, so there are few hard and fast rules about the meaning of colors. One universal recommendation is to avoid the color red because it has been shown to reduce your ability to think clearly. Bright colors, such as yellow, pink, and orange, should also be avoided as background colors, as they are too distracting. Black, on the other hand, is generally associated with sophistication and can be a very effective background as long as there is sufficient contrast with the other elements on your slide.

When designing your presentation, it is tempting to show off your tech skills with glitzy transitions, wipes, fades, moving text, sounds, and a variety of other actions. These are distracting to your audience and should be avoided. They draw attention away from you and your message, instead focusing the audience's attention on the screen. Since people naturally look at what is moving and expect it to mean something, meaningless effects, no matter how subtle,

distract your audience, and affect their ability to grasp the content. Make sure that all your changes are meaningful and reinforce your message.

Graphs and Charts

If you have numerical data that you want to present, consider using a graph or chart. You are trying to make a specific point with the data on the slide, so make sure that the point—the conclusion you want your audience to draw—is clear. This may mean that you reduce the amount of data you present, even though it is tempting to include all of your data on your slide.

It is best to minimize the amount of information and focus instead on the simple and clear conclusion. You can include the complete data set in your handout if you feel it is necessary. Particularly when it comes to numerical data, identify the meaning in the numbers and exclude the rest. “Audiences are screaming ‘make it clear,’ not ‘cram more in.’ You won’t often hear an audience member say, ‘That presentation would have been so much better if it were longer.’ In some cases you can

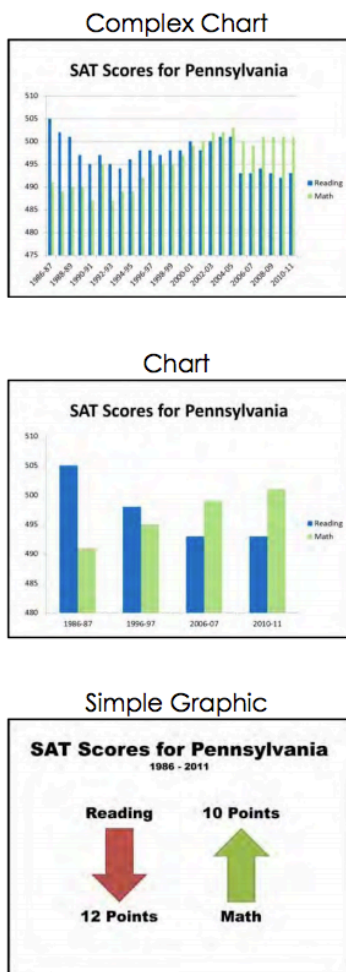


Figure 3.13 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.

even ditch the graph altogether and display the one relevant fact that is your conclusion.

Different charts have different purposes, and it is important to select the one that puts your data in the appropriate context to be clearly understood. Pie charts show how the parts relate to the whole and are suitable for up to eight segments, as long as they remain visually distinct. Start your first slice of the pie at 12:00 with your smallest portion and continue around the circle clockwise as the sections increase in size. Use a line graph to show trends over time or how data relates or interacts. Bar charts are good for showing comparisons of size or magnitude and for showing precise comparisons. There are other types of charts and graphs available, but these are the most common.

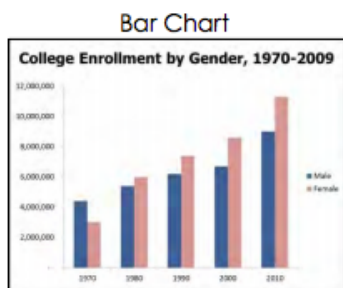
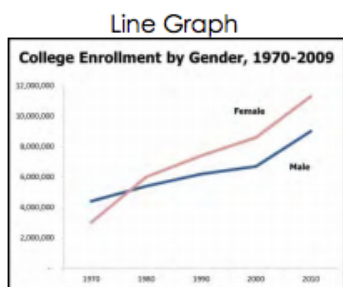
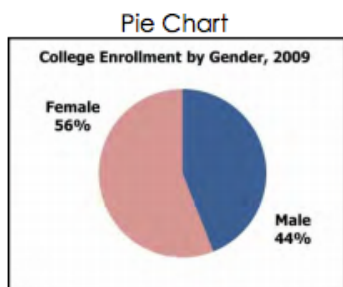


Figure 3.14 by the Public Speaking Project. CC-BY-NC-ND.

When designing charts, one should use easily distinguishable colors with clear labels. Be consistent with your colors and data groupings. For clarity, avoid using 3-D graphs and charts, and remove as much of the background noise (lines, shading, etc.) as possible. All components of your graph, once the clutter is removed, should be distinct from any background color. Finally, don't get too complex in any one graph, make sure your message is as clear as possible, and make sure to visually highlight the conclusion you want the audience to draw.

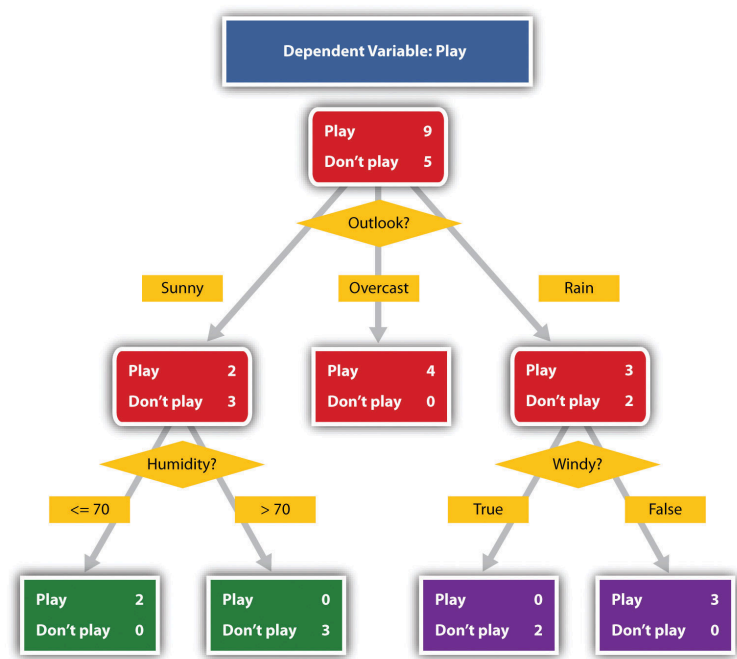
Charts

A chart is commonly defined as a graphical representation of data (often numerical) or a sketch representing an ordered process. A chart can take the form of a diagram or a picture

or a graph.

A decision tree is one example of a chart. Decision trees are useful for showing the relationships between ideas. The below example shows how a decision tree could be used to determine the

appropriate weather for playing baseball. As with the other types of charts, you want to be sure that the information in the chart is relevant to the purpose of your speech and that each question and decision is clearly labeled.



[Wikimedia Commons](#) – public domain.

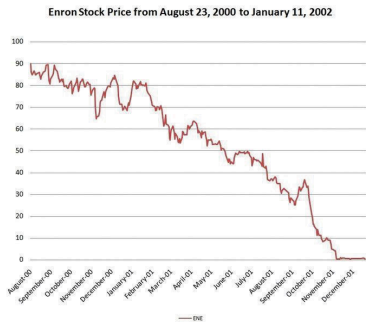
Graphs

A graph is considered a type of chart illustrating a pictorial representation of the relationships of quantitative data using dots, lines, bars, pie slices, and the like. Graphs show the variation in one variable in comparison with that of one or more other variables. Where a statistical chart may report the mean ages of individuals entering college, a graph would show how the mean age changes over time. A statistical chart may report the number of computers

sold in the United States, while a graph will show the breakdown of those computers by operating systems such as Windows, Macintosh, and Linux. Public speakers can show graphs using a range of different formats. Some of those formats are specialized for various professional fields. Very complex graphs often contain too much information that is not related to the purpose of a student’s speech. If the graph is cluttered, it becomes difficult to comprehend.

In this section, we’re going to analyze the common graphs speakers utilize in their speeches: line graphs, bar graphs, and pie graphs.

Line Graph



Enrons Stock Price – Wikimedia
Common – CC BY-SA 2.0.

A line graph is designed to show trends over time. The example to the left depicts the fall of Enron’s stock price from August 2000 to January 2002. Notice that although it has some steep rises, the line has an overall downward trend clearly depicting the plummeting of Enron’s stock price. Showing

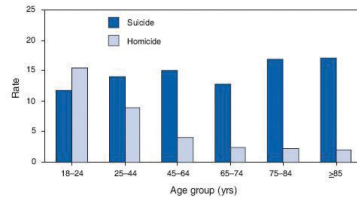
such a line graph helps the audience see the relationships between the numbers, and audiences can understand the information by

seeing the graph much more easily than they could if the speaker just read the numbers aloud.

Bar Graph

Bar graphs are useful for showing the differences between quantities. They can be used for population demographics, fuel costs, math ability in different grades, and many other kinds of data.

The graph to the right is well designed. It is relatively simple and is carefully labeled, making it easy for you to guide your audience through the quantities of each type of death. The bar graph is designed to show the difference between natural deaths and homicides across various age groups. When you look at the data, the first grouping clearly shows that eighteen- to twenty-four-year-olds are more likely to die because of homicide than any of the other age groups.

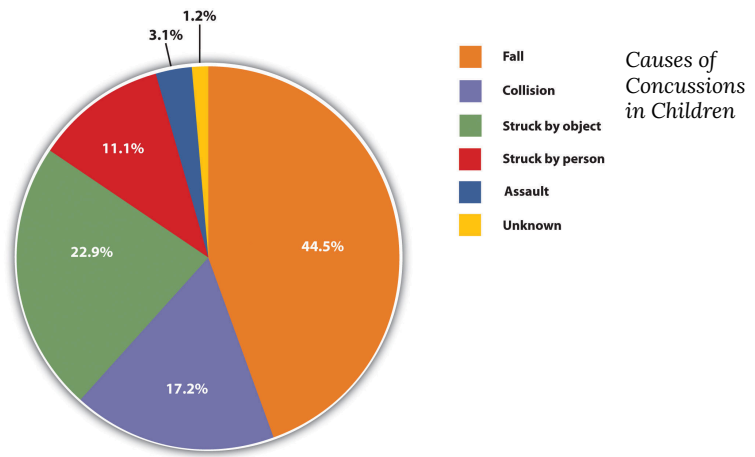


*Natural Death vs. Homicide –
Wikimedia Commons – public domain*

Pie Graph

Pie graphs should be simplified as much as possible without eliminating important information. As with other graphs, the sections of the pie need to be plotted proportionally. In the pie graph shown, we see a clear and proportional chart that has been color-coded. Color-coding is useful when it's difficult to fit the explanations in the actual sections of the graph; in that case, you need to include a legend, or key, to indicate what the colors in the

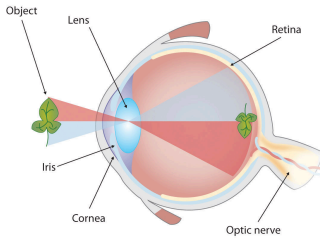
graph mean. In this graph, audience members can see very quickly that falls are the primary reason children receive concussions.



Representations

In the world of presentation aids, representations are designed to represent real processes or objects. Often, speakers want to visually demonstrate something that they cannot physically bring with them to the speech. Maybe you're giving a speech on the human brain, and you just don't have access to a cadaver's brain. Instead of bringing in a real brain, you could use a picture of a brain or an image that represents the human brain. In this section, we're going to explore four common representations: diagrams, maps, photographs, and video or recordings.

Diagrams



The Human Eye

Diagrams are drawings or sketches that outline and explain the parts of an object, process, or phenomenon that cannot be readily seen. When you use a diagram, be sure to explain each part of the phenomenon, paying special attention to elements that are

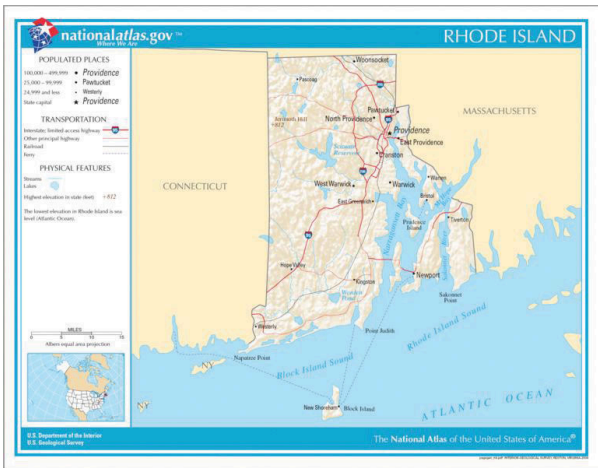
complicated or prone to misunderstanding. In the example shown, you might wish to highlight that the light stimulus is reversed when it is processed through the brain or that the optic nerve is not a single stalk as many people think.

Maps



Rhode Island Map – Map courtesy of the National Atlas of the United States.

African Map with Nigerian Emphasis



Maps are extremely useful if the information is clear and limited. There are all kinds of maps, including population, weather, ocean current, political, and economic maps, but you should be able to find

the right kind for the purpose of your speech. Choose a map that emphasizes the information you need to deliver.

The African Map with Nigerian Emphasis is simple, showing clearly the geographic location of Nigeria. This can be extremely valuable for some audiences who might not be able to name and locate countries on the continent of Africa. The Road Island map emphasizes the complicated configuration of islands and waterways that characterize this state's geography. Although the map does not list the names of the islands, it is helpful in orienting the audience to the direction and distance of the islands to other geographic features, such as the city of Providence and the Atlantic Ocean.

Photographs and Drawings



Iheartpandas – Wigwams – CC
BY-NC-ND 2.0

Sometimes a photograph or a drawing is the best way to show an unfamiliar but important detail. The first photograph is of a wigwam – a living dwelling used by Native Americans in the North East. In this photograph you can see the curved birchbark exterior, which makes this dwelling ideal for a



Ship's Rigging – public domain

variety of weather conditions. The photograph of the tall ship emphasizes the sheer amount and complexity of the ship's rigging.

Video or Audio Recordings

Another very useful type of presentation aid is a video or audio recording. Whether it is a short video from a website such as YouTube or Vimeo, a segment from a song, or a piece of a podcast, a well-chosen video or audio recording may be a good choice to enhance your speech.

Imagine, for example, that you're giving a speech on how "Lap-Band" surgeries help people lose weight. One of the sections of your speech could explain how the Lap-Band works, so you could easily show the following forty-three-second video to demonstrate the medical part of the surgery.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=165#oembed-1>

Or maybe you are talking about Medieval Folkrock Songs and want to

play a short clip for the audience so they have an idea of what the music sounds like.

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

1. Avoid choosing clips that are too long for the overall length of the speech. If you are giving a five-minute speech, then any audio or video clip you use should be thirty seconds or under in length.
2. Don't fail to practice with the audio or video equipment prior to speaking. If you are unfamiliar with the equipment, you'll look foolish trying to figure out how it works. This fiddling around will not only take your audience out of your speech but also have a negative impact on your credibility.
3. Don't fail to cue the clip to the appropriate place prior to beginning your speech. You will need to forward through any advertisements and/or previous parts of the video so that when you press play you begin exactly where you want your audience to start watching.

Objects or Models

Objects and models are other forms of presentation aid that can be very helpful in getting your audience to understand your message. Objects are anything you could hold up and talk about during your

speech. If you're talking about the importance of not using plastic water bottles, you might hold up a plastic water bottle and a stainless steel water bottle as examples. If you're talking about the percussion family of musical instruments and you own (and can play) several different percussion instruments, you can show your audience in person what they look like and how they sound.

Models are re-creations of physical objects that you cannot have readily available with you during a speech. If you're giving a speech on heart murmurs, you may be able to show how heart murmurs work by holding up a model of the human heart.

Animals

When giving a speech on a topic relating to animals, it is often tempting to bring an animal to serve as your presentation aid. While this can sometimes add a very engaging dimension to the speech, it carries some serious risks that you need to consider.

Unpredictable behavior: You may think this won't be a problem if your presentation aid animal is small enough to be kept confined throughout your speech—for example, a goldfish in a bowl or a lizard or bird in a cage. However, even caged animals can be very distracting to your audience if they run about, chirp, or exhibit other agitated behavior. The chances are great that an animal will react to the stress of an unfamiliar situation by displaying behavior that does not contribute positively to your speech.

Negative response: In addition to common fears and aversions to animals like snakes, spiders, and mice, many people have allergies to various animals.

Restrictions: Some locations may have regulations about bringing animals onto the premises. If animals are allowed, the person bringing the animal may be required to bring a veterinary certificate or may be legally responsible for any damage caused by the animal.

Before you decide to use an animal, ask yourself if you could make your point equally well with a picture, model, diagram, or other representation of the animal in question.

People

People can be helpful to demonstrate things such as dance or yoga moves or procedures such as first aid. A few considerations if you decide this is your best option:

1. You should arrange ahead of time for a person (or persons) to be an effective aid—do not assume that an audience member will volunteer on the spot. If you plan to demonstrate how to immobilize a broken bone, your volunteer must know ahead of time that you will touch him or her as much as necessary to splint their foot.
2. Discuss how they should dress. You want them to arrive dressed presentably and ensure they will not draw attention away from your message through their appearance or behavior.
3. The transaction between you and your human presentation aid must be appropriate, especially if you are going to demonstrate something like a dance step. Use your absolute best judgment about behavior, and make sure that your human presentation aid understands this dimension of the task.

Dry-Erase Board

Typically, these speakers use the chalk or dry-erase board for interactive components of a speech. For example, maybe you're giving a speech in front of a group of executives. You may have a PowerPoint all prepared, but at various points in your speech, you want to get your audience's responses. Chalk or dry-erase boards are very useful when you want to visually show information that you are receiving from your audience. If you use a dry-erase board, follow these three simple rules:

1. Write large enough so that everyone in the room can see.
2. Print legibly; don't write in cursive script.
3. Write short phrases; don't take time to write complete sentences.

Flipchart

A flipchart is useful when you're trying to convey change over a number of steps. For instance, you could use a prepared flipchart to show dramatic population shifts on maps. In such a case, you should prepare highly visible, identical maps on three of the pages so that only the data will change from page to page. Each page should be neatly titled, and you should actively point out the areas of change on each page. You could also use a flip chart to show stages in the growth and development of the malaria-bearing mosquito. Again, you should label each page, making an effort to give the pages a consistent look.

Organize your flip chart in such a way that you flip pages in one direction only, front to back. It will be difficult to flip large pages without damaging them, and if you also have to "back up" and "skip forward," your presentation will look awkward and disorganized. Pages will get damaged, and your audience will be able to hear each rip.

In addition, most flip charts need to be propped up on an easel of some sort. If you arrive for your speech only to find that the easel

in the classroom has disappeared, you will need to rig up another system that allows you to flip the pages.

Poster or Foam Board

Foam board consists of a thin sheet of Styrofoam with heavy paper bonded to both surfaces. It is a lightweight, inexpensive foundation for information, and it will stand on its own when placed in an easel without curling under the bottom edge. Poster board tends to be cheaper than foam board, but it is flimsier, more vulnerable to damage, and can't stand on its own.

If you plan to paste labels or paragraphs of text to foam or poster board, for a professional look you should make sure the color of the poster board matches the color of the paper you will paste on. You will also want to choose a color that allows for easy visual contrast so your audience can see it, and it must be a color that's appropriate for the topic. For instance, hot pink would be the wrong color on a poster for a speech about the Protestant Reformation.

Avoid producing a presentation aid that looks like you simply cut pictures out of magazines and pasted them on. Slapping some text and images on a board looks unprofessional and will not be viewed as credible or effective. Instead, when creating a poster you need to take the time to think about how you are going to lay out your aid and make it look professional. You do not have to spend lots of money to make a very sleek and professional-looking poster.

Some schools also have access to expensive, full-color poster printers where you can create a large poster for pasting on a foam board. In the real world of public speaking, most speakers rely on the creation of professional posters using a full-color poster printer. Typically, posters are sketched out and then designed on a computer using a program like Microsoft PowerPoint or Publisher (these both have the option of selecting the size of the printed area).

Handouts

Handouts are appropriate for delivering information that audience members can take away with them. However, they require a great deal of management if they are to contribute to your credibility as a speaker.

Considerations for handouts:

- Bring enough copies of the handout for each audience member to get one. Having to share or look on with one's neighbor does not contribute to a professional image. Under no circumstances should you ever provide a single copy of a handout to pass around. There are several reasons this is a bad idea. You will have no control over the speed at which it circulates or the direction it goes. Moreover, only one listener will be holding it while you're making your point about it and by the time most people see it, they will have forgotten why they need to see it. In some cases, it might not even reach everybody by the end of your speech. Finally, listeners could still be passing your handout around during the next speaker's speech.
- There are three possible times to distribute handouts: before you begin your speech, during the speech, and after your speech is over. Naturally, if you need your listeners to follow along with a handout, you will need to distribute it before your speech begins. If you have access to the room ahead of time, place a copy of the handout on each seat in the audience. If not, ask a volunteer to distribute them as quickly as possible while you prepare to begin speaking. If the handout is a "takeaway," leave it on a table near the door so that those audience members who are interested can take one on their way out; in this case, don't forget to tell them to do so as you conclude your speech. It is almost never appropriate to distribute handouts during your speech, as it is distracting and interrupts the pace of your presentation.

- Handouts should include only the necessary information to support your points, and that information should be organized in such a way that listeners will be able to understand it. For example, in a speech about how new health care legislation will affect small business owners in your state, a good handout might summarize key effects of the legislation and include the names of state agencies with their web addresses where audience members can request more detailed information.
- If your handout is designed for your audience to follow along, you should tell them so. State that you will be referring to specific information during the speech. Then, as you're presenting your speech, ask your audience to look, for example, at the second line in the first cluster of information. Read that line out loud and then go on to explain its meaning.
- Handouts are not a substitute for a well-prepared speech. Ask yourself what information your audience really needs to be able to take with them and how it can be presented on the page in the most useful and engaging way possible.

Pro Tips for Preparing and Using Presentation Aids

Text:

- Use text *only when you must*.
- Carefully limit the amount of text on a presentation aid – less is more. Other than direct quotes, you should only have keywords.
- Do not use “fancy” font. Keep it simple and readable.
- The type must be big, simple, and bold with white space around it to separate it from another graphic element or cluster of text that might be on the same presentation aid.
- When you display text, refer to it as you are speaking.
- Under no circumstances should you merely read what’s on your text aids and consider that a speech.

Graphics:

- Graphic elements in your presentation aids must be large enough to be seen by the entire audience.
- You should cite your source with an added caption.
- On a poster or a slide, a graphic element should take up about a third of the area. This leaves room for a small amount of text, rendered in a large, simple font. The textual elements should be located closest to the part of your graphic element they refer to.

Additional tips for Slides:

- Color is very important and can definitely make a strong impact on an audience. However, don’t go overboard or decide to use unappealing combinations of color. For example, you should never use a light font color (like yellow) on a solid white background because it’s hard for the eye to read.
- While colors may be rich and vibrant on your computer screen

at home, they may be distorted by a different monitor. Check your presentation out on multiple computers to see if the slide color is being distorted in a way that makes it hard to read.

- Avoid animation – this can be distracting unless it is relevant to the speech content.

In general:

- It is vital to practice with your presentation aids.
- Always have a back up plan. The show must go on. Decide in advance what you will do if your visual is not accessible or does not work the way you planned.
- You should always arrive at least fifteen minutes ahead of your scheduled speaking time to test the equipment. As the speaker, you are responsible for arranging the things you need to make your presentation aids work as intended. Good speakers carry a roll of duct tape so they can display your poster even if the easel is gone and always have a back up virtual presentation copy – just in case. The more sophisticated the equipment is, the more you should be prepared with an alternative, even in a “smart classroom.”
- What you choose should be easily seen and heard by your audience.
- You should be able to easily handle your presentation aid.

Key Takeaways

- Presentation aids must be organized and simple.
- Presentation aids are supposed to aid a speech, not become the speech itself.

- When presentation aids look unprofessional, they can decrease a speaker's credibility.
- Always practice with your presentation aids, and be prepared for unexpected problems.
- Each presentation aid vehicle has advantages and disadvantages. As such, speakers need to think through the use of visual aids and select the most appropriate ones for their individual speeches.
- Every presentation aid should be created with careful attention to content and appearance.

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PART IV

CHAPTER 5: INTRODUCTION TO PERSUASIVE SPEAKING

You have completed and delivered your first LIVE speech. How did that feel? Most students experience an overwhelmingly accomplished feeling when their speech is done. Quite literally, you have taken a “load-off” your plate. Brava. All of the skills and strategies you have learned thus far will continue to help you through this course. Don’t forget them! You are now moving into persuasive speeches. We will revisit the speech making process and add rhetorical elements that are important for persuasive strategies and delivery. You will continue to consider your audience by conducting an audience analysis and determining an appropriate speech topic based on your audience demographics, their interests, and their knowledge set. Additionally, we will explore how to use research to your advantage during each stage of speech preparation. Finally, we will examine topics that work well with persuasion. Let’s get started!

34. Reflection and Self-Evaluation

Learning Objectives

- Perform a self-evaluation of speech performance to determine speaking strengths and areas of improvement.

As adults, one of our biggest methods of learning is through experiences and mistakes. While just getting through the speech may feel like a huge win, we should not stop there if we wish to improve our speaking habits. We need to analyze what went well or as planned, what didn't, and what we can do differently so that the next time we speak in public we are even better than before.

Self-reflection enables you to understand what you did well and what you can improve. Self-reflection is something that we may do at a subconscious level. We may walk away from a speech thinking, "I rocked that!" or "That was terrible!" While neither of these extremes is likely true, we generally walk away with a sense of the experience and if it went well or not. However, purposeful self-reflection offers us the opportunity to analyze specific elements of our performance to provide us with more accurate information about our strengths and opportunities for improvement.



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One method of self-evaluation is using a SWOT analysis to examine strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats. Although this is typically used in a business setting, it can also be used to understand our personal strengths and opportunities for improvement. Specifically, it can help us to see how we approach our public speaking and helps us to see how we can improve our speech-making process to enhance our speaking skills.



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[Article Reference](#)

Watch the following video for a method of evaluating your nonverbal behaviors during your speech.



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from this version of the text. You can view them online here:
<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=59#oembed-2>

Key Takeaways

- Engaging in self-reflection is a powerful tool for learning and growth.
- A SWOT analysis can help us to determine our strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats.

35. Introduction to Persuasive Speaking

Learning Objectives

1. Define and explain persuasion.
2. Explain the three theories of persuasion discussed in the text: social judgment theory, cognitive dissonance theory, and the elaboration likelihood model.

People are bombarded by persuasive messages in today's world, so thinking about how to create persuasive messages effectively is very important for modern public speakers. A century (or even half a century) ago, public speakers had to contend only with the words printed on paper for attracting and holding an audience's attention. Today, public speakers must contend with laptops, netbooks, iPads, smartphones, billboards, television sets, and many other tools that can send a range of persuasive messages immediately to a target audience.

What Is Persuasion?

We made it to the part in the class that most students are excited about. The persuasive speech! There are similarities and important

differences between the informative and persuasive speaking styles. This reading will highlight our purpose of persuasive speaking.

To begin though, we need to define persuasion. You are used to experiencing persuasion in many forms, and may have an easy time identifying examples of persuasion, but can you explain how persuasion works? Osborn and Osborn define **persuasion** this way: “the art of convincing others to give favorable attention to our point of view.”¹ There are two components that make this definition a useful one. First, it acknowledges the artfulness, or skill, required to persuade others. Persuasion does not normally just happen. Rather it is planned and executed in a thoughtful manner. Second, this definition delineates the end goal of persuasion—to convince others to think favorably of our point of view. Persuasion “encompasses a wide range of communication activities, including advertising, marketing, sales, political campaigns, and interpersonal relations.”³ Because of its widespread utility, persuasion is a pervasive part of our everyday lives.

Persuasive versus Informative Speaking

Informative (or informational) and persuasive speaking are related, but distinct, types of speeches. The difference between the two lies in the speaker’s end goal and what the speaker wants the audience to leave with.

Informative speeches are probably the most prevalent variety of speech. The goal is always to supply information and facts to the

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audience. This information can come in the form of statistics, facts, or other forms of evidence. Informational speeches do not tell people what to do with the information; their goal is for the audience to have and understand the information. Academic lectures are often informational speeches because the professor is attempting to present facts so the students can understand them.

Like informational speeches, persuasive speeches use information. However, persuasive speeches are designed for the audience to not only hear and understand the information but to use it to be convinced of a viewpoint. The end goal of a persuasive speech is not for the audience to have information, but rather for them to have a certain view or do something specific with the information provided. Persuasive speeches may use some of the same techniques as informational speeches but also will use persuasive strategies to convince and motivate the audience. A sales pitch is one example of a persuasive speech.

Goals of Persuasive Speaking

We typically use persuasive speaking to change or reinforce someone's attitudes, values, beliefs, and/or behaviors.

Attitude: What do you like or dislike? Attitudes encompass our thoughts and emotions. For instance, if I think running is fun and I feel good when I do it, I am more likely to do it. Attitudes will uncover an individual's general predisposition toward something as being good or bad, right or wrong, or negative or positive.

Beliefs: What convictions (or assumptions) do you hold? Beliefs are ideas we hold to be true. They may be positions that an individual holds as true or false without positive knowledge or proof. Beliefs can be spiritual, moral, political, or social, just to name a few. You may believe that lying is bad and therefore you refrain from it or feel bad when you do it. While beliefs may not be based

on “proof,” they are typically deeply held and influence our attitudes and behaviors in powerful ways.

Value: What drives you? Values are an individual’s judgment of what is important in life. This may include the usefulness or with of something. You may value courage or respect or kindness. We can value a college education or technology or freedom. Values, as a general concept, are fairly ambiguous and tend to be very lofty ideas.

Behaviors: Behaviors, the ways in which someone acts, come in a wide range of forms. Speeches encouraging audiences to vote for a candidate, sign a petition opposing a tuition increase, or adopt a puppy are behavior-oriented persuasive speeches.

Ultimately, our attitudes, beliefs, and values motivate us to engage in a range of behaviors. For example, if you value technology, you are more likely to seek out new technology or software on your own. On the contrary, if you do not value technology, you are less likely to seek out new technology or software unless someone, or some circumstance, requires you to.

Why Persuasion Matters

When you study and understand persuasion, you will be more successful at persuading others. Do you want to persuade your boss you deserve a raise? Do you want to convince your client to purchase a service? Do you want to change the social landscape of a

community? If you want to be a persuasive public speaker, then you need to have a working understanding of how persuasion functions.

When people understand persuasion, they will be better consumers of information. We live in a society where numerous message sources are constantly fighting for our attention and many of those messages are purposeful false. Unfortunately, most people just let messages wash over them like a wave, making little effort to understand or analyze them. As a result, they are more likely to fall for half-truths, illogical arguments, and lies. When you start to understand persuasion, you will have the skill set to actually pick apart the messages being sent to you and see why some of them are good and others are simply not.

Psychology of Persuasion

Understanding how people are persuaded is very important to the discussion of public speaking. Thankfully, a number of researchers have created theories that help explain why people are persuaded. While there are numerous theories that help to explain persuasion, we are only going to examine three here: social judgment theory, cognitive dissonance theory, and the elaboration likelihood model.

Cognitive Dissonance Theory

Cognitive dissonance is an aversive motivational state that occurs when an individual entertains two or more contradictory attitudes,

values, beliefs, or behaviors simultaneously. For example, maybe you know you should be working on your speech, but you really want to go to a movie with a friend. In this case, practicing your speech and going to the movie are two cognitions that are inconsistent with one another. These cognitions may cause anxiety or discomfort. The goal of persuasion is to induce enough dissonance in listeners that they will want to change their attitudes, values, beliefs, or behaviors.



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here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=61#oembed-1>

Anxiety or discomfort caused by dissonance is typically resolved in one of three ways:

Change: The listener can change beliefs or behaviors to align with one another. The smoker may quit smoking or they may decide that smoking is not harmful and continue to smoke. Either way, they have relieved the anxiety of contradictory beliefs and behaviors.

Acquiring new information: If the listener acquires new information that confirms or contradicts a belief, the anxiety may be reduced. For instance, if the smoker reads a study that indicates that smoking is not harmful, they can continue to smoke and not feel disturbed by it.

Perception shift: Typically anxiety can be reduced by rationalizing our decisions. If the smoker decides that living in the moment and experiencing the pleasure of smoking is worth a potential far-off event, they may continue to smoke rationalizing that life is short and they should enjoy it.

When considering cognitive dissonance as a speaker, you must first create dissonance in your listeners. You want to make them uncomfortable with their beliefs or behaviors. Beware of making

them too uncomfortable though. Listeners will tune you out if you make them too anxious. Once you have created dissonance, you can then offer new information to change perceptions and encourage behaviors changes in the direction you are seeking.

Elaboration Likelihood Model

When I was in graduate school, my computer got attacked with the Michelangelo virus. In short, when I turned on my computer on Michelangelo's birthday, it wiped out everything on my computer. At least that's what they told me at the computer repair store. I had spent a month of my life researching and writing my persuasion paper and it was gone in an instant. In a moment of what can best be described as a graduate school freak out, I went to the store to buy a new computer. I looked at the salesperson and said, "Quick, show me which computer to buy." He pointed at one, I bought it, and went home and started writing.

Was I persuaded to buy a computer by the salesperson? I bought one so clearly, I was persuaded, right? Which persuasion technique did he use? Could this even count as an act of persuasion? Sometimes, we just want to decide without putting too much thought into it. You could argue that I didn't put any thought into it. I didn't have time to research; I didn't have the mental capacity to think about which computer was best for me. I trusted the decision to the person in the computer store—he was the one in the red shirt after all. He worked there so he must know about computers.

The next time I bought a computer, I wasn't in such a stressful situation. I took my time and shopped around. I talked to multiple salespeople, and I read reviews. I even made a spreadsheet of the features and the prices. I put a lot of thought into picking the right computer. Was I any more or less persuaded to buy? After all, in both cases, I bought a computer.

Petty and Cacioppo developed the Elaboration Likelihood Model

as a way to explain how persuasion works in different scenarios—particularly, how sometimes we think a lot about our decisions and how sometimes we look for other ways to be persuaded. They said we go on different persuasion routes. When we are thinking (cognitive elaboration) about our decision, they would say, we are taking the central route. We take this thinking route when there is personal involvement and personal relevance. When we are not thinking—because of the situation, our mood, our inability to understand, or the fact that it is not a big decision for us— they would say we are taking the peripheral route. The peripheral route can be thought of as deciding based on anything other than deep thought. In my case, my decision was made based on the authority of the person.

Which of the computers do you think I would likely suggest to a friend—the one bought fast because it was recommended or the one bought after much research? Which computer did I think was the best computer? If you guessed the one that I shopped around for, you would be right. That is the computer I would most likely believe was the best one and that is the one I would most likely recommend to a friend. It makes sense. When we think about our decisions, persuasion is more long-lasting, we are more committed to the decision, and we are more likely to tell others.

What does any of this have to do with you writing a persuasion speech? Knowing that people are persuaded differently can help you design your persuasive arguments. Deciding whether you are going for thoughtful or peripheral persuasion is key.

I used to work for a non-profit and did a lot of fundraising speeches. If I wanted people to be persuaded to give money and have a long-term emotional and financial commitment to the organization, it made sense to persuade them via the central (thinking) route. That meant, I had to tell them what we did and give them facts and details about our organization. I had to build trust and I had to help them believe in the cause.

By contrast, my son was in marching band so there was always a fundraiser where we sold overpriced candy to our friends to

support his upcoming trip. The persuasion I used was usually some version of, “My son is selling candy bars for his upcoming band trip, would you help support him.” There was not a lot of thinking when people were buying these candy bars. They were buying because they liked my son, they knew me, or because I bought cookies from their daughter for her fundraiser. This was peripheral persuasion one candy bar at a time.

Elaboration Likelihood Model–What’s the Big Idea?



- If you want your persuasion to be long-lasting, persuade them via the central route. Offer facts, data, and solid information

- If you want a quick persuasion where they don't put much thought into it or if your audience is not very knowledgeable, tired, or unmotivated, persuade them by the peripheral route.

Social Judgment Theory

I have a colleague that travels around the country speaking on college campuses and at farmer's markets telling people why they should not eat meat. He finds the eating of meat completely unethical.

I've noticed that when it comes to meat-eating, people have strong opinions on either side. Think about it, would you eat a horse? dog? goat? rabbit? Some of you have grown up eating meat all your lives and consider it a tasty and healthy way to eat. For others of you, the very thought of eating any animal product seems cruel. Most reading this will fall somewhere in between. Look at the chart below and decide, which of the category best describes you.

Eats all meat—horse, goat, dog, lamb, beef, pork, chicken, rabbit, fish	Carnivore <i>Technically Omnivore unless you only eat meat.</i>
Eats many types of meat—goat, lamb, beef, pork, chicken, rabbit, fish	
Eats many types of meat—deer, beef, pork, chicken, fish	
Eats domestic meat— beef, pork, chicken, fish	
Eats some meat—chicken, fish	Flexitarian
Eats fish, eggs, and dairy	Pescatarian
Eats eggs	Ovo-vegetarians
Eats no meat or eggs but consume dairy	Lacto-vegetarian
Eats no meat or eggs but consume honey	Beegan
Eats no animal products at all	Vegan

As you looked at the list there were some categories you found acceptable, and some you did not. In all honesty, most of you did not think that I was going to suggest eating dogs and horses. When you saw that on the list, most of you didn't think of those as tasty options. Social Judgement Theory proposed by Sherif, Sherif, and Nebergall suggests that on any topic from diet to abortion and gun control to movie choices, we have an idea of what we like and are willing to accept and what is out of the question. The researchers studied human judgment to understand when persuasive messages are likely to succeed, and it comes down to how we fit into the ranges and how closely that message is to what we already believe. Each of us has a favorite position on any given topic, they call that the anchor position. As you looked on the chart and picked the category that best describes you, you found your anchor position. On the list, you likely found several categories that you would be willing to accept and maybe several categories you reject entirely.

Let's go back to a colleague of mine, remember, the one who speaks on campuses about veganism. When he looks at this chart, the only position he is willing to accept is to eat no animal products

at all. The researchers would say that he is ego-involved because he has a large group of ideas he rejects. How hard would it be to get him to try eating a dog? a goat? an egg? As you can imagine, if I suggest that he tries eating goat, he will think that position is too extreme and that as individuals we are far apart in what we believe. On the other hand, I might be able to nudge him up the continuum a little. Maybe, I could convince him to try honey. After all, no bees were harmed from making honey and it does not contain any meat. People with extreme views can be moved, but only in small increments. If I want the persuasion to work, I might be able to persuade him to try honey.

Now, think of a friend you might know who hunts, and fishes, and eats deer, rabbit, and squirrel. This friend of yours likes trying different types of jerky-like elk and moose. How hard would it be to convince him to try eating a dog? How about a goat? Since your friend has a large range of ideas he already accepts, adding one more animal to the list of things he eats might not be that hard. He would be much more likely to try a dog than would my vegan friend. It doesn't matter how good we are at persuading as much as how close that persuasion is to what they already believe.

In any audience, you will have people all up and down the spectrum of beliefs. It is your responsibility to try to find out as much as you can about your audience before your speech, so you will know generally where they are. You will have more luck persuading people if you try to move them a little as opposed to move them a lot. Every semester, a vegan group comes to the University of Arkansas campus and passes out flyers promoting a vegan lifestyle. I've noticed their messages have slowly changed from meat is murder and you should never eat meat because production is hard on the environment to a more palatable message to try eliminating meat one day a week. Maybe these vegans learned about Social Judgement Theory or maybe they learned by trial and error that moving someone from one extreme to the next is an unlikely feat.

Alexander Edwards Coppock did his dissertation looking at small changes in political opinions, he found the following:

1. When confronted with persuasive messages, individuals update their views in the direction of information. This means, if you give them good information, they are likely to be persuaded by it.
2. People change their minds about political issues in small increments. Like mentioned before, they are more likely to move in small increments.
3. Persuasion in the direction of information occurs regardless of background characteristics, initial beliefs, or ideological position. Translation, good information can be very persuasive regardless of what they believed before.
4. These changes in political attitudes, in most cases, lasted at least 10 days. In other words, good facts help people to change their attitudes and that information can stick.

In summary, if you provide people information and attempt to persuade them in small increments regardless of their prior beliefs, they can change their political attitude and that change will stick.

Social Judgement Theory—What's the Big Idea?



- People have preexisting beliefs on topics. Some people have many variations they are willing to accept, and other people are very set in their ways and will only tolerate a narrow set of beliefs.
- It is nearly impossible to get people to move from one extreme to the next. It is better to get them to move their position a little.
- If you try to move people with narrow views, they will likely reject your ideas and think you are too extreme.
- People who have a wide variance of beliefs are more open-minded to change as long as you don't try to move them too far from their anchor position.

Small acts of persuasion matter, because there is much less distance between people's beliefs than we often suppose. We easily confuse the distance between people's political positions with the intensity of their convictions about them. It is entirely possible for people to become sharply divided, even hostile, over relatively minor disagreements. Americans have fought epic political battles over things like baking wedding cakes and kneeling during the national anthem. And we once fought a shooting war over a whiskey tax of ten cents per gallon. The ferocity of these battles has nothing to do with the actual distance between different positions, which, when compared to the entire range of opinions possible in the world, is almost negligible.

None of this means that we can persuade our opponents easily. Persuading people to change their minds is excruciatingly difficult. It doesn't always work, and it rarely works the way we think it will. But it does work, and the fact that it works makes it possible for us to have a democracy.
— Michael Austin, *We Must Not Be Enemies: Restoring America's Civic*

Is it personal?

The first reason people are motivated to take the central route or use high elaboration when listening to a persuasive message involves personal relevance and involvement. Personal relevance

refers to whether the audience member feels that he or she is actually directly affected by the speech topic. For example, if someone is listening to a speech on why cigarette smoking is harmful, and that listener has never smoked cigarettes, he or she may think the speech topic simply isn't relevant. Obviously, as a speaker, you should always think about how your topic is relevant to your listeners and make sure to drive this home throughout your speech. Personal involvement, on the other hand, asks whether the individual is actively engaged with the issue at hand: sends letters of support, gives speeches on the topic, has a bumper sticker, and so forth. If an audience member is an advocate who is constantly denouncing tobacco companies for the harm they do to society, then he or she would be highly involved (i.e., would engage in high elaboration) in a speech that attempts to persuade listeners that smoking is harmful.

Am I accountable?

The second condition under which people are likely to process information using the central route is when they feel that they will be held accountable for the information after the fact. With accountability, there is the perception that someone, or a group of people, will be watching to see if the receiver remembers the information later on. Think about what you do as a student when an instructor says "This will be on the test." You immediately begin to centrally process the message.

Personal Responsibility

When people feel that they are going to be held responsible, without a clear external accounting, for the evaluation of a message or the outcome of a message, they are more likely to critically think through the message using the central route. For example, maybe you're asked to evaluate fellow students in your public speaking class. Research has shown that if only one or two students are asked

to evaluate any one speaker at a time, the quality of the evaluations for that speaker will be better than if everyone in the class is asked to evaluate every speaker. When people feel that their evaluation is important, they take more responsibility and therefore are more critical of the message delivered.

Incongruent Information

Some people are motivated to centrally process information when it does not adhere to their own ideas. Maybe you're a highly progressive liberal, and one of your peers delivers a speech on the importance of the Tea Party movement in American politics. The information presented during the speech will most likely be in direct contrast to your personal ideology, which causes incongruence because the Tea Party ideology is opposed to a progressive liberal ideology. As such, you are more likely to pay attention to the speech, specifically looking for flaws in the speaker's argument.

While there are many theories of persuasion that can shed light on why people are persuaded, these two give us a solid foundation to understand what we are up against as speakers. We must understand where our audience is, where we want them to be, and what will motivate them to get there.

Key Takeaways

- Persuasion is the use of verbal and nonverbal messages to get a person to behave in a manner or embrace a point of view related to values, attitudes, and beliefs that he or she would not have done otherwise. Studying persuasion is important today because it helps us become more persuasive individuals, become more observant of others'

persuasive attempts, and have a more complete understanding of the world around us.

- The Elaboration Likelihood Model assumes that people are persuaded via a thinking (central) or nonthinking (peripheral) route.
- Social judgment theory says that persuaders need to be aware of an audience's latitudes of acceptance, noncommitment, and rejection in order to effectively persuade an audience. Second, cognitive dissonance theory reasons that people do not like holding to ideas in their heads that are contrary and will do what is necessary to get rid of the dissonance caused by the two contrary ideas. Lastly, the elaboration likelihood model posits that persuaders should attempt to get receivers to think about the arguments being made (going through the central route) rather than having receivers pay attention to nonargument related aspects of the speech.

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36. Audience Analysis and Persuasion

Learning Objectives

- Use audience analysis to determine effective speech strategies.
- Determine data gathering methods for audience analysis.
- Adapt speech approach to audience needs.
- Avoid ethnocentrism when organizing speech material and presenting a speech.

When choosing a topic for your persuasive speech, it is crucial to consider the composition of your audience. Because persuasive speeches are intended to influence or reinforce an audience's thoughts or behaviors, speakers must consider what and how the audience thinks, feels, and does. Your audience might be ambivalent about your topic, or they may be strongly opposed, in strong agreement, or somewhere along the spectrum. In persuasive speeches, it matters where they fall on this continuum. We have discussed audience analysis in previous chapters. In this section, we will dive deeper into audience analysis and how to use audience analysis to increase your chances of persuasion.

Types of Audiences



[“Photo Essay”](#) by United States Armed Force. Public domain

Receptive Audiences

You may find yourself in situations that allow you to appeal to a **receptive audience** that already knows something about your topic and is generally supportive of, or open

to, the point you are trying to make. For example, parents are generally interested in keeping their children safe. If you seek to persuade them that they should work with their kids to prevent them from being taken advantage of on social networking sites, they are likely to welcome what you have to say. Although they are already convinced that it is important to keep their children safe, this audience may not yet be persuaded that they have the need or ability to keep their kids safe in an online environment.

Strategies

- **Identification:** You can foster a sense of connection with them by highlighting things you have in common. If you are a parent you might say something like, “I have two children and one of my biggest concerns is making sure they are safe.” If you are not a parent you might say, “one of the things I appreciate most about my parents is that I know they are always trying to keep me safe.” With these statements, you not only relate to the audience but also demonstrate that you share a common concern.
- **Clear purpose:** Offer a statement of purpose and tell the

audience what you would like them to do in response to your message. If the audience is already likely to agree with your point, they will be looking for ways to act on it. Offer practical steps that they can take. Even if the steps must be carried out later (i.e. the parents in our example may have to wait to get home and start talking with their child about social networking habits), give them a way to respond to the message immediately and show their support. In this case you may have them write down the first thing they will say to their child, or practice saying it to the person next to them. Having them act on your message before leaving reinforces their already favorable response to what you are asking.¹

Neutral Audiences

Most of the groups that a persuasive speaker addresses are **neutral audiences**. These audiences are not passionate about the topic or speaker, often because they do not have enough information or because they are not aware that they should be concerned. Beebe & Beebe explain that the challenge in addressing a neutral audience is to foster their interest in your proposition.³ They offer a few tips for cultivating interest in a neutral audience.

Strategies

Relate to them: Begin by relating your topic to the audience. You

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2. [1]

3. ⁴

4. [2]

can offer a story or statistic that relates the topic directly to the dominant demographic in the audience. If you are trying to convince first-year college students to avoid credit card solicitors on campus you might start with something like, “I know those t-shirts the credit card vendors are handing out are stylish and, best of all, free! But that t-shirt could cost you thousands of dollars before you even graduate.” Rather than beginning with a diatribe on the evils of debt, which many of them may not yet have experienced, you relate to their desire for a free t-shirt and a common belief they are likely to share, that “free” should not translate to “expensive.”

Relate to someone they care about: If you cannot relate the topic directly to the audience, another approach is to relate the topic to someone they care about, like a family member or friend. Keep in mind that, while the receptive audience may be eager to respond immediately, the neutral audience may simply be more concerned about the topic or more inclined to consider the behavior change you are advocating.⁵ In this case, consider offering resources for more information, or a few minor steps they can take when they are ready.

Hostile Audiences

Unfortunately, some audiences may be resistant or even hostile to your persuasive speech. A **hostile audience** may take issue with your topic or with you as a speaker. In this case, your primary goal is to persuade the audience to listen to what you have to say.⁷ Once

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8. [4]

they are willing to listen, then you will have the ability to change their minds in the future.

Strategies

Build ethos: Latter, we will address ways that you can foster a better relationship with the audience by building your ethos. Just know that if your audience likes and respects you, they are more likely to be persuaded.



When your audience does not agree with you, you will need to employ additional strategies - [CC](#)

Be patient: If the audience is not likely to agree with your proposition, wait until later in the speech to offer it. Opening with a clear statement of purpose, which a receptive audience welcomes, will make an unreceptive audience more hostile to your goals. For example, if you begin by telling business owners that you think they should pay workers more, they are likely to think of all the reasons that will threaten their livelihood rather than listening to your message.

Common ground: Begin by highlighting issues on which you agree. You might open with a discussion of the challenges businesses face in attempting to retain quality workers and increase productivity. Once you have identified areas of agreement, you can offer your proposition as a way of addressing your shared goals.

Validate: Acknowledge opposing arguments and audience reservations and demonstrate that you have given them ample consideration. Showing that you understand and respect their opposing position is the most important step toward encouraging a hostile audience to at least hear you out.

Cite: Cite credible evidence that supports your proposition in light of those reservations.

Collecting Audience Information

In chapter 1 – Audience Analysis – we discussed the types of audience analysis: demographical, psychological, and situational. Now we will discuss how to collect information for your audience analysis.

Direct Observation

Audience analysis by direct observation is a form of qualitative data gathering. We perceive information through one or more of our five natural senses—hearing, seeing, touching, tasting, and smelling. All you really need to do for this method of observation is to examine your audience. If you are lucky enough to be able to do this before speaking to your audience, you will be able to gather some basic reflective data (How old are they? What racial mix does this audience have? Does their non-verbal behavior indicate that they are excited to hear this speech?) that will help you arrange your thoughts and arguments for your speech.¹

One excellent way to become informed about your audience is to ask them about themselves. In its most basic form, this is data collection. Whenever possible, have conversations with them—interact with members of your audience—get to know them on a personal level (Where did you go to school?



[“MobileHCI 2008 Audience”](#) by Nhenze. [CC-BY-SA](#).

Do you have siblings/pets? What kind of car do you drive?) Through these types of conversations, you will be able to get to know and appreciate each audience member as both a human being and an audience member. You will come to understand what interests them, convinces them, or even makes them laugh. You might arouse interest and curiosity in your topic while you also gain valuable data.

Clearly this cannot be done in every speaking situation, however. Often, we are required to give an **unacquainted-audience presentation**. Unacquainted-audience presentations are speeches when you are completely unfamiliar with the audience and its

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2. [7]

demographics. In these cases, it is always best to try and find some time to sit down and talk with someone you trust (or even several people) who might be familiar with the given audience. These conversations can be very constructive in helping you understand the context in which you will be speaking.

Not understanding the basic demographic characteristics of an audience, or further, that audience's beliefs, values, or attitudes about a given topic makes your presentation goals haphazard, at best. Look around the room at the people who will be listening to your speech. What types of gender, age, ethnicity, and educational-level characteristics are represented? What are their expectations for your presentation? This is all-important information you should know before you begin your research and drafting your outline. Who is it that I am going to be talking to?

Inference

Audience analysis by inference is merely a logical extension of your observations drawn in the method above. It is a form of critical thinking known as inductive reasoning, and another form of qualitative data gathering. An inference is when you make a reasoned tentative conclusion or logical judgment on the basis of available evidence. It is best used when you can identify patterns in your evidence that indicate something is expected to happen again or should hold true based upon previous experiences. A good speaker knows how to interpret information and draw conclusions from that information. As individuals, we make inferences—or reasonable assumptions—all the time. For example, when we hear someone speaking Arabic, we infer that they are from the Middle East. When we see this person carrying a copy of The Koran, we infer that they are also a follower of the Muslim faith. These are reasoned conclusions that we make based upon the evidence available to us and our general knowledge about people and their traits. When we reason, we make connections, distinctions, and predictions; we use what is known or familiar to us to reach a conclusion about something that is unknown or unfamiliar for it to make sense. Granted, of course, inferences are sometimes wrong. Here's a familiar example: You reach into a jar full of jelly beans, and they turn out to be all black. You love black jelly beans. You reach back into the jar and take another hand full, which turns out to be, again, all black. Since you can't see the jelly beans inside the jar you make an assumption based on empirical evidence (two handfuls of jelly beans) that all of the jelly beans are black. You reach into the jar a third time and take a hand full of jelly beans out, but this time they aren't any black jelly beans, but white, pink, and yellow. Your conclusion that all of the jelly beans were black turned out to be fallacious.

Surveys

There are a great number of survey methods available to the speaker. However, we will cover three primary types in this section because they are utilized the most. The first type of survey method you should know about is the basic questionnaire, which is a series of questions advanced to produce demographic and attitudinal data from your audience.

Clearly, audience members should not be required to identify themselves by name on the basic questionnaire. Anonymous questionnaires are more likely to produce truthful information. Remember, all you are looking for is a general read of your audience; you should not be looking for specific information about any respondent concerning your questionnaire in particular. It is a bulk sampling tool, only.

While you can easily gather basic demographic data (examples of demographic questions are shown in the chart following this section), we need to adjust our questions a bit more tightly or ask more focused questions, in order to understand the audience's "predispositions" to think or act in certain ways. For example, you can put an attitudinal extension on the basic questionnaire.

These questions probe more deeply into the psyche of your audience members and will help you see where they stand on certain issues. Of course, you may need to tighten these questions to get to the heart of your specific topic. But, once you do, you'll



["Man With a Clipboard"](#) by Elizabeth M. [CC-BY](#).

have a wealth of data at your disposal that, ultimately, will tell you how to work with your target audience.

Ordered Categories

Another method of finding out your audience's value set is to survey them according to their value hierarchy. A value hierarchy is a person's value structure placed in relationship to a given value set.¹ The way to determine a person's value hierarchy is to use the ordered categories sampling method. Here, each audience member is given a list of values on a piece of paper, and each audience member writes these values on another piece of paper in order according to their importance to him/her. Each response is different, of course, because each audience member is different, but when analyzed by the speaker, common themes will present themselves in the overall data. Accordingly, the speaker can then identify with those common value themes.

Likert type survey

The final method of asserting your audience's attitudes deals with Likert-type testing. Likert-type testing is when you make a statement, and ask the respondent to gauge the depth of their sentiments toward that statement either positively, negatively, or neutrally. Typically, each scale will have 5 weighted response categories, being +2, +1, 0, -1, and -2. What the Likert-type test does, that other tests do not do, is measure the extent to which attitudes

1.²

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are held. See how the Likert-type test does this in the example on “unsolicited email” in Figure 5.1.

A small Likert-type test will tell you where your audience, generally speaking, stands on issues. As well, it will inform you as to the degree of the audience’s beliefs on these issues. The Likert-type test should be used when attempting to assess a highly charged or polarizing issue, because it will tell you, in rough numbers, whether or not your audience agrees or disagrees with your topic.

No matter what kind of data sampling you choose, you need to allow time to collect the information and then analyze it. For example, if you create a survey of five questions, and you have your audience of 20 people complete the survey, you will need to deal with 100 survey forms. At high levels such as political polling, the audience members quickly click on their answers on a webpage or on a hand-held “clicker,” and the specific survey software instantly collects and collates the information for researchers. If you are in a small community group or college class, it is more likely that you will be doing your survey “the old-fashioned way”—so you will need some time to mark each individual response on a “master sheet” and then average or summarize the results in an effective way to use in your speech-writing and speech-giving.

Below are examples of possible survey questions.

Figure 5.1: Examples of Survey Questions

Demographic Questions

1. Academic level in college
 1. freshman
 2. sophomore
 3. junior
 4. senior
2. Marital status
 1. single
 2. married
 3. divorced
 4. widowed
3. Age
 1. less than 18 years old
 2. 18–30 years old
 3. 31–45 years old
 4. over 46 years of age

Value Ordered Questions

Place the following list of values in order of importance, from most important (1) to least important (5).

Freedom
Liberty
Justice
Democracy
Safety

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____

Attitudinal Questions

1. I regard myself as
 1. conservative
 2. liberal
 3. socialist
 4. independent
2. I believe that abortion
 1. should be illegal
 2. should remain legal
 3. should be legal only in cases of rape
 4. not sure
3. I think that prayer should be permitted in public schools
 1. yes
 2. no
 3. undecided

Likert-Type Questions

Indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each question.

1. Unsolicited email should be illegal.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree
2. Making unsolicited email illegal would be fundamentally unfair to businesses.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree
3. I usually delete unsolicited email before even opening it.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Disagree

Adapting to Your Audience

The first thing a good audience analysis can do is help you focus your content on your specific audience. Even in an audience that appears to be *homogeneous*—composed of people who are very similar to one another—different listeners will understand the same ideas in different ways. Every member of every audience has their own frame of reference – the unique set of perspectives, experience, knowledge, and values belonging to every individual.

Meanings Are in People, Not Words

Part of the dialogic process in public speaking is realizing that you and your audience may differ in how you see your speech. Hellmut Geissner and Edith Slembeck (1986) discussed Geissner's idea of responsibility or the notion that the meanings of words must be mutually agreed upon by people interacting with each other (Geissner & Slembeck, 1986). If you say the word “dog” and think of a soft, furry pet and your audience member thinks of the animal that attacked him as a child, the two of you perceive the word from very different vantage points. As speakers, we must do our best to craft messages that take our audience into account and use audience feedback to determine whether the meaning we intend is the one that is received. To be successful at conveying our desired meaning, we must know quite a bit about our audience so we can make language choices that will be the most appropriate for the context. Although we cannot predict how all our audience members

will interpret specific words, we do know that—for example—using teenage slang when speaking to the audience at a senior center would most likely hurt our ability to convey our meaning clearly.

Clarity

Nothing is more lamentable than a rhetorical actor who endeavors to make grandiose the impressions of others through the utilization of an elephantine albeit nonsensical argot—or nothing is worse than a speaker who tries to impress the audience with a giant vocabulary that no one understands. In the first portion of the preceding sentence, we pulled out as many polysyllabic words as we could find. Unfortunately, most people will just find the sentence wordy and the meaning will pass right over their heads. As such, we as public speakers must ensure that we are clear in what we say.

Make sure that you state your topic clearly at the outset, using words that your audience will understand. Letting them know what to expect from your speech shows consideration for them as listeners and lets them know that you value their time and attention.

Throughout your speech, define your terms clearly and carefully in order to avoid misleading or alarming people by mistake. Be careful not to use jargon or “insider” language that will exclude listeners who aren’t “in the know.” If you approach audience analysis in haste, you might find yourself presenting a speech with no clear message. You might avoid making any statements outright from fear of offending. It is much better to know to whom you’re speaking and to present a clear, decisive message that lets listeners know what you think.

Communication Styles

While you are trying to balance these language, cognition, culture, and value issues, you should also recognize that some cultures prefer a more animated delivery style than do others. The intelligent speaker will understand this, and adapt his or her verbal and nonverbal delivery accordingly.

Multicultural Analysis

In our increasingly diverse society, it is worthy to pay particular attention to the issue of speaking to a multicultural audience. Odds are that any real world audience that you encounter will have an underlying multicultural dimension. As a speaker, you need to recognize that the perspective you have on any given topic may not necessarily be shared by all of the members of your audience.³ Therefore, it is imperative that you become a culturally effective speaker. Culturally effective speakers develop the capacity to appreciate other cultures and acquire the necessary skills to speak effectively to people with diverse ethnic backgrounds. Keep these factors in mind when writing a speech for a diverse audience.

Language

Many people speak different languages, so if you are translating words, do not use slang or jargon, which can be confusing. You could add a visual aid (a poster, a picture, a PowerPoint slide or two)

3.⁴

4. [8]

that would show your audience what you mean – which instantly translates into the audience member’s mind.⁵

Cognition

Realize that different cultures have different cultural-cognitive processes or ways of looking at the very concept of logic itself. Accordingly, gauge your audience as to their diverse ways of thinking and be sensitive to these differing logics.



[“Audience Applause at MIT meeting in Beijing”](#) by Philip McMaster. [CC-BY-NC](#).

Ethnocentricity

Remember that in many cases you will be appealing to people from other cultures. Do not assume that your culture is dominant or better than other cultures. That assumption is called ethnocentrism, and ethnocentric viewpoints have the tendency to drive a wedge between you and your audience.⁷

Values

Not only do individuals have value systems of their own, but

5. ⁶

6. [9]

7. ⁸

8. [10]

societies promote value systems, as well. Keep in mind the fact that you will be appealing to value hierarchies that are socially-laden, as well as those that are individually-borne.

Example

Consider how you would adjust your speech content for each of the audiences below.

A student is delivering an *informative speech* and their topic is: *Early Childhood Health Care*

Audience #1: A group of couples who have each recently had a new baby and who live in an affluent suburb.

Demographics: There will be young adults with high socioeconomic status.

Attitudes, beliefs, and values: They will be eager to know about the very best available health care for their children, whether they are healthy or have various medical problems.

Knowledge level: They will already know quite a lot about the topic, so you will want to find an aspect that may be new for them.

Audience #2: Couples and single parents who live in lower income housing.

Demographics: There will be working parents in their 20-40s with low socioeconomic status.

Attitudes, beliefs, and values: They will be eager to know about the very best available cost effective health care for their children, what various medical problems may be a concern, and where to find resources.

Knowledge level: They likely do not know a lot about the topic – that is why they are here.

Avoid Offending Your Audience

It might seem obvious that speakers should use audience analysis to avoid making offensive remarks, but even very experienced speakers sometimes forget this basic rule. If you were an Anglo-American elected official addressing a Latino audience, would you make a joke about a Mexican American person's name sounding similar to the name of a popular brand of tequila? In fact, a state governor did just that in June 2011. Not surprisingly, news organizations covering the event reported that the joke fell flat (Shahid, 2011). People are members of groups they didn't choose and can't change. We didn't choose our race, ethnicity, sex, age, sexual orientation, intellectual potential, or appearance. We already know

that jokes aimed at people because of their membership in these groups are not just politically incorrect but also ethically wrong.

It is not only insensitive humor that can offend an audience. Speakers also need to be aware of language and nonverbal behaviors that state or imply a negative message about people based on their various membership groups. Examples include language that suggests that all scientists are men, that all relationships are heterosexual, or that all ethnic minorities are unpatriotic. By the same token, we should avoid embedding assumptions about people in our messages. Even the most subtle suggestion may not go unnoticed. For example, if, in your speech, you assume that elderly people are frail and expensively medicated, you may offend people whose elder loved ones do not conform in any way to your assumptions.

Scholars Samovar and McDaniel tell us that ethical language choices require four guidelines:

1. Be accurate; present the facts accurately.
2. Be aware of the emotional impact; make sure that you don't manipulate feelings.
3. Avoid hateful words; refrain from language that disparages or belittles people.
4. Be sensitive to the audience; know how audience members prefer to be identified (e.g., Native American instead of Indian, women instead of girls, African American instead of black, disabled instead of crippled) (Samovar & McDaniel, 2007).

If you alienate your audience, they will stop listening. They will refuse to accept your message, no matter how true or important it is. They might even become hostile. If you fail to recognize the complexity of your audience members and if you treat them as stereotypes, they will resent your assumptions and doubt your credibility.

There are many aspects of diversity that are not visually obvious, so your audience is often more diverse than you might initially

think. Suppose you are going to give a talk on pool safety to residents of a very affluent suburban community—will all your audience members be wealthy? No. There might be some who are unemployed, some who are behind on their mortgage payments, some who live in rented rooms, not to mention some who work as babysitters or housekeepers. Furthermore, if your listeners have some characteristics in common, it doesn't mean that they all think alike. For instance, if your audience consists of people who are members of military families, don't assume that they all have identical beliefs about national security. If there are many business students in your audience, don't assume they all agree about the relative importance of ethics and profits. Instead, recognize that a range of opinions exists.

This is where the *frame of reference* we mentioned earlier becomes an important concept. People have a wide variety of reasons for making the choices they make and for doing the things they do. For instance, a business student, while knowing that profitability is important, might have a strong interest in green lifestyles, low energy use, and alternative energy sources, areas of economic development that might require a great deal of investment before profits are realized. In fact, some business students may want to be involved in a paradigm shift away from “business as usual.”

These examples illustrate how important it is to use audience analysis to avoid *stereotyping*—taking for granted that people with a certain characteristic in common have the same likes, dislikes, values, and beliefs. All members of our audiences deserve to have the same sensitivity and the same respect extended to them as unique individuals. Respecting diversity is not merely a responsibility within public speaking; it should be a responsibility we strive to embrace in all our human interactions.

See the below table to guidelines to consider while using audience analysis to adjust speech content.

Table 5.1: Tailoring a Speech to Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Do's and Don'ts
Ethnicity	Don't try to use words or phrases to "cuddle up" to one race or another. You would lose some credibility if you made a point in your speech and then said, "So get jiggy with it" or "You could enjoy that with your afternoon tea ceremony." ⁹
Age	Stay away from jargon from one age range or another, like "OMG" or "the cat's pajamas" ¹⁰
Sex/Gender	Use words that are not sex/gender-specific. Instead of policeman, fireman, and stewardess, use police officer, firefighter, and flight attendant. Do not use one sex/gender pronouns, like assuming a teacher is a "she" and a dentist is a "he." ¹¹
Income	Some people in your audience will have more money than others. So if you keep fit by maintaining membership in a prominent gym and you take classes there also, don't assume everyone else can afford to do so. You can tell your audience what you do, but give them options like parking far from the store and working out with a yoga or pilates CD at home.
Occupation	Unless you are speaking at a convention where everyone in your audience works in the same field, make your speech more explanatory. Your audience has not had extensive training in medical terms nor legal terms. So you need to explain what you are talking about, without using the big words which would make your audience feel confused, stupid, and put down.
Religion	Realize that your audience will likely have a wide variety of religions represented, and some people may have no religious or spiritual beliefs. So you can say that you read the Bible every night for 10 minutes, but that you are suggesting that everyone choose a religious or inspirational reading for presleep relaxation. ¹²

9.¹³
10.¹⁴
11.¹⁵
12.¹⁶
13. [2]

Table 5.1: Tailoring a Speech to Demographic Characteristics

**Demographic
Characteristics Do's and Don'ts**

**Education
Level**

Even if you are speaking to an audience of college freshmen, not everyone has had the same educational experiences. For example, some of the people in your class may have completed a high school equivalency program like the GED, some may be high school students who are taking a college class, some may have gone to secondary school in another country, some may have been homeschooled, and some may have gone to a private honors-based prep school. You need to be careful not to talk down to your audience and not to use fancy sentences and words to try to impress your audience. Gauging the right level of communication for your speech is an important challenge.

- 14. [3]
- 15. [4]
- 16. [5]

Key Takeaways

- Different types of audiences will respond differently to messages.
- Gathering information about our audience through several methods will provide the information needed for decision making throughout the speech making process.
- Once we have gathered information about our audience, we must adapt our message and approach to reach the audience effectively.

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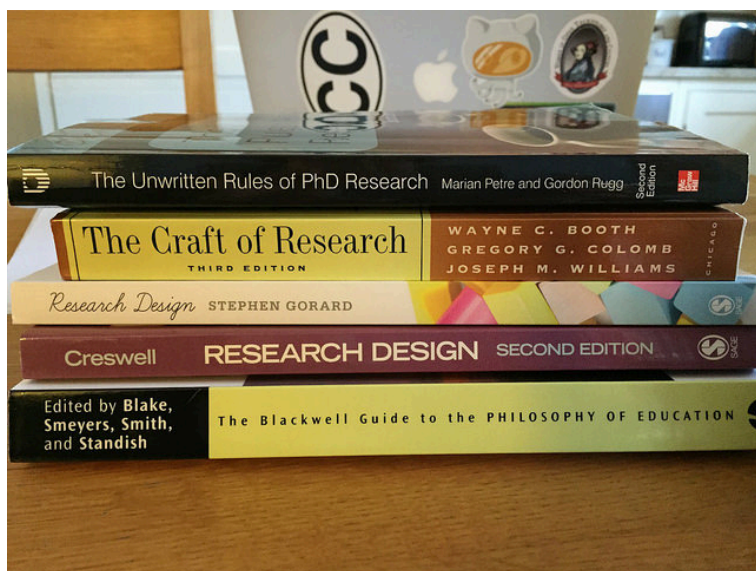
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37. Research

Learning Objectives

Type your learning objectives here.

- Identify reasons to perform research.
- Differentiate between different types of research.
- Plan research process.
- Identify sources to assist with speech development.



Catherine Cronin – today's reading #bigpicture – CC BY-SA 2.0.

Why Research?

When we research, we perform a scholarly investigation into a topic in order to discover, revise, or report facts, theories, and applications. If you are already an expert on your topic, why should you take the time to gather more information? Personal expertise is a great source of anecdotes, illustrations, and insights about important issues and questions related to your topic. But, it is just that – personal expertise. One person's opinion holds less weight than an opinion that is shared by other experts, supported by evidence, or validated by testimonials. You are the author of your speech – you still need research to develop your ideas in a way that will reach all audience members. The process of gathering information provides opportunities to step beyond the limitations

of your own experience and enrich your own understanding of your topic.

Gain Credibility

If you want the audience to trust your claims, back them up. Don't expect the audience to take your word for it, no questions asked. Find evidence, illustrations, anecdotes, testimonials, or expert opinions that support your claims. Compare these two statements—the first is a personal opinion, and the second is an argument supported with evidence. Which statement sounds more credible?

1. I believe that building a parking garage near the town square would bring more traffic to local businesses and boost the local economy. Everyone knows it's impossible to find parking on weekends here, and that keeps a lot of people at home on weekends.
2. Small businesses in our sister city, Springfield, reported losses comparable to ours after the financial crisis. However, everything changed for them last year: businesses reported that sales were up, and a few new businesses opened in the center of town, creating new jobs. Why didn't we get the same result? The mayor of Springfield credits the change to a new parking garage near the city center, which eased the parking shortage and brought more people into town on weekends. What can we learn from this story? There are people out there who want to patronize local businesses but are being driven away by the lack of parking. The plan for a new parking garage in our town square could bring us the same success we saw in Springfield.

The first statement relies on a “common sense” idea about parking

convenience, which the audience may or may not agree with. By providing an example of a similar situation, the second statement lends credibility to the claim that a new parking garage would help the local economy.

Make It Current

If you want to assure your audience that you are well-informed about your topic, provide current information about it. Instead of relying on generalizations, gather up-to-date information about the particulars of your topic. See which of these two statements is more insightful:

1. Teenagers spend too much time with their electronic gadgets. This obsession takes them away from the real world and leaves them unprepared for adult life.
2. According to a recent study from the Kaiser Family Foundation, teenagers spend over seven and a half hours a day using electronic devices—mainly smartphones, computers, and TVs. This preoccupation leaves little time to give undivided attention to homework, family time, and extracurricular activities, all of which are essential steps toward adult life.

The first statement relies on unfounded opinions, leaving gaping holes in its argument. Perhaps teenagers do spend too much time with their devices, but how much time do they spend and why is it a problem? It sounds like a curmudgeonly rant about “kids these days.” The second statement backs its claim up with evidence from a recent study and lists specific problems. Recent information makes it possible to define the problem clearly.

Keep It Relevant

Different audiences have different needs. When you conduct an audience analysis, you will gain valuable demographic information—and you should use that information to guide the search for supporting evidence and illustrations. What would resonate with that particular group of people? Let's say you are counseling an audience of nursing students in Florida about their job prospects. If you have general knowledge about nursing jobs, you have a good starting point. If you seek out information about the current market for nursing jobs in Florida, you will have information that is even more valuable to your audience. Make sure your speech is relevant to your audience: take the time to build on your area of expertise by gathering specialized information to fit the occasion. Remember: relevant information means more audience interest in your speech.

Primary and Secondary Research

Primary research entails directly gathering data. Common primary research methods are distributing a survey or conducting interviews. Secondary research entails using existing materials to gather data. Typical sources for secondary research are the internet, archives, libraries, educational institutions, and organizational websites or reports. While both forms of research

have advantages and disadvantages, they both provide valuable information for speech development. As a speaker, you will need to determine which research is best for your research needs. The next section discusses how to use a research strategy to determine these needs.

Developing a Research Strategy

If you think that jumping on the internet the night before your speech to google your topic is a good research strategy, read this section carefully. A research strategy is your personal map that will set you up for success. The end destination is the actual speech, and along the way, there are various steps you need to complete to reach your destination: the speech. From the day you receive your speech assignment, the more clearly you map out the steps you need to take leading up to the date when you will give the speech, the easier your speech development process will be. In the rest of this section, we are going to discuss time management, determining your research needs, finding your sources, and evaluating your sources.

Allotting Time

First and foremost, when starting a new project, no matter how big or small, it is important to seriously consider how much time that project is going to take. Often in a public speaking class, the time you have is fairly concrete. You may have two or three weeks between speeches in a semester course or one to two weeks in a quarter course. In either case, from the moment your instructor gives you the assigned speech, the proverbial clock is ticking. With each passing day, you are losing precious time in your speech preparation process. Now, we realize that as a college student you probably have many things vying for your time in life: school, family,

jobs, friends, or dating partners. For this reason, you need to really think through how much time it's going to take you to complete your preparation in terms of both research and speech preparation.

Research Time

The first step that takes a good chunk of your time is researching your speech. Whether you are conducting primary research or relying on secondary research sources, you're going to be spending a significant amount of time researching.

As Howard and Taggart point out in their book *Research Matters*, research is not just a one-and-done task (Howard & Taggart, 2010). As you develop your speech, you may realize that you want to address a question or issue that didn't occur to you during your first round of research, or that you're missing a key piece of information to support one of your points. For these reasons, it's always wise to allow extra time for targeted research later in your schedule.

You also need to take into account the possibility of meeting with a research librarian. Although research librarians have many useful tips and tricks, they have schedules just like anyone else. If you know you are going to need to speak with a librarian, try to set up an appointment ahead of time for the date when you think you'll have your questions organized, and be ready to meet.

A good rule of thumb is to devote one-third of your speech preparation time to research. If you have three weeks before your speech date, your research should be done by the end of the first week. If you are not careful, you could easily end up spending all

your time on research and waiting until the last minute to actually prepare your speech, which is highly inadvisable.

Speech Preparation Time

The second task in speech preparation is to sit down and actually develop your speech. During this time period, you will use the information you collected during your research to fully flesh out your ideas into a complete speech. You may be making arguments using the research or creating visual aids. Whatever you need to complete during this time period, you need to give yourself ample time to actually prepare your speech. One common rule of thumb is one day of speech preparation per one minute of actual speaking time.

By allowing yourself enough time to prepare your speech, you're allowing yourself enough time to work through the speechmaking process effectively. You are also allowing enough time to perform additional research as needed.

Determine Your Needs

When starting your research, you want to start by asking yourself what you think you need. Obviously, you'll need to have a good idea about what your topic is before just randomly looking at information in a library or online. Your instructor may provide some very specific guidelines for the type of information they want to see in your speech, so that's a good place to start determining your basic needs.

Once you have a general idea of your basic needs, you can start to ask yourself a series of simple questions:

1. What do I, personally, know about my topic?
2. What gaps are there in my knowledge of my topic?
3. Do I need to conduct primary research for my speech? (If so, why? What information will I gain by conducting surveys or

interviews that I cannot get from secondary research?)

4. What type of secondary research do I need?
 1. Do I need research related to facts?
 2. Do I need research related to theories?
 3. Do I need research related to applications?
5. What information do I need to connect with audience members?
6. What information will make my speech more interesting to the audience?

The clearer you are about the type of research you need at the onset of the research process, the easier it will be to locate specific information.

Resources

Once you have a general idea about the basic needs you have for your research, it's time to start tracking down your secondary sources. Thankfully, we live in a world that is swimming with information. Information is quite literally at our fingertips. In this section, we're going to discuss how to find information in both non-academic and academic sources.

Nonacademic Information Sources

Nonacademic information sources are sometimes also called popular press information sources; their primary purpose is to be read by the general public. Most nonacademic information sources are written at a sixth- to eighth-grade reading level, so they are very accessible. Although the information often contained in these sources is often quite limited, the advantage of using nonacademic sources is that they appeal to a broad, general audience.

Books

If you are looking for general information about your topic, encyclopedias and other reference books are a great place to start. If you want something more specific, search for informative books about your topic and anthologies that include essays or articles about relevant issues.

General-Interest Periodicals

The second category of information you may seek out includes magazines and newsletters published on a fairly systematic basis. Some popular magazines in this category include *The New Yorker*, *People*, *Reader's Digest*, *Parade*, *Smithsonian*, and *The Saturday Evening Post*. These magazines are considered “general interest” because most people in the United States could pick up a copy of these magazines and find them interesting and topical.

Special-Interest Periodicals

This type of resource consists of magazines and newsletters that are published for a narrower audience. Some more widely known special-interest periodicals are *Sports Illustrated*, *Bloomberg's Business Week*, *Gentleman's Quarterly*, *Vogue*, *Popular Science*, and *House and Garden*. But for every major magazine, there are a great many other lesser-known magazines like *American Coin Op Magazine*, *Varmint Hunter*, *Shark Diver Magazine*, *Pet Product News International*, *Water Garden News*, to name just a few.

Newspapers and Blogs

Another major source of nonacademic information is newspapers and blogs. Thankfully, we live in a society that has a free press. A few blogs (e.g., *The Huffington Post*, *Talkingpoints Memo*, *News Max*, *The Daily Beast*, *Salon*) function similarly to traditional newspapers. Furthermore, in the past few years, we've lost many traditional newspapers around the United States; cities that used to have four or five daily papers may now only have one or two.

In addition to traditional newspapers, blogs are becoming a

mainstay of information in today's society. In fact, since the dawn of the twenty-first century, many major news stories have been broken by professional bloggers rather than traditional newspaper reporters (Ochman, 2007). Although anyone can create a blog, there are many reputable blog sites that are run by professional journalists. As such, blogs can be a great source of information. However, as with all information on the Internet, you often have to wade through a lot of junk to find useful, accurate information.

Encyclopedias

Another type of source that you may encounter is the encyclopedia. Encyclopedias are information sources that provide short, very general information about a topic. Encyclopedias are available in both print and electronic formats, and their content can range from eclectic and general (e.g., *Encyclopædia Britannica*) to very specific (e.g., *Encyclopedia of 20th Century Architecture*, or *Encyclopedia of Afterlife Beliefs and Phenomena*). It is important to keep in mind that encyclopedias are designed to give only brief, fairly superficial summaries of a topic area. Thus they may be useful for finding out what something is if it is referenced in another source, but they are generally not a useful source for your actual speech. In fact, many instructors do not allow students to use encyclopedias as sources for their speeches for this very reason.

One of the most popular online encyclopedic sources is Wikipedia. Like other encyclopedias, it can be useful for finding out basic information (e.g., what baseball teams did Catfish Hunter play for?) but will not give you the depth of information you need for a speech. Also keep in mind that Wikipedia, unlike the general and specialized encyclopedias available through your library, can be edited by anyone and therefore often contains content errors and biased information. If you are a fan of *The Colbert Report*, you probably know that host Stephen Colbert has, on several occasions, asked viewers to change Wikipedia content to reflect his views of the world. This is just one example of why one should never use Wikipedia as a source. It may be a good place to begin your

search but you will need to find a more credible source to verify the information.

Websites

Websites are the last major source of non-academic information. In the twenty-first century, we live in a world where there is a considerable amount of information readily available at our fingertips. Unfortunately, you can spend hours and hours searching for information and never quite find what you're looking for if you don't devise an Internet search strategy. First, you need to select a good search engine to help you find appropriate information. Below is a list of search engines that may be helpful while navigating the vast amount of information on the internet.

<http://www.google.com>

<http://www.yahoo.com>

<http://www.bing.com>

General search engines

<http://www.ask.com>

<http://www.about.com>

<http://www.usa.gov>

Searches US government websites

<http://www.hon.ch/MedHunt>

Searches only trustworthy medical websites

<http://medlineplus.gov>

Largest search engine for medical related research

<http://www.bizrate.com>

Comparison shopping search engine

<http://prb.org>

Provides statistics about the US population

<http://artcyclopedia.com>

Searches for art-related information

<http://www.monster.com>

Searches for job postings across job search websites

Academic Information Sources

The main difference between academic or scholarly information and the information you get from the popular press is information regulation. In the non-academic world, the primary gatekeeper of

information is the editor, who may or may not be a content expert. In academia, scholars established a way to perform a series of checks to ensure that the information is accurate and follows agreed-upon academic standards. For example, this book, or portions of this book, were read by dozens of academics who provided feedback. Having this extra step in the writing process is time-consuming, but it provides an extra level of confidence in the relevance and accuracy of the information.

Scholarly Books

College and university libraries are filled with books written by academics. According to the Text and Academic Authors Association (<http://www.taaonline.net>), there are two types of scholarly books: textbooks and academic books. Textbooks are books that are written about a segment of content within a field of academic study and are written for undergraduate or graduate student audiences. These books tend to be very specifically focused. Take this book, for instance. We are not trying to introduce you to the entire world of human communication, just one small aspect of it: public speaking. Textbooks tend to be written at a fairly easy reading level and are designed to transfer information in a manner that mirrors classroom teaching to some extent. Also, textbooks are secondary sources of information. They are designed to survey the research available in a particular field rather than to present new research.

Academic books are books that are primarily written for other academics for informational and research purposes. Generally speaking, when instructors ask for you to find scholarly books, they

are referring to academic books. Thankfully, there are hundreds of thousands of academic books published on almost every topic you can imagine. In the field of communication, there are a handful of major publishers who publish academic books: SAGE (<http://www.sagepub.com>), Routledge (<http://www.routledge.com>), Jossey-Bass (<http://www.josseybass.com>), Pfeiffer (<http://www.pfeiffer.com>), the American Psychological Association (<http://www.apa.org/pubs/books>), and the National Communication Association (<http://www.ncastore.com>), among others. In addition to the major publishers who publish academic books, there are also many university presses who publish academic books: SUNY Press (<http://www.sunypress.edu>), Oxford University Press (<http://www.oup.com/us>), University of South Carolina Press (<http://www.sc.edu/uscpress>), Baylor University Press (<http://www.baylorpress.com>), University of Illinois Press (<http://www.press.uillinois.edu>), and the University of Alabama Press (<http://www.uapress.ua.edu>) are just a few of them.

Scholarly Articles

Because most academic writing comes in the form of scholarly articles or journal articles, that is the best place for finding academic research on a given topic. Every academic subfield has its own journals, so you should never have a problem finding the best and most recent research on a topic. However, scholarly articles are written for a scholarly audience, so reading scholarly articles takes more time than if you were to read a magazine article in the popular press. It's also helpful to realize that there may be parts of the article you simply do not have the background knowledge to understand, and there is nothing wrong with that. Many research studies are conducted by quantitative researchers who rely on statistics to examine phenomena. Unless you have training in understanding statistics, it is difficult to interpret the statistical information that appears in these articles. Instead, focus on the beginning part of the article where the author(s) will discuss previous research

(secondary research), and then focus on the end of the article, where the author(s) explain what was found in their research (primary research).

Scholarly Information on the Web

In addition to the subscription databases that exist on the web, there are also a number of great sources for scholarly information on the web. As mentioned earlier, however, finding scholarly information on the web poses a problem because anyone can post information on the web. Fortunately, there are a number of great websites that attempt to help filter this information for us.

Website	Type of Information
http://www.doaj.org	The Directory of Open Access Journals is an online database of all freely available academic journals online.
http://scholar.google.com	Google Scholar attempts to filter out nonacademic information. Unfortunately, it tends to return a large number of for-pay site results.
http://www.cios.org	Communication Institute for Online Scholarship is a clearinghouse for online communication scholarship. This site contains full-text journals and books.
http://xxx.lanl.gov	This is an open access site devoted to making physical science research accessible.
http://www.biomedcentral.com	BioMed Central provides open-access medical research.
http://www.osti.gov/eprints	The E-print Network provides access to a range of scholarly research that interests people working for the Department of Energy.
http://www.freemedicaljournals.com	This site provides the public with free access to medical journals.
http://highwire.stanford.edu	This is the link to Stanford University's free, full-text science archives.
http://www.plosbiology.org	This is the Public Library of Science's journal for biology.
https://dp.la/	The Digital Public Library of America brings together the riches of America's libraries, archives, and museums, and makes them freely available to the world
http://vlib.org	The WWW Virtual Library provides annotated lists of websites compiled by scholars in specific areas.

Tips for Finding Information Sources

Now that you know what types of sources to look for, below are tips that should make this process easier and help you find appropriate information quickly.

College Library and Computerized Databases

Finding academic research is easier today than it ever has been in the past because of large computer databases containing research. Here's how these databases work. A database company signs contracts with publishers to gain the right to store the publishers' content electronically. The database companies then create thematic databases containing publications related to general areas of knowledge (business, communication, psychology, medicine, etc.). The database companies then sell subscriptions to these databases to libraries.

The largest of these database companies is a group called EBSCO Publishing, which runs both EBSCO Host (an e-journal provider) and NetLibrary (a large e-book library) (<http://www.ebscohost.com>). Some of the more popular databases that EBSCO provides to colleges and universities are: Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Communication and Mass Media Complete, Education Research Complete, Humanities International Complete, Philosopher's Index, Political Science Complete, PsycArticles, and Vocational and Career Collection. Academic Search Complete is the

broadest of all the databases and casts a fairly wide net across numerous fields. Information that you find using databases can contain both nonacademic and academic information, so EBSCO Host has built in a number of filtering options to help you limit the types of information available.

Your first step should be to visit your library's website to see what databases and resources they have available. This will save you so much time on your research.

Create a Research Log

Nothing is more disheartening than when you find yourself at 1:00 a.m. asking, "Haven't I already read this?" We've all learned the tough lessons of research, and this is one that keeps coming back to bite us in the backside if we're not careful. According to a very useful book called *The Elements of Library Research* by M. W. George, a research log is a "step-by-step account of the process of identifying, obtaining, and evaluating sources for a specific project, similar to a lab note-book in an experimental setting" (George, 2008). In essence, George believes that keeping a log of what you've done is very helpful because it can help you keep track of what you've read thus far. You can use a good old-fashioned notebook, or if you carry around your laptop or netbook with you, you can always keep it digitally. While there are expensive programs like Microsoft Office OneNote that can be used for note keeping, there are also a number of free tools that could be adapted as well.

Start with Background Information

It's not unusual for students to try to jump right into the meat of a topic, only to find out that there is a lot of technical language they just don't understand. For this reason, you may want to start your research with sources written for the general public. Generally, these lower-level sources are great for background information on

a topic and are helpful when trying to learn the basic vocabulary of a subject area.

Learn to Skim

If you sit down and try to completely read every article or book you find, it will take you a very long time to get through all the information. Start by reading the introductory paragraphs. Generally, the first few paragraphs will give you a good idea about the overall topic. If you're reading a research article, start by reading the abstract. If the first few paragraphs or abstract don't sound like they're applicable, there's a good chance the source won't be useful for you. Second, look for highlighted, italicized, or bulleted information. Generally, authors use highlighting, italics, and bullets to separate information to make it jump out to readers. Third, look for tables, charts, graphs, and figures. All these forms are separated from the text to make the information more easily understandable for a reader, so seeing if the content is relevant is a way to see if it helps you. Fourth, look at headings and subheadings. Headings and subheadings show you how an author has grouped information into meaningful segments. If you read the headings and subheadings and nothing jumps out as relevant, that's another indication that there may not be anything useful in that source. Lastly, take good notes while you're skimming. One way to take good notes is to attach a sticky note to each source. If you find relevant information, write that information on the sticky note along with the page number. If you don't find useful information in a source, just write "nothing" on the sticky note and move on to the next source. This way when you need to sort through your information, you'll be able to quickly see what information was useful and locate the information. Other people prefer to create a series of note cards to help them organize their information. Whatever works best for you is what you should use.

Read Bibliographies/Reference Pages

After you've finished reading useful sources, see who those sources cited on their bibliographies or reference pages. Often the sources

cited by others can lead us to even better sources than the ones we found initially.

Ask for Help

Don't be afraid to ask for help. Reference librarians are your friends. They won't do your work for you, but they are more than willing to help if you ask. They can literally save you hours!

Researching Images

Searching, finding, and using images is a type of research too.

Searching for Images

When searching for images to use, you should seek out images that have a creative commons copyright or are open for use. Here are a couple of my favorite sites.

Don't forget to reference your image on your reference page and on your slides.

- [Creativecommons.org](https://creativecommons.org)

About: "CC Search is a tool that allows openly licensed and public domain works to be discovered and used by everyone. Creative Commons, the nonprofit behind CC Search, is the maker of the [CC licenses](https://creativecommons.org/licenses), used over 1.4 billion times to help creators share knowledge and creativity online."

- [Unsplash.com](https://unsplash.com)
About: All items on Unsplash can be used for free. You can use them for commercial and noncommercial purposes. You do not need to ask permission but giving credit to the photographer is appreciated.
- [Eduimages](https://www.eduimages.com)
About: A free library of photos celebrating students—and the educators who teach them—in seven schools across the United States.
- [Gettyimages](https://www.gettyimages.com)
About: The Getty makes available without charge, all available digital images to which the Getty holds the rights or that are in the public domain to be sued for any purpose. No permission is required.
- [Wikimedia Commons](https://commons.wikimedia.org)
About: Wikimedia Commons is free. Everyone is allowed to copy, use and modify any file here freely as long as they follow the terms specified by the author. The conditions of each media file can be found on their description page.
- [Pixabay](https://pixabay.com)
About: All images and videos on Pixabay are released free of copyrights under Creative Commons CC0. You may download, modify, distribute, and use them royalty-free for anything you like, even in commercial applications. Attribution is not required.

Evaluating Resources

The final step in research occurs once you've found resources relevant to your topic: evaluating the quality of those resources.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=65#oembed-1>

Does Your Research Pass the CRAAP Test?

Once you have found your research, you should test it to make sure it is credible. Check your research for currency, reliability, authority, accuracy, and purpose using the CRAPP test.

Currency

- When was it published?
- Has it been revised since then?
- Is it current enough for your topic?
- Is it a topic where the opinions about it change over time?

Reliability/Relevance

- Can you depend on the information and trust it to be accurate?
- Is the information biased?
- Is the information the appropriate complexity for the type of project I am working on?
- Does it provide reliable sources to back up claims?

Authority

- Can you trust the source where you found the information?
- Is the author an authority or do they cite subject authorities?
- Are they reputable?
- If the material is taken from other sources, do they credit/cite those sources?
- What does the URL end with? (.gov, .org, .edu, .com?) If not, how are you determining its reliability?

Accuracy

- Can you trust the reliability of the information?
- Is the information correct? How would you know?
- Can you verify any of the information from another source?
- Do the links lead to useful information corroborating the site's statements, or do they link to questionable information?

Purpose/Point of View

- What is the author's motivation for publishing the resource?
- Is the author trying to inform, persuade, or entertain you?
- Does the author appear to have an ax to grind or seem blindly committed to their cause?
- Are they using this information to make money off of users?
- Is there any conflict of interest?

Key Takeaways

- In conducting research for a speech, commit adequate time and plan your schedule. Consider both the research time, or time spent gathering information, and the preparation time needed to organize and practice your speech.
- Get a general idea of your research needs even before going to the library so that you can take the most advantage of the library's resources and librarians' help.
- We live in a world dominated by information, but some information is filtered and some is not. It's important to know the difference between academic and nonacademic sources.
- Nonacademic sources are a good place to gain general knowledge of a topic; these include books, general or special-interest periodicals, newspapers and blogs, and websites.
- Academic sources offer more specialized, higher-level information; they include books, articles, computer databases, and web resources.
- A fundamental responsibility is to evaluate the sources you choose to use in order to ensure that you are presenting accurate and up-to-date information in your speech.

References

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38. Citing Sources Effectively

Learning Objectives

- Use oral citations to build credibility.
- Use written citations to avoid plagiarism.

Why Cite Sources?

It's important to cite sources you used in your research for several reasons:

- To show your reader you've done proper research by listing sources you used to get your information
- To be a responsible scholar by giving credit to other researchers and acknowledging their ideas
- To avoid plagiarism by quoting words and ideas used by other authors
- To allow your reader to track down the sources you used by citing them accurately in your paper by way of footnotes, a bibliography, or reference list

Oral Citations: Using Your Research in a Speech

When mentioning your research in your speech, you should always give an oral citation. Depending on the type of speech and the type of audience, this would be done differently. Citations are about credibility–ethos. When you use high-quality sources, it instills trust in the minds of your audience. They trust the information that you are giving, and they trust you as a person.

While there are many things you can cite about your source – the author, credentials, organizational affiliation, date, article title, publication, and issue number – it is just too much information, and the audience will lose track of what is important. The trick is to find the information that will provide the most credibility to your audience.

Instead of speaking every single part of the citation, find the part that is the most familiar to the audience (like a prominent name or publication) and speak the parts of the reference that enhances your credibility.

- If the information is from a known magazine or journal, you should mention that.
- If the article comes from a respected author that the audience knows, you should mention them.
- If the person you are citing has a title that is relevant, you should mention that.
- If the research is time-sensitive, you should mention the year of publication.

The key here is to be intentional about which part of the citation you speak by using the information that will provide the most ethos.

While there is no one perfect way to cite your sources, there are a few things you want to stay away from to ensure you work your source in smoothly and effectively.



Do Not Say This

1. **“According to google.”** Google is not a source; it is a search engine. The equivalent would be to say, according to the university library. The library is where you find the information, not the information itself.
2. **“According to homedepot.com.”** You would never say, “According to 210 South Main Street, Fayetteville, Arkansas because that is an address. When you say “.com” you are citing an address. Don’t cite a person’s address or a webpage’s address as your source. You can say, “according to the home depot website.”
3. **“And my source is...”** When saying your source, use the name of the specialist or the name of the article and journal. No need to tell us it is your source; we will figure that out.
4. **“Quote/Unquote.”** Say the author and the quote, no need to say the word “quote.”
5. **“Thank you and now here are my sources.”** You do not need to show your audience your references on your slide show. To

make sure your audience doesn't accidentally see your reference page, put two blank slides at the end of your presentation and then add your references. Putting them with your slides keeps them available for anyone who wants a copy of your slides.

Example phrases to smoothly work in oral citations: [James Madison University](#)

Written Citations

The reference page is where you list all the sources that you used in your speech. This means the books, articles, and internet information that you use as well as any interviews, images, videos, and charts. Depending on your class, you will use a *style guide* such as those published by the Modern Language Association (MLA), American Psychological Association (APA), or The Chicago Manual of Style (CMS). These style guides help you determine the format of your citations, both within the speech and in the bibliography. Your professor will likely assign a particular style guide for you to use. However, if you are not told to use a particular style, choose the one most appropriate to your area of study. MLA style is typically used by people in the humanities, APA is typically used by social scientists, and CMS can be used in either type of writing, but is most popular with historians.¹ These style guides will help you record the places where you found support for your argument so that you can avoid plagiarism.

1.²

2. [1]

Your college library will have information on each style guide. Start there for detailed information on citations for each of your sources.

Reference Page

The reference page is where you list all the sources that you used in your speech. This means the books, articles, and internet information that you use as well as any interviews, images, videos, and charts.

Tips

- “References” should be at the top.
- Alphabetize references.
- Use a hanging indent
- Every line is double-spaced. (This sample is not correct because of the way this program formats. Every line should be double space with no single-spaced items).

Reference Page Sample APA

References

Hobbylobby.com (2021) Wheeled Glass Nippers.

Meade, Z. (2021, May 8). Personal Interview.

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In-text citations

In-text citations will indicate on our outline where you got specific speech content. The citations are similar to what you use while writing a research paper. You will use APA or MLA to indicate your source when including researched information. The information you will include will be different based on your style guide. Consult your college library for information about what in-text citations should include.

APA Examples

Below are differences between oral, in-text, and reference page citations.

This is what you would say in your speech.

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

(Nutrients Journal carries the credibility of a journal. Mentioning the authors would be optional. Since most people don't know who they are, it doesn't help with the credibility.)

This is what it would look like on your outline.

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

This is what you would put on the reference page.

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

This is what you would say in your speech.

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

(The title of the article is interesting, and the mention of a Journal gives credibility. Once again, I wouldn't mention the authors since most people don't know them.)

This is what it would look like on your outline.

An article published in the *Nutrition and Food Science Journal* titled, "To sip or not to sip: The potential risks and benefits of coffee drinking" coffee drinking can reduce the risk of type 2

diabetes, Alzheimer's disease, and Parkinson's disease. (Taylor & Demming-Adams, 2007).

This is what you would put on the reference page.

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

This is what you would say in your speech.

As I was working on this eulogy for today, I talked to a couple of family members and asked them what they most remember about grandpa. Cousin Zena said she remembers him for always wearing bibbed overalls, an International Harvester hat, and for having shoes the size of cars. Most of all, she remembers his laugh.

(In this case, the audience only needs to know the names and relationships. No need for formal titles or last names if the people are familiar)

This is what it would look like on your manuscript.

As I was working on this eulogy for today, I talked to a couple of family members and asked them what they most remember about grandpa. Cousin Zena said she remembers him for always wearing bibbed overalls, an International Harvester hat, and for having shoes the size of cars. Most of all, she remembers his laugh.

This is what you would put on the reference page.

Meade, Z. (2021, May 8). Personal Interview.

Let's be honest, in a real eulogy, you would not turn in a reference page. If you are in a college class, it will be required of you to establish the practice of citing your sources.

This is what you would say in your speech.

According to the Hobby Lobby website, wheeled glass nippers

will cost you \$16. These will be essential for cutting glass for your mosaic.

This is what it would look like on your outline.

According to the Hobby Lobby website, wheeled glass nippers will cost you \$16. These will be essential for cutting glass for your mosaic (2021).

This is what you would put on the reference page.

Hobbylobby.com (2021) Wheeled Glass Nippers.

This is what you would say in your speech.

According to the article, How to Host Your Own Coffee Tasting on the Starbucks website, when formally coffee tasting, you should slurp your coffee to allow the coffee to spray across your tongue and palate.

This is what it would look like on your outline.

According to the article, How to Host Your Own Coffee Tasting on the Starbucks website, when formally coffee tasting, you should slurp your coffee to allow the coffee to spray across your tongue and palate (Starbucks, 2020).

This is what you would put on the reference page.

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Key Takeaways

- Oral citations can build your credibility as a speaker.
- Written citations allow you to credit work and avoid plagiarism.

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- *CRAAP test developed by Meriam Library, California State University, Chico

Key Takeaways

- Style focuses on the components of your speech that make up the form of your expression rather than your content.
- Social science disciplines, such as psychology, human communication, and business, typically use APA style, while humanities disciplines, such as English, philosophy, and rhetoric, typically use MLA style.
- The APA sixth edition and the MLA seventh edition are the most current style guides and the tables presented in this chapter provide specific examples of common citations for each of these styles.
- Citing sources within your speech is a three-step process: set up the citation, provide the cited information, and interpret the information within the context of your speech.
- A direct quotation is any time you utilize another individual's words in a format that resembles the way they were originally said or written. On the other hand, a paraphrase is when you take someone's ideas and restate them using your own words to convey the intended meaning.
- Ethically using sources means avoiding plagiarism, not engaging in academic fraud, making sure not to mislead your audience, providing credentials for your sources so the audience can make judgments about the material, and using primary research in ways that protect the identity of participants.
- Plagiarism is a huge problem and creeps its way

into student writing and oral presentations. As ethical communicators, we must always give credit for the information we convey in our writing and our speeches.

Exercises

1. List what you think are the benefits of APA style and the benefits of MLA style. Why do you think some people prefer APA style over MLA style or vice versa?
2. Find a direct quotation within a magazine article. Paraphrase that direct quotation. Then attempt to paraphrase the entire article as well. How would you cite each of these orally within the body of your speech?
3. Which of Menager-Beeley and Paulos (2009) twelve strategies for avoiding plagiarism do you think you need the most help with right now? Why? What can you do to overcome and avoid that pitfall?

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39. Choosing a Persuasive Topic

Learning Objectives

- Explore persuasive topics for an upcoming speech.

Controversial Topics Are Important and Risky

Some of the most interesting topics are controversial. They are controversial topics because people have deeply felt values and beliefs on different sides of those topics. For instance, before you choose nuclear energy as your topic, investigate the many voices speaking out both in favor and against increasing its use. Many people perceive nuclear energy as a clean, reliable, and much-needed source of energy. Others say that even the mining of uranium is harmful to the environment, that we lack satisfactory

solutions for storing nuclear waste, and that nuclear power plants are vulnerable to errors and attacks. Another group might view the issue economically, believing that industry needs nuclear energy. Engineers might believe that if the national grid could be modernized, we would have enough energy and that we should strive to use and waste less energy until modernization is feasible. Some might feel deep concern about our reliance on foreign oil. Others might view nuclear energy as more tried-and-true than other alternatives. The topic is extremely controversial, and yet it is interesting and very important.

You shouldn't avoid controversy altogether, but you should choose your topic carefully. Certain controversial topics will not work well with the situational context of a classroom presentation. For instance, consider abortion or gun control. Gun control has been hotly debated since the first piece of gun control regulation was passed in 1934. Abortion has been just as hotly debated since states began to make it illegal in the late 1800s. Furthermore, both of these topics are value related. If these issues have not been solved in the past 100 years, you are not going to change anyone's mind in a 7 minute classroom presentation about either of these topics (among others). Thus, choosing these topics will set you up for failure before you even begin the speech-making process.

Choosing a Persuasive Speech Topic

Now that we have explored some definitions of persuasion and advocacy, let us move on to choosing the topic that you will be presenting to your audience. When picking a topic, you may consider choosing something that you are passionate about and/or something that you want to know more about. Take a moment to consider topics that we would like to share with your audience. Individuals have different experiences and perspectives on varying

issues. Sharing your perspective on a topic is what can make your presentation unique and exciting to the audience.

When looking for a topic, cause, or issue to discuss, consider asking yourself the following questions (also located in worksheets):

- What is important to me?
- What excites me?
- What makes me happy?
- What makes me angry?
- Do I have a good idea that others might embrace?
- Is there an issue that 'speaks' to me?
- Can I make a change?
- Have I experienced something inspiring or life-changing that I can share with others?

Here are some additional ideas to consider when choosing a topic:

- Choose a topic that is (relatively) new to you! You may consider taking some time to explore a topic that you do not yet know about and/or one that you want to learn more about. Perhaps you recently read, saw, or experienced something that you would like to research and share with your audience. Maybe you began your process with not knowing which side you support on an issue, and you take some time to research both sides of an issue and determine which you support. You can use this presentation as an opportunity to learn more about that topic and can then talk about this process in your presentation. Using the research that you have gathered will help you as you explain to the audience why they should share your perspective on the item at hand.
- Choose a topic that you already know about and feel strongly that your audience should share your views on this topic. For this type of presentation, you will be taking your knowledge and expanding it. You can search for items that support your side and also take some time to review the data provided by

those that support the opposite side of the issue.

Where to Find Ideas for Persuasive Topics

Your college library databases are a great place to start. The following video highlights two MCC databases that are particularly good for persuasive topics. Watch the video for instructions on accessing and using the databases.



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here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=251#oembed-1>

Additional Considerations

While there are topics that will not work well within the context, there are many that will. How do you narrow down the possibilities?

- Consider your passions: What are you passionate about? You will enjoy researching and your delivery will naturally be more animated with a topic you care about.
- Consider your community: Which issues are pressing in your community? It will be easier to connect your topic with your audience if it is an issue that potentially could affect them.
- Consider your audience: After you perform your audience analysis, which topics may be of concern to your audience members? It will be easier to persuade them if the issue is relevant to them.

- Consider the context: Use the assignment description and situational analysis to narrow down ideas that will and won't work for the assignment. Some topics will just naturally "fit" better. Set yourself up for success by using this information to help you make a decision.

Key Takeaways

- There are several important considerations when choosing a speech topic.
- Some topics are risky and set speakers up for failure due to contextual elements.
- You must consider your passions and the audience when choosing a speech topic.

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PART V

CHAPTER 4: DELIVERING AN INFORMATIVE SPEECH

We have made it to speech week! This week we will put together everything we have learned up to this point by delivering an informative speech to a live audience. An important part of the speech making process is peer review and editing. First, we will examine tips for effective peer review to strengthen our final product. Then we will review tips for effective speech delivery. We will spend the first half of the week finalizing speech preparation and practicing. By the end of the week, we will have presented our first formal speech in a virtual environment.

40. Peer Review

Learning Objectives

- Identify benefits to collaborative work.
- Examine cultural considerations for offering feedback.
- Use a systematic process for offering feedback.
- Use language constructive language to offer feedback.
- Use feedback to make edits to the speech outline.
- Use feedback to practice speech.

Collaborative work = Stronger Finished Product

The benefits of collaborative work are numerous. Peer review allows us to share our work and receive feedback that will help us to strengthen our final product.

Important benefits for your speech development are:

- **Learning from one another:** Learning is collaborative. We can learn just as much from one another as we can from course materials. We have different experiences and interpret course concepts in different ways. Peer review allows us to share these ideas.
- **Clarified goals:** When offering review and editing suggestions,

we are forced to focus on the assignment goals. This focus allows us to catch things they may have otherwise missed.

- **Strengthen speechwriting skills:** The process provides opportunities for us to identify and articulate weaknesses in a peer's outline. When doing this, we are learning at a deeper level and can use our own feedback to strengthen our outlines.
- **Idea Clarification:** As students explain ideas to classmates, they can identify where content development may be lacking. This provides opportunities to strengthen the outline content for audience clarification.
- **Minimizes Procrastination:** Often students will wait until the last minute to prepare their speech outline. The peer review process forces students to prepare in enough time to work through edits and revisions which are necessary for effective speech development.
- **Builds Confidence:** Public speaking is a nerve-wracking event for many of us. Having others validate our work and provide suggestions for improvement helps us to build confidence that our final product is strong!

Engaging in Peer Review



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here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=49#oembed-1>

The peer-review process can be an exceptional tool if you engage in it effectively. Below are tips...

- **Read/Listen first:** Read through the entire outline or watch the entire speech before offering comments. Once you get a good idea of the content then you can go back through it and give feedback.
- **Ask questions:** Clarifying questions can provide you with information about your partner's thought process so you can give more effective feedback. Also, questions can provide your partner with an opportunity to think through how they can better explain concepts or ideas in their speech. Questions are a great learning tool.
- **Use the course materials:** Use the readings, assignment descriptions, and rubrics to structure your feedback. This will help you focus on useful feedback. Look for both format and content issues. Both of these will be necessary for a successful outline or speech delivery.
- **Mix criticism and praise:** Knowing our strengths and our weaknesses are equally important for our speech development. Offer feedback on what you think they did well and what you think they need to improve.
- **Provide practical and helpful feedback:** Don't just say "This is confusing." That doesn't help your partner improve. Tell them why it is confusing and offer suggestions for improvement. One formula for helpful feedback is to describe, evaluate, and suggest.
 - Describe what you are reading or hearing and your understanding of the content (paraphrase and clarify, "this is what I am hearing...").
 - Evaluate the outline or speech based on the rubric, assignment sheet, or class material.
 - Suggest steps for improvement.
- **Write out your thoughts:** Even if you are talking through your feedback, offering written feedback will be more helpful when your partner is revising the work.



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Effective approaches to offering feedback

Offering constructing criticism is not an attack on someone's work. It is a strategy to increase the quality of the finished product. Often times others can see the strengths and weaknesses in our work more clearly than we can. Comments should be delivered with the desire to provide useful information to the writer. Follow the below guidelines for offering constructive criticism.

- Use phrases such as, "From what I understand, in this section you are...", "It seems to me that the focus of this section is...", "I am not sure I understand the main point here. It seems to me that..."
- Ask questions when you are uncertain about something. "What is the purpose of this section?" or "Why is it important to your paper?" or "How do these points connect?" or "What do you mean by...?"
- Be specific about content, speech parts, format, etc. The more specific you are, the more helpful you are. "In this section, it appears..." or "This comment is..." or "I am not certain how this support connects..."
- Remember to praise strengths. "Your use of language is great" or "You have strong introduction elements."

Techniques of Constructive Criticism

The goal of constructive criticism is to improve the behavior or the behavioral results of a person, while consciously avoiding personal attacks and blaming. This kind of criticism is carefully framed in language acceptable to the target person, often acknowledging that the critics themselves could be wrong.

Insulting and hostile language is avoided, and phrases used are like “I feel...” and “It’s my understanding that...” and so on. Constructive critics try to stand in the shoes of the person being criticized and consider what things would look like from their perspective.

Effective criticism should be:

- Positively intended, and appropriately motivated: you are not only sending back messages about how you are receiving the other’s message but about how you feel about the other person and your relationship with him/her. Keeping this in mind will help you to construct effective critiques.
- Specific: allowing the individual to know exactly what behavior is to be considered.
- Objective, so that the recipient not only gets the message but is willing to do something about it. If your criticism is objective, it is much harder to resist.
- Constructive, consciously avoiding personal attacks and blaming, insulting language, and hostile language are avoided. Avoiding evaluative language—such as “you are wrong” or “that idea was stupid”—reduces the need for the receiver to respond defensively.

As the name suggests, the consistent and central notion is that the criticism must have the aim of constructing, scaffolding, or improving a situation, a goal that is usually subverted by the use of hostile language or personal attacks.

Effective criticism can change what people think and do; thus,

criticism is the birthplace of change. Effective criticism can also be liberating. It can fight ideas that keep people down with ideas that unlock new opportunities, while consciously avoiding personal attacks and blaming.

Cultural Groups Approach Criticism with Different Styles

A culture is a system of attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that form distinctive ways of life. Different cultural groups have different ways of communicating both verbally and non-verbally. While globalization and media have moderated many of the traditional differences for younger audiences, it is wise to consider five important areas where cultural differences could play a role when giving and receiving criticism:

- Verbal style in low and high context cultures
- Instrumental versus affective message responsibility
- Collectivism and individualism in cultures
- “Face”
- Eye contact

Verbal Style in Low and High Context Cultures

In low context cultures such as in the United States and Germany, there is an expectation that people will say what is on their mind directly; they will not “beat around the bush.” In high context cultures, such as in Japan and China, people are more likely to use indirect speech, hints, and subtle suggestions to convey meaning.

Responsibility for Effectively Conveying a Message

Is the speaker responsible for conveying a message, or the audience? The *instrumental* style of speaking is sender-orientated; the burden is on the speaker to make him or herself understood. The *affective* style is receiver-orientated and places more responsibility on the listener. With this style, the listener must pay attention to verbal, nonverbal, and relationship clues in order to understand the message. Chinese, Japanese, and many Native American cultures are affective cultures, whereas the American culture is more instrumental. Think about sitting in your college classroom listening to a lecturer. If you do not understand the material, where does the responsibility lie? In the United States, students believe that it is up to the professor to communicate the material to the students. However, when posing this question to a group of Chinese students, you may encounter a different sense of responsibility. Listeners who were raised in a more affective environment respond with “no, it’s not you; it is our job to try harder.” These kinds of students accept responsibility as listeners who work to understand the speaker.

Collectivism and Individualism

Are the speaker and listeners from collectivist or individualistic cultures? When a person or culture has a collective orientation they place the needs and interests of the group above individual desires or motivations. In contrast, cultures with individualistic orientations view the self as most important. Each person is viewed as responsible for his or her own success or failure in life. When you provide feedback or criticism if you are from an individualistic culture, you may speak directly to one individual and that individual

will be responsible. However, if you are speaking with someone from a culture which is more collectivist, your feedback may be viewed as shared by all the members of the same group, who may assume responsibility for the actions of each other.

Face

Face is usually thought of as a sense of self-worth, especially in the eyes of others. Research with Chinese university students showed that they view a loss of face as a failure to measure up to one's sense of self-esteem or what is expected by others. In more individualistic cultures, speakers and listeners are concerned with maintaining their own face and not so much focused on that of others. However, in an intercultural situation involving collectivist cultures, the speaker should not only be concerned with maintaining his or her own face, but also that of the listeners.

Receiving Feedback

You will receive feedback from a peer to revise your speech content and delivery. Accepting any criticism at all, even effective and potentially helpful criticism, can be difficult. Ideally, effective criticism is positive, specific, objective, and constructive. There is an art to being truly effective with criticism; a critic can have good intentions but poor delivery, for example, "I don't know why my girlfriend keeps getting mad when I tell her to stop eating so many french fries; I'm just concerned about her weight!" For criticism to be truly effective, it must have the goal of improving a situation, without using hostile language or involving personal attacks.

Receiving criticism is a listening skill that is valuable in many situations throughout life: at school, at home, and in the workplace.

Since it is not always easy to do, here are three things that will help to receive effective criticism gracefully:

1. **Accept that you are not perfect.** If you begin every task thinking that nothing will ever go wrong, you are fooling yourself. You will make mistakes. The important thing is to learn from mistakes .
2. **Be open-minded to the fact that others may see something that you do not.** Even if you do not agree with the criticism, others may be seeing something that you are not even aware of. If they say that you are negative or overbearing, and you do not feel that you are, well, you might be and are just not able to see it. Allow for the fact that others may be right, and use that possibility to look within yourself.
3. **Seek clarity about aspects of a critique that you are not sure of.** If you do not understand the criticism, you are doomed to repeat the same mistakes. Take notes and ask questions.

Sometimes it is easier said than done, but receiving effective criticism offers opportunities to see things differently, improve performance, and learn from mistakes.

Key Takeaways

- Peer review strengthens our final product, offers us a deeper learning experience, and boosts our confidence in our final product.
- Using a systematic method helps us to offer helpful and useful feedback.

- Using language that communicates a desire to help can have a positive influence on the peer review process.

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4I. Final Touches for Successful Speech Delivery

Learning Objectives

- Finish the speech making process by engaging in practice, editing, and delivery.
- Work through public speaking anxiety and deliver a successful speech.

You have made it! You worked through the steps of the speech making process and now you are ready to finish up your practice and delivery. This section will provide you with reminders as you are rehearsing and finishing up your speech preparation for a successful delivery!

Finishing Touches

You have all of the tools you need to be successful. Be sure to refer back to these tools to help you deliver a successful speech.

- Review the assignment description to ensure you have completed all necessary elements.

- Review the assignment rubric for a clear understanding of speech expectations and point distribution.
- Refer to the readings for each part of the speech making process for ideas, tips, and strategies for success.
- Practice, edit, change, and improve! Revise your outline and speaking notes as you practice, engage in peer feedback, and rehearse.
- PRACTICE and PRACTICE and PRACTICE more! You are presenting NOT reading your speech. You will only be able to do this with practice.
- Be sure to practice in the environment you will be presenting your speech *at least* once. Know how to upload and use your presentation aids. Know what your camera angle looks like. Refer to the delivery module for more tips on success!
- ASK questions if you have them!

Practice and Rehearsal Guidelines

The following guidelines are best practices on how to practice and rehearse an extemporaneous speech:

- Create speaking notes and practice with them! You should not be using your preparation outline or a manuscript to practice.
- Speak in a conversational style by pretending you are *with* your audience.
- Rehearse with your graphics/visuals and coordinate them with your talk.
- Display your graphics/visuals *only* when you are talking about them.
- Rehearse in front of others and solicit feedback.
- Record and listen to your timed practice speech.
- Prepare for interruptions and questions at the end.

Extemporaneous speaking is not memorization or manuscript speaking and requires you to organize and prepare your content and notes ahead of time to deliver a speech that will engage your audience.

Delivery Reminders

Revisit module 3 for details on vocal and physical delivery. Below is a short review about delivery elements you should be focusing on during your practice sessions.

Voice

Volume Speak loudly enough so that we can hear you. Good volume also makes you sound confident

Clarity Enunciate your words, and avoid mumbling, so the audience can easily understand what you're saying

Tone Match your tone to the content. Typically, tone goes higher when we are unsure or are asking a question, and goes lower when we are stating a fact or being authoritative

Pace Speak slowly enough to be understood, and vary your pace to add interest

- Choppiness – Speak as fluidly as possible, avoid hesitations and unusual pacing
- Speed – Speak smoothly and confidently, but a little slower than in normal conversation. In multicultural situations (where we might not be familiar with each others' accents) speak even slower, and watch your audience to make sure they understand you.
- Pauses – Listening can be tiring. Brief pauses let your audience absorb information. You can also use pauses to add emphasis or anticipation.

Vocal variety Vary your tone, pace and volume to add interest, emphasis and clarity. For example, speak a little faster to add excitement or anticipation, or speak a little louder to show emphasis. Some cultures and languages tend to be more monotone, so some students may have to work a little bit harder to ensure they vary their tone.

Body language

Professional posture Good posture supports your voice, and makes

you look professional and confident (when we're nervous we tend to hunch and cross our arms). Face the audience most of the time, and avoid turning your back on them to look at your slides.

Manage your movement Repetitive body movements, such as tapping your foot or swaying, can also distract the audience. If you're presenting in person, slowly move around the physical space, such as moving towards the audience, or from one part of the room to another.

Use gestures Use gestures to add interest, emphasis, and help explain what you're saying, such as indicating part of a slide or demonstrating an action.

Eyes & face

Make eye contact most of the time Eye contact shows confidence and helps everyone in the audience feel included. Look at all parts of the room. Secret tip for shy presenters: look at people's foreheads – it has the same effect as eye contact. If you're presenting online, this means looking at the camera. If you're using notes should be point form – not full sentences – that you can quickly glance at, not read.

Manage your facial expressions You can show passion and emotion through facial expressions. But be careful, sometimes presenters show how nervous they are by having a look of worry on their face.

Passion

Your passion will engage the audience. Show your enthusiasm, energy, and interest through the appropriate use of tone, pace, volume, facial expressions, gestures, and body language.

Your level of energy can be infectious, and inspire the audience.

Even if your topic is serious, like mental health or a tragedy, you can still convey conviction and interest in the subject matter. Conversely, without passion, you can make even the most fascinating content boring, and cause your audience to disengage. Storytelling is very powerful. Do not begin your speech with “Today, I am going to talk to you about ____”. Hook your audience with a story.



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Words

Filler words Fillers distract the audience and make you seem nervous, unprepared or professional. These include *uhh*, *umm*, *like*, *you know*, and any other words or noises that are not actual content. Real words like *and* and so can also be used as filler words.

Vocabulary Use words and phrases your audience understands; language that is appropriate for them. Will they understand abbreviations, acronyms, slang and jargon?

Transitions Use transitions to connect sentences to each other, indicate that you’re moving to the next major point, or in group presentations, that you’re moving to the next speaker.

Tip: Words we are saying wrong



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from this version of the text. You can view them online here:
<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=53#oembed-2>

[Me4](#)

Timing

Make sure the length of your presentation matches your audience's expectations (or the time limit set by the assignment).

If you have a speech impediment

If you stutter, you're not alone. Many famous people have found ways to become great presenters while managing their stutter, including President Joe Biden, James Earl Jones (the voice of Darth Vader), and Nicole Kidman. Some basic coping strategies include speaking slowly, managing stress, and thoroughly knowing your material. Additional resources are available from [The Canadian Stuttering Association](#).

Got Nerves?

Finally, remember that nerves are common! The following video

offers practical suggestions to work through the jitters and confidently deliver a speech.



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Watch this video to recall important aspects of informative speaking, organizing your speech, and delivering your final speech. These tips will help you polish your speech and demonstrate a well-developed outline and impressive delivery.



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Activity



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Key Takeaways

- Extemporaneous speaking requires extensive preparation and practice.
- Effective delivery takes time and work. Working through the speech making process is the best method for successful speech delivery.
- You can work through your nerves and deliver a strong speech!

PART VI

CHAPTER 6: ELEMENTS OF PERSUASIVE SPEAKING

In this chapter you will be introduced to Ethos, Pathos, and Logos. These elements of rhetoric and persuasion are vital to our speeches. Ethos will encourage you to consider your credibility as a speaker, pathos will ask you to engage with your audience and consider their perspective and ways in which you can further their emotional connection to your topic, and logos will guide the logic of your speech. Public speakers that utilize all three, ethos, pathos, and logos, are setting themselves up for success in their speech delivery. We will also review Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs as a theoretical underpinning to the development of a persuasive speech by tailoring the message to our audience. The audience is key to your speech; it is important to truly consider the needs of the listeners. Lastly, we will learn how to organize our persuasive speeches through an organizational pattern called Monroe's Motivated Sequence. If you read through the material and apply the concepts, you will be well on your way to delivering a strong persuasive speech.

42. Speaking to Persuade/ Advocacy

Learning Objectives

- Define persuasion and advocacy.
- Differentiate between claims of fact, value, and policy.

Speaking to Persuade/Advocacy

GILLIAN, BONANNO, M.A.

Defining Persuasion and Advocacy

Persuasion is “the act of influencing someone to do something or to change their mind” (“Persuasion”). In a persuasive presentation, the goal is to provide the audience with information that will convince them to see your side on an issue. According to Cialdini and Goldstein, “the six basic principles that govern how one person might influence another are: *liking, reciprocation, consistency, scarcity, social validation, and authority*” (41).

1. First, an individual may be more likely to be persuaded by someone that they “like” which ranges from knowing someone personally to having an “instant bond” with a stranger (Cialdini and Goldstein, 41).
2. *Reciprocation* refers to the notion that there is an exchange of some kind, such as in business negotiations (Cialdini and Goldstein, 45).
3. *Consistency* encourages individuals to persuade others by recognizing “a fundamental human tendency to be and to appear consistent with one’s actions, statements, and beliefs” (Cialdini and Goldstein, 45).
4. *Scarcity* principle focuses on the idea that “items and opportunities that are in short supply or unavailable tend to be more desirable than those... that are plentiful and more accessible” (Cialdini and Goldstein, 46). For example, think about a product that you may be interested in purchasing. If the product is limited in production or availability, it might persuade you to be more interested in purchasing the item.
5. *Social validation* refers to the idea that individuals “look to others for cues,” and this will influence their decisions (Cialdini and Goldstein, 48).
6. Finally, *authority* suggests that individuals are persuaded by those they consider to have an expertise in a particular area (Cialdini and Goldstein, 49).

These six principles provide some examples of how an individual (or an audience) can be persuaded. There are certainly other methods and note that not all these principles need to be included in a persuasive presentation for it to be effective.

In addition to the principles listed above, you may consider choosing a basis, or claim, for formulating an argument. This chapter will address three types of persuasive speech claims: questions of fact, value, and policy. In general:

- **Claims of fact** are quantifiable statements that focus on the

accuracy, correctness, or validity of such statements and can be verified using some objective evidence.

- **Claims of value** are qualitative statements that focus on judgments made about the environment and invite comparisons.
- **Claims of policy** are statements that focus on actions that should be taken to change the status quo” (*Types of Claims*).

Let’s explore each claim above in more detail, starting with a discussion of statements of fact.

A *claim of fact* is “something quantifiable has existed, does exist, or will exist” (*Types of Claims*). This type of claim focuses on data that may not necessarily be refutable based on quantitative data used to present your side of an issue. There are many examples of speeches that use statements of fact as a basis for an argument. The claim may stem from something that you do every day (such as brushing your teeth or taking a walk), but you may want to persuade the audience that they should also do these things if they are not already doing so. In these examples, you may state something specific and able to be verified such as, ‘Brushing your teeth twice a day can decrease tooth decay’ or ‘Walking every day decreases the risk of cardiovascular disease’ and then support these claims with clear statistics, charts, or data that will help them to embrace your claim. (Please note that the claims above are simply examples, and data is not included to support or refute these claims in this chapter.)

You may also wish to consider a speech that addresses a question of value.

A *claim of value* “asserts qualitative judgments along a good-to-bad continuum relating to persons, events, and things in one’s environment” (*Types of Claims*). This type of speech may include more qualitative data, such as open-ended responses. The claim of value may include words such as good, bad, better, best, or worse. These are often considered to be subjective terms (one person may have a different idea of good/bad/better/best/worst) and it is the

responsibility of the presenter to define these subjective terms and also provide evidence to support the claims. Some examples might include ‘Car X is better than Car Y’ or ‘Coffee is the best morning beverage.’ (Note that these are simply examples, and support for these claims is not provided in this chapter.)

In a *claim of policy*, the word “should” helps to formulate your argument. Using the word “should” is important as it “implies that some action ought to be taken, but not that it must or will be taken” (*Types of Claims*).

You may use this type of claim to address issues of politics, policies, health, environment, safety, or other larger global concerns. Your speech will describe the reason why you feel that a policy or issue should (or should not) be addressed in a specific way based on your research. In this type of speech, you are asking your audience to support your solution to an issue that you have presented to them. Examples may include “Policy A should be changed to include (mention what should be included)” or “College students should have access to (mention what students should have access to).” Presenters for this type of speech should clearly explain the policy and then share with the audience why it should be changed (or upheld) by using their research to support the position.

Advocacy

Advocacy, on the other hand, is “the act or process of supporting a cause or proposal” (“Advocacy”). An advocate feels strongly about an issue and will work diligently to encourage others to support their cause. An advocate should be able to speak about an issue in a concise, professional, and persuasive manner. Enthusiasm for a cause will shine through if the advocate thoroughly embraces the role. This can be accomplished by conducting research, exploring opposing views on the issue at hand, preparing effective visual aids, and practicing the delivery of the content before a presentation or

event. An advocate takes on many forms. A lawyer advocates for clients. A patient may advocate for rights to care. A student may advocate for a higher grade from a professor.

An advocate can be described as:

- 1) One who pleads the cause of another, specifically one who pleads the cause of another before a tribunal or judicial court.
- 2) One who defends or maintains a cause or proposal.
- 3) One who supports or promotes the interest of a cause or group (“Advocate”)

Types of Advocacy

There are many types of advocacy. This chapter will address self-advocacy, peer advocacy, and citizen advocacy.

Self-advocacy addresses the need for an individual to advocate for oneself. Examples might include negotiating with a boss for a raise, or perhaps used when applying for college or health insurance. According to an advocacy website, Advocacy: inclusion, empowerment and human rights, “The goal of self-advocacy is for people to decide what they want and to carry out plans to help them get it the individual self-assesses a situation or problem and then speaks for his or her own needs.”

Individuals who share experiences, values, or positions will join together in a group advocacy setting. This type of advocacy includes sharing ideas with one another and speaking collectively about issues. The groups “aim to influence public opinion, policy and service provision” and are often part of committees with varying “size, influence, and motive.” (Advocacy: inclusion, empowerment and human rights.) Examples might include groups interested in protecting the environment, rights to adequate health care, addressing issues of diversity, equity, and/or inclusion, or working together to save an endangered species.

A citizen advocate involves local community members who work

together to have a platform to address issues that affect their lives. An example might include community school boards or participation in town hall meetings. (Advocacy: inclusion, empowerment and human rights)

As you can see, persuasion and advocacy have been defined in different ways. As the presenter, you have the opportunity to persuade your audience, and can use these definitions to help you decide what type of advocate or persuasive presentation that you would like to develop. As you are developing these ideas, continue to narrow in on a topic that you are passionate about and can connect with the audience.

Here are some additional ideas to consider when choosing a topic:

- Choose a topic that is (relatively) new to you! You may consider taking some time to explore a topic that you do not yet know about and/or one that you want to learn more about. Perhaps you recently read, saw, or experienced something that you would like to research and share with your audience. Maybe you began your process with not knowing which side you support on an issue, and you take some time to research both sides of an issue and determine which you support. You can use this presentation as an opportunity to learn more about that topic and can then talk about this process in your presentation. Using the research that you have gathered will help you as you explain to the audience why they should share your perspective on the item at hand.
- Choose a topic that you already know about and feel strongly that your audience should share your views on this topic. For this type of presentation, you will be taking your knowledge and expanding it. You can search for items that support your side and also take some time to review the data provided by those that support the opposite side of the issue.

Ready to Begin: Inspiration

Now it is your turn to persuade your audience. Be the advocate!

Share your knowledge and passion with your classmates. Use this chapter, the worksheets, and your own talents to help you with the process of writing, researching, outlining, and presenting. Take your time with each step and enjoy the process. Below are some voices of advocates discussing what they do and why they do it. Perhaps these stories will inspire you as you work! Survey data collected via [surveymonkey.com](https://www.surveymonkey.com), and some names have been changed.

Melissa S., Cystic Fibrosis Advocate

What does the term “advocate” mean to you?

Sharing your story to educate and inspire in order to further your cause.

How did you become an advocate?

I was asked to formally advocate for an organization, but in truth, I advocate for myself or my family or issues I believe in.

What do you advocate for?

I advocate for the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation on behalf of families who endure life with Cystic Fibrosis (CF). I advocate for policy change that better the lives of CF families with issues surrounding disability and bettering research methods, as well as funding (from various agencies) so that research can be conducted in the most efficient, expedited, and safe fashion.

Why is it so important to advocate for your cause?

It is important because I have Cystic Fibrosis and have

also lost a brother to Cystic Fibrosis. I wasn't to ensure that my family doesn't suffer another loss that no family should suffer.

What advice can you give others who are looking to become an advocate?

It can seem intimidating to stand in front of a group of people to advocate for your cause, but the truth is that your story, and why you're advocating is THE most important part of it. Don't get bogged down or scared about memorizing facts and figures – the best thing someone can take away from talking with you is the visceral reaction they get from hearing how your issue affects you and your family.

In a few sentences, describe yourself.

I am (a) decidedly optimistic person who lives with a debilitating progressive disease (Cystic Fibrosis). While having CF occupies a lot of time in my daily life, I try not to let it define me and live my life with joy and purpose. I love my family and friends and will do anything in my power to protect them. I also love standing up for things I believe in. Becoming an advocate for CF has lifted my voice and given me the confidence to speak out. Now, I can't stop! (updated 7/2021).

D. D., Registered Nurse

What does the term “advocate” mean to you?

Advocate means to support or fight for a cause.

How did you become an advocate?

I became an advocate since working within the medical field and because I am a mother.

What do you advocate for?

I am an advocate for my son. He is an alcoholic and drug addict. I am involved with helping addicts and families that are in need of support and guidance. I am a volunteer for (a) local YMCA to help bring a face to the disease of addiction. I am also an advocate for people with Cystic Fibrosis. I am a Registered Nurse who has been caring for patients and families affected by this disease. I am there for medical, emotional and fundraising support.

Why is it so important to advocate for your cause?

It is important for me to put a face to the families that are suffering from these diseases. To make it more personal.

What advice can you give others who are looking to become an advocate?

Be strong and vigilant. Really believe in what you are supporting. Passion goes a long way.

In a few sentences, describe yourself.

I am a mom and an RN. I am a recent widow with 2 children who have had their struggles but are now doing well. I work full time as a Nurse Manager at NY hospital.

Is there anything else that you would like to share? A story, perhaps, about a time that you felt very strongly about something, and what you did to advocate for that person or cause?

Every day I feel like I advocate for addiction. Many people do not realize addiction affects everyone. I constantly have to remind people that I meet of this. It is difficult at times because most people have the most horrible things to say about addicts. I try to educate people about addiction as much as I can.

C. B., Breast Cancer Survivor

What does the term “advocate” mean to you?

Supporter of something you are passionate about and believe in.

How did you become an advocate?

I became an advocate of breast cancer through my own experience.

What do you advocate for?

I am an advocate for breast cancer! This disease

generally affects women but in some cases men are also affected! It is a silent beast that can creep up on you at any time in your life... it has no discrimination and age is not a factor.

Why is it so important to advocate for your cause?

It is simple... it is the difference between life and death! So many women are so afraid they choose to ignore the signs. It is so important to find your strength, face your fears and deal with this head on!!!

What advice can you give others who are looking to become an advocate?

Speak your truth! Tell your story! You have no idea how much it can help someone else who is facing the very same fears!

In a few sentences, describe yourself.

I have always believed where there is a will, there is a way! I never take no for an answer when it is something really important that matters! It is one of my earliest mottos I have followed through life. I have always been determined to find my strength and face my fears even on my darkest day!!!

Is there anything else that you would like to share? A story, perhaps, about a time that you felt very strongly about something, and what you did to advocate for that person or cause?

I feel it is so important to help women face their fears when it comes to breast cancer. It is for this reason so many do not examine themselves and/or go for mammograms. I can tell you first hand every moment

counts!!!! I did one whole year of chemotherapy, lost my beautiful hair but fared through! Again I was LUCKY!! I can only hope that this will help others facing breast cancer!

Key Takeaways

- In persuasive speaking there is a lens of ethos, pathos, and logos to connect directly with this audience and engage in an advocacy mindset.
- Be sure to connect in ways that are meaningful to you as a speaker and the audience through human connection.

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43. Rhetorical Strategies: Social Organizing and Social Movements

Learning Objectives

- Determine the importance of rhetoric in culture
- Utilize rhetorical strategies to connect with a diverse audience

As you have learned, Public Speaking requires many elements for success. Interestingly, much of public speaking is from a European-Western perspective and often leaves out the dynamic public speakers from social justice movements such as Chattel slavery era, emancipation, civil rights, and present day social movements. These speakers are often overlooked or removed from rhetorical research. This removal and/or invisibility dismisses the work that has been done and continues to be done by people of color, African American/Black communities, and indigenous activists in America. As a student of public speaking, you will be introduced to a few historical figures that used their voice to inform, persuade, and call for justice for all people(s). Their persuasive strategies are key – as a student, you should consider incorporating their strategies of ethos, pathos, and logos into your own speeches.

African-American rhetoric as an oral tradition, area of study, and discipline has been taken up by many colleges and universities.

When students enter a public speaking course, they rarely consider culture, and more specifically, oral traditions of co-cultures such as the African-American culture. There are several theories, methods, practical applications, and gestures within African-American rhetoric that intertwine to push normative thinking about public speaking and discourse.

Call and response pattern:

“The widespread use of the call-and-response discourse mode among African-Americans illustrates the importance placed on dialogue. Composed of spontaneous verbal and nonverbal interaction between speaker and listener in which all of the speaker’s statements, or “calls,” are punctuated by expressions, or “responses,” from the listener, this Black discourse mode pervades African-American culture. The fundamental requirement of this interactive network is the active participation of all individuals (Smitherman 1977, 108). For ideas to be tested and validated, everyone in the group must participate. To refuse to join in, especially if one really disagrees with what has been said, is seen as “cheating” (Kochman 1981, 28).” (Collins, 2000 p. 261). The call and response pattern has been utilized by other communities today but has roots within the African-American culture and remains a vital component of rhetoric within the Black and African American community at-large.

Here are a few speeches that implement Black and/or African American rhetorical strategies to inform and persuade their audience:

Martin Luther King Jr. was a Baptist minister and a leader of the Civil Rights Movement in America. His promise to America, more specifically African-Americans, was to fight against injustice and racial discrimination in America. He did so through non-violent protesting, the written word, and rhetorical strategies. Although his lens was non-violence; he encouraged civil disobedience and a call to action. His famous address: “I Have a Dream” speech is

often times recounted as his only speech; yet, Dr. King spoke often formally and informally to advance the status of African Americans in America. Here is an example of his rhetorical strategies:



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Sojourner Truth's Famous Speech "Ain't I a Woman" Performed by Kerry Washington.

Truth is best known for her extemporaneous 1851 speech "Ain't I a Woman" delivered at the Ohio Women's Rights Convention in Akron, Ohio. This speech became known during the Civil War. Truth was born into slavery and successfully escaped with her infant daughter. She became an abolitionist and civil rights activist for women's rights. She argued that Black women were equal and vital to abolition work and women's rights. It is cited in her biography "At a time when most Americans thought of slaves as male and women as white, Truth embodied a fact that still bears repeating: Among the blacks are women; among the women, there are blacks" (Nell Irvin Painter, 1997).



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Frederick Douglass “The Meaning of July Fourth for the Negro”
Performed by Brian Jones.

Frederick Douglass was born into slavery around 1818; he became a key leader of the abolitionist movement. Douglass was asked to speak to a group of Americans on July 5th 1852 in Rochester, NY. He delivered a revolutionary speech addressing what it meant to be a “negro” during the July Fourth celebrations in North America. He delivered this speech to an audience of the Rochester Ladies Anti-Slavery Society.



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from this version of the text. You can view them online
here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=176#oembed-3>

Latino/a/x communities have also engaged in social movements and used their own cultures rhetorical strategies to implement change and demand social justice within America. During the Civil Rights Movement (1964), The Farmworkers Movement (1966), and East LA Student Walk Outs (1968) – the Latinx community demonstrated their use of rhetorical strategies to illustrate the ways in which dominant society was oppressing their communities and/or taking advantage of their labor. Additionally, during these years high school students began utilizing their role models success to implement change within the K-12 educational system and demanded access to resources, equitable hiring of Mexican-American educators and administrators, as well as a pipeline to post-secondary education. The 1960’s were foundational to the advocacy and rhetorical strategies that continue in America today.

Click the link to see a LIVE clip from the Chicana social movement:

<https://diva.sfsu.edu/collections/sfbatv/bundles/185999>

Gloria Anzaldúa “To Live in the Borderlands” performed by Nancy Rodriguez

Gloria Anzaldúa was an American scholar, poet, lesbian feminist, and activist. She wrote about Mestiza Consciousness and linked her work to that of WEB Du Bois Double Consciousness. She was a leading feminist scholar during the early 1980’s and wrote a ground breaking anthology with Cherrie Moraga entitled “This Bridge Called My Back”. Her poetry and inclusion of English and Spanish intertwined within her work demonstrates the ability to connect with multiple types of audiences. Nancy Rodriguez is performing/speaking Anzaldúa’s work “To Live In The Borderlands”. Listen closely to the rhetorical strategies utilized to connect to a diverse audience and incorporate visual imagery and pathos throughout the speech.



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Key Takeaways

- The focus is to understand that public speaking is

not a dominant culture discourse or skill. All groups or co-cultures have a form of rhetorical strategy and many of these strategies have been implemented to gain acceptance and a voice “at the table”.

- Due to the timeframe, much of these visual representations were not recorded and/or captured; however, the reenactment of these speeches emphasizes the importance of a strong outline, a clear audience connection, and a call to action. *If you were not present to speak for yourself – what would your outline say for you?*

Reference

Written by Amber Green, M.A.

44. Critical Thinking Skills

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the role that logic plays in critical thinking
- Explain how critical thinking skills can be used to problem-solve
- Describe how critical thinking skills can be used to evaluate information
- Identify strategies for developing yourself as a critical thinker

Logic

Thinking comes naturally. You don't have to make it happen—it just does. But you can make it happen in different ways. For example, you can think positively or negatively. You can think with “heart” and you can think with rational judgment. You can also think strategically and analytically, and mathematically and scientifically. These are a few of the multiple ways in which the mind can process thought.

What are some forms of thinking you use? When do you use them, and why?

As a college student, you are tasked with engaging and expanding your thinking skills. One of the most important of these skills is critical thinking. Critical thinking is important because it relates

to nearly all tasks, situations, topics, careers, environments, challenges, and opportunities. It's a "domain-general" thinking skill—not a thinking skill that's reserved for a one subject alone or restricted to a particular subject area.

Great leaders have highly attuned critical thinking skills, and you can, too. In fact, you probably have a lot of these skills already. Of all your thinking skills, critical thinking may have the greatest value.

What Is Critical Thinking?

Critical thinking is clear, reasonable, reflective thinking focused on deciding what to believe or do. It means asking probing questions like, "How do we know?" or "Is this true in every case or just in this instance?" It involves being skeptical and challenging assumptions, rather than simply memorizing facts or blindly accepting what you hear or read.

Imagine, for example, that you're reading a history textbook. You wonder who wrote it and why, because you detect certain biases in the writing. You find that the author has a limited scope of research focused only on a particular group within a population. In this case, your critical thinking reveals that there are "other sides to the story."

Who are critical thinkers, and what characteristics do they have in common?

- Critical thinkers are usually curious and reflective people. They like to explore and probe new areas and seek knowledge, clarification, and new solutions. They ask pertinent questions, evaluate statements and arguments, and distinguish between facts and opinion. They are also willing to examine their own beliefs, possessing a manner of humility that allows them to admit a lack of knowledge or understanding when needed. They are open to changing their mind. Perhaps most of all,

they actively enjoy learning, and seeking new knowledge is a lifelong pursuit.

This may well be you!

No matter where you are on the road to being a critical thinker, you can always more fully develop and finely tune your skills. Doing so will help you develop more balanced arguments, express yourself clearly, read critically, and glean important information efficiently. Critical thinking skills will help you in any profession or any circumstance of life, from science to art to business to teaching. With critical thinking, you become a clearer thinker and problem solver.

Critical Thinking IS	Critical Thinking is NOT
Skepticism	Memorizing
Examining assumptions	Group thinking
Challenging reasoning	Blind acceptance of authority
Uncovering biases	

Critical Thinking and Logic

Critical thinking is fundamentally a process of questioning information and data. You may question the information you read in a textbook, or you may question what a politician or a professor or a classmate says. You can also question a commonly-held belief or a new idea. With critical thinking, anything and everything is subject to question and examination for the purpose of logically constructing reasoned perspectives.

What Is Logic, and Why Is It Important in Critical Thinking?

The word *logic* comes from the Ancient Greek *logike*, referring to the science or art of reasoning. Using logic, a person evaluates arguments and reasoning and strives to distinguish between good and bad reasoning, or between truth and falsehood. Using logic, you can evaluate ideas or claims people make, make good decisions, and form sound beliefs about the world.¹

Questions of Logic in Critical Thinking

Let's use a simple example of applying logic to a critical-thinking situation. In this hypothetical scenario, a man has a PhD in political science, and he works as a professor at a local college. His wife works at the college, too. They have three young children in the local school system, and their family is well known in the community. The man is now running for political office. Are his credentials and experience sufficient for entering public office? Will he be effective in the political office? Some voters might believe that his personal life and current job, on the surface, suggest he will do well in the position, and they will vote for him. In truth, the characteristics described don't guarantee that the man will do a good job. The information is somewhat irrelevant. What else might you want to know? How about whether the man had already held a political office and done a good job? In this case, we want to ask, How much information is adequate in order to make a decision based on logic instead of assumptions?

The following questions, presented in Figure 1, below, are ones

1.²

2. [1]

you may apply to formulating a logical, reasoned perspective in the above scenario or any other situation:

1. *What's happening?* Gather the basic information and begin to think of questions.
2. *Why is it important?* Ask yourself why it's significant and whether or not you agree.
3. *What don't I see?* Is there anything important missing?
4. *How do I know?* Ask yourself where the information came from and how it was constructed.
5. *Who is saying it?* What's the position of the speaker and what is influencing them?
6. *What else? What if?* What other ideas exist and are there other possibilities?

Questions a Critical Thinker Asks

What's Happening?

Gather the basic information and begin to think of questions



Why Is It Important?

Ask yourself why it's significant and whether or not you agree

What Don't I See?

Is there anything important missing?



Answers



How Do I Know?

Ask yourself where the information came from and how it was constructed



Who Is Saying It?

What's the position of the speaker and what is influencing them?



If only time were relative...



What Else? What If?

What other ideas exist and are there other possibilities?



a place of mind

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Problem-Solving

For most people, a typical day is filled with critical thinking and problem-solving challenges. In fact, critical thinking and problem-solving go hand-in-hand. They both refer to using knowledge, facts, and data to solve problems effectively. But with problem-solving, you are specifically identifying, selecting, and defending your solution. Below are some examples of using critical thinking to problem-solve:

- Your roommate was upset and said some unkind words to you, which put a crimp in the relationship. You try to see through the angry behaviors to determine how you might best support the roommate and help bring the relationship back to a comfortable spot.
- Your campus club has been languishing on account of a lack of participation and funds. The new club president, though, is a marketing major and has identified some strategies to interest students in joining and supporting the club. Implementation is forthcoming.
- Your final art class project challenges you to conceptualize form in new ways. On the last day of class when students present their projects, you describe the techniques you used to fulfill the assignment. You explain why and how you selected that approach.
- Your math teacher sees that the class is not quite grasping a concept. She uses clever questioning to dispel anxiety and guide you to new understanding of the concept.
- You have a job interview for a position that you feel you are only partially qualified for, although you really want the job and you are excited about the prospects. You analyze how you will explain your skills and experiences in a way to show that you are a good match for the prospective employer.
- You are doing well in college, and most of your college and

living expenses are covered. But there are some gaps between what you want and what you feel you can afford. You analyze your income, savings, and budget to better calculate what you will need to stay in college and maintain your desired level of spending.

Evaluating Information

Evaluating information can be one of the most complex tasks you will be faced with in college. But if you utilize the following four strategies, you will be well on your way to success:

1. Read for understanding by using text coding
2. Examine arguments
3. Clarify thinking
4. Cultivate “habits of mind”

Examine Arguments

When you examine arguments or claims that an author, speaker, or other source is making, your goal is to identify and examine the hard facts. You can use the [spectrum of authority strategy](#) for this purpose. The spectrum of authority strategy assists you in identifying the “hot” end of an argument—feelings, beliefs, cultural influences, and societal influences—and the “cold” end of an argument—scientific influences.

Clarify Thinking

When you use critical thinking to evaluate information, you need to clarify your thinking to yourself and likely to others. Doing this well is mainly a process of asking and answering probing questions,

such as the logic questions discussed earlier. Design your questions to fit your needs, but be sure to cover adequate ground. What is the purpose? What question are we trying to answer? What point of view is being expressed? What assumptions are we or others making? What are the facts and data we know, and how do we know them? What are the concepts we're working with? What are the conclusions, and do they make sense? What are the implications?

Cultivate “Habits of Mind”

“Habits of mind” are the personal commitments, values, and standards you have about the principle of good thinking. Consider your intellectual commitments, values, and standards. Do you approach problems with an open mind, a respect for truth, and an inquiring attitude? Some good habits to have when thinking critically are being receptive to having your opinions changed, having respect for others, being independent and not accepting something is true until you've had the time to examine the available evidence, being fair-minded, having respect for a reason, having an inquiring mind, not making assumptions, and always, especially, questioning your own conclusions—in other words, developing an intellectual work ethic. Try to work these qualities into your daily life.

Developing Yourself as a Critical Thinker



Critical thinking is a desire to seek, patience to doubt, fondness to meditate, slowness to assert, readiness to consider, carefulness to dispose and set in order; and hatred for every kind of imposture. —Francis Bacon, philosopher

Critical thinking is a fundamental skill for college students, but it should also be a lifelong pursuit. Below are additional strategies to develop yourself as a critical thinker in college and in everyday life:

- **Reflect and practice:** Always reflect on what you've learned. Is it true all the time? How did you arrive at your conclusions?
- **Use wasted time:** It's certainly important to make time for relaxing, but if you find you are indulging in too much of a good thing, think about using your time more constructively. Determine when you do your best thinking and try to learn something new during that part of the day.

- **Redefine the way you see things:** It can be very uninteresting to always think the same way. Challenge yourself to see familiar things in new ways. Put yourself in someone else's shoes and consider things from a different angle or perspective. If you're trying to solve a problem, list all your concerns: what you need in order to solve it, who can help, what some possible barriers might be, etc. It's often possible to reframe a problem as an opportunity. Try to find a solution where there seems to be none.
- **Analyze the influences on your thinking and in your life:** Why do you think or feel the way you do? Analyze your influences. Think about who in your life influences you. Do you feel or react a certain way because of social convention, or because you believe it is what is expected of you? Try to break out of any molds that may be constricting you.
- **Express yourself:** Critical thinking also involves being able to express yourself clearly. Most important in expressing yourself clearly is stating one point at a time. You might be inclined to argue every thought, but you might have greater impact if you focus just on your main arguments. This will help others to follow your thinking clearly. For more abstract ideas, assume that your audience may not understand. Provide examples, analogies, or metaphors where you can.
- **Enhance your wellness:** It's easier to think critically when you take care of your mental and physical health. **Try taking 10-minute activity breaks to reach 30 to 60 minutes of physical activity each day.** Try taking a break between classes and walk to the coffee shop that's farthest away. Scheduling physical activity into your day can help lower stress and increase mental alertness. Also, **do your most difficult work when you have the most energy.** Think about the time of day you are most effective and have the most energy. Plan to do your most difficult work during these times. And be sure to **reach out for help.** If you feel you need assistance with your mental or physical health, talk to a counselor or visit a doctor.

Key Takeaways

Critical thinking is a skill that will help speakers further develop their arguments and position their speech in a strong manner.

- Critical thinking utilizes thought, plan, and action. Be sure to consider the research at-hand and develop an argument that is logical and connects to the audience.
- It is important to conduct an audience analysis to understand the ways in which your research and argument will resonate with the group you are delivering your information to; you can strengthen your argument by accurately positioning your argument and yourself in within a diverse audience.

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45. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Learning Objectives

- Identify the multiple levels of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs as it relates to public speaking
- Distinguish between the needs and their connection to the audience

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Physiological needs form the base of the hierarchy of needs. The closer the needs are to the base, the more important they are for human survival. Speakers do not appeal to physiological needs. After all, a person who doesn't have food, air, or water isn't very likely to want to engage in persuasion, and it wouldn't be ethical to deny or promise these things to someone for persuasive gain. Some speakers attempt to appeal to self-actualization needs, but I argue that this is difficult to do ethically. Self-actualization refers to our need to achieve our highest potential, and these needs are much more intrapersonal than the others. We achieve our highest potential through things that are individual to us, and these are often things that we protect from outsiders. Some examples include pursuing higher education and intellectual fulfillment, pursuing art or music, or pursuing religious or spiritual fulfillment. These are

often things we do by ourselves and for ourselves, so I like to think of this as sacred ground that should be left alone. Speakers are more likely to be successful at focusing on safety, social, and self-esteem needs.

We satisfy our safety needs when we work to preserve our safety and the safety of our loved ones. Speakers can combine appeals to safety with positive motivation by presenting information that will result in increased safety and security. Combining safety needs and negative motivation, a speaker may convey that audience members' safety and security will be put at risk if the speaker's message isn't followed. Combining negative motivation and safety needs depends on using some degree of fear as a motivator. Think of how the insurance industry relies on appeals to safety needs for their business. While this is not necessarily a bad strategy, it can be done more or less ethically.

Ethics of Using Fear Appeals

- Do not overuse fear appeals.
- The threat must be credible and supported by evidence.
- Empower the audience to address the threat.

I saw a perfect example of a persuasive appeal to safety while waiting at the shop for my car to be fixed. A pamphlet cover with a yellow and black message reading, "Warning," and a stark black and white picture of a little boy picking up a ball with the back fender of a car a few feet from his head beckoned to me from across the room. The brochure was produced by an organization called Kids and Cars, whose tagline is "Love them, protect them." While the cover of the brochure was designed to provoke the receiver and compel them to open the brochure, the information inside met the ethical guidelines for using fear appeals. The first statistic noted that at least two children a week are killed when they are backed over in a driveway or parking lot. The statistic is followed by safety tips to empower the audience to address the threat. You can see a

video example of how this organization effectively uses fear appeals in Video 11.1.

Video Clip 11.1

Kids and Cars: Bye-Bye Syndrome



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online

here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=189#oembed-1>

This video illustrates how a fear appeal aimed at safety needs can be persuasive. The goal is to get the attention of audience members and compel them to check out the information the organization provides. Since the information provided by the organization supports the credibility of the threat, empowers the audience to address the threat, and is free, this is an example of an ethical fear appeal.

Our social needs relate to our desire to belong to supportive and caring groups. We meet social needs through interpersonal relationships ranging from acquaintances to intimate partnerships. We also become part of interest groups or social or political groups that help create our sense of identity. The existence and power of peer pressure is a testament to the motivating power of social

needs. People go to great lengths and sometimes make poor decisions they later regret to be a part of the “in-group.” Advertisers often rely on creating a sense of exclusivity to appeal to people’s social needs. Positive and negative motivation can be combined with social appeals. Positive motivation is present in messages that promise the receiver “in-group” status or belonging, and negative motivation can be seen in messages that persuade by saying, “Don’t be left out.” Although these arguments may rely on the bandwagon fallacy to varying degrees, they draw out insecurities people have about being in the “out-group.”

We all have a need to think well of ourselves and have others think well of us, which ties to our self-esteem needs. Messages that combine appeals to self-esteem needs and positive motivation often promise increases in respect and status. A financial planner may persuade by inviting a receiver to imagine prosperity that will result from accepting his or her message. A publicly supported radio station may persuade listeners to donate money to the station by highlighting a potential contribution to society. The health and beauty industries may persuade consumers to buy their products by promising increased attractiveness. While it may seem shallow to entertain such ego needs, they are an important part of our psychological makeup. Unfortunately, some sources of persuasive messages are more concerned with their own gain than the well-being of others and may take advantage of people’s insecurities in order to advance their persuasive message. Instead, ethical speakers should use appeals to self-esteem that focus on prosperity, contribution, and attractiveness in ways that empower listeners.

Key Takeaways

- Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs can provide valuable information about audience needs.
- We must appeal to audience's needs to be successful with persuasion.

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46. Persuasive Appeals

Learning Objectives

1. Identify common persuasive strategies.
2. Explain how speakers develop ethos.
3. Explain how speakers appeal to logos and pathos.
4. Describe the relationship between motivation and appeals to needs as persuasive strategies.

Persuasive Strategies

Do you think you are easily persuaded? If you are like most people, you aren't swayed easily to change your mind about something. Persuasion is difficult because changing views often makes people feel like they were either not informed or ill informed, which also means they have to admit they were wrong about something. We will learn about nine persuasive strategies that you can use to more effectively influence audience members' beliefs, attitudes, and values. They are ethos, logos, pathos, positive motivation, negative motivation, cognitive dissonance, appeal to safety needs, appeal to social needs, and appeal to self-esteem needs.

Ethos, Logos, and Pathos

Ethos, logos, and pathos were Aristotle's three forms of rhetorical proof, meaning they were primary to his theories of persuasion. Ethos refers to the credibility of a speaker and includes three dimensions: competence, trustworthiness, and dynamism.

The two most researched dimensions of **credibility** are competence and trustworthiness (Stiff & Mongeau, 2003). Competence refers to the perception of a speaker's expertise in relation to the topic being discussed. A speaker can enhance their perceived competence by presenting a speech based on solid research that is well organized and practiced. Competent speakers must know the content of their speech and be able to effectively deliver that content. Trustworthiness refers to the degree that audience members perceive a speaker to be presenting accurate, credible information in a nonmanipulative way. Perceptions of trustworthiness come from the content of the speech and the personality of the speaker. In terms of content, trustworthy speakers consider the audience throughout the speech-making process, present information in a balanced way, do not coerce the audience, cite credible sources, and follow the general principles of communication ethics. In terms of personality, trustworthy speakers are also friendly and warm (Stiff & Mongeau, 2003).

Dynamism refers to the degree to which audience members perceive a speaker to be outgoing and animated (Stiff & Mongeau, 2003). Two components of dynamism are charisma and energy. Charisma refers to a mixture of abstract and concrete qualities that make a speaker attractive to an audience. Charismatic people usually know they are charismatic because they've been told that in their lives, and people have been attracted to them.



Dynamic speakers develop credibility through their delivery skills. City Temple SDA Church, Dallas, Texas – February 2, 2013, Oakwood University, Dynamic Priase – CC BY-SA 2.0.

Unfortunately, charisma is difficult to intentionally develop, and some people seem to have a naturally charismatic personality, while others do not. Even though everyone can't embody the charismatic aspect of dynamism, the other component of dynamism, energy, is something that everyone can tap into. Communicating enthusiasm for your topic and audience by

presenting relevant content and using engaging delivery strategies such as vocal variety and eye contact can increase your dynamism.

Logos refers to the reasoning or logic of an argument. The presence of fallacies would obviously undermine a speaker's appeal to logos. Speakers employ logos by presenting credible information as supporting material and verbally citing their sources during their speech. Using the guidelines from our earlier discussion of reasoning will also help a speaker create a rational appeal. Research shows that messages are more persuasive when arguments and their warrants are made explicit (Stiff & Mongeau, 2003). Carefully choosing supporting material that is verifiable, specific, and unbiased can help a speaker appeal to logos. Speakers can also appeal to logos by citing personal experience and providing the credentials and/or qualifications of sources of information (Cooper & Nothstine, 1996). Presenting a rational and logical argument is important, but speakers can be more effective persuaders if they bring in and refute counterarguments. The most effective persuasive messages are those that present two sides of an argument and refute the opposing side, followed by single argument messages, followed by messages that present counterarguments but do not refute them (Stiff & Mongeau, 2003). In short, by clearly showing an audience why one position is superior to another,

speakers do not leave an audience to fill in the blanks of an argument, which could diminish the persuasive opportunity.

Pathos refers to emotional appeals. Aristotle was suspicious of too much emotional appeal, yet this appears to have become more acceptable in public speaking. Stirring emotions in an audience is a way to get them involved in the speech, and involvement can create more opportunities for persuasion and action. Reading in the paper that a house was burglarized may get your attention, but think about how different your reaction would be if you found out it was your own home. Intentionally stirring someone's emotions to get them involved in a message that has little substance would be unethical. Yet such spellbinding speakers have taken advantage of people's emotions to get them to support causes, buy products, or engage in behaviors that they might not otherwise, if given the chance to see the faulty logic of a message.

Effective speakers should use emotional appeals that are also logically convincing, since audiences may be suspicious of a speech that is solely based on emotion. Emotional appeals are effective when you are trying to influence a behavior or you want your audience to take immediate action (Stiff & Mongeau, 2003). Emotions lose their persuasive effect more quickly than other types of persuasive appeals. Since emotions are often reactionary, they fade relatively quickly when a person is removed from the provoking situation (Fletcher, 2001).

Emotional appeals are also difficult for some because they require honed delivery skills and the ability to use words powerfully and dramatically. The ability to use vocal variety, cadence, and repetition to rouse an audience's emotion is not easily attained. Think of how stirring Martin Luther King Jr.'s "I Have a Dream" speech was due to his ability to evoke the emotions of the audience. Dr. King used powerful and creative language in conjunction with his vocalics to deliver one of the most famous speeches in our history. Using concrete and descriptive examples can paint a picture in your audience member's minds. Speakers can also use literal images, displayed using visual aids, to appeal to pathos.

Speakers should strive to appeal to ethos, logos, and pathos within a speech. A speech built primarily on ethos might lead an audience to think that a speaker is full of himself or herself. A speech full of facts and statistics appealing to logos would result in information overload. Speakers who rely primarily on appeals to pathos may be seen as overly passionate, biased, or unable to see other viewpoints.

Review of Ethos, Logos, and Pathos

1. Ethos relates to the credibility of a speaker. Speakers develop ethos by
 - appearing competent, trustworthy, and dynamic;
 - sharing their credentials and/or relevant personal experience;
 - presenting a balanced and noncoercive argument;
 - citing credible sources;
 - using appropriate language and grammar;
 - being perceived as likable; and
 - appearing engaged with the topic and audience through effective delivery.
2. Logos relates to the reasoning and logic of an argument. Speakers appeal to logos by
 - presenting factual, objective information that serves as reasons to support the argument;
 - presenting a sufficient amount of relevant examples to support a proposition;
 - deriving conclusions from known information; and
 - using credible supporting material like expert testimony, definitions, statistics, and literal or historical analogies.
3. Pathos relates to the arousal of emotion through speech. Speakers appeal to pathos by

- using vivid language to paint word pictures for audience members;
- providing lay testimony (personal stories from self or others);
- using figurative language such as metaphor, similes, and personification; and
- using vocal variety, cadence, and repetition.

Positive and Negative Motivation

Positive and negative motivation are common persuasive strategies used by teachers, parents, and public speakers. Rewards can be used for positive motivation, and the threat of punishment or negative consequences can be used for negative motivation. We've already learned the importance of motivating an audience to listen to your message by making your content relevant and showing how it relates to their lives. We also learned an organizational pattern based on theories of motivation: Monroe's Motivated Sequence. When using positive motivation, speakers implicitly or explicitly convey to the audience that listening to their message or following their advice will lead to positive results. Conversely, negative motivation implies or states that failure to follow a speaker's advice will result in negative consequences. Positive and negative motivation as persuasive strategies match well with appeals to needs and will be discussed more next.

Appeals to Needs

Maslow's hierarchy of needs states that there are several layers of needs that human beings pursue. They include physiological, safety, social, self-esteem, and self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1943). Since these needs are fundamental to human survival and happiness, tapping into needs is a common persuasive strategy. Appeals to needs are often paired with positive or negative motivation, which can increase the persuasiveness of the message.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=183#oembed-1>

Key Takeaways

Ethos, Pathos, and Logos, are important for audience connection.

- In your delivery, you will want to include ethos, pathos, and logos. The ethos in your speech will demonstrate that you are a credible speaker. The

pathos will encourage an emotional response from your audience. And the logos will allow the audience to see the logic to your claims. Be sure to incorporate all three.

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47. Persuasion Across Cultures

Learning Objectives

- Explain the causes of cross-cultural miscommunication.
- Identify fundamental cross-cultural communication strategies.
- Practice cross-cultural dialogue.

Speaking English as a *lingua franca* refers to the global phenomenon of people who use English as a common language when they do not comprehend each other's native languages. Despite their limited skills, users of English as a *lingua franca* manage to overcome considerable linguistic and cultural communication barriers by focusing on meaning and purpose. The fact that users of English as a *lingua franca* can communicate effectively, gain trust, maintain respect, and avoid conflict speaks volumes about the ingenuity of human communication skills.



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Persuasion Across Cultures

NASEER ALOMARI, PH.D.

The Swedish journalist Thomas Larsson has defined globalization as “the process of world shrinkage, of distances getting shorter, things moving closer. It pertains to the increasing ease with which somebody on one side of the world can interact, to mutual benefit, with somebody on the other side of the world” (p. 9). Enhanced by the revolutionary advances in communication technologies, globalization has facilitated direct contact among people from various countries, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds. Face-to-face or technology-mediated, cross-cultural encounters are typically friendly, respectful, and positive despite cultural and linguistic barriers and differences. This chapter will explore the nature and causes of cross-cultural miscommunication and identify key strategies for effective cross-cultural persuasion.

The Root of Cross-Cultural Miscommunication

When people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds meet, the interaction is usually friendly and respectful. In cross-cultural communication, people are typically proud of their acceptance and tolerance and emphasize shared values with different people. Many people dream of traveling to foreign countries to learn about other nations, cultures, traditions, and religions. Unfortunately, misunderstandings and conflicts may occur when people from differing linguistic and cultural worldviews argue about controversial political or social issues.

While respect and tolerance can go a long way in reducing conflict among people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds, misunderstandings can still result in severe disagreements and conflicts due to differences in worldviews and communication styles. Personal, social, and cultural factors usually

shape a person's communication style. However, how individuals express themselves reflects their socio-economic status and the influence and power in society. For instance, people who belong to a dominant or privileged group tend to speak in a way that reflects their influential status. Privileged individuals in some societies may project their dominant position over less privileged groups or individuals by using direct, assertive, and goal-oriented language. On the other hand, individuals with less power may reflect their lack of influence by using indirect or implicit expressions.

Despite sharing universally accepted values such as harmony, trust, sincerity, honesty, and loyalty among world cultures, traditions, and religions, cross-cultural communication can still be distrustful and tense due to differences in values, beliefs, and worldviews. Gender roles are perceived differently in different cultures and religions and are usually controversial. For example, in many cultures, men are protective of women and show respect by preventing or shielding them from working or doing demanding jobs. In contrast, barring women from work or doing challenging jobs is viewed as violating gender equality and fundamental workplace rights in other cultures. Thus, the different perceptions of gender roles may lead to miscommunication and serious misunderstandings in cross-cultural settings.

Miscommunication between people from different linguistic or cultural backgrounds may result from differences in values, beliefs, or communication styles. For example, people in some cultures emphasize direct and explicit communication to express individualism, independence, and pride. Furthermore, the straightforward communication style is viewed positively in Western cultures as an honest and practical approach to personal and professional interactions.

Cross-Cultural Persuasion Strategies

Persuasion involves influencing others to do or believe something by presenting convincing reasons or evidence. Cialdini (2001) has identified six persuasion techniques that can help speakers win hearts and minds. The six techniques can be used in different

combinations and include persuading listeners to like and trust the speaker as someone who has something valuable to offer. To like you, your listeners have to feel appreciated and respected by you, and to trust you; they need to trust your knowledge or expertise and trust your commitment to your ideas. Effective cross-cultural communication should be based on effective persuasion techniques and the strategies specific to communication in diverse linguistic and cultural settings. The following are fundamental cross-cultural communication strategies:

Emphasizing Shared Values

The first cross-cultural persuasion strategy is to build rapport and establish by emphasizing your values with your audience from a different linguistic or cultural background. New York City is an excellent example of how millions of people from all corners of the globe overcome countless linguistic and cultural barriers. New Yorkers live, work, and prosper in their diverse communities by championing such values as freedom, equality, and justice, which serve as a solid foundation for communication and persuasion.

A practical example of building rapport by emphasizing shared values is loyalty to family and community to a listener who grew up in Saudi Arabian society. Al-Zahrani (1993) explored the differences between Americans and Saudis and concluded that Saudis are more collectivist than Americans. People from collectivist cultures tend to be family- and group-serving than people from individualist cultures who are more self-serving. By sharing one's loyalty and love for family, people from a collectivist culture like the Saudis and others from individualist cultures like Americans establish a solid ground for persuasion.

Focusing on Meaning and Intention

Focus on meaning and intention is critical since it helps reduce or eliminate minor distractions, common in cross-cultural communication and persuasion. For instance, while people in some cultures express themselves indirectly and implicitly to maintain harmony and show courtesy, others do so directly and explicitly to show honesty and trustworthiness. Consequently, it is not

uncommon for two people from the abovementioned cultures to misunderstand each other as direct and explicit speakers may appear bold and disrespectful, while indirect and implicit speakers may seem elusive or non-committal. Recognizing the difference between implicit and explicit communication styles reduces the chance of misunderstanding and conflict.

Speakers from individualist cultures may appear to listeners from collectivist cultures as self-centered and self-important. Conversely, speakers from collectivist cultures may appear to listeners from individualistic cultures as selfless and lacking in self-esteem. But, of course, both impressions can be completely wrong since communication styles reflect social norms, power structure, and relationships rather than individual traits. Therefore, distinguishing between personal qualities and cultural styles of communication is crucial for establishing and maintaining rapport and avoiding conflict.

Persuasion requires understanding what the person you are speaking with says and means. While this might be straightforward in a language and tradition you are familiar with, it is trickier when engaging in cross-cultural persuasion. For example, many Japanese prefer to show disagreement indirectly while many Americans do so directly. Therefore, it is common for the Japanese to perceive Americans as aggressive or uncourteous. Conversely, Americans may perceive the Japanese as elusive, indecisive, or weak. Both perceptions can be completely mistaken, backfire, and undermine “trust and developing relationships” (Rahman 11).

Engaging in Empathetic Listening

Global and social media can intensify cultural and political tensions, contribute to miscommunication, and divide communities. Cross-cultural communication can be particularly fraught with miscommunication challenges due to the linguistic and cultural barriers that separate people from different backgrounds. Therefore, applying empathetic listening and suspending judgment are critical strategies for effective communication and persuasion. Furthermore, eliminating or reducing misunderstandings and

tension necessitates approaching cross-cultural communication with open-mindedness and willingness to compromise and find solutions to problems (Putnam & Roloff, 1992).

Understanding other people's cultural context and perspective are critical for decreasing conflict and improving persuasiveness. For example, while some cultures adhere to strict rationality as a persuasive strategy, others may view strict adherence to logic



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as attempts to dictate and impose opinions and solutions without fully understanding the discussion's political, social, or cultural context. On the other hand, appealing to emotion, which is common in some cultures, can be interpreted as avoiding facts or ignoring logic and reason. Empathetic listening requires showing others your genuine interest in understanding their ideas. One way to show empathy is by paraphrasing speakers' viewpoints in your own words, asking for clarification, or expressing appreciation of their contribution to the discussion.

Approaching Persuasion as Dialogue

In this era of globalization, ethnic, cultural, and religious diversity, pluralism, and multiculturalism have become the norm in the United States and across the globe. The emerging global, pluralistic culture in which people from different backgrounds work and live together will shape how people view themselves, others, and their perception of reality. In such a pluralistic environment, cross-cultural communication requires dialogue with others “to understand one another's point of view, to show tolerance, listening, and flexibility of thought in the face of sociocultural gaps” (Eliyahu-Levi 417).

Linguistic and cultural barriers can be decreased or eliminated if communication is focused on meaning and purpose. For example, millions of people use English as a foreign language (EFL) to communicate effectively without necessarily adopting the cultural

values, beliefs, or styles of native speakers of English. Adopting dialogue helps maintain a positive tone when speaking with people with different communication styles and cultural etiquette. Thus, it is essential to remember that when communicating with EFL speakers, the latter may not observe the values, opinions, or communication strategies used by native English speakers. Furthermore, it is essential to remember that when engaging in persuasive dialogue with people from different linguistic or cultural backgrounds than yours, the latter filter the ideas through the lens of their communication patterns and social and political experiences. Therefore, suspending judgment and listening carefully to the arguments and evidence help achieve mutual understanding, reach an agreement, and resolve conflicts.

Approaching cross-cultural persuasion as a two-way dialogue helps build trust and reduce disagreements and tension. Dialogue requires participants to listen carefully, be flexible, and give up trying to control the communication process to achieve predetermined outcomes. Kent and Taylor (2002) view dialogue as a means to solidify sympathy, satisfaction, and trust, essential for relationship building between people who would otherwise find no grounds for reasoning and agreement. Hence, cross-cultural communication is essentially a compromise between people committed to searching for ways to engage and remain in constant dialogue that may seem impossible at times.

In many Western cultures, monolog is hailed as a winning method of speech to persuade and change hearts and minds. However, in cross-cultural communication, monologs may be counterproductive. It should, therefore, be replaced by dialogue which is a balanced two-way symmetrical communication process that leads to mutual understanding between participants (Grunig, Grunig & Dozier, 2006).

Conclusion

Building linguistic and cultural bridges are fundamental strategies for effective cross-cultural persuasion. Engaging in genuine

dialogue for understanding and being understood is the basis for building trust, reducing tension, and reaching an agreement.

Key Takeaways

- When creating your persuasive outline and rehearsing your speech, be sure to check for common miscommunication pitfalls. Consider revising and editing your work and your delivery to demonstrate intercultural competence and effective linguistic cross-cultural persuasion.

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48. Monroe's Motivated Sequence, Problem-Solution, Comparative Advantages

Learning Objectives

1. Understand three common organizational patterns for persuasive speeches.
2. Explain the steps utilized in Monroe's motivated sequence.
3. Explain the parts of a problem-cause-solution speech.
4. Explain the process utilized in a comparative advantage persuasive speech.

Organizing Persuasive Speeches



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Previously in this text, we discussed general guidelines for organizing speeches. In this section, we are going to look at three organizational patterns ideally suited for persuasive speeches: Monroe's motivated sequence, problem-cause-solution, and comparative advantages.

Monroe's Motivated Sequence

One of the most commonly cited and discussed organizational patterns for persuasive speeches is Alan H. Monroe's motivated sequence. The purpose of Monroe's motivated sequence is to help

speakers “sequence supporting materials and motivational appeals to form a useful organizational pattern for speeches as a whole” (German et al., 2010).

While Monroe’s motivated sequence is commonly discussed in most public speaking textbooks, we do want to provide one minor caution. Thus far, almost no research has been conducted that has demonstrated that Monroe’s motivated sequence is any more persuasive than other structural patterns. In the only study conducted experimentally examining Monroe’s motivated sequence, the researchers did not find the method more persuasive but did note that audience members found the pattern more organized than other methods (Micciche, Pryor, & Butler, 2000). We wanted to add this sidenote because we don’t want you to think that Monroe’s motivated sequence is a kind of magic persuasive bullet; the research simply doesn’t support this notion. At the same time, research does support that organized messages are perceived as more persuasive as a whole, so using Monroe’s motivated sequence to think through one’s persuasive argument could still be very beneficial.

Below are the basic steps of Monroe’s motivated sequence and the subsequent reaction a speaker desires from his or her audience.

Steps	Audience Response
Attention —Getting Attention	I want to listen to the speaker.
Need —Showing the Need, Describing the Problem	Something needs to be done about the problem.
Satisfaction —Satisfying the Need, Presenting the Solution	In order to satisfy the need or fix the problem this is what I need to do.
Visualization —Visualizing the Results	I can see myself enjoying the benefits of taking action.
Action —Requesting Audience Action or Approval	I will act in a specific way or approve a decision or behavior.

Attention

The first step in Monroe's motivated sequence is the attention step, in which a speaker attempts to get the audience's attention. To gain an audience's attention, we recommend that you think through three specific parts of the attention step. First, you need to have a strong attention-getting device. As previously discussed, a strong attention getter at the beginning of your speech is very important. Second, you need to make sure you introduce your topic clearly. If your audience doesn't know what your topic is quickly, they are more likely to stop listening. Lastly, you need to explain to your audience why they should care about your topic. If this sounds familiar, it should! The attention step uses the same elements as an introduction for any speech: The attention getter, relevance, credibility, thesis statement, and preview.

Needs

In the need step of Monroe's motivated sequence, the speaker establishes that there is a specific need or problem. This will be your first main point. In Monroe's conceptualization of need, he talks about four specific parts of the need: statement, illustration, ramification, and pointing. First, a speaker needs to give a clear and concise statement of the problem. This part of a speech should be crystal clear for an audience. Second, the speaker needs to provide

one or more examples to illustrate the need. The illustration is an attempt to make the problem concrete for the audience. Next, a speaker needs to provide some kind of evidence (e.g., statistics, examples, testimony) that shows the ramifications or consequences of the problem. Lastly, a speaker needs to point to the audience and show exactly how the problem relates to them personally.

Satisfaction

In the third step of Monroe's motivated sequence, the satisfaction step, the speaker sets out to satisfy the need or solve the problem. This will be your second main point. Within this step, Monroe (1935) proposed a five-step plan for satisfying a need:

1. Statement
2. Explanation
3. Theoretical demonstration
4. Reference to practical experience
5. Meeting objections

First, you need to clearly state the attitude, value, belief, or action you want your audience to accept. The purpose of this statement is to clearly tell your audience what your ultimate goal is.

Second, you want to make sure that you clearly explain to your audience why they should accept the attitude, value, belief, or action you proposed. Just telling your audience they should do something isn't strong enough to actually get them to change.

Instead, you really need to provide a solid argument for why they should accept your proposed solution.

Third, you need to show how the solution you have proposed meets the need or problem. Monroe calls this link between your solution and the need a theoretical demonstration because you cannot prove that your solution will work. Instead, you theorize based on research and good judgment that your solution will meet the need or solve the problem.

Fourth, to help with this theoretical demonstration, you need to reference practical experience, which should include examples demonstrating that your proposal has worked elsewhere. Research, statistics, and expert testimony are all great ways of referencing practical experience.

Lastly, Monroe recommends that a speaker responds to possible objections. As a persuasive speaker, one of your jobs is to think through your speech and see what counterarguments could be made against your speech and then rebut those arguments within your speech. When you offer rebuttals for arguments against your speech, it shows your audience that you've done your homework and educated yourself about multiple sides of the issue.

Visualization

The next step of Monroe's motivated sequence is the visualization step, in which you ask the audience to visualize a future where the need has been met or the problem solved. This will be your third main point. In essence, the visualization stage is where a speaker can show the audience why accepting a specific attitude, value,

belief, or behavior can positively affect the future. When helping people to picture the future, the more concrete your visualization is, the easier it will be for your audience to see the possible future and be persuaded by it. You also need to make sure that you clearly show how accepting your solution will directly benefit your audience.

According to Monroe, visualization can be conducted in one of three ways: positive, negative, or contrast (Monroe, 1935). The positive method of visualization is where a speaker shows how adopting a proposal leads to a better future (e.g., recycle, and we'll have a cleaner and safer planet). Conversely, the negative method of visualization is where a speaker shows how not adopting the proposal will lead to a worse future (e.g., don't recycle, and our world will become polluted and uninhabitable). Monroe also acknowledged that visualization can include a combination of both positive and negative visualization. In essence, you show your audience both possible outcomes and have them decide which one they would rather have.

Action

The final step in Monroe's motivated sequence is the action step, in which a speaker asks an audience to approve the speaker's proposal. For understanding purposes, we break the action into two distinct parts: audience action and approval. Audience action refers to direct physical behaviors a speaker wants from an audience (e.g., flossing their teeth twice a day, signing a petition, wearing seat belts). Approval, on the other hand, involves an audience's consent or agreement with a speaker's proposed attitude, value, or belief.

When preparing an action step, it is important to make sure that the action, whether audience action or approval, is realistic for your audience. Asking your peers in a college classroom to donate one thousand dollars to charity isn't realistic. Asking your peers to donate one dollar is considerably more realistic. In a persuasive speech based on Monroe's motivated sequence, the action step will end with the speech's concluding device. As discussed elsewhere in this text, you need to make sure that you conclude in a vivid way so that the speech ends on a high point and the audience has a sense of energy as well as a sense of closure.

This step will be your conclusion. Again, it will have the same elements as a conclusion you would use for any speech.

Application

Now that we've walked through Monroe's motivated sequence, let's look at how you could use Monroe's motivated sequence to outline a persuasive speech:

Specific Purpose: To persuade my classroom peers that the United States should have stronger laws governing the use of for-profit medical experiments.

Main Points:

- **Attention:** Want to make nine thousand dollars for just three weeks of work lying around and not doing much? Then be a human guinea pig. Admittedly, you'll have to have a tube down your throat most of those three weeks, but you'll earn three thousand dollars a week.
- **Need:** Every day many uneducated and lower socioeconomic-status citizens are preyed on by medical and pharmaceutical companies for use in for-profit medical and drug experiments. Do you want one of your family members to fall prey to this evil scheme?
- **Satisfaction:** The United States should have stronger laws

governing the use of for-profit medical experiments to ensure that uneducated and lower-socioeconomic-status citizens are protected.

- **Visualization:** If we enact tougher experiment oversight, we can ensure that medical and pharmaceutical research is conducted in a way that adheres to basic values of American decency. If we do not enact tougher experiment oversight, we could find ourselves in a world where the lines between research subject, guinea pig, and patient become increasingly blurred.
- **Action:** In order to prevent the atrocities associated with for-profit medical and pharmaceutical experiments, please sign this petition asking the US Department of Health and Human Services to pass stricter regulations on this preying industry that is out of control.

This example shows how you can take a basic speech topic and use Monroe's motivated sequence to clearly and easily outline your speech efficiently and effectively.

Below is a checklist that contains a simple checklist to help you make sure you hit all the important components of Monroe's motivated sequence.

Step in the Sequence	Yes	No
Attention Step		
Gained audience's attention	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Introduced the topic clearly	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Showed the importance of the topic to the audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Need Step		
Need is summarized in a clear statement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Need is adequately illustrated	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Need has clear ramifications	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Need clearly points the audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Satisfaction Step		
Plan is clearly stated	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Plan is plainly explained	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Plan and solution are theoretically demonstrated	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Plan has clear reference to practical experience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Plan can meet possible objections	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Visualization Step		
Practicality of plan shown	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Benefits of plan are tangible	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Benefits of plan relate to the audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Specific type of visualization chosen (positive method, negative method, method of contrast)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Action Step		
Call of specific action by the audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Action is realistic for the audience	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Concluding device is vivid	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The following video further details Monroe's Motivated Sequence outlining each component and providing examples to provide an in-depth understanding of the organizational pattern.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=187#oembed-1>

For Future Reference | How to organize this in
an outline |

Introduction: Attention Step

Main Point #1: Need Step

Main Point #2: Satisfaction Step

Main Point #3: Visualization Step

Conclusion: Action Step

Problem-Cause-Solution

Another format for organizing a persuasive speech is the problem-cause-solution format. In this specific format, you discuss what a

problem is, what you believe is causing the problem, and then what the solution should be to correct the problem.

Specific Purpose: To persuade my classroom peers that our campus should adopt a zero-tolerance policy for hate speech.

Main Points:

1. Demonstrate that there is distrust among different groups on campus that has led to unnecessary confrontations and violence.
2. Show that the confrontations and violence are a result of hate speech that occurred prior to the events.
3. Explain how instituting a campus-wide zero-tolerance policy against hate speech could stop the unnecessary confrontations and violence.

In this speech, you want to persuade people to support a new campus-wide policy calling for zero-tolerance of hate speech. Once you have shown the problem, you then explain to your audience that the cause of the unnecessary confrontations and violence is prior incidents of hate speech. Lastly, you argue that a campus-wide zero-tolerance policy could help prevent future unnecessary confrontations and violence. Again, this method of organizing a speech is as simple as its name: problem-cause-solution.

Comparative Advantages

The final method for organizing a persuasive speech is called the comparative advantages speech format. The goal of this speech is to compare items side-by-side and show why one of them is more advantageous than the other. For example, let's say that you're giving a speech on which e-book reader is better: Amazon.com's Kindle or Barnes and Nobles' Nook. Here's how you could organize this speech:

Specific Purpose: To persuade my audience that the Nook is more advantageous than the Kindle.

Main Points:

1. The Nook allows owners to trade and loan books to other owners or people who have downloaded the Nook software, while the Kindle does not.
2. The Nook has a color-touch screen, while the Kindle's screen is black and grey and noninteractive.
3. The Nook's memory can be expanded through microSD, while the Kindle's memory cannot be upgraded.

As you can see from this speech's organization, the simple goal of this speech is to show why one thing has more positives than something else. Obviously, when you are demonstrating comparative advantages, the items you are comparing need to be functional equivalents—or, as the saying goes, you cannot compare apples to oranges.

Key Takeaways

- There are three common patterns that persuaders can utilize to help organize their speeches effectively: Monroe's motivated sequence, problem-cause-solution, and comparative advantage. Each of these patterns can effectively help a speaker think through his or her thoughts and organize them in a manner that will be more likely to persuade an audience.
- Alan H. Monroe's (1935) motivated sequence is a commonly used speech format that is used by many people to effectively organize persuasive messages. The pattern consists of five basic stages: attention, need, satisfaction, visualization, and action. In the first stage, a speaker gets an audience's attention. In the second stage, the speaker shows an audience that

a need exists. In the third stage, the speaker shows how his or her persuasive proposal could satisfy the need. The fourth stage shows how the future could be if the persuasive proposal is or is not adopted. Lastly, the speaker urges the audience to take some kind of action to help enact the speaker's persuasive proposal.

- The problem-cause-solution proposal is a three-pronged speech pattern. The speaker starts by explaining the problem the speaker sees. The speaker then explains what he or she sees as the underlying causes of the problem. Lastly, the speaker proposes a solution to the problem that corrects the underlying causes.
- The comparative advantages speech format is utilized when a speaker is comparing two or more things or ideas and shows why one of the things or ideas has more advantages than the other(s).

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49. Sample Persuasive Speech Outline

Student Example

Persuasive Speech Outline

- This is a student example of Monroe's Motivated Sequence.
- This student's outline is well developed, coherent, integrates research, follows a strong organizational pattern, and meets all expectations of an outline in a public speaking course.
- Click on the Google Document provided for a sample speech outline.

[Persuasive Speech Outline](#)

PART VII

CHAPTER 7: EFFECTIVE ARGUMENTS AND FALLACIES

Persuasion is a tricky rhetorical practice and often times students fall into pitfalls in creating their arguments, or fallacies. Fallacies are claims and or statements that sound true but are either false or only half-truths. Fallacies can be the difference between persuading an audience and alienating an audience. This section will introduce you to the most common fallacies and will demonstrate how they are used in error. It is important to learn how to avoid these common mistakes so you do not convince your audience based on lies and/or half-truths. Once you have reviewed your research and omitted any fallacies in your outline, you will begin to practice and refine your speech. This section will review best practices and tips for successful persuasive speeches.



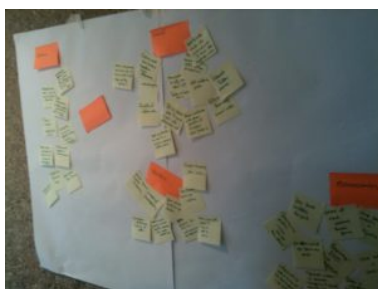
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50. Using Support to Create Effective Arguments

Learning Objectives

1. Explain how to distinguish between useful and not useful forms of support.
2. Discuss the five ways support is used within a speech.
3. Use a reverse outline to ensure effective speech development.
4. Clarify why it is important to use support for every claim made within a speech.
5. Evaluate the three-step process for using support within a speech.



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Supporting one's ideas with a range of facts and statistics, definitions, examples, narratives, testimony, and analogies can make the difference between a boring speech your audience will soon forget and one that has a lasting effect on their lives. Although the research process is designed to help you find

effective support, you still need to think through how you will use the support you have accumulated. While we have previously discussed using support, this section will examine how to use support effectively in a persuasive speech, first by examining the types of support one needs in a speech and then by seeing how support can be used to enhance one's argument.

Understanding Arguments

You may associate the word “argument” with a situation in which two people are having some kind of conflict. But in this context we are using a definition for the word argument that goes back to the ancient Greeks, who saw arguments as a set of logical premises leading to a clear conclusion. While we lack the time for an entire treatise on the nature and study of arguments, we do want to highlight some of the basic principles in argumentation.

First, all arguments are based on a series of statements that are divided into two basic categories: premises and conclusions. A premise is a statement that is designed to provide support or evidence, whereas the conclusion is a statement that can be clearly drawn from the provided premises. Let’s look at an example and then explain this in more detail:

Premise 1: Eating fast food has been linked to childhood obesity.

Premise 2: Childhood obesity is clearly linked to early onset type 2 diabetes, which can have many negative health ramifications.

Conclusion: Therefore, for children to avoid developing early onset type 2 diabetes, they must have their fast-food intake limited.

In this example, the first two statements are premises linking fast food to childhood obesity to diabetes. Once we’ve made this logical connection, we can then provide a logical conclusion that one important way of preventing type 2 diabetes is to limit, if not eliminate, fast food from children’s diets. While this may not necessarily be a popular notion for many people, the argument itself is logically sound.

How, then, does this ultimately matter for you and your future public speaking endeavors? Well, a great deal of persuasive speaking is built on creating arguments that your listeners can understand

and that will eventually influence their ideas or behaviors. In essence, creating strong arguments is a fundamental part of public speaking.

Now, in the example above, **we are clearly missing one important part of the argument process—support or evidence.** So far we have presented two premises that many people may believe, but we need support or evidence for those premises if we are going to persuade people who do not already believe those statements. As such, when creating logical arguments (unless you are a noted expert on a subject), you must provide support to ensure that your arguments will be seen as credible. And that is what we will discuss next.

Sifting Through Your Support

When researching a topic, you're going to find a range of different types of supporting evidence. You may find examples of all six types of support: facts and statistics, definitions, examples, narratives, testimony, and analogies. Sooner or later, you are going to have to make some decisions as to which pieces of support you will use and which you won't. While there is no one way to select your support, here are some helpful suggestions.

Use a Variety of Support Types

One of the most important parts of using support is variety. Nothing will kill a speech faster than if you use the same type of support over and over again. Try to use as much support as needed to make your point without going overboard. You might decide to begin with a couple of definitions and rely on a gripping piece of eyewitness testimony as your other major support. Or you might use a combination of facts, examples, and narratives. In another case, statistics and examples might be most effective. Audience members are likely to have different preferences for support; some may like statistics while others really find narratives compelling. By using a variety of forms of support, you are likely to appeal to a broader range of audience members and thus effectively adapt to your audience. Even if your audience members prefer a specific form of support, providing multiple types of support is important to keep them interested. To use an analogy, even people who love ice cream would get tired of it if they ate only ice cream every day for a week, so variety is important.

Choose Appropriate Forms of Support

Depending on the type of speech you are giving, your speech's context, and your audience, different types of evidence may or may not be appropriate. While speeches using precise lexical definitions may be useful for the courtroom, they may not be useful in an after-dinner speech to entertain. At the same time, entertaining narratives may be great for a speech at a casual event but may decrease a speaker's credibility when attempting to persuade an audience about a serious topic.

Check for Relevance

Another consideration about potential support is whether or not it is relevant. Each piece of supporting material you select needs to support the specific purpose of your speech. You may find the coolest quotation, but if that quotation doesn't really help your core argument in your speech, you need to leave it out. If you start using too many irrelevant support sources, your audience will quickly catch on and your credibility will drop through the floor.

Your support materials should be relevant not only to your topic but also to your audience. If you are giving a speech to an audience of sixty-year-olds, you may be able to begin with "Think back to

where you were when you heard that President Kennedy had been shot,” but this would be meaningless with an audience of twenty-five-year-olds. Similarly, references to music download sites or the latest popular band may not be effective with audiences who are not interested in music.

Don't Go Overboard

In addition to being relevant, supporting materials need to help you support your speech's specific purpose without interfering with your speech. You may find three different sources that support your speech's purpose in the same way. If that happens, you shouldn't include all three forms of support. Instead, pick the form of support that is the most beneficial for your speech. Remember, the goal is to support your speech, not to have the support become your speech.

Don't Manipulate Your Support

The last factor related to shifting through your support involves a very important ethical area called support-manipulation. Often speakers will attempt to find support that says exactly what they want it to say despite the fact that the overwhelming majority of evidence says the exact opposite. When you go out of your way to pull the wool over your audience's eyes, you are being unethical and not treating your audience with respect. Here are some very important guidelines to consider to avoiding support-manipulation:

- Do not overlook significant factors or individuals related to your topic.
- Do not ignore evidence that does not support your speech's specific purpose.
- Do not jump to conclusions that are simply not justified based on the supporting evidence you have.
- Do not use evidence to support faulty logic.
- Do not use out-of-date evidence that is no longer supported.
- Do not use evidence out of its original context.
- Do not knowingly use evidence from a source that is clearly biased.
- Make sure you clearly cite all your supporting evidence within your speech.

Using Support within Your Speech

Now that we've described ways to sift through your evidence, it's important to discuss how to use your evidence within your speech. In the previous sections of this chapter, we've talked about the various types of support you can use (facts and statistics, definitions, examples, narratives, testimonies, and analogies). In this section, we're going to examine how these types of evidence are actually used within a speech. Then we will discuss ways to think through the support you need for a speech and also how to actually use support while speaking.

Let's begin by examining the forms that support can take in a speech: quotations, paraphrases, summaries, numerical support, and pictographic support.

Quotations

The first common form of support utilized in a speech is a direct quotation. Direct quotations occur when Speaker A uses the exact wording of another speaker or writer within his or her new speech. Quotations are very helpful and can definitely provide you with a

tool for supporting your speech's specific purpose. Here are five tips for using quotations within a speech:

1. Use a direct quotation if the original author's words are witty, engaging, distinct, or particularly vivid.
2. Use a direct quotation if you want to highlight a specific expert and his or her expertise within your speech.
3. Use a direct quotation if you are going to specifically analyze something that is said within the quotation. If your analysis depends on the exact wording of the quotation, then it is important to use the quotation.
4. Keep quotations to a minimum. One of the biggest mistakes some speakers make is just stringing together a series of quotations and calling it a speech. Remember, a speech is your unique insight into a topic, not just a series of quotations.
5. Keep quotations short. Long quotations can lose an audience, and the connection between your support and your argument can get lost.

Paraphrases

The second form support takes on during a speech is paraphrasing. Paraphrasing involves taking the general idea or theme from another speaker or author and condensing the idea or theme in your own words. A mistake that some speakers make is dropping a couple of words or rearranging some words within a direct quotation and thinking that is a paraphrase. When paraphrasing you need to understand the other speaker or author's

ideas well enough to relate them without looking back at the original. Here are four tips for using paraphrases in your speeches:

1. Paraphrase when you can say it more concisely than the original speaker or author.
2. Paraphrase when the exact wording from the original speaker or author won't improve your audience's understanding of the support.
3. Paraphrase when you want to adapt an example, analogy, or narrative by another speaker or author to make its relevance more evident.
4. Paraphrase information that is not likely to be questioned by your audience. If you think your audience may question your support, then relying on a direct quotation may be more effective.

Summaries

Whereas quotations and paraphrases are taking a whole text and singling out a couple of lines or a section, a summary involves condensing or encapsulating the entire text as a form of support. Summaries are helpful when you want to clearly spell out the intent behind a speaker's or author's text. Here are three suggestions for using summaries within your speech.

1. Summarize when you need another speaker or author's complete argument to understand the argument within your speech.

2. Summarize when explaining possible counterarguments to the one posed within your speech.
3. Summarize when you need to cite a number of different sources effectively and efficiently to support a specific argument.

Numerical Support

Speakers often have a need to use numerical support or cite data and numbers within a speech. The most common reason for using numerical support comes when a speaker needs to cite statistics. When using data to support your speech, you need to make sure that your audience can accurately interpret the numbers in the same way you are doing. Here are three tips for using numerical support:

1. Clearly state the numbers used and where they came from.
2. Make sure you explain what the numbers mean and how you think they should be interpreted.
3. If the numbers are overly complicated or if you use a variety of numbers within a speech, consider turning this support into a visual aid to enhance your audience's understanding of the numerical support.

Pictographic Support

The last form of support commonly used in speeches we label pictographic support, but it is more commonly referred to as visual aids. Pictographic support is any drawn or visual representation of an object or process. For the purposes of this chapter, we call visual aids pictographic support in order to stress that we are using images as a form of support taken from a source. For example, if you're giving a speech on how to swing a golf club, you could bring in a golf club and demonstrate exactly how to use the golf club. While the golf club in this instance is a visual aid, it is not pictographic support. If you showed a diagram illustrating the steps for an effective golf swing, the diagram is an example of pictographic support. So while all forms of pictographic support are visual aids, not all visual aids are pictographic support. Here are five suggestions for effectively using pictographic support in your speech.

1. Use pictographic support when it would be easier and shorter than orally explaining an object or process.
2. Use pictographic support when you really want to emphasize the importance of the support. Audiences recall information more readily when they both see and hear it than if they see or hear the information.
3. Make sure that pictographic support is aesthetically pleasing. See the presentation aids chapter for more details.
4. Pictographic support should be easy to understand, and it should take less time to use than words alone.
5. Make sure everyone in your audience can easily see your pictographic support. If listeners cannot see it, then it will not help them understand how it is supposed to help your speech's specific purpose.

Is Your Support Adequate?

Now that we've examined the ways to use support in your speech, how do you know if you have enough support?

Use a Reverse Outline

One recommendation we have for selecting the appropriate support for your speech is what we call a reverse outline. A reverse outline is a tool you can use to determine the adequacy of your speech's support by starting with your conclusion and logically working backward through your speech to determine if the support you provided is appropriate and comprehensive. In essence, we recommend that you think of your speech in terms of the conclusion first and then work your way backward showing how you get to the conclusion. By forcing yourself to think about logic in reverse, you're more likely to find missteps along the way. This technique is not only helpful for analyzing the overall flow of your speech, but it can also let you see if different sections of your speech are not completely supported individually.

Support Your Claims

When selecting the different types of support for your speech, you need to make sure that every claim you make within the speech can be supported within the speech. For example, if you state, “The majority of Americans want immigration reform,” you need to make sure that you have a source that actually says this. As noted at the beginning of this chapter, too often people make claims within a speech that they have no support for whatsoever. When you go through your speech, you need to make sure that each and every claim that you make is adequately supported by the evidence you have selected to use within the speech.

Oral Presentation

Finally, after you have selected and evaluated your forms of support, it is time to plan how you will present your support orally within your speech. How will you present the information to make it effective? To help you think about using support, we recommend a three-step process: setup, execution, and analysis.

Setup

The first step in using support within a speech is what we call the setup. The setup is a sentence or phrase in which you explain to your audience where the information you are using came from. Note that if you found the information on a website, it is not sufficient to merely give your audience the URL. Depending on the source of your support, all the following information could be useful: name of the source, location of the source, date of the source, name of the author, and identification of the author.

- First, you need to tell your audience the name of your source. Whether you are using a song or an article from a magazine, you need to tell your audience the name of the person who wrote it and its title.
- Second, if your source comes from a larger work, you need to include the location of the source. For example, a single article (name of source) may come from a magazine (the location).
- Third, you need to specify the date of the source. Depending on the type of source you are using, you may need to provide just a year or the day and month as well. You should provide as much information on the date as is provided on the copyright information page of the source.

Thus far we've talked only about the information you need to provide specifically about the source; let's now switch gears and talk about the author. When discussing the author, you need to clearly explain not only who the author is but also why the author is an expert (if appropriate). Some sources are written by authors who are not experts, so you really don't need to explain their expertise. In other cases, your audience will already know why the source is an expert, so there is less need to explain why the source is an expert. For example, if giving a speech on current politics in the

United States, you probably do not need to explain the expertise of Barack Obama or John Boehner. However, when you don't provide information on an author's expertise and your audience does not already know why the source is an expert, your audience will question the validity of your support.

Now that we've explained the basic information necessary for using support within a speech, here are two different examples:

1. According to Melanie Smithfield in an article titled "Do It Right, or Do It Now," published in the June 18, 2009, issue of *Time Magazine*...
2. According to Roland Smith, a legendary civil rights activist and former chair of the Civil Rights Defense League, in his 2001 book *The Path of Peace*...

In the first example, we have an author who wrote an article in a magazine, and in the second one, we have an author of a book. In both cases, we provided the information that was necessary to understand where the source was located. The more information we can provide our audiences about our support, the more information our audiences have to evaluate the strength of our arguments.

Execution

Once we have set up the support, the second part of using support is what we call execution. The execution of support involves actually reading a quotation, paraphrasing a speaker or author's words, summarizing a speaker or author's ideas, providing numerical

support, or showing pictographic support. Effective execution should be seamless and flow easily within the context of your speech. While you want your evidence to make an impact, you also don't want it to seem overly disjointed. One mistake that some novice public speakers make is that when they start providing evidence, their whole performance changes, and the use of evidence looks and sounds awkward. Make sure you practice the execution of your evidence when you rehearse your speech.

Analysis

The final stage of using support effectively is the one that many speakers forget: analysis of the support. Too often speakers use support without ever explaining to an audience how they should interpret it. While we don't want to "talk down" to our listeners, audiences often need to be shown the connection between the support provided and the argument made. Here are three basic steps you can take to ensure your audience will make the connection between your support and your argument:

1. Summarize the support in your own words (unless you started with a summary).
2. Specifically, tell your audience how the support relates to the argument.
3. Draw a sensible conclusion based on your support. We cannot leave an audience hanging, so drawing a conclusion helps complete the support package.

Key Takeaways

- Systematically think through the support you have accumulated through your research. Examine the accumulated support to ensure that a variety of forms of support are used. Choose appropriate forms of support depending on the speech context or audience. Make sure all the support is relevant to the specific purpose of your speech and to your audience. Don't go overboard using so much support that the audience is overwhelmed. Lastly, don't manipulate supporting materials.
- Speakers ultimately turn support materials into one of five formats. Quotations are used to take another speaker or author's ideas and relay them verbatim. Paraphrases take a small portion of a source and use one's own words to simplify and clarify the central idea. Summaries are used to condense an entire source into a short explanation of the source's central idea. Numerical support is used to quantify information from a source. Pictographic support helps audience members both see and hear the idea being expressed by a source.
- Use a reverse outline to ensure that all the main ideas are thoroughly supported. Start with the basic conclusion and then work backward to ensure that the argument is supported at every point of the speech.
- Every claim within a speech should be supported. While some experts can get away with not supporting every claim, nonexperts must show they have done

their homework.

- To present support in a speech, use a three-step process: setup, execution, and analysis. The setup explains who the speaker or author is and provides the name of the source and other relevant bibliographic information to the audience. The execution is the actual delivery of the support. Lastly, a speaker needs to provide analysis explaining how an audience should interpret the support provided.

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51. Critical Listening: How to Listen to an Oppositional Speaker

Learning Objectives

Critical listening skills are vital to understanding a speaker's position and critically evaluating their argument.

- Listen respectfully and open their minds to different ways of thinking, learning, and living.
- Incorporate key elements to listening to arguments that are new and/or different from their perspectives.

Binary thinking

Binary thinking is either/or instead of both/and. In Western societies, we are often taught that binary thinking is “right” or “correct”. For example, we are taught and encouraged to think of gender as “boy” or “girl” and nothing else. However, in persuasion, public speakers want to avoid black and white or binary thinking. It is important to understand there are multiple truths or possibilities within one singular topic. As a speaker, you are urged to consider

the opposition and people in the audience that might not agree with your position. However, audience members also need to consider the speaker's perspective and listen critically to their argument. Audience members might not agree 100% with the speaker's argument; however, they can still learn from their experience and worldview. Understanding is not accepting. You can understand a speaker's position without incorporating it into your own worldview. Keep reading to see a few possibilities to listen carefully and critically.

How to Listen Critically:

1. Listen to the speaker's argument: what is their claim?
2. Understand that all arguments are complex, controversial, and ever-changing
3. Attach meaning to their argument: what experience do you have with their argument and what similarities are present?
4. Listen to the speaker's ethos and pathos – what are their credentials and how are they crafting their argument for the audience?
5. Consider the audience members that agree with the speaker: what similarities are present? Consider how you can benefit from understanding their perspective.
6. Find a connection between your perspective and their argument: can you see the common ground?
7. Engage in active listening – even when you vehemently disagree, you will engage in stronger, not weaker listening skills by engaging in an uncomfortable listening experience.
8. Listen carefully to the call to action – what can you do to improve the situation? What place do you have within their argument?

Watch this TED talk and listen to the words of Zachary Wood.

He encourages his audience to lean into discomfort and select attributes and commonalities within an oppositional speaker/speaking group. What can you learn from his argument?



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=79#oembed-1>

You will be asked to critically evaluate the work of other speakers. Use these suggestions to help guide your evaluation.

Key Takeaways

Listening is a skill that we all possess; however, critically listening is an advanced skill that should be cultivated and practiced.

- In order to engage in critical listening, audience members must put their presuppositions aside.
- Audience members should actively listen and consider the positionality of the speaker and the argument in which they are making; you may not agree, but you can find value in understanding the opposition.

52. Persuasive Conclusions - Call to Action

Learning Objectives

Conclusions in persuasive speaking function differently than informative speaking. You will learn how to incorporate a call to action in your persuasive conclusion.

- Create a persuasive conclusion that includes a call to action

Appeals and Challenges

Since the conclusion comes at the end of the speech, it is appropriate to leave the audience with an appeal or a challenge (or a combination of the two). Similar in nature, appeals and challenges are primarily divided by tone. Appeals are generally phrased more as requests, while challenges can take on a more forceful tone, almost ordering or daring audiences to engage in thought or action.

One of the most historically memorable and effective conclusions that utilized appeal and challenge was Dr. Martin Luther King Jr.'s I Have a Dream speech.

And so let freedom ring from the prodigious hilltops of New Hampshire. Let freedom ring from the mighty mountains of New York. Let freedom ring from the heightening Alleghenies of Pennsylvania. Let freedom ring from the snow-capped Rockies of Colorado. Let freedom ring from the curvaceous slopes of California. But not only that: Let freedom ring from Stone Mountain of Georgia. Let freedom ring from Lookout Mountain of Tennessee. Let



[“Martin Luther King Jr.”](#) Public domain.

*freedom ring from every hill and molehill of Mississippi. From every mountainside, let freedom ring. And when this happens, when we allow freedom to ring, when we let it ring from every village and every hamlet, from every state and every city, we will be able to speed up that day when all of God’s children, black men and white men, Jews and Gentiles, Protestants and Catholics, will be able to join hands and sing in the words of the old Negro spiritual: Free at last! Free at last! Thank God Almighty, we are free at last!*¹

Your persuasive conclusion will look similar to your informative conclusion. You will create three parts, a summary of important points and restatement of the thesis, closure, and a clincher. Your call to action will fit into your closure. What do you want the audience to do with the information that you provided?

Your call to action must be:

1. ²
2. [3]

- Relevant to your topic and audience – what is something they can do to help?
- Realistic – based on your audience, they will resources to do different things.
- Simple – narrow down to 1-2 things, do not provide 7 things you want them to do.
- Convenient – provide links, contact information, hours of operations, and any other important information they will need to carry out your call to action. Make it easy for them!

Activity



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1274#h5p-44>

Key Takeaways

Now that you understand the importance of a call to action, you can brainstorm effective strategies to implement your own call to action in your speech.

- Incorporate a call to action that is realistic for your audience.
- Ensure your call to action is simple, convenient,

and relevant to allow the audience to see themselves taking part in the call to action.

- Deliver the call to action in the conclusion with confidence! Nonverbal strategies are important during this part of the speech, too.

References

King, Jr., M. L. (1963, August 28). I have a dream.” Speech posted at <http://www.americanrhetoric.com/speeches/mlkihadream.htm> ↵

53. Fallacies

Learning Objectives

Type your learning objectives here.

- Identify fallacies within your speech by understanding what fallacies are and the common mistakes when engaging in persuasion.



Learning to detect fallacies helps you fine tune your bs meter.

A fallacy is an error in reasoning. It is a weak argument. To be more specific, a fallacy is an “argument” in which the premises given for the conclusion do not provide the needed degree of support. By becoming aware of the most common fallacies, you can avoid them in your own speech and detect them when others use them. My goal here is to teach you to identify some of the most common fallacies and to make you a human fallacy detector.

Why are fallacies so bad? They sound GREAT and the audience LOVES them! Here is why:

- They distract us from the real issue.
- They “trick” us into faulty reasoning.
- They deceive us into believing bad conclusions.
- They keep us from having a good discussion of the topic at hand.

As a student in a public speaking class, your due diligence is to present information that is embedded in research and logical support. In order to do this you will want to avoid fallacies. Here are the most common fallacies that public speaking students engage in during their speeches. Each fallacy will have a definition, example, and video clip. You might hear some arguments that have made sense before; however, now that you have greater knowledge, you should realize these arguments are faulty and should be be used.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1399#oembed-1>

Red Herring

A red herring fallacy gets its name from the sport of fox hunting. In foxhunting, riders on horses follow their dogs who are chasing a fox. Riders sometimes keep a fish, a red herring, in their saddlebags. If they are ahead in the chase, they can stop and drag the fish across the fox's scent and make the trail go in a different direction. When the opponents' dogs encounter the fishy smell, it distracts them from their mission of fox chasing.

A red herring fallacy occurs when a speaker distracts listeners with sensational, irrelevant material. Sometimes it happens when the speaker changes the subject and sometimes it happens when the speaker brings up irrelevant information to the topic. Why is this a problem? It is a problem because it sidetracks the argument at hand. It seeks to "win" an argument by diversion. Take this example, "We admit that voting to support school choice is a popular measure. But we also urge you to note that there are so many issues on this ballot that the whole thing is getting ridiculous." The argument at hand is whether or not to vote for school choice but the speaker distracts us by bringing up the point that there are too many issues on the ballot. It may be true that there are too many issues on the ballot, but that doesn't make the school choice something we should vote for or not.

In the video clip, "Republican senator says guns don't kill people, video games do" notice how Senator Ted Lamar (R) distracts from the issue of background checks with the topic of video games. The question: Can you envision a way of supporting the universal background checks bill? Senator Lamar Alexander's answer: Video games are a bigger problem than guns because video games affect people.

Yes, it may be true video games affect people but that doesn't mean we should or should not have universal background checks. Bringing up video games is a way to divert the audience's attention and avoid the question. Smells fishy to me.

Trump Attempts to Draw Attention to ISIS

Here is another example of a red herring. Donald Trump was asked about making inappropriate remarks about women. He replied that “he wasn’t proud” and then quickly diverted the topic to ISIS.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1399#oembed-2>

Slippery Slope



Oftentimes a speaker will argue one bad thing will result in many other bad things. This is done without proving these negative things will happen. A slippery slope causes the discussion to get off track. If you are not careful, you will find yourself arguing the ending claim and miss the real debate. Consider this example. In talking about gay marriage, Republican candidate for Governor, Rebecca Kleefisch went down a slippery slope that led to tables and dogs. “At what point are we going to OK marrying inanimate objects? Can I marry this table, or this, you know, clock? Can we marry dogs?”



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1399#oembed-3>

DirectTV made fun of the slippery slope fallacy in a commercial.



Removal of Robert E Lee Statue from Column in New Orleans. May 2017.

When talking about the removal of public statues, President Trump went down a slippery slope. “This week it’s Robert E. Lee. I notice that Stonewall Jackson’s coming down. I wonder; is it George Washington next week, and is it, Thomas Jefferson, the week after? You know, you really do have to ask yourself, where

does it stop?”

In speaking about the Iraq threat, President George W. Bush said, “I’m not willing to stake one American life on trusting Saddam Hussein. Failure to act would embolden other tyrants, allow terrorists access to new weapons and new resources, and make blackmail a permanent feature of world events. The United Nations would betray the purpose of its founding and prove irrelevant to the problems of our time. And through its inaction, the United States would resign itself to a future of fear.”

Ad Hominem

An Ad Hominem fallacy is one where the speaker attacks the person rather than the point. There are four major forms of attacking the person:

Ad hominem abusive: Instead of attacking a point, the argument attacks the person who made the assertion.

Democrat Alan Grayson described Republicans as “foot-dragging, knuckle-dragging Neanderthals who know nothing but ‘no.’”

Charley Reese from the Daily Iberian wrote, “That’s what abortion is – killing innocent humans for money. Abortionists are government licensed hit men.”

Ad hominem circumstantial: Instead of attacking the point, the person attacks the circumstances. They imply guilt by association.

Sara Palin, Republican Vice Presidential hopeful implied that Barak Obama was friends with terrorists. “Our opponent though is someone who sees America, it seems, as being so imperfect that he’s palling around with terrorists who would target their own country.”

Ad hominem tu quoque: The attacker suggests the person is a hypocrite and because they are a hypocrite, you can’t believe any point they make.

When Al Gore was traveling to speaking engagement on the topic of global warming, he was criticized for traveling by private jet. As President Obama was talking about gun control, speakers pointed out he was surrounded by secret service agents with guns. The argument itself should be discussed—gun control, climate change—the fact that the speaker may or may not be a hypocrite doesn’t mean the issue is right or wrong.

Poisoning the well: The speaker attacks the credibility of a

person before they speak to bias listeners against the speaker. This fallacy is based on the belief that the enemy used to put tainted meat down into the town well so all the water that would come out of the well would be tainted and make people sick. The idea is that if a speaker taints a person's credibility, then everything that comes out of their mouth is something harmful. Just because a person had poor judgment in one situation, doesn't mean that they are incorrectly handling the topic at hand.

For a great overview of Ad Hominem, watch this short video.



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The Great Lipstick War

Sarah Palin, Republican Vice-Presidential candidate ran with a persona of being feisty and tough. In a speech, she made this statement to charge up her base: "You know they say the difference between a hockey mom and a pit bull-lipstick." Not long after, Obama said in a speech, "You can put lipstick on a pig. It's still a pig." Obama claimed it

wasn't a statement directed at Palin, what do you think?
Watch these clips and see what you think.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1399#oembed-5>



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1399#oembed-6>

Who Had the Most Ad Hominem Ads Hillary Clinton or Donald Trump?

Political researchers Tedesco and Dunn published a political analysis examining 136 political television advertisements from the 2016 US presidential election between Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton and this is what they found.

Despite Trump's reputation for ad hominem attacks throughout the primary and general election phases of the presidential campaign, it was Clinton who waged more ad hominem attacks in her advertisements, mostly focused on labeling Trump as unfit for office. Trump and his supportive political action committee groups were more likely to run contrast ads to compare differences between his policies and Clinton's policies, but Clinton's campaign failed to use a full range of message strategies to contrast her policies with Trump's and to bolster her own image through her campaign ads. Tedesco and Dunn

Tedesco, J. C., & Dunn, S. W. (2019). Political Advertising in the 2016 U.S. Presidential Election: Ad Hominem Ad Nauseam. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 63(7), 935–947. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764218756919>

War Hero

Donald Trump attacked former prisoner of war and politician John McCain: “He’s a war hero. He was a war hero because he was captured. I like people who weren’t captured.”



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Post Hoc Ergo Propter Hoc

The fallacy here is the assumption that one thing caused another without proof of the link. When you study statistics, you will learn the phrase “correlation does not mean causation” which means just because two things seem to happen together, doesn’t mean that the one actually caused the other. Post hoc ergo propter hoc = after this therefore because of this and is a fallacy of false cause. Just because two things are consecutive, doesn’t mean that one caused the other. I do still believe that it rains every time I wash my car.

Talking to cashiers at fast-food restaurants causes obesity (the more I talk to fast food cashiers, the heavier I get).

Author unknown

Sports fans have a lot of these– “my team lost Friday because I forgot to wear my lucky hat.” Speaking of hats, watch this scene from the West Wing as the “president” educates his staff about cowboy hats and fallacies.

Autism in children is often detected at the same ages as they are getting immunizations leading to the incorrect assumption that one causes the other. “Just the other day, two years old, two and a half years old, a child, a beautiful child went to have the vaccine, and came back, and a week later got a tremendous fever, got very, very sick, now is autistic.” – Donald Trump

False Analogy

This fallacy compares things that may be alike in one respect leading to an invalid conclusion that they must be alike in some other respect.

Former Arkansas Governor, Mike Huckabee (R) said at a Freedom Summit that he is beginning to believe there’s

“More freedom in North Korea sometimes than there is in the United States. When I go to the airport, I have to get in the surrender position. People put hands all over me. And I have to provide a photo ID in a couple of different forms and prove that I really am not going to terrorize the airplane. But if I want to go vote, I don’t need a thing.” He was arguing why there needs to be government-required identification when voting but this comparison of airport inspection to a country with severe human rights violations is distracting and not a fair analogy.

“You know Obamacare is really I think the worst thing that has happened in this nation since slavery. And it is in a way, it is slavery in a way, because it is making all of us subservient to the government, and it was never about health care. It was about control.” Political candidate Ben Carson (R) at Values Voter Summit in Washington, D.C.

Improperly used comparisons can be a problem. Andina Wise in an opinion piece in Scientific American highlights that discussing military metaphors to fight COVID-19 undermines the practice of medicine. She highlights the wartime rhetoric using words that: Doctors are *fighting on* the *frontlines* without sufficient *ammunition*. They are *battling the enemy* and doctors from every *specialty* have been *redeployed*. They are *at war*. She warns that using wartime rhetoric sends a “precarious message.” To adopt a wartime mentality is fundamentally to allow for an all-bets-are-off, anything-goes approach to emerging victorious. And while there may very well be a time for slapdash tactics in the course of weaponized encounters on the physical battlefield, this is never how one should endeavor to practice medicine.

Watch this video, it includes some powerful and relevant examples of false analogies.

Non sequitur



Ted wasn't sure how he ended up in the Cretaceous Period, but he was sure glad he wore a helmet.

Good job, Ted.

USCPSC
ATVSafety.gov



Non sequitur

is reasoning in which principles and observations are unrelated to each other or to the conclusion drawn. Literally, the name of this fallacy means “it does not follow.” Similarly, a non sequitur is not a logical conclusion of the ideas they are combining.

“The liberals, the environmentalists, extremists, the Al Gores of the world were wrong on science – and today we know it... I’ve got a scoop shovel for you if you want to come any place in the 50 states in America – for the first time in the history of keeping records, there’s snowfall on the ground in all 50 states. It’s tough to make an argument when the evidence is all around us with the snowy white wonder and a crystal cathedral.” Steve Kin, Republican from Iowa speaking at CPAC.“

“You know, education—if you make the most of it—you study hard, you do your homework, and you make an effort to be smart, you can do well. If you don’t, you get stuck in Iraq.”
Democratic Senator John Kerry botching a joke about President Bush getting us stuck in Iraq

Is Veggie Pizza Un-manly? Serving Up a Non-Sequitur



The more toppings a man has on his pizza,
I believe the more manly he is.
A manly man doesn't want it piled high with vegetables.
He would call that a sissy pizza.

Herman Cain, former presidential nominee
and CEO of Godfather's Pizza

Are Males Really Piglets Who Hunt Giraffes?

Newt Gingrich (R), Speaker of the House, in a lecture on *Renewing American Civilization* argued against women in the military with this quote:

If combat means living in a ditch, females have biological problems staying in a ditch for thirty days because they get infections and they don't have upper body strength. I mean, some do, but they're relatively rare.

On the other hand, men are basically little piglets, you drop them in the ditch, they roll around in it, doesn't matter, you know. These things are very real. On the other hand, if combat means being on an Aegis-class cruiser managing the computer controls for twelve ships and their rockets, a female may be again dramatically better than a male who gets very, very frustrated sitting in a chair all the

time because males are biologically driven to go out and hunt giraffes.

(It is not logical that the reason women should not be in combat is because men are pigs who want to go hunt giraffes).

Ambiguity (equivocation)

Fallacies caused by ambiguity occur, not surprisingly, when some ambiguous term is used in the argument. An ambiguous term is one that has more than one meaning. The structure of the argument may be clear, and there may be solid evidence supporting the propositions. The problem arises from having nothing solid on which to base our conclusion. We saw this fallacy in play during the Clinton/Lewinsky investigations. If you recall, when questioned about his relationship with Monica Lewinsky, President Clinton responded that he never had “sexual relations” with that woman. The phrase “sexual relations” can include a whole range of sexual behaviors.



Let's look at a more recent example:

We won't be safe until we win the war on terrorism.

Can you spot the ambiguity? Actually, there are two: safe and terrorism. What is safe to one person is much less so to

another. Likewise, behaviors that appear terrorist-like to one person are simply impassioned acts to another.

Hasty generalization

Drawing conclusions based on insufficient or non-representative observations. People often commit hasty generalizations because of bias or prejudice. For example, someone who is a sexist might conclude that all women are unfit to fly jet fighters because one woman crashed one. People also commonly commit hasty generalizations because of laziness or sloppiness. It is very easy to simply leap to a conclusion and much harder to gather an adequate sample and draw a justified conclusion. Thus, avoiding this fallacy requires minimizing the influence of bias and taking care to select a sample that is large enough.

Steve King assumes Mexicans are drug dealers: “For everyone who’s a valedictorian, there’s another 100 out there who weigh 130 pounds — and they’ve got calves the size of cantaloupes because they’re hauling 75 pounds of marijuana across the desert.” Representative Steve King, a Republican from Iowa making assumptions about immigrants from Mexico.

Herman Cain assumes Muslims are militants: “I would not be comfortable [with a Muslim in my administration] because you have peaceful Muslims and then you have militant Muslims, those that are trying to kill us. And so when I said I wouldn’t be comfortable, I was thinking about the ones that are trying to kill us, number one. Secondly, yes, I do not believe in sharia law in American courts. I believe in American laws in American courts. Period. There have been

instances in New Jersey. There was an instance in Oklahoma where Muslims did try to influence court decisions with sharia law. I was simply saying very emphatically American laws in American courts.” Republican Tea Party Candidate, Herman Cain.

False Dilemma (Also Called Either Or Thinking)

Framing choices so that listeners think they have only two options and one of them is obviously preferred. I saw someone with a shirt on the other day that said, “America, love it or leave it.” It set up only two options. What if someone mostly loves America, but doesn’t like the health care system? What if they like America, but see that there is unfair distribution of wealth? What if they think another country has a better political system? Setting it up like there are only two choices when clearly most things have many shades of gray is creating a false dilemma.

”So, it is with conviction that I support this resolution as being in the best interests of our nation. A vote for it is not a vote to rush to war; it is a vote that puts awesome responsibility in the hands of our President and we say to him – use these powers wisely and as a last resort. And it is a vote that says clearly to Saddam Hussein – this is your last chance – disarm or be disarmed.” Hillary Clinton (D)

“Every nation, in every region, now has a decision to make. Either you are with us, or you are with the terrorists.” George W. Bush (R) statement to Congress after 9/11.

We can either tax and regulate cannabis for adult use, reduce violence, and enrich our state, or we can continue a policy that enriches the cartels and has always has a racially biased pattern of enforcement. Ben Jealous candidate during a Democratic primary for Governor

“And the reason is because there really are only two alternatives here. Either the issue of Iran obtaining a nuclear weapon is resolved diplomatically through a negotiation or it’s resolved through a force, through war.” Barack Obama (D)

Strawman



Strawman fallacy is where a speaker belittles or trivializes an argument to refute them easily. The speaker cannot defeat the real issue so they frame the issue as silly –they make a straw doll–a fake argument that looks a little like the real one that is easily defeated. Often the issue they attack has a semblance of the real issue but is different in significant ways.

Consider this example, President Obama introduced a provision that would allow Medicare to pay for counseling on end-of-life issues if the patient asked for it. Doctors could

counsel patients about end-of-life care issues such as living wills and hospice care. Senator Chuck Grassley, Iowa Republican said in a town hall meeting. “In the House bill, there is counseling for end of life. You have every right to fear. You shouldn’t have counseling at the end of life, you should have done that 20 years before. Should not have a government-run plan to decide when to pull the plug on grandma.” Notice what happened, he changed counseling about end-of-life issues into pulling the plug on grandma. In this example, Grassly created the issue into something that sounds ridiculous and is easy to defeat.

So to say we’re going to basically outlaw coal, which is what this administration has done, is so self-defeating. it destroys jobs, it destroys communities, it’s not helping us, and it’s not helping global warming. Carly Fiorina (R) in an interview with Katie Couric. Why is this a strawman? Because this is not what the current administration has done, it is an exaggerated strawman that is easy to knock down. According to an article in VOX on this quote. “US coal has taken a beating from natural gas, renewables, and efficiency — the market, in other words — but it still provides more than a third of US electricity. And EPA expects that under the Clean Power Plan, that share will be at 27 percent in 2030. That estimate is probably high, given how uncompetitive coal has become, but even if it drops to 20 percent, that’s a fifth of US electricity and a long way from outlawed.”

I think it’s terrible if you go with what Hillary is saying in the ninth month you can take the baby and rip the baby out of the womb of the mother just prior to the birth of the baby. Now, you can say that that’s okay, and Hillary can say that that’s okay, but it’s not okay with me. Because based on what she’s saying and based on where she’s going and where she’s been, you can take the baby and rip the baby out of the womb in the ninth month, on the final day. And that’s

not acceptable. Donald Trump said about Hillary Trump's position on abortion at the final presidential debate. This mischaracterized her position.

Hitler Fallacy

There are few observations that have proven more durable than Godwin's Law. Created in 1990 by attorney Mike Godwin, it is quite simple:

The more heated a political argument becomes, the higher the likelihood that one side will mention Adolf Hitler. Whoever mentions Hitler first, loses the argument. Danile Elbaum

In fact, comparing someone to Hitler to invalidate their point is so popular it's been given its own fake Latin name, the *reductio ad Hitlerum* – a play on the very real logic term *reductio ad absurdum*. It's mostly used to point out the fallacy of comparing almost anyone to Hitler.

Activity



An interactive H5P element has been



excluded from this version of the text.

You can view it online here:

[https://open.maricopa.edu/
com225/?p=1399#h5p-9](https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=1399#h5p-9)

Fallacies damage Ethos, Pathos, and Logos

Using fallacies weakens your argument, damaging logos. They can also render your emotional appeals ineffective. Finally, they damage your credibility with your audience. At the end of the day, they work against the persuasive strategies and leave your audience not convinced of your argument. Below are just a few more examples of fallacies that misuse persuasive appeals.

FALLACIES THAT MISUSE APPEALS TO LOGOS

Begging the question: circular argument because the premise is the same as the claim that you are trying to prove.

Example: “This legislation is sinful because it is the wrong thing to do.”

False dilemma: misuse of the either/or argument; presenting only two options when other choices exist

Example: “Either we pass this ordinance or there will be rioting in the streets.”

Smoke screen: avoiding the real issue or a tough question by introducing an unrelated topic as a distraction; sometimes called a **red herring**.

Example: “My opponent says I am weak on crime, but I have been one of the most reliable participants in city council meetings.”

FALLACIES THAT MISUSE APPEALS TO PATHOS

Appeal to fear: using scare tactics; emphasizing threats or exaggerating possible dangers.

Example: “Without this additional insurance, you could find yourself broke and homeless.”

Appeal to guilt and **appeal to pity:** trying to evoke an emotional reaction that will cause the audience to behave sympathetically even if it means disregarding the issue at hand.

Example: “I know I missed assignments, but if you fail me, I will lose my financial aid and have to drop out.”

Appeal to popularity (bandwagon): urging audience to follow a course of action because “everyone does it.”

Example: “Nine out of ten shoppers have switched to Blindingly-Bright-Smile Toothpaste.”

FALLACIES THAT MISUSE APPEALS TO ETHOS

False authority: relying on claims of expertise when the claimed expert (a) lacks adequate background/credentials in the relevant field, (b) departs in major ways from the consensus in the field, or (c) is biased, e.g., has a financial stake in the outcome.

Example: “Dr. X is an engineer, and **he** doesn’t believe in global warming.”

Guilt by association: linking the person making an argument to an unpopular person or group.

Example: “My opponent is a card-carrying member of the ACLU.”

Name-calling: labeling an opponent with words that have negative connotations in an effort to undermine the opponent’s credibility.

Example: “These rabble-rousers are nothing but feminazis.”

Testimonial fallacy: inserting an endorsement of the argument by someone who is popular or respected but who lacks expertise or authority in the area under discussion.

Example: “I’m not a doctor, but I play one on TV”—a famous example of a celebrity endorsement for a cough syrup (Deis, 2011, n.p.).

Key Takeaways

Remember This!

- A fallacy is a weak argument in which the premises given do not provide needed support—it is a weak argument
- Red herring fallacy occurs when a speaker distracts listeners with sensational, irrelevant material.
- Slippery slope fallacy occurs when the speaker argues that one bad thing will result in many other bad things. This is done without proving that these negative things will happen.
- Ad Hominem fallacy here the speaker attacks the person rather than the point.
- A post hoc ergo propter hoc fallacy is the assumption that one thing caused another without proof of the link.
- A faulty analogy is comparing things that are dissimilar in some important way.
- Non sequitur fallacy is reasoning in which principles and observations are unrelated to each

other or to the conclusion drawn.

- Hasty generalization is drawing conclusions based on insufficient or non-representative observations.
- Either-or-thinking is framing choices so that listeners think they have only two options and one of them is obviously preferred.
- Strawman fallacy is where a speaker belittles or trivializes an argument to refute them easily.

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PART VIII

CHAPTER 8: PERSUASIVE SPEECH DELIVERY

The final readings will put the “cherry on top” of your speech. You can think of these final readings as ways to ensure your delivery is smooth and impactful. You will want to continue to practice your speech, create strong note cards, rehearse your delivery as if you are in the final stages of speech preparation. Additionally, you will want to consider how to respond to questions during a Q & A session as well as ask proper questions to a speaker. This section is the refinement of your speaking journey.

54. Providing Evaluative Feedback - Q&A

Learning Objectives

Learn the importance of critical listening and crafting effective questions to present to the speaker during a Q&A session.

- Engage in critical listening during a speaker's persuasive speech in order to craft a strong thought provoking question.
- Ask appropriate, engaging, and professional questions in order to build rapport and gain a deeper knowledge of the public speech topic.
- Answer questions effectively.

Q & A Sessions

There may be times when you will participate in a question and answer session as an audience member or a speaker, or both! Below are things to keep in mind when these situations arise.

Audience Responsibilities

As audience members, you are tasked with critically analyzing a speaker's message. This requires critical thinking skills and the ability to use verbal communication to accurately inquire about your ideas, concerns, or rebuttals.

- Critically listen to the speaker/presenter – this requires focus and listening with an open mind
- Connect to topics/ideas that resonate with you
- Think through ideas that you would like more information and/or research – others in the audience might desire more information, too
- In your questions:
 - Use strong examples from the speech to demonstrate you were listening to the speaker and their position
 - Ask a clear and concise question
 - Sometimes people ask questions to make themselves look “smart” or “better” or “more knowledgeable” than the speaker; this is ethnocentric and inappropriate; do not speak in circles or monopolize time during the Q & A session.
 - If you have research and/or knowledge about the topic beyond the presenter, consider sharing the information in a helpful/valuable manner
 - If the speaker does not have an answer to your question, thank them, and allow them to move to the next audience member
- Avoid aggressive questions and/or challenges that create conflict and/or inappropriate behavior
- Avoid passive aggressive language
- Avoid using fallacies in your questions

Speaker Responsibilities

As a speaker, you may at times have to answer questions about your presentations. This is an important public speaking skill: impromptu speaking. While you may be able to anticipate some questions, you likely will not anticipate all possible questions.

The following video provides practical tips on how to handle a Q&A session.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=81#oembed-1>

Q&A Sessions vary in length; however, a proper question from an audience member should be approx. 1-2 minutes. Allow the speaker to answer; if you have a follow-up question, you can ask it but remain brief. If you would like to continue the question, wait until the end of the session and see if the speaker has time for a 1:1. You can also get their contact information and follow up on another day via email and/or another form of appropriate communication.

Preparing for Feedback

Turning to feedback, now that you have completed your speech, it will now be time to interact with your audience. Some audience members may respond to your presentation with questions. If you have inspired your audience, they may want additional information, or may even want to talk further about your presentation. Others

may disagree with your speech and respond to your presentation with hostility or frustration. Remember, you are in charge of addressing the audience members, and, as such, you must formulate a strategy for handling feedback. Your instructor may also set some guidelines for expectations for question and answer segment(s) for your presentation.

Here are some questions that you may wish to ask yourself as you prepare to address feedback:

- Have I addressed the other side of the issue discussed in my speech?
- What will I do if someone gets angry with me?
- What questions might my audience have for me?
- Have I used quality sources to prove my points?
- Can I explain any charts or graphs that I have presented?
- If the audience members want to know more about my cause, what information will I provide to them?

Pro Tips

- Listen to the question answered without bias – don't listen to the assumptions you may have about the person or the question – listen to the actual question.
- Directly answer the question asked – it may be tempting to use fallacies such as a red herring and take the answer in a different direction. Avoid this temptation and answer the question directly!
- If you do not know the answer, state this directly. You are not expected to know everything there is about the topic. Using deception will decrease your credibility.
- Share your resources with your audience – be prepared with a list of resources.

Key Takeaways

Q & A sessions can be impactful and benefit the audience and allow the speaker to provide more detailed information.

- During a Q&A session you want to be mindful of others time.
- Ask questions that are clear, concise, and brief.
- Follow up with the speaker after if you would like more detailed information.
- While answering questions is impromptu, you can still prepare for possible questions.
- Guidelines for answering questions will help you to avoid fallacies and increase your credibility.

55. Speaking Notes and Practice: Reminders and Additional Tips

Learning Objectives

Use notes wisely and effectively

- Create effective notecards that enhance your speech delivery.
- Rehearse your speech for an extemporaneous delivery.

Preparing for Your Speech Delivery

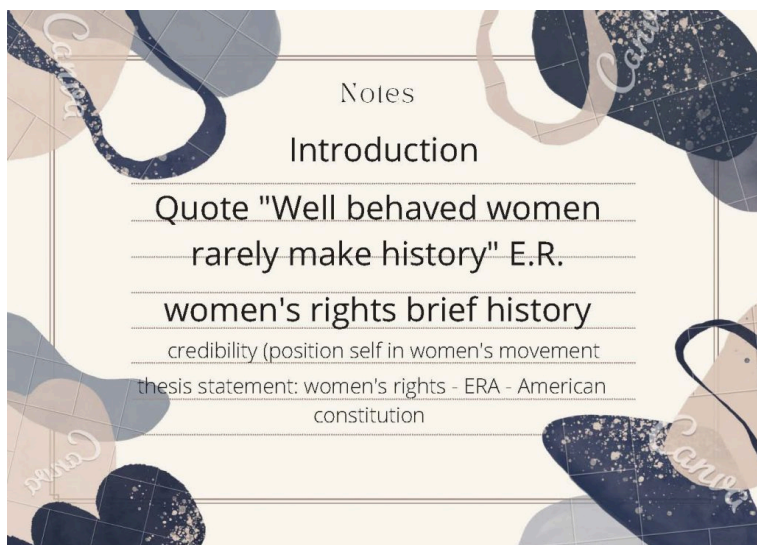
As we have learned, speech making is a process of sequential steps that will help us to deliver an effective speech. We are now at our final speech preparation steps – again! Below are some reminders as well as additional tips to help you finish your preparation for a successful speech delivery!

Preparing Notes

Once you have created a comprehensive outline and have thought through your speech, you should be able to create your note cards or whatever you might be using (notes or an iPad for instance). Every speaker is a bit different, and different speech topics and organizational patterns may require different notation techniques.

Tips for creating and using your note cards

Your note cards (or cue sheets) must have enough information on them to be able to deliver the speech without missing details; they should be organized in the precise order that you have planned. When you are finalizing your speech making process and putting the finishing touches on your outline, you are ready to make the notecards. DO NOT make note cards before you are done with your speech making process. Your note cards should only contain a few words that will guide your speech. You will read your outline word-for-word if you use an outline; so, it is essential for you to spend time on creating note cards. Once you have created effective note cards, you will want to practice with your visual aid, your note cards, and any other props you have to ensure a strong delivery.



During the delivery:

- You should be able to glance at the cards, get your bearings, and look back at the audience. If you are reading the cards word-for-word, there are too many words on them, unless it is an extended exact quote, or group of statistics that must be delivered precisely.
- Be sure your notes or cards are numbered (e.g., boldly in the upper right hand corner), so you can keep them organized. Color-coding is often done to easily distinguish the cards at a glance. Losing your place can be very stressful to you and distracting to the audience.
- Avoid writing or printing on two sides; flipping a page or card is distracting to the audience. The audience should not be aware of the notes. It is best to simply slide the cards aside to advance to the next card.
- Rehearse your speech using the notes that you will bring to the

podium. Be sure you can glance at the notes, get your information, and look up to have eye contact with the audience.

Watch this quick Youtube video to learn how to use notes effectively in a speech. There are great ideas to overcome bad habits and engage in “good” note card use.



One or more interactive elements has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view them online here: <https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=88#oembed-1>

Rehearsing the Speech

Students under estimate the amount of time the goes into outlining, creating note cards, and rehearsing their speeches. This “tying up loose ends” is essential for a strong speech delivery. Here are a few tips to remember before you deliver your speech.

Rehearse your speech – aloud and ideally with a colleague or fellow student as an audience

- Rehearse in front of a mirror if needed.
- Record a rehearsal speech so you can preview the speech (you can watch the speech and critically evaluate your performance)
 - Think of doing a quick SWOT analysis. What strengths are present? What weaknesses are present? What opportunities for improvement do you have? What threats exist?

- Practice as if you are LIVE. Use the same technology, presentation aids, notecards and/or tangible props.
- Use a timer – consider writing the time on your note cards to keep yourself on track with the pace of your speech.
- Allow plenty of revision and edit time – practicing for hours the night before your speech is not a successful strategy.
 - Create a practice timeline that will allow plenty of revision time, editing of your outline, and updating your note cards for delivery. Be sure to implement feedback in order to strengthen your argument.

You should also know exactly how your speech will begin and end. Regardless of how dependent on notes the speaker may be, here is one constant word of advice: know exactly how you are going to begin your speech. Not just an idea, but verbatim, with every inflection, every gesture, every eye contact with the audience. The first few sentences should be so ingrained, that you could perform it during an earthquake without batting an eye.

A memorized introduction accomplishes several goals. First, it gives you the opportunity to breathe, and realize it's not so bad to be up there after all! Second, it lets the audience know you are prepared. Third, it signals to the audience that what you are about to say is important. Finally, it gives you the opportunity for direct eye contact (because you are not reading) and commands the audience's attention. Eye contact is a signal to the audience that you care about them!

The conclusion of your speech is equally important. In show business parlance, the end of a song or a scene is called a "button." It is a "TAH-DAH" moment that lets the audience know you are finished, and that it is their turn to applaud. The ending impression your speech leaves with the audience is greatly affected by how effective the ending is. The content and structure notwithstanding, you should also know exactly how you will end (verbatim), so there is no hesitation, no stumbling, no tentative "I guess that's all" feeling. A confident and decisive beginning will draw the audience to you; a

confident logical ending will be very effective in preserving a lasting impression on the audience.

One of the key elements to an effective speech is our delivery method. We are **presenting** speeches, **not reading them**. Our goal is to deliver our speeches extemporaneously.

Extemporaneous speaking is one of the most natural methods for delivering a prepared speech. You can use an extemporaneous speech to achieve a more natural tone, flow, and style with the audience. This requires extensive preparation and practice.

Figure 12.1: Rehearsal Checklist

- Rehearse a few days before you are to deliver your speech
- Use the note sheets or cards you will be using or delivery
- Practice with the presentation aids you will be using for delivery
- Practice with the presentation aids you will be using
- Time your speech and cut or expand it if needed
- Rehearse with a colleague or an audience if possible
- If you can, rehearse in the room with the podium you will use
- Plan what you will do with your hands
- Plan and practice your opening and closing carefully, so you can deliver them exactly

To prepare for an extemporaneous speech, you must understand the difference between your preparation outline and speaking notes.

- Your preparation outline helps you to get prepared for your speech by providing the opportunity to organize and write your ideas in a speech format. This is your “formal” outline you use to organize your ideas (it is also the outline you turn in to me).
- Your speaking notes help you achieve a conversational and natural speech delivery.

See these tips for creating speaking notes:

<https://www.wikihow.com/Prepare-Notes-for-Public-Speaking>

Another Guide to Preparing Speech Notes

Speaking notes have an advantage over preparation outlines. For example, you can easily look at your notes for reference and as a personal reminder of which topics to discuss as you're speaking.

Speaking notes commonly take two forms: alphanumeric and decimal.

An alphanumeric outline includes a capitalized number or letter at the beginning of each topic. Look at the sample:

Thesis statement: E-mail and internet monitoring is an invasion of employees' rights

I. The situation: Over 80% of today's companies monitor their employees.

....A. To prevent fraudulent activities, theft, and other workplace related violations.

....B. To more efficiently monitor employee productivity.

II. What are employees' privacy rights when it comes to electronic monitoring and surveillance?

....A. American employees have basically no legal protection from mean and snooping bosses.

.....1. There are no federal or State laws protecting employees.

.....2. Employees may assert privacy protection for their own personal effects.

....B. Most managers believe that there is no right to privacy in the workplace.

.....1. Workplace communications should be about work;

anything else is a misuse of company equipment and company time.

.....2. Employers have a right to prevent misuse by monitoring employee communication.

Decimal outline

The decimal outline shows how each item at every level relates to the whole sample.

Thesis statement:

1.0 Introduction

....1.1 Brief history of Liz Claiborne

....1.2 Corporate environment

2.0 Career opportunities

....2.1 Operations management

.....2.1.1 Traffic

.....2.1.2 International trade and corporate customs

.....2.1.3 Distribution

....2.2 Product development

You will note that in both examples, only keywords are used. You can handwrite or type your notes on either a sheet of paper or note cards. The important point is that you do not have a word for word speech – you only have reminders on your key points. This seemingly small difference helps you to have a natural and conversational delivery.

Practice and Rehearsal Guidelines

The following guidelines are best practices on how to practice and rehearse an extemporaneous speech:

- Speak in a conversational style by pretending you are *with* your audience.
- Rehearse with your graphics and coordinate them with your talk.
- Display your graphics *only* when you are talking about them.
- Rehearse in front of others and solicit feedback.
- Record and listen to your timed practice speech.
- Prepare for interruptions and questions at the end.

Extemporaneous speaking is not memorization and manuscript speaking and requires you to organize and prepare your content and notes ahead of time to deliver a speech that will engage your audience.

Key Takeaways

Deliver your persuasive speech with note cards, a visual aid, and strong body language.

- The use of note cards is essential to public speaking.
- Public speaking students overlook the importance of note cards and visual aids to enhance their

delivery; when used effectively, note cards can greatly increase a students effectiveness.

- To ensure a smooth delivery, practice with plenty of time to make any changes to your delivery notes and method of audience connection.

References

Victor Capece, M.F.A.. **Provided by:** Millersville University, Millersville, PA. **Located at:** <http://publicspeakingproject.org/psvirtualtext.html>. **Project:** The Public Speaking Project. **License:** [CC BY-NC-ND: Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives](#)

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56. How to Deliver an Effective Persuasive Speech

Learning Objectives

Advanced Delivery Methods for Persuasion

- Deliver a persuasive speech that connection to the audience through exemplar rhetorical strategies

Effective Persuasive Delivery

At this point in your learning, you are well-versed in effective verbal and non-verbal delivery. You may be thinking, what else can I learn in order to connect more deeply with my audience and persuade them to change their minds or behaviors. The readings thus far have provided the foundation for informative and persuasive speaking; the readings, lectures, and activities all work together to create a well-rounded approach to public speaking. However, the most well-written speech will be just well written if it isn't delivered effectively. Writing your speech is only half of your job. Delivering it effectively is what will accomplish your speaking goals. Let's push the envelope a bit more to hone in on key skills of persuasion and elements of rhetoric that can be refined.

Skills:

1. Nonverbal delivery is calculated – not just haphazard. Your gestures are used to entice the audience – bring them in, and connect with them. A gesturing to point directly to someone, a long eye contact with a pause, or an increase or decrease of pacing are all ways in which a speaker can illicit pathos within an audience.
 - In a speech persuading an audience to put pressure on a college to create all e-textbooks a student could state: “College students are suffering due to the increased cost of college textbooks all the while professors have the ability to craft creative readings and online learning materials”.
 - A student could boldly state the word **suffering**.
 - The student could repeat **suffering** again to reinforce their message: “College students are **suffering, we are financially suffering**, due to the increased cost of college textbooks all the while professors have the ability to craft creative readings and online learning materials”.
 - The student could take a pause after suffering and scan the audience to engage the audience.
 - The student could point to professors in the audience, or at the visual aid with a professor on the slide.
 - The student could increase their vocals towards the end of the sentence to ensure the message is heard loud and clear: “***all the while professors have the ability to craft creative readings and online learning materials***”.
2. Pacing is carefully considered – the pauses between words and sentences matter greatly. If a student is well-rehearsed, they will know when to take careful and articulate pauses to ensure pacing is not dull or too fast.

- Pacing can be improved by practice and adding different speed indicators to note cards.
 - For example: a note card can state a statistic: “92% of college professors enjoy teaching their courses with tailored lecture materials” and on the top of that note card you could write **SLOW SPEAKING RATE** to remind yourself to slow down and carefully pace through this statistic.
3. Verbal Delivery – you have built strong skills in this area; however, a public speaking can continue to improve their verbal delivery by being concise, using words that pack a punch, and use visual imagery to get a point across.
- Being concise – you can state a sentence a million different ways; think about how to shorten that statement to gain a greater impact.
 - For example: College professors really want students to read their course material but so much of the text readings are outdated and students get really bored to old materials that continue to circulate academic classes.
 - Try this instead: College professors lament that college students rarely read course material; texts are outdated and boring, yet these materials continue to circulate higher ed.
 - Use stronger language – words that pack a punch.
 - For example: The students in the classroom are always on their cellphones.
 - Instead state: The students are distracted by cell phones.
 - Use visual imagery – this will allow visual learners to connect with your message. It is like painting a picture with your words.

- For example: The classroom is dull grey, lacks enticing decor, and has outdated technology from the early 2000's.
- You can elaborate on each of these ideas with support as well. Research suggests that color in a classroom can improve students learning, attention spans, and interest in the overall course material (citation, year).

4. Visual Aids

- Effective visual aids can be basic; however, visual aids that truly connect with your audience and match your verbal and non-verbal delivery greatly enhance a speech.
 - You can use newer technology to ensure you are providing a pleasing visual aid to your audience.
 - You can incorporate videos (embed them properly), memes, artwork/designs, animations, voiceovers, and other visual cues to keep yourself and the audience on-track and engaged.

5. Power of a strong introduction and conclusion

- People will remember how you began and how you ended, make it meaningful! Connect with your audience through the introduction into the conclusion. You will want to make a lasting impression on them in the conclusion so they engage in your call to action. Take careful inventory of what you have stated, and be sure to recap the main points before you get to the call to action. End just as strong as you started.

Review of Persuasive Strategies

- **Ethos.** Develops a speaker's credibility.

- **Logos.** Evokes a rational, cognitive response from the audience.
- **Pathos.** Evokes an emotional response from the audience.
- **Cognitive dissonance.** Moves an audience by pointing out inconsistencies between new information and their currently held beliefs, attitudes, and values.
- **Positive motivation.** Promises rewards if the speaker's message is accepted.
- **Negative motivation.** Promises negative consequences if a speaker's message is rejected.
- **Appeals to safety needs.** Evokes an audience's concern for their safety and the safety of their loved ones.
- **Appeals to social needs.** Evokes an audience's need for belonging and inclusion.
- **Appeals to self-esteem needs.** Evokes an audience's need to think well of themselves and have others think well of them, too.

Activity



An interactive H5P element has been excluded from this version of the text. You can view it online here:

<https://open.maricopa.edu/com225/?p=91#h5p-4>

Key Takeaways

Advanced delivery skills in persuasive speaking are possible.

- These skills might take more time, dedication, and refinement; however, the results are worth it.
- Consider implementing one or two of these strategies into your persuasive speech and see the difference the skill(s) make in your final delivery.

