

Speech

Study Guide

2nd Edition

11/6/2018

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Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the authors for their patience, support, and expertise in contributing to this study guide; and Christina Wulff for her invaluable efforts in reading and editing the text. We would also like to thank those at Achieve whose hard work and dedication to fulfilling this project did not go unnoticed. Lastly, we would like to thank the Achieve students who have contributed to the growth of these materials over the years.

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Printed in the United States of America

First Printing, 2015

Achieve

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Newark, NJ 07101-3188

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Visit the Achieve website at <http://www.achievetestprep.com/student>

Table of Contents

Chapter One: Ethical, Social, Demographic, and Theoretical Considerations of Public Speaking	6
1.1 Introduction to Public Speaking	6
1.2 Ethical Considerations	6
1.3 Theoretical Considerations	8
1.4 Social Considerations	9
1.5 Key Terms	10
1.6 Chapter One Practice Exam	11
Chapter Two: Topics and Speech Purposes	13
2.1 Types of Communication	13
2.2 Types of Speeches	14
2.3 Topics	15
2.4 Narrowing a Topic	16
2.5 The Purpose of a Speech	17
2.6 Key Terms	19
2.7 Chapter Two Practice Exam	21
Chapter Three: Audience Analysis, Adaptation, and Effect	23
3.1 Audience Analysis	23
3.2 Audience Adaptation	27
3.3 Audience Effect	29
3.4 Key Terms	30
3.5 Chapter Three Practice Exam	32
Chapter Four: Structure and Organization	34
4.1 Developing an Effective Speech Plan	34
4.2 Speech Structure	34
4.3 Speech Organization	37
4.4 Speech Outlines	39
4.5 Key Terms	40
4.6 Chapter Four Practice Exam	42
Chapter Five: Content and Supporting Materials	44
5.1 Claims	44
5.2 Arguments	44
5.3 Reasoning Fallacies	46
5.4 Evidence	48
5.5 Types of Evidence	49
5.6 Key Terms	50

Speech Study Guide

5.7 Chapter Five Practice Exam	53
Chapter Six: Research	55
6.1 Why is Research Important?	55
6.2 Types of Research	55
6.3 Evaluating Secondary Sources	57
6.4 Primary Research	58
6.5 Citation	60
6.6 Key Terms	60
6.7 Chapter Six Practice Exam	62
Chapter Seven: Language, Style, and Listening	64
7.1 Styles	64
7.2 Speaking Appropriately	65
7.3 Components of Language	66
7.4 Types of Language	68
7.5 Listening Types	69
7.6 Listening Challenges	69
7.7 Listener Responsibility	71
7.8 Critique and Feedback	72
7.9 Key Terms	73
7.10 Chapter Seven Practice Exam	76
Chapter Eight: Delivery and Apprehension	78
8.1 Characteristics of Effective Delivery	78
8.2 Conversational	78
8.3 Animated	78
8.4 Vocal Characteristics	79
8.5 Use of Body	80
8.6 Understanding the Nature of Public Speaking Apprehension	81
8.7 Factors that Contribute to Communication Apprehension	81
8.8 Managing Public Speaking Apprehension	82
8.9 Key Terms	83
8.10 Chapter Eight Practice Exam	85
Multiple Choice Practice Exam	87
Speaking Practice Exam	96
Answer Keys	97
Works Consulted	100

Speech Study Guide

Chapter One: Ethical, Social, Demographic, and Theoretical Considerations of Public Speaking

Objectives

1. Understand the ethical considerations and the five general standards: honesty, integrity, fairness, respect, and responsibility.
2. Discuss theoretical considerations, specifically rhetorical traditions, contemporary views, and classical views.
3. Apply social considerations in the speech setting.
4. Use activities to engage citizens.

1.1 Introduction to Public Speaking

Public speaking, also termed oratory, is the process and act of speaking to a group of people in a structured, purposeful way in order to impart knowledge, influence, or entertain an audience. The audience may take many forms, some of which may include a group of coworkers, family members, or academia. Typically, one speaker is addressing an audience. Long revered as a civic right, public speaking has been shown to be essential for citizens of democratic civilizations to live a happy and fulfilling life. The advantages of public speaking are effective if citizens are able to engage in their right to speak in a public forum. This is known as civic engagement.

Due to its empowering consequences, the ability and freedom to speak in public has advanced societies more than any other form of discourse. Effective public speaking gives a speaker confidence when dealing with important public issues. Such confidence can be witnessed in the conduction of business, public decision making, and in the acquisition and maintenance of power. Ancient civilizations saw the liberty of public speaking as a right, not a privilege, thus free speech is the hallmark of democracy. In addition to giving speakers confidence, public speaking empowers people to communicate ideas and opinions in a way that audience members can comprehend. An individual is more likely to share their opinions when they can express themselves clearly. Also, public speaking skills empower individuals to achieve career goals. One of the most sought-after skills of new recruits in a company is oral communication skills. Effective communication skills are a prerequisite for career success, or really, for success in any facet of one's life. Public speaking is not only a defining characteristic of democratic societies throughout history, it is also one of the most ethically challenging.

1.2 Ethical Considerations

Ethics reflect what individuals believe they should or should not think and do. Both the listener and the speaker expect the other to behave ethically. Generally, there are five collaborative ethical standards: honesty, integrity, fairness, respect, and responsibility. These standards are met in different ways.

Speech Study Guide

- **Honesty:** Communicators should be honest and truthful in the knowledge they are sharing with their audience. Audiences believe and expect what they are told to be true. In order for a speaker to practice honesty, they need to be able to keep their personal beliefs and opinions at bay, while not relaying any exaggerations to the audience. In order for speakers to be honest, they must research their topic and present all perspectives of an issue accurately. Also, a speaker must not plagiarize. **Plagiarism** is passing off ideas, words, or created works of someone else as one's own without crediting the source. Using part or all of a source without properly crediting the original source constitutes plagiarism. Even if someone else's words are summarized, credit of the original author is still needed. For a speaker to be credible, the speaker must be honest.
- **Integrity:** Speakers must "practice what they preach." Orators must conduct themselves in accordance with their words or they may be proven to be unreliable.
- **Fairness:** Speakers must communicate in a manner that renders them impartial (fair or just). In addition to being fair, a speaker should acknowledge any bias they might have regarding their topic. Speakers achieve fairness by researching and reporting all sides of a topic. Listeners should consider the evidence provided by the speaker, even if such evidence is against the beliefs of the listener.
- **Respect:** Behaving with respect means showing regard for others, including their point of views, their rights, and their feelings. Orators show respect for an audience by choosing language and humor that is inclusive and inoffensive. Listeners demonstrate respect by providing undivided attention to the speaker.
- **Responsibility:** One of the responsibilities of orators is to recognize the power of words. Ethical orators advocate what is in the best interest of the audience. Ethical listeners evaluate the positions that speakers advocate and do not blindly accept positions that are not in their best interest.

A speaker must incorporate the five general standards of public speaking in order to be credible. Some would argue ethical standards are universal, however society has shown they are far from universal. Despite discrepancies in the definition of ethical standards, the central premise is the same: a speaker must be found ethical to be found ultimately convincing. In order to be ultimately ethical, an orator adheres to standards of accuracy, objectivity and subjectivity, good taste, and judgment.

Accuracy entails more than one may think. An orator must be as proficient on their topic as possible. In order to gain such proficiency, a speaker must thoroughly research their topic. The speaker must choose sources that are up-to-date, comprehensive, and unbiased. If an article is out of date, the information contained within the article may not be accurate and is therefore invalid. If the course is biased, it may not cover all viable objections or perspectives of an argument or topic. Arguments that are poorly thought-out or contain faulty information can mislead audiences and have more disastrous effects. To avoid the likelihood of misinformation, a speaker must use sources that are credible. If the source is not credible, the information the speaker is relaying is also not credible or ethical.

Speech Study Guide

One of the most obscured debates speakers face is the tangle of objectivity versus subjectivity. It is not always an easy task for one to remain perfectly objective or neutral on a topic. Everyone is subjected to the forces of life experiences, personal values, religious beliefs, political biases, and expectations for social behavior. A speaker cannot erase their past or present feelings. However, a speaker should strive to be fair-minded. Ethical speakers attempt to maintain an open mind and not avoid or screen out initial information that may challenge the opinions of the speaker. One of the more difficult challenges speakers fail to remember is that they need to be open to the fact that the research for a speech may take them to a different conclusion than what his/her initial thoughts were. If a speaker falls into subjectivity they allow their personal views and beliefs to speak for themselves versus being objective, which allows research and evidence to speak for itself.

Finally, a speaker must take into account the audience to measure their own taste and judgment of content. With different audiences, some topics may be offensive while others may be acceptable. Although audience adaptation will be explored further in a later chapter, for the purposes of ethics it is simple: a speaker looks at the general make-up of their audience to judge if their topic and content are too controversial. If a topic is too controversial, the audience will shut down and not absorb what the speaker is trying to accomplish. A speaker uses his or her own taste to judge how content will be received.

Within ethical considerations, ethical proofs are incorporated. Since ancient times, theorists have recognized three broad categories or “modes” of proof: ethos, pathos, and logos. Ethos, or ethical proofs, refer to an audience’s perception of credibility of the speaker and his/her sources. Ethos is constituted by trustworthiness, competence, open-mindedness, and dynamism. A speaker’s ethos is shaped by the content, structure, and clarity of speech. Ethos and ethics are not the same, but are closely related. People normally tend to believe others that they hold in high regard. Pathos refers to arguments that appeal to the emotions of the audience. By appealing to the emotions of the audience, the speaker may be better able to convince the audience of a specific argument. Logos is the notion of constructing arguments to support the point of view of the speaker by the use of reasoning.

1.3 Theoretical Considerations

Participation in democratic governments is at its most effective when a speaker develops effective and responsible oratory skills. These skills have dated back to ancient times and are often referred to as the rhetorical tradition. The three traditions of scholarship and teaching that focus on the knowledge and skills necessary for democratic citizenship are:

- The tradition of rhetorical theory that dates back to ancient Greece and Rome
- The tradition of rhetorical criticism, which emphasizes the critical inquiry of public oration in all its multifarious forms
- The tradition of historical studies, which focuses on the teachings that may be learned from speakers, speeches, social movements, and persuasive campaigns of the past

These traditions help define the ethics of speech in a democratic society and the ethical rules that

Speech Study Guide

must be kept in mind during the speech-making process. In tandem with the rhetorical, the classical tradition suggests an approach to public speaking which emphasizes the character of the speaker and the shared interests of the speaker and listeners. The classical tradition attempts to de-emphasize the techniques of manipulation. Since ancient times, it has been believed that rhetoric traditions are only effective if used for the good of everyone and not for selfish interests. Ancient scholars, such as Aristotle, Cicero, Isocrates, and Quintilian, are the engineers of democratic society, free speech, and the classical tradition.

Similar to the classical tradition, the contemporary view differs from a centered focus on the speaker's character and shared characteristics between the speaker and listener to a more audience focused view. Since the age of exploration, diversification among people has been exponentially increasing. Within the last several hundred years this has been due to exploitation of slavery and racial and cultural blending of populations. Due to such diversification, an orator must take the culture(s) of their audience into account when researching and organizing their speech. Despite the shift of focus to the audience, contemporary views maintain a central emphasis on the content of the speech, similar to the classical tradition.

1.4 Social Considerations

When thinking about the social considerations of public speaking, one of the first things to consider is culture. Culture is a common set of beliefs, values, and morals shared by a group of people. When speaking to different cultures it is pertinent to be considerate of cultural differences. These differences may be in tone of voice, speaker word choice, and topic of speech. If cultural taboos or differences are violated the audience may not be receptive to what the speaker has to say. In order to understand or even know what cultural taboos or differences are, research prior to the speech must be done. If research cannot be done, then a generalized awareness of cultural sensitivity should be exercised.

Cultural sensitivity is not as complicated as one may think. In order to learn how to be culturally sensitive, one must begin with the self. It requires understanding that one's own beliefs and values are not the same as everyone else's, and despite what may appear to be logical and reasonable to one person, those personal beliefs, values, and morals may be perceived differently or may appear to be wrong to someone of a different culture. After understanding this, the speaker can modify research and delivery methods to provide a stronger argument during their speech.

Another aspect to consider is the setting of the speech, which can contribute to how the speech will be perceived. The culture of different settings is important to consider. A speech given during an exam is different than a speech given to an elementary school, which is yet again, different than a speech given to CEOs. When preparing for a speech for a general or unknown audience, it is best to avoid common mistakes. Even if the audience is unknown and the setting virtual, a speaker can deduce the likely audience, and therefore, a generalized idea of culture from the topic of the speech. If one is still unsure of the dynamics of the audience, it is best to assume one's own culture. If the speaker finds something offensive or incorrect, then it is safe to assume the audience will as well.

Speech Study Guide

There are as many social considerations of public speaking as there are societies. Within democratic and liberal societies, citizens are typically awarded the liberty of freedom of speech. History has shown when societies do not endorse and encourage the freedom of speech and public speaking, those societies rarely last long. Citizens who are deprived of their freedom of public speech may become restless and discontent. Even in democratic societies, if citizens feel as if their voice does not matter or is not being heard, they will become just as dissatisfied as citizens who are denied their right to freedom of public speech.

Within the United States, where freedom and liberty are renowned, young citizens are particularly apathetic in participating in political conventions and protests. However, this apathy is dissolving and more and more citizens are becoming involved in public speaking, especially when they feel wronged and cheated of their basic liberties (life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness). Citizens are not just speaking about their discontent, but also about their beliefs, specifically their political beliefs. Engaged citizens commonly participate in political organizations, happenings, and events they are passionate about.

1.5 Key Terms

- **Public speaking** is the process and act of speaking to a group of people in a structured, purposeful way in order to impart knowledge, influence, or entertain an audience.
- **Civic rights** are essential conditions for individuals to live happy and successful lives.
- **Civic engagement** is the act of engaging in civic responsibilities and functions.
- The **speaker** is the source or originator of the speech.
- **Ethics** are moral principles that a society, group, or individual holds that differentiates right from wrong.
- **Plagiarism** is passing off ideas, words, or created works of another as one's own by failing to credit the source.
- **Integrity** is the state of being whole or undivided; it is the quality of being honest and having strong moral character.
- **Fair mindedness** is suspending personal biases to remain open to competing ideas.
- **Rhetorical tradition** is the ancient discipline concerned with the techniques and ethics of speech. It includes three traditions of scholarship which focus on knowledge and skills necessary for democratic citizenship.
- **Classical tradition** emphasizes the character of the speaker and the shared interests of speakers and listeners.
- The **contemporary view** (tradition) shifts the focus to the diversity of the audience and stresses the evidence of the content.
- **Culture** is a set of beliefs, values, and morals shared by a group of people.
- **Taboo** is a topic that is not socially and/or culturally acceptable to discuss or discuss with a

Speech Study Guide

certain group of people.

- **Engaged citizens** participate in political organizations and causes they believe in.

1.6 Chapter One Practice Exam

1. What is public speaking?
 - a. Texting
 - b. Coffee date conversation
 - c. Structured and purposeful speech delivered by a speaker to an audience
 - d. Structured conversation
2. What are the five generally mutual ethical standards?
 - a. Honesty, integrity, fairness, respect, and responsibility
 - b. Cleverness, boredom, structure, organization, and follow-through
 - c. Follow-through, coyness, elatedness, organization, and honesty
 - d. Fairness, cleverness, respect, honesty, and organization
3. All of the following constitute plagiarism, except:
 - a. Changing a few words at the beginning, middle, or end of the material, but copying the rest of material without citation
 - b. Completely paraphrasing the unique ideas of another person and not giving credit to the original person
 - c. Purchasing, borrowing, or using in a speech or an essay in part or in whole that is prepared by another and presented as original
 - d. Properly crediting a source
4. The classical tradition focuses on the speaker.
 - a. True
 - b. False
5. The contemporary tradition (view) focuses more on the audience.
 - a. True
 - b. False
6. All of the following are part of cultural sensitivity, except:
 - a. Fair-mindedness
 - b. Audience research
 - c. Egotism
 - d. Compassion

Speech Study Guide

7. An engaged citizen does all of the following except:
- Participate in political organizations
 - Take part in causes they believe in
 - Utilizes their freedom of speech
 - Post Facebook statuses complaining about society but never doing anything about it
8. Improving public speaking skills can do all of the following EXCEPT:
- Build self-confidence
 - Help one understand how to break down information to present logically
 - Improve work-place relations
 - Help one to solve complex problems
9. A speech that is based on personal opinions is considered to be _____.
- Objective
 - Subjective
 - Classical
 - Contemporary
10. It is important to develop _____ in order to be compassionate in respect to other cultures.
- Sensitivity
 - Awareness
 - Cultural competence
 - Cultural perspective

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Chapter Two: Topics and Speech Purposes

Objectives:

1. Describe the types of communication.
2. Define the types of speeches.
3. Understand how to find and narrow a topic.
4. Clearly define the purpose and express the purpose of a speech.

2.1 Types of Communication

In order to best understand the components of communication, there are a few integral concepts to all forms of communication that must be understood. There is a **speaker**, or sender, which is someone who gives information on a topic. When there is a speaker, there is always a receiver. **Receivers** interpret messages sent by others by listening, interpreting, and providing non-verbal feedback. Typically, **messages** are verbal utterances, visual images, and nonverbal behaviors employed to convey thoughts and feelings. The process of creating messages is **encoding**; whereas the process of interpreting messages is **decoding**. Messages tend to be speeches prepared beforehand and presented. Listeners provide feedback. **Feedback** is a message sent by receivers to let the sender know how their message is being interpreted and may indicate understanding and reaction via nonverbal behavior.

All communication occurs via channels. **Channels** are the routes of travel for a message. Primarily, messages travel via auditory and visual channels. When technology enhances these communication channels, they are referred to as **mediated channels**. In all forms of communication, there is noise or interference. **Interference** is any stimulus that interferes with the process of achieving a shared message, and can sometimes be physical or psychological. Physical interference is when something tangible occurs to disrupt the speaker. Psychological interference refers to thoughts and feelings experienced that compete with the sender's message.

With the understanding of these universal concepts of all types of communication, it is easier to understand the different types of communication. **Communication context** refers to the environment in which communication occurs. The context differs by participant numbers and the balance of roles and values among those participants.

Intrapersonal communication is also referred to as "self-talk" or the idea of communicating with oneself. Typically, self-talk occurs when a person is thinking through choices, strategies, and consequences of taking an action. People communicate intrapersonally as a means of recognizing the need to rephrase an explanation or other concept. **Interpersonal communication** occurs between two people with an identifiable relationship with each other. Sometimes this happens between two friends, on the phone, or during a public speech when there is a question and answer session and the speaker directs remarks to the audience members.

Speech Study Guide

In contrast, ***small group communication*** occurs when a small group of people, typically three to ten individuals, interact. Small group communication is in stark contrast to public or mass communication. ***Public communication*** occurs when there are more than ten people receiving a message by one primary sender. It can occur face to face or over media. One facet of public communication is ***mass communication***, which is when communication is produced and transmitted via mass media to large segments of the population at the same time.

2.2 Types of Speeches

Within the boundaries of communication are different types of speeches. An ***impromptu speech*** is a speech that is created within seconds or minutes of delivery. Typically, these speeches are delivered without any type of notes and are done under pressure. Due to the nature of these speeches, organizing and developing ideas may be difficult. As a result of these challenges, a speaker may leave out information and confuse audience members. Performing impromptu speeches helps to refine the skills needed to complete them well. Typically, this type of speech is encountered with employment, meetings, school, or social ceremonies. Some of the ways to organize thoughts for impromptu speeches are:

- Anticipate the possibility of encountering the opportunity for an impromptu speech and think about possible content. If encountered during a class, take notes on the lecture and reference them if called on for an impromptu speech.
- Practice active listening. If one is caught daydreaming when forced to give an impromptu speech, they are not likely to be able to organize their thoughts well. Active listening avoids being caught off guard.
- Increase feelings of confidence by reminding oneself that no one is perfect.
- Use all preparation time to one's advantage.
- Use basic principles of speech organization.
- Speak briefly, calmly, and concisely.

Unlike impromptu speeches, ***manuscript speeches*** are carefully prepared speeches that are designed for a specific issue, use specialized language, and allow the speaker to plan what to say, but they also have a written transcript of their remarks. Different settings call for manuscript speeches, typically in formal settings, versus informal settings. These speeches are also referred to as ***scripted speeches***. Regardless of setting, they always require more time to prepare. Political speeches, keynote addresses, commencement addresses, and CEO remarks all tend to be scripted speeches.

In contrast to manuscript speeches, ***extemporaneous speeches*** are researched and planned ahead but are not scripted word for word, thus presentations of the same speech vary slightly from speech to speech. When speaking extemporaneously, one refers to speaking in regard to key ideas, structure, and delivery cues. Generally speaking, these speeches are the easiest to give effectively because the speaker is able to prepare their thoughts ahead of time and have notes to prompt them during the actual presentation.

2.3 Topics

At times it may seem difficult, or even impossible, to find a topic for a speech. Sometimes the topic is given to the speaker, such as with a standardized exam or when someone is called on to speak about their expertise in a given area. Topics may also revolve around the passions and concerns or values of the speakers themselves. If a speaker will be speaking about something involving public opinion and concern, they should always be willing to do more research and have references available, no matter how extensive their primary knowledge is. The reasons a speaker chooses to speak about public concerns vary from wanting to affect change to wanting to clear up a topic of controversial nature.

If a speaker is feeling lost about what their topic should be, it is safe to examine what matters to the speaker to help provide a topic. It is human nature to deliver ideas about something we care about versus something we have little interest in. Following one's passions and interests is crucial for effective speech delivery. No matter one's own passions, research is essential to formulate, evaluate, and support opinions and passions.

To further help select a topic, a speaker may conduct a self-inventory by examining what the individual really knows and cares about. This can be done by looking at issues that affect the speaker or their community, or by really taking an inventory of intellectual and educational interests, goals, and activities. This method helps to generate topics. In order to really conceptualize a topic, brainstorming may help. **Brainstorming** is the act of writing down anything that comes to one's mind about a particular category. Do not worry about what will be of interest to the audience or what kind of information can be found. Write down everything that comes to mind to evaluate later for a definitive topic. Similar to brainstorming, **concept mapping** is a visual means of exploring connections between a subject and ideas. When generating ideas ask who, what, when, where, why, and how.

When examining interests, the best place to begin is with personal and community interests. Put simply, there are two questions to ask: what is going on in the personal life of the speaker that is bothersome or concerning and what is happening in the immediate world that is unfair, unjust, or in need of reform. Asking these questions about the speaker's life allows them to truly examine what is important and pertinent to their own lives. When speakers care about the topic they are more effective in their delivery and influence on the audience.

By looking at the intellectual and educational interests of the speaker, it helps to refine possible topics. There are a few key questions to ask in regard to these interests: what does the speaker like to read, what interesting things have been learned from television and media, and what specific courses or issues are particularly interesting to the speaker. By examining what a speaker likes to read, it can help them consider a topic dealing with different cultural issues. Those who read are more aware of the issues of others.

In conjunction with Maslow's notion of meeting physiological needs, when an audience feels as though a speaker is appealing to their need to meet their full potential, the audience members are

Speech Study Guide

likely to listen and respond well. When a speaker considers their own goals, not just their career goals, when formulating a speech, they may be better able to generate a topic. Finally, speakers may consider their leisure activities and interests. When speakers think about these sort of activities, they are likely to be more relaxed and ideas for topics will generate easier. By conducting a self-inventory of intellectual and educational interests, goals, personal and social concerns, and activities and interests, a speaker has a great starting point for selecting a topic. These broad generalizations then require a topic to be narrowed.

2.4 Narrowing a Topic

After generating broad topics, a speaker must narrow the topic down. To narrow down a topic a speaker should consider a few key things:

- Consider the situation:
 - Does the topic relate to recent events that may be of concern to the audience?
 - Is the speaker able to convince listeners to care about their topic as much as the speaker cares?
 - Does the speaker have sufficient time to cover the topic?
- Consider the audience:
 - What does the audience already know?
 - What are the common experiences of the audience?
 - What do the audience and speaker have in common?
 - How diverse is the audience?

These questions are involved in audience analysis and they can also help to narrow down a topic. In addition to asking these questions, after doing a self-inventory a speaker could and should use ethical obligations to aid in narrowing a topic. **Ethics** are described as a set of behavioral standards. While subjective, it is generally agreed that ethical standards are universal and unchanging. Everyone draws their own conclusions about what is ethical and what is not based on their own culture and experiences. Although it is not always agreeable as to what is ethical, it is widely accepted that ethical considerations should be taken into account when choosing a topic. The common ethical considerations to take into account are accuracy, fair-mindedness, good taste, and sound judgment.

Research is necessary when using accuracy to narrow a topic. If a topic does not have ample information to support the claims made, it cannot be proven as accurate. If a speech contains ill-founded or untrue information, the speech is considered unethical. In addition, encouraging audience members to do something that will have negative consequences is unethical. To be accurate, facts need to be well documented and researched. Opinions must be founded in fact and audience members should not be encouraged to do anything negative.

Humans are influenced by passions, experiences, feelings, biases, and their pasts. Speakers and

Speech Study Guide

audiences are both subjected to pasts, experiences, and everything that happens in life. Even though neither speaker nor audience can be purely objective, it is expected that a speaker be fair-minded. **Fair-mindedness** is the willingness to suspend personal biases and remain open to competing ideas. When conducting research, a speaker has to allow for the possibility that their research may lead to surprising conclusions, thus provoking a change in original beliefs or opinions. Once a topic is well researched, accounting for all possibilities of a topic, a speaker may be more confident in taking a well-reasoned stand or position.

Good taste and sound judgment are closely related. Typically, it is advisable to avoid topics that are offensive or embarrassing to an audience. This is learned in the audience analysis phase. Using an audience-centered perspective is crucial to avoid these issues. While the speaker may find certain topics amusing, it is pertinent to change perspective and try to view the topic from the viewpoint of the audience members as well. With a change in perspective, the speaker may be able to understand how the audience will receive and respond to the speech. If a speaker finds something offensive, it is generally safe to assume that an audience will find it offensive as well.

2.5 The Purpose of a Speech

All speeches, no matter the context, occur on an occasion, which encompasses the purpose of the speech and a setting of where it will occur. Depending on the goal of the speech, there are different types of general and specific purposes. There are three types of general purposes: informative, persuasive, and ceremonial purposes.

Though most speeches are tailored for a specific response for an audience, there are general purposes to consider. At times these purposes are not typically planned before the speech but rather considered based on a specific audience. Some may not think about what a speaker wants from an audience, just what an audience wants from a speaker.

When thinking about informative purposes speakers hope to garner understanding from their audience members. Informative speeches seek to help listeners understand something they did not before, or to understand a topic better. After a speech, most speakers hope that their listeners will not only have heard something new but have learned something new. This focus on learning will help a speaker avoid topics that may be controversial because they are searching for topics to add to the listener's knowledge.

One of the most common general purposes are persuasive purposes. Persuasion envelops everyone in almost every aspect of life. Life, in general, pulls each person in many different directions and influences behavior. Similar to informative speeches, persuasive speeches want something from the audience. Persuasive speakers do not want the audience to understand, but aim to influence beliefs, values, and actions. It requires the speaker to give the audience good reasons to accept the speaker's claims. Humans are not always easily persuaded, thus the challenge presented to every speaker.

Speech Study Guide

The third general purpose is ceremonial purpose. These occasions offer many opportunities: community building, honoring an individual, celebrating, or paying tribute to a lost loved one. Ceremonial speaking uplifts, comforts, and reinforces a sense of community. One of the significant aspects of ceremonial purposes is articulating and reinforcing shared values. These speeches may be given by anyone, generally at times of great importance or significance, such as inaugural addresses, commemorative speeches, national holidays, or tragedies. General purposes point the speaker in the direction for a speech and outline what a speaker wants from their audience.

In contrast to general purposes, specific purposes describe the specific response a speaker wants from an audience. This includes being shaped by the speaker's goals, the situation of the speech, and potential benefits to the audience. A specific purpose is the response a speaker wants to evoke.

When a speaker addresses an audience, they should always think about the desired response from the audience. For informative speeches, the speaker should state what they want their audience to learn or understand from the speech. While this may not be conveyed with an explicit statement, such as, "I want you all to understand how to write a speech," the desired response should be conveyed with material in the speech. With a persuasive speech, the speaker needs to clearly define their position on their topic and the response they wish from the audience. As with informative speeches, the response is rarely, but sometimes, explicit, such as, "It is important to learn how to write a good speech to be ultimately understood." Ceremonial speeches, because they are given for specific occasions, have a purpose indicated within the occasion of the speech.

Situations help speakers to refine and clarify the purpose of their speech. For example, after a natural disaster, informative speakers try to help audience members to obtain FEMA benefits, healthcare benefits, or how to go about reinforcing homes after a flood. Persuasive speakers may try to convince their audience of the best method of reinforcing a home against a flood or to take action and push a city to improve flood barriers. Ceremonial speeches often dictate their purpose based on the situation. Commencement speeches seek to encourage and promote good feeling. Speeches given at a funeral seek to celebrate the life of the one who passed away and to mourn their loss.

The most effective speakers manipulate their perspective to try to view and feel what the audience feels. Part of understanding what an audience feels and believes is examining how an audience will benefit from hearing the speech. When a speaker has something to offer the audience, they are deemed more effective. In order to be able to derive the benefits to an audience, a speaker should examine the reason behind an audience gathering. Audiences gather for a variety of reasons, all hoping to gain something from the speaker and benefit in some way from the speech.

The more realistic the purpose of a speech is, the more an audience will respond to it. If a speech does not appeal to the needs of the audience or is not adapted for a specific audience, it will not be effective. When requests are reasonable, the audience is more likely to respond in the desired manner. A speaker must take into account demographics, setting, and reasons for an audience gathering. Part of being realistic means a speech should be clear. If the purpose of the speech is

Speech Study Guide

vague, communication will be unsuccessful and the audience will not respond well.

Finally, a speech has to have an ethical purpose. Even if every other purpose of a speech is fulfilled, the speech can still be unethical. Ethical speakers pursue goals that are in the best interest of their audience and listeners. Boundaries of ethics are not always clear. There are conflicts of interest, usually over controversial debates. As with all purposes, ethical obligations ask how the audience might benefit or be harmed by the information and purposes of the speech. Clear goals and purposes include:

- Informative goals:
 - General goal: To inform the audience
 - Specific goal: To want the audience to understand a concept
- Persuasive goals:
 - General goal: To persuade an audience to behave a certain way
 - Specific goal: To want the audience to specifically alter their behavior
 - General goal: To encourage audience involvement
 - Specific goal: To encourage and persuade audience involvement in a specific arena

2.6 Key Terms

- **Receivers** interpret messages sent by others by listening, interpreting, and providing non-verbal feedback.
- **Messages** are typically verbal utterances, visual images, and nonverbal behaviors employed to convey thoughts and feelings.
- **Encoding** is the process of creating messages.
- **Decoding** is the process of interpreting messages.
- **Feedback** is a message sent by receivers to let the sender know how their message is being interpreted and may indicate understanding and reaction via nonverbal behavior.
- **Channels** are the routes of travel for a message. Primarily, messages travel via auditory and visual channels.
- **Mediated channels** are communication channels that are enhanced by technology.
- **Interference (noise)** is any stimulus that interferes with the process of achieving a shared message; sometimes it is physical or psychological.
- **Communication context** refers to the environment in which communication occurs. The context differs by participant numbers and the balance of roles and values among those participants.
- **Intrapersonal communication** is also referred to as “self-talk” or the idea of communicating with oneself.
- **Interpersonal communication** occurs between two people with an identifiable relationship with each other.
- **Small group communication** occurs when a small group of people, typically three to ten individuals, interact.

Speech Study Guide

- **Public communication** occurs when there are more than ten people receiving a message by one primary sender. It can occur face to face or over media.
- **Mass communication** is when communication is produced and transmitted via mass media to large segments of the population at the same time.
- **Impromptu speech** is a speech that is created within seconds or minutes of delivery. Typically, these speeches are delivered without any type of notes and are done under pressure.
- **Manuscript speeches** are carefully prepared speeches that are designed for a specific issue, use specialized language, and allow the speaker to plan what to say but also have a written transcript of their remarks.
- **Extemporaneous speeches** are researched and planned ahead but are not scripted word for word, thus presentations of the same speech vary slightly from speech to speech.
- **Self-inventory** examines a speaker's intellectual and educational interests, goals, and activities to help generate possible topics for speeches.
- **Brainstorming** is the act of writing down anything that comes to one's mind about a particular category.
- **Concept mapping** is a visual means of exploring connections between a subject and ideas. When generating ideas, ask who, what, when, where, why, and how.
- **Ethics** are described as a set of behavioral standards.
- **Fair-mindedness** is the willingness to suspend personal biases and remain open to competing ideas.
- **Occasion** encompasses the expected purpose for the speech.
- **Specific purposes** describe the specific response a speaker wants from an audience and are shaped by speaker's goals, the situation of the speech, and potential benefits to the audience. Basically, a specific purpose is the ultimate response a speaker wants to evoke.

2.7 Chapter Two Practice Exam

1. When a group of 3-10 people interact it is called _____.
 - a. Interpersonal communication
 - b. Intrapersonal communication
 - c. Small group communication
 - d. Mass communication

2. When communication is produced and transmitted to large groups of the population it is called _____.
 - a. Interpersonal communication
 - b. Intrapersonal communication
 - c. Small group communication
 - d. Mass communication

3. When communication is within the person, as in self-talk, it is called _____.
 - a. Interpersonal communication
 - b. Intrapersonal communication
 - c. Small group communication
 - d. Mass communication

4. A speech that is created just before delivery, usually without notes and done under pressure is a(n) _____ speech.
 - a. Impromptu
 - b. Manuscript
 - c. Extemporaneous
 - d. Prepared

5. A speech that has been researched ahead of time, isn't scripted, but has key words or cue cards is called a(n) _____ speech.
 - a. Impromptu
 - b. Manuscript
 - c. Extemporaneous
 - d. Prepared

6. Which prewriting strategy involves writing down all your thoughts on a specific topic?

Speech Study Guide

- a. Brainstorm
 - b. Cluster map
 - c. Outline
 - d. Free write
7. Which prewriting strategy appeals to visual learners, since it is essentially a diagram of ideas?
- a. Brainstorm
 - b. Cluster map
 - c. Outline
 - d. Free write
8. Which of Maslow's needs can a speaker help an audience fulfill by helping them to see their own potential?
- a. Belonging
 - b. Self-actualization
 - c. Self-esteem
 - d. Physiological
9. A speech with a purpose of arguing a position and changing the mind of the audience is classified as _____.
- a. Impromptu
 - b. Extemporaneous
 - c. Informative
 - d. Persuasive
10. A speech with a purpose of sharing information and showing all points of view is classified as _____.
- a. Impromptu
 - b. Extemporaneous
 - c. Informative
 - d. Persuasive

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Chapter Three: Audience Analysis, Adaptation, and Effect

Objectives:

1. Know how to identify an audience.
2. Discuss how to engage in audience analysis.
3. Describe how to adapt a speech for a specific audience.
4. Understand that the needs of an audience influence the effect of a speech.

3.1 Audience Analysis

In order to properly analyze an audience, the speaker must take into account several factors. Some of these factors include the reason behind an audience gathering, what they hope to achieve from listening to the speech, and audience demographics. To be a responsible speaker (and listener) one has to recognize one's own biases and understand how biases affect judgment. To help understand how a speech might be received, a speaker has to anticipate the biases of the audience members. Audience members' demographics influence their biases.

The reason behind an audience gathering tells a speaker a lot about who the individual members of the audience are. Audiences come together to hear something they care about. Personal reasons for caring about a matter vary. Sometimes an audience member wants to listen to a speech to understand or learn more about a given topic. Other times, an audience gathers because they are required to, like for a job or training. An audience who has to gather for a mandatory reason may not be as receptive to a speaker as an audience who gathers due to a shared passion.

The age of individual audience members influences the way they receive messages. Age influences the experiences and values of each person. Individuals of similar ages may have distinct experiences but will, inevitably, share certain experiences, which will influence how that person perceives and receives the world (and a speaker). Individuals who experienced such events as World War II, September 11, 2001, or wars in the Middle East, will be likely to share certain values, such as country pride and/or a sense of duty to one's country. Those who have lived through difficult economic times, such as The Great Depression or The Economic Downturn of 2010, will likely value economics. Members who are over forty years of age are likely to be married with children and will care about different issues than individuals who are in their twenties and unwed. Due to shared experiences, social and/or personal mores, and personal concerns related to age, certain individuals will share certain values.

Much like shared values of individuals of different age ranges can vary, those of a particular gender and gender identity share certain values and deal with particular stereotypes. **Sex** is defined as the two main divisions, either male or female, into which humans and many other living things can be categorized based on reproductive functions. **Gender identity** refers to a person's private sense or innate identification as a man or woman and the differences and similarities in how men and women behave, what they value, and what they believe. Behavior has changed over time. It used to

Speech Study Guide

be unacceptable for women to speak in public or for men to take care of children. **Gender roles** are the specific role that are prescribed by their culture. These differences and similarities are influenced by society. As society changes, the expectations of how men and women behave and what they value change with society. In modern culture and in many places, it is acceptable for women to venture into public alone or to speak in public. Socially constructed ideals about roles, behaviors, and modes of dress are influenced by different cultures and vary from culture to culture. In regard to sexual orientation, sometimes men and women deviate from widely acceptable socially constructed norms. **Sexual orientation** refers to a person's sexual preference in relation to the gender they are attracted to. This includes being heterosexual, homosexual, or bisexual. An audience's gender, gender identity, and sexual orientation affect their experiences, values, and issues they may be passionate about and how they will receive a speech. Women may be more concerned about certain women's health issues while men may be more concerned about men's health issues. Women also tend to be more concerned about providing a nurturing home rather than the most technologically advanced home. Sometimes men are more concerned about the stock market and the economy. A good speaker will convince men to participate in topics, events, and causes which are usually women's concerns and be able to convince women to do the same for men.

Additionally, a good speaker will be able to address those of different races and ethnicities. Race is a complicated concept. In order to define the term, it can be said that race is associated with biology. **Race** refers to a group of people that have distinct physical characteristics, which can cause people to treat other people differently because of these biological traits (racism). Due to encompassing political, social, and personal definitions, race has come to be about more than biology and genetics. When someone identifies with a particular race this provides some indications about how they view themselves and the world around them. The United States is commonly referred to as a "melting pot" but today's trend is giving way to some new metaphors, such as, the "salad bowl." The term "melting pot" first came about due to an immense immigration the U.S. experienced. It was believed that cultures just melted and meshed to become one big culture. As years passed, it was realized that different racial groups have not melted together, but maintained their own culture while adopting certain attributes of their surrounding culture. In other words, a "salad bowl" concept where each group maintains themselves and adopts part of the whole around them, so eventually there are many microcultures within the larger culture. The "salad bowl" mentality has led to racism. **Racism** is the belief in the superiority or inferiority of particular races, which leads to prejudice, antagonism, fear, and oppression. It denies essential humanity of those who are different and limits their potential for successful communication. Racism comes about from individuals who are not tolerant of those who are different. In order to be an effective speaker, one must be able to address someone of a different race. Regardless of race, everyone has a different experience with life, even if those lives occurred within blocks of each other. A speaker of one race who is addressing an audience of people of a different racial background has to be able to take into account the different experiences and perspectives the audience members will have due to their race.

Similar to racial identification, ethnicity affects how an audience will receive a speech. **Ethnicity** is the cultural background of an individual, where they are from, and where their family is from. An individual may choose to identify closely with the ethnicity of their parents, where the individual actually grew up, or of their familial heritage. Regardless of how an individual identifies with their ethnic heritage, it is still an influential force in their life and how they view the world. One of the

Speech Study Guide

most significant problems the world faces today does not only encompass racism, but **ethnocentrism**, which is the belief that one's own ethnic heritage is superior to all other ethnic heritages. With the deep cultural divisions, which seem insurmountable, a speaker must respect differences in customs, practices, and beliefs which are founded in ethnic origins. In order to understand these differences, a speaker must research the audience's backgrounds in regards to ethnicity before delivering a speech.

With globalization, the world is quickly becoming more and more aware of cultural differences. Children may be born in one country and move to another with their parents or participate in a study abroad program. When someone comes from one culture, whether it is within the same country or between different countries, one can experience culture shock. **Culture shock** is the clashing of ideals, values, morals, beliefs, and customs from one culture to another. It is often associated with social anxiety and the inability to adapt completely to the receiving culture/country. Cultural differences are sometimes difficult to overcome. A speaker must also look at the culture of their audience. An audience comprised of individuals who are not native to the country will have different ideals than an audience who has never been outside of the country. Cultural sensitivity begins with the speaker recognizing their own culture may be different than that of their audience. When an honest and open exchange occurs between individuals of different cultures, cultural differences are lessened and both can inevitably learn something new.

More than culture, religious differences can be difficult to surmount. Religious beliefs or a lack of religious beliefs greatly influence how an audience will evaluate and respond to a speech. Religion can also influence a general attitude toward political controversies. Some individuals of a religion will find one thing offensive or wrong but not another. Religious teachings also make a difference in the way people will respond to a speech. Those who have had more of a fundamentalist teaching may be more open to messages about tradition, while those of more liberal teaching may be more open to change. Even if an audience holds fundamentally different beliefs than a speaker does, it does not mean there cannot be effective communication between the two. Through honest and open communication, mixed with cultural sensitivities by both the audience and speaker, reaching a common ground on controversial topics can be accomplished.

A speaker needs to take into account the location of the speech. If a speaker is approaching an audience from a rural background versus an urban one, the values of the audience will differ. Within the United States, certain geographical locations have certain tendencies and shared values. Those in the New York City area pride themselves on their sophistication and cultural diversity, whereas those on the West Coast pride themselves on their individualism. Those in the South pride themselves on safety and a laid-back way of living, while those in the Midwest are a mixture of many different ideals. When individuals move from one area to another, they may not be aware how their actions (deemed normal and acceptable where they are from) might be perceived differently in a different location. A speaker should research the geographical location of their audience, when possible, before delivering a speech.

The education of an audience can also tell a speaker many things. The level of education of an audience affects the background information the audience may have on a given topic and their level

Speech Study Guide

of sophistication with that knowledge. In addition, the education of an audience will indicate to the speaker how the audience will be able to intelligently evaluate the speech for the message the speech is trying to convey. An educated and well-informed audience member will evaluate the speaker's argument using learned principles and the ability to apply the acquired knowledge before making a response to the speaker's topic. Knowing the level of education of the audience will indicate to the speaker how sophisticated their speech needs to be and how intellectually in depth they should discuss their topic.

Another aspect many speakers fail to take into account is the occupation and profession of their audience. Different occupations create differences in how an individual will grasp specific information. Every occupation invokes varying feelings about the world and each occupation has its own set of specific problems and values. An individual's occupation may affect their perspective on what the most important and relevant issues are for them. If a speaker fails to anticipate and prepare for responses stemming from different occupational perspectives, than even a good, or a great idea, may be rejected.

Finally, another demographic category that is crucial to take into account is the economic status of an audience, with the caveat that while there are generalities of groups of economic status there are individuals who do not fit the norm. Certain economic groups have certain interests, those of a higher economic status will not be interested in need-based tuition assistance, while those of a lower status will not be interested in tax shelter programs. Available financial resources for listeners may help to determine their response to an idea or proposal involving money. A wise speaker will attempt to anticipate how a listener's income may influence their receptivity to a topic while remembering that not everyone falls into the norm.

No matter gender, orientation, socioeconomic status, or culture everyone faces stereotypes. **Stereotypes** are common assumptions about people of a particular group, and are often proven misguided and are nearly always harmful. Those of same-sex partnerships still face significant inequality in housing, rights, and adoption. An example of a common stereotype is that women and homosexual males are the only ones in fashion or nursing. Stereotypes are not the same as generalities. **Generalities** are generalizations made about a group of individuals based on observational facts and attributes. Generalizations are not meant to be harmful. A speaker cannot assume that a topic or issue only pertains to one group of people. Men are becoming increasingly more involved in "women's issues" and vice versa.

Understanding the audience given a specific location allows the speaker to hypothesize the preconceptions the audience members will have before the speech, how they will react during the speech, and how they will respond afterward. Once a speaker understands, at least conceptually, their audience, they are able to use such knowledge to focus on the effectiveness of their speech. Such tailoring of a speech does not stop at audience analysis, it continues with adapting a speech for a specific audience.

3.2 Audience Adaptation

Initial audience disposition is the knowledge and opinions an audience has about a specific topic before they hear a speech. A speaker can use the information acquired from analyzing an audience to adapt their speech to address the audience's particular needs and expectations. A speech about emergency preparedness for second graders should not be prepared the same way as a speech about emergency preparedness for college seniors.

There are a variety of methods that a speaker may use to adapt their speech, to a particular audience. Some of these methods include common ground, timeliness, credibility, and trustworthiness.

Primarily, a speaker will attempt to find common ground with their audience. **Common ground** is a sense of a shared background, knowledge, attitudes, experiences, and philosophies between the speaker and audience members. If a speaker can highlight the common ground amidst the myriad of different knowledge, attitudes, philosophies, experiences, and perceptions of the world, the speech will be more effective. Common ground is achieved through the use of personal pronouns, rhetorical questions, and highlighting common experiences. By using personal pronouns, such as "we", "us", and "our", a speech is able to create a sense of comradery between audience members and the speaker. **Rhetorical questions** are questions phrased to stimulate a mental response from audience members and are often used in speech introductions, but may be used as transitions. They may be used to highlight similar attitudes among the speaker and audience members to help pique interest in the given topic. A speaker may also draw on common experiences. Even though each individual has a different experience, there are a few common events in each of our lives: being happy, being afraid, feeling excitement, and feeling disappointment. When speakers draw on those common experiences, they are more able to relate to their audience and their audience is more able to relate to them.

An audience will further identify with a speaker if the speaker demonstrates relevance. **Relevance** is adapting information in such a way to render it more important to the listeners. Listeners pay attention to ideas that personally affect them. Relevance is demonstrated by emphasizing timeliness, proximity, and personal impact of ideas throughout the speech. Good speakers will utilize timeliness. **Timeliness** is using information that is pertinent now or in the near future. If a speaker uses outdated information, the audience will likely not respond well to the speech. An audience responds further to the proximity of a speaker. **Proximity** refers to how geographically close a speaker is to their audience and the values/beliefs the audience holds. For example, a politician appealing to his/her home town or neighborhood is likely to garnish more votes than from a neighborhood in which he or she did not grow up. Proximity allows an audience to identify with a speaker and the speaker's values. The last component of relevance is demonstrated through personal impact. **Personal impact** appeals to and emphasizes the physical, economic, or psychological impact of a topic. When a speaker appeals to the personal impact of a topic an audience is likely to "tune in" more.

A speaker must also demonstrate credibility in order to adapt to an audience's preferences.

Speech Study Guide

Credibility is the audience's perception of a speaker as knowledgeable and trustworthy on a topic. Credibility is a fundamental concept in public speaking since the time of Aristotle. Credibility is further established via the speaker's ability to be personable. Remarks must be adapted to an audience to establish the credibility of a speaker. If a speaker is not deemed credible, the audience will not respond well to the speech. One of the ways a speaker establishes their credibility is by demonstrating their knowledge and expertise about a topic, which can be done either directly or indirectly. A speaker directly demonstrates their expertise and knowledge about a topic by disclosing their personal experiences about a topic, including education, special study, skills, and track records. When a speaker is not in command of what they are saying, nor masterful of their speech, an audience can pick up on this and deem the speaker a non-credible source. The most effective speakers are personable. Being **personable** is the extent to which one can project a pleasing and agreeable personality. Audiences have more confidence in people they like; this is due to a communication concept known as impression formation and management, which is rooted in the theory of symbolic interactions. The first impression is based on what we infer about people from how they dress and how attractive they are. Although first impressions can be incorrect, they still influence how an audience perceives and receives a speaker. Even if the speech is given in a virtual setting, where neither audience nor speaker can see the other, it is still important to dress appropriately and to act professionally. Smiles can also change intonation and invoke feelings of being personable.

Finally, to ultimately adapt a speech for a given audience, a speaker must adapt the speech for comprehension and retention. There are five ways to adapt a speech for this purpose: appeal to different learning styles, use transitions, choose specific and familiar language, use vivid language and examples, and compare unfamiliar ideas with familiar ideas.

Learning style is a person's preferred method or most effective way of receiving and retaining information. Every person learns in a different manner. An effective speaker should try to incorporate, when possible, as many different learning styles in their speech. John Dewey's experimental learning theory helped lead Kolb to his cycle of learning, which conceptualizes learning preferences. Kolb has four dimensions of learning: feeling, thinking, watching, and doing. Some people learn best with one dimension versus another, or when a combination of dimensions is used.

Transitions are a sentence or two which summarize one main point while introducing the following idea. If a speaker does not employ successful transitions, their organization will not be logical and it will then become difficult for an audience to comprehend. A well-organized speech will contain effective transition sentences or statements.

Specific language clears up confusion caused by general words by narrowing the focus and/or definition in some way. Typically, a speaker should utilize specific language more than general language to avoid confusion. If a speaker chooses to use unfamiliar words, these words should be defined early in the speech and should be central to the goal of the speech.

Speech Study Guide

One of the easiest ways to adapt a speech to a specific audience is to compare unfamiliar ideas with familiar ones. By introducing a new topic or idea and equating it to an idea, topic, or value that is already familiar to the audience, a speaker is better able to connect with that particular audience. In addition, a speaker will also use culturally appropriate language for their audience.

3.3 Audience Effect

When someone listens to a speech they will be affected in some way. The affect varies depending on what needs of the listener have been met. Abraham H. Maslow described the basic needs to help the speaker understand and develop tactics for listener involvement. These needs Maslow has identified are basic to the vast majority of humans and include physiological needs, safety needs, needs of belonging, esteem needs, and self-actualization needs (listed in order of most basic to least basic).

Basic physiological needs for humans are food and drink, clothing, shelter, and sexual gratification. These needs need to be met in order for us to feel comfortable and to avoid discomforts of pain, illness, injury, and other negative consequences. Many people have these needs met and are able to be engaged by an appeal to their “higher” needs (safety, belonging, esteem, and self-actualization needs). However, if an audience does not have basic physiological needs met, they will not be receptive to an appeal of higher needs until their basic needs are met. A speaker can anticipate if these needs have been met based on the culture and geographical location of their speech. Giving a speech about higher education programs to an area that has a reputation for not having ample food and proper shelter, will not be of concern to an audience until they have food on their table and their other basic needs are met.

After an individual’s basic physiological needs are met, a speaker may address the personal safety needs of the listeners. Personal safety needs involve the human desire, regardless of race and culture, to be protected from dangerous, surprising, or unfamiliar situations which threaten personal safety. Within many societies there are organizations which help to ensure safety, such as police, firefighters, military personnel, the Food and Drug Administration, and more. Despite these organizations, unfamiliar and surprising situations still occur. Humans worry about their safety and the safety of their loved ones. This worry influences how an individual will respond to a speaker. In order to be ultimately effective, a speaker must take these concerns into account and ensure these needs are met, or that their topic will help to meet these needs, before a speaker can move to a “higher” need.

The next highest need on Maslow’s pyramid is the concept of reinforcing the feelings of love, with a sense of belonging, or belonging needs. Belonging needs are thought about after safety needs are met and involve the human desire to be accepted, wanted, or welcomed into groups. Associations formed, such as, clubs, groups, and kinships, allow humans to meet their need to be accepted and be a part of a larger group. If an individual is part of a group that they believe represents who they are and their core values, the person may feel more powerful and prideful. A speaker will have more influence over the emotional involvement of their audience members if the listener believes that the speaker advocates a topic or proposal that will be of direct benefit to those whom they love, if the speaker’s topic will reduce the listener’s feelings of isolation, or promote the interests of groups the listener belongs to.

Speech Study Guide

Following the fulfillment of belonging needs, a listener needs to feel appreciated by others. Self-esteem needs constitute people feeling as though they belong, have worth, and are important. In addition, people want to be in control of their destiny and have others recognize them as good and important. If a speaker violates an audience member, the audience will perceive the speaker as non-credible. When a speaker fulfills the audience's self-esteem needs, they are often deemed as effective and altruistic. Altruistic speakers are nearly always deemed as more effective.

According to Maslow, the "highest" needs for an audience are self-actualization needs. Self-actualization needs reflect what most humans want, to realize our own potential. Generally speaking, people want to better themselves. However, few feel absolutely satisfied with their accomplishments. Some individuals seek material wealth, while others seek to effect change in the world around them. A speaker who promotes and encourages an audience to realize their full potential promotes notions and ideas that are not critical, but important to human well-being.

The effect a speaker has on an audience depends on the needs of the audience the speaker is addressing, or the needs the audience already has met. A speaker can further the effect of their speech by appealing to the values of the audience, after having analyzed the audience to learn what their values are. When a speaker appeals to the needs of an audience, they are effective and influential. Some can even be charismatic.

3.4 Key Terms

- **Sex** is defined as the two main divisions, either male or female, into which humans and many other living things can be categorized, based on reproductive functions.
- **Gender identity** is the differences and similarities in how men and women behave, what they value, and what they believe.
- **Gender roles** are the specific role people are prescribed by their culture.
- **Socially constructed ideas** are ideals about roles, behaviors, and modes of dress, which are influenced by different cultures and vary from culture to culture.
- **Sexual orientation** refers to a person's sexual preference in relation to the gender they are attracted to.
- **Race** is a complicated concept. In order to define the term, it can be said that race is associated with biology. Race refers to a group of people that have distinct physical characteristics, which can cause people to treat other people differently because of these biological traits (racism). However, it has come to have less significance in regard to biology and genetics, due to encompassing political, social, and personal definitions.
- The "**melting pot**" idea first came about due to the immense immigration the U.S. experienced. It was believed that cultures just melted and meshed to become one big culture.
- The "**salad bowl**" idea is a concept where each group maintains themselves and adopts part of the whole around them, so eventually there are many microcultures within the larger culture.
- **Racism** is the belief in the superiority or inferiority of particular races, which leads to prejudice,

Speech Study Guide

antagonism, fear, and oppression. It denies the essential humanity of those who are different and limits their potential for successful communication.

- **Ethnicity** is the cultural background of an individual, where they are from, and where their family is from.
- **Stereotypes** are common assumptions about people of a particular group, and are often proven misguided and nearly always harmful.
- **Generalities** are generalizations made about a group of individuals based on observational facts and attributes. Generalizations are not meant to be harmful.
- **Initial audience disposition** relates to the knowledge and opinions an audience has about a specific topic before they hear a speech.
- **Credibility** is the audience's perception of a speaker as knowledgeable and trustworthy on a topic. It is a fundamental concept in public speaking since Aristotle, more than two thousand years ago.
- Being **personable** is the extent to which one projects a pleasing and agreeable personality. Audiences have more confidence in people they like.
- **Learning style** is a person's preferred method or most effective way of receiving and retaining information.
- **Common ground** is a sense of a shared background, knowledge, attitudes, experiences, and philosophies between the speaker and audience members.
- **Rhetorical questions** are questions phrased to stimulate a mental response from audience members and are often used in speech introductions, but may also be used as transitions.
- **Relevance** is adapting information in such a way to make it more important to the listeners. It is demonstrated by emphasizing timeliness, proximity, and personal impact of ideas throughout the speech.
- **Timeliness** is using information that is pertinent now or in the near future.
- **Proximity** speaks to how geographically close a speaker is to their audience and the values and beliefs the audience holds.
- **Personal impact** appeals to and emphasizes physical, economic, or psychological impact of a topic.
- **Transitions** are a sentence or two which summarizes one main point while introducing the following idea.
- **Specific language** clears up confusion caused by general words by narrowing the focus/definition in some way.
- **Physiological needs** for humans are food and drink, clothing, shelter, and sexual gratification. These needs need to be met in order for people to feel comfortable and to avoid the discomforts of pain, illness, injury, and other negative consequences.
- **Personal safety needs** involve the human desire, regardless of race and culture, to be protected from dangerous, surprising, or unfamiliar situations that threaten personal safety.
- **Belonging needs** are thought about after safety needs are met and involve the human desire to be accepted, wanted, or welcomed into groups.
- **Self-esteem needs** constitute people feeling as though they belong, have worth, and are

Speech Study Guide

important. In addition, people want to be in control of their destiny and to have others recognize them as good and important.

- ***Self-actualization needs*** reflect what most humans want--to realize our own potential. People want to better themselves (generally speaking) however few feel absolutely satisfied with their accomplishments.

3.5 Chapter Three Practice Exam

1. Which factors must a speaker take into account to properly analyze an audience?
 - a. The reason for gathering
 - b. What an audience hopes to achieve by listening to the speech
 - c. Audience demographics
 - d. Audience food allergies
 - e. A, B, and C

2. Gender roles are influenced by society and culture.
 - a. True
 - b. False

3. A society that believes in disowning a female relative after she has been raped is a socially constructed ideal.
 - a. True
 - b. False

4. In modern times, is the USA considered a “melting pot” or a “salad bowl”?
 - a. Melting pot
 - b. Salad bowl

5. How are race and ethnicity different?
 - a. Race relates to biology and ethnicity relates to cultural connections
 - b. Race relates to cultural connections and ethnicity relates to biology
 - c. Race relates to stereotypes and ethnicity relates to generalization
 - d. Race relates to generalization and ethnicity relates to stereotypes

6. Social class and education levels are a perfect indicator of an individual’s intelligence, including emotional and psychological intelligence.
 - a. True
 - b. False

7. Stereotypes are based on factual observations, while generalizations are based on assumptions.
 - a. True
 - b. False

Speech Study Guide

8. What are the methods a speaker may employ to adapt their speech for a specific audience?
- Prove credibility
 - Adapt the speech for different learning styles
 - Establish a common ground
 - All of the above
9. The level of education, sex, age, and race of an audience is all part of what?
- Demographics
 - Purpose
 - Generalities
 - Adaptation
10. Believing that one culture or ethnicity is better than all others is called _____.
- Stereotyping
 - Egocentrism
 - Ethnocentrism
 - Logical fallacy

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Chapter Four: Structure and Organization

Objectives

1. Describe how to plan a speech.
2. List the components of structure.
3. Differentiate between the types of organizational patterns.
4. Understand the different types of outlines.

4.1 Developing an Effective Speech Plan

Regardless of the setting or situation, a speech is more effective if the speaker has a speech plan. A **speech plan** is a strategy for achieving the goal of a speech. Since Ancient Rome, philosophers and academia have clarified the rules of public speaking in canons of rhetoric, which still hold true today. Canons of rhetoric are:

- Invention (an effective speech contains persuading content)
- Arrangement (clear organization)
- Style (effective speech uses appropriate language)
- Memory (effective speakers integrate creative content, language, presentational aids, and delivery)
- Delivery (effective speakers deliver their speech with confidence, fluency, and strategic retention aids)

Below are general guidelines to follow when creating a basic speech:

- Decide on a purpose that is appropriate for the rhetorical situation.
- Understand your audience and adapt your speech accordingly.
- Gather and evaluate information.
- Organize ideas into a well-structured outline.
- If appropriate, choose, prepare, and use presentational aids.
- Practice oral language and delivery style.

4.2 Speech Structure

Structure is a framework to organize speech content. Clear structure helps an audience follow the ideas of a speaker and contains both macro and micro structure. **Macrostructure** is the overall organizational framework used to present speech content and is comprised of four elements: introduction, body, conclusion, and transitions. Formal outlines help a speaker see their macrostructure. **Microstructure** involves the specific language and styles within sentences. Effective speeches combine these elements.

Speech Study Guide

The first part of macrostructure is the introduction; introductions can be, and are, done in a multitude of ways. Typically, the most effective speeches begin with establishing common ground with an audience. Once this common ground is established, a speaker must be able to capture and hold an audience's attention. The introduction also serves to outline the main points of the topic. The early minutes of a speech are important to establish credibility and appeal of a speaker.

When a speaker establishes common ground, listeners tend to identify more with the speaker. Common ground may consist of sharing common values, problems, goals, or experiences. An audience who feels as though a speaker understands them is far more likely to respond positively to the speaker and their topic. Speakers may also choose to highlight the similarities between themselves and the audience. If a speaker is vastly different than a given audience, they may choose to focus on common goals of both the audience and speaker. Establishing common ground may help to engage the audience's attention, making them eager to hear more.

As with common ground, there are a plethora of ways to capture and maintain a listener's attention. Telling an interesting story, whether it is emotional, humorous, puzzling, or intriguing, commands attention. Stories may be real or hypothetical and may reveal something of the speaker's own personal experience. Rhetorical questions are also commonly used to help capture a listener's attention. When a speaker asks a question, it is human nature to want to respond or listen for the answer, thus making rhetorical questions effective in maintaining an audience's attention. A speaker may also use a memorable quotation or humor to capture attention.

Orators, or speakers, must stress the relevance of their topic in order to maintain the attention of the audience. If an audience does not feel as though a speech is relevant to them, they will tune out. Audiences ask themselves, subconsciously or consciously, why they should care about what a speaker has to say. Effective orators take the time to establish the significance of their topic before delving into the body of the speech. In relation to relevance, a speaker establishes their credibility. When a speaker demonstrates expertise regarding their topic, this can be influential in establishing their credibility. Although credibility is ongoing throughout a speech, an introduction is especially critical to establish credibility. If an audience feels as though a speaker is not credible, no matter how important the speaker's topic, the audience will not respond to the speech.

Clarity of purpose and a thesis statement are vital to include in an introduction. A **thesis statement**, also known as a claim, is a single declarative statement that contains the central topic, purpose, and goal of a speech. Claim statements should embody the idea a speaker wants their audience to understand and accept in order to accomplish a specific purpose. Purpose statements and thesis statements are directly related. A specific purpose leads a speaker to a thesis statement. A thesis statement should be clear and specific and encompass the overall point of the speech in one sentence. In essence, thesis statements should be focused and limited in their scope. There are common mistakes many people make with thesis statements. These include:

- Writing thesis/claim statements as a question or topical phrase
- Not previewing the speech
- Being too complex, resulting in difficulty following

Speech Study Guide

- Presenting excessively detailed information
- Presenting too many ideas

The final step of an introduction is a preview. Previews introduce main ideas and provide a “road map” that will allow listeners to follow a speech more easily. Previewing also signals what a speaker feels is more important in their speech. Introductions serve as great first impressions for an audience and should be crafted with care. The length of an introduction can vary based on the needs of a particular situation.

After the body of the speech, as previewed in the introduction, a conclusion is essential. Conclusions serve to summarize main ideas by providing an effective end to a speech. This is a speaker’s final chance to reinforce key points of the speech and ensure that the audience has had ample opportunity to retain those key points. Summarization is often used in conjunction with other concluding devices, such as challenging and/or appealing to the audience, visualizing the future, using quotations, and referencing the introduction.

Challenging an audience to act is an influential way to conclude a speech. When a speaker challenges or makes an appeal to an audience, the speaker hopes the audience will respond in a particular way to the information provided. This appeal to an audience is the final attempt of an orator to move an audience to act on the proposition offered by the speaker. At other times a speaker will advocate a change and visualize the results, which can arm an audience with belief in themselves to effect that change. When an audience can visualize the desired results from a proposed change, they are more likely to support the speaker’s proposition.

Reference to an introduction can be accomplished in a variety of methods. One method is with the use of quotations, which reinforces the thesis and restates major points of the speech. By restating a thesis or introduction, a speech is reinforced. Many speakers use a variety of these methods to construct a brief and effective conclusion.

Transitions are statements that verbally summarize one main point and introduce the next main point. Transitions are essential when writing a clear and well-organized speech. They tend to act as tour guides leading an audience from one point to another. **Section transitions** are complete sentences that show the relationship between and bridge major parts of the speech. Typically, these transitions summarize what has been said in one point and preview the next, essentially acting as the glue that holds a macrostructure of a speech together. These transitions are important to help an audience follow the organization of ideas in a speech and help the audience remember the information. **Signposts** are words or phrases that connect pieces of supporting material to the main point or sub points. Signposts can be used to identify key aspects of a speech and show connections between paragraphs. Some examples of major signposts include, “The aim of this speech is to...” or “This discussion raises some interesting questions...”. Showing connections between paragraphs can be as simple as using linking words or phrases like, “As a result...” or “To put it simply...”.

4.3 Speech Organization

Good organization is important to help a speaker appear competent, focused, and knowledgeable. Listeners perceive well-organized speakers as more credible. A well-organized speech promotes learning, retention, and persuasion. It is one of the best ways for a speaker to let an audience know that their time, thoughts, and opinions are valued. The quality of organization depends on clarity, simplicity of the speaker's ideas, and appropriateness of the topic to the situation and audience. Well-organized speeches possess these characteristics: clarity, simplicity, and appropriateness.

An idea has to be complete to be clear. A speaker's purpose and thesis statement must exhibit clarity. Even if the purpose and thesis statements are clear, the main points of a speech may not be clear. There are different patterns of organization that speakers should utilize to help clarify their ideas and outlines.

A component of clarity is the notion of simplicity. Simplicity is an element of audience adaptation. An audience has to be able to understand a speaker's ideas if the audience is to respond positively. Ideas need to be stated fully and accurately, and in a manner that all listeners in an audience can understand and retain. To achieve this goal, a speaker needs to ask themselves if their ideas are stated in the most basic way possible. It is easy for a speaker to include too much or too little information for one main point. If a speaker includes too much information, the audience will not be able to understand what the main point is; however, if a speaker includes too little information, the audience will not be able to understand what the speaker is saying either. An effective orator must account for the fact that what may be simple to one audience may not be simple to another.

A speaker should account for varying audiences and situations. The level of complexity of the speech depends on the situation. The more suitable a speech is to a particular audience, the better the audience will receive what the speaker is saying. If a speaker is addressing their co-workers versus elementary school children, this changes the suitability of the situation. If an audience has not had their basic physiological needs met, it is not suitable for a speaker to talk about tax breaks for the wealthy. A simple way to examine the suitability of a situation is to examine the setting of the speech and what comprises the audience's background, experiences, and expectations.

In order to organize a speech, patterns of organization are utilized, which can help the author connect ideas. Depending on the setting and situation, different organizational patterns are more useful and appropriate. The most commonly used organizational patterns are: chronological or sequential, spatial, categorical, climactic, cause-and-effect, problem-solving, and narrative.

One of the most commonly used organization patterns is the chronological pattern. **Chronological order** begins with a specific point in time and moves forward or backward, depending on the subject, and is useful for a variety of topics that deal with processes and historical events. Chronological order is easy for many audiences to follow because it is inherently logical. Similar to chronological order, **sequential patterns** are best employed when a speaker wants their audience to understand a step-by-step procedure or process. Examples may include how to apply for programs, how to adopt a child, or the steps necessary to start a new business.

Speech Study Guide

The second most common organizational pattern is spatial arrangement. **Spatial order** involves arranging items according to their physical position or association. Examples of spatial order or arrangement may include speeches explaining architectural plans for a new library or tourist attractions for a city (in terms of how to travel to each of them).

A speech may also be organized categorically. **Categorical order** arranges ideas in a way that emphasizes distinct topics that address types, forms, qualities, or aspects of the speech. Under each category or topic, a speaker must elaborate on each point. For example, when speaking about the benefits of higher education, a speaker might discuss the intellectual, social, or economic advantages of education. This pattern of organization and the ones discussed thus far are particularly effective and well suited for informative speeches.

Similar to climactic order in literature, **climactic pattern/order**, as it relates to a speech, begins with a simple idea and progresses to the most difficult idea, from the least important notion to the most important notion, or from the emotionally neutral points to the emotionally intense points. Typically, climactic order reflects audience needs and priorities, thus making it an effective way to arrange ideas if the speaker's goal is to gain agreement or action. Climactic order is most often used in persuasive speeches with speakers hoping that the audience will remember and be moved by the last thing they hear from the speaker.

It is natural for people to think about cause and effect or effect and cause. **Causal patterns** are useful for speakers who want their audience to understand how an idea or event has unfolded and the relationship between two things. It is important to remember that chronological relationships do not necessarily equal a causal relationship. Sometimes when one event follows another it occurs due to chance not cause. This method is effective for informative and persuasive speakers in particular. Causal patterns (cause and effect) are sometimes incorporated into a problem-solution pattern.

Problem-solution patterns analyze a problem (effect) in terms of the contributing causes, and then propose a solution that the audience may endorse. Typically, this organizational pattern is used when analyzing different societal problems. Within problem-solution patterns there are two different sequences utilized: reflective thinking and motivated sequences. **Reflective thinking sequence** is a traditional problem-solution pattern based on John Dewey's sequence of the same name. His sequences address seven questions:

- How can the problem be defined and limited?
- What are the causes and effects of the problem?
- What are the effects of the problem and who has been hurt?
- What are the criteria by which solutions should be judged?
- What are the possible solutions and relative strengths or weakness of each?
- What is the best solution for the problem?
- How can a solution be put into effect?

Speech Study Guide

How much time is devoted to the discussion and elaboration of causes of a problem depends on the problem being addressed and the nature of the problem. Some audiences may understand different aspects of a given problem while others may not. At times an audience will not need much elaboration and at other times they will. In contrast to the reflective thinking sequence, the **motivated sequence** is best suited to a topic with emotional and logical appeal. This approach tends to work best for basic needs, as defined by Maslow, and is organized around five steps:

- Arouse: Capture audience attention and focus on the problem
- Need: Help listeners to understand there is a problem that needs their attention and action
- Gratify: Reveal solutions to the problem and assure listeners they possess the power to remedy a situation
- Visualize: Through effective language, a speaker can help listeners form a mental picture of how they can improve their situation
- Action: Appeal to the audience to take specific action

The motivated sequence allows the speaker to engage the audience's emotions and urges them to act, while addressing the problem and solution. The motivated sequence tries to convince an audience that they have the power to act and can enable them to visualize how these actions can address a problem. Visualization helps audience members become motivated. The speaker's own passion and commitment, awareness of the audience's values and needs, and understanding details of a solution are central to this organizational pattern.

The final most common organization pattern is the **narrative pattern**. The narrative pattern uses one or more stories to organize a speech. Some speakers prefer to use this less direct and more natural, or organic, method of organization due to cultural and personal preferences. Speakers introduce their idea and share various stories to illustrate and reinforce the speech's thesis. Narrative patterns are typically used in informal settings or with certain audiences, such as children.

4.4 Speech Outlines

Most everyone has used an outline at some point in their lives. Speakers use different outlines in the preparation of their speeches. Outlines are valuable tools that allow a speaker to record early thoughts, experiment with different organizational strategies, consider whether evidence is appropriate via observation of the relationship between ideas and supporting material, and improve their delivery of a speech. There are three commonly used outlines: working, formal full-sentence outlines, and keyword outlines.

Working outlines help a speaker to develop ideas as they brainstorm, investigate topics, and reflect emerging views. This type of outline can undergo many changes before completion. This is the outline that allows the writer to lay out the basic structure of a speech. Working outlines must include a general and specific purpose, an introduction, a specific thesis, and a preview. In this type of outline three main ideas, a conclusion, and a list of references should also be included.

Speech Study Guide

Formal full-sentence outlines are completed after research and before delivery. These outlines contain full sentences and bibliographies. These outlines allow a speaker to see if their ideas are directly related to the thesis, if material is sufficient and compelling, and if the speaker him/herself is convinced they have made the best effort. Basically, formal outlines serve as a complete blueprint for a speech. Formal outlines are effective for manuscript speeches.

Keyword outlines are often used for speeches because they abbreviate a version of the formal outline and are used to remind the speaker of their ideas. However, some components should still be written out completely, such as transitions, statistics, or quotations. Extemporaneous speeches utilize keyword outlines.

In order to use outlines effectively, a speaker should examine the basic rules governing them. The principles of outlining identify key components, use consistent labeling, focus on one idea at a time, and coherently develop ideas with supporting material. All of these principles are aimed at helping a speaker ensure their ideas are related and contain enough supporting material.

Key elements include speech title, specific purposes, thesis statements, introductions, body, conclusions, transitions, and a bibliography. Outlines also use consistent systems of symbols and indentations. Symbols designate various components of a speech; some components are inevitably more developed than others. Outlines also ensure a speaker is focusing on one idea in each main point, while verifying that the speaker is clear. In addition, outlines reflect the relationship between ideas and supporting material.

4.5 Key Terms

- A **speech plan** is a strategy for achieving the goal of a speech.
- **Canons of rhetoric** are:
 - Invention (an effective speech contains persuading content)
 - Arrangement (clear organization)
 - Style (an effective speech uses appropriate language)
 - Memory (Effective speakers integrate creative content, language, presentational aids, and delivery)
 - Delivery (effective speakers deliver their speech with confidence, fluency, and strategic retention aids)
- **Chronological order** begins with a specific point in time and moves forward, or backward depending on the subject, and is useful for a variety of topics that deal with processes and historical events.
- **Spatial order** involves arranging items according to their physical position or association.
- **Categorical order** arranges ideas in a way that emphasizes distinct topics that address types, forms, qualities, or aspects of the speech.

Speech Study Guide

- **Climactic pattern/order** begins with a simple idea and progresses to the most difficult idea, from the least important notion to the most important notion, or from the emotionally neutral points to the emotionally intense points.
- **Causal patterns** are useful for speakers who want their audience to understand how an idea or event has unfolded and the relationship between two things.
- **Problem-solution patterns** analyze a problem (effect) in terms of the contributing causes and then propose a solution that the audience may endorse.
- **Motivated sequence** allows the speaker to engage the audience's emotions and urges them to act, while addressing the problem and solution. The motivated sequence tries to convince an audience that they have the power to act and can enable them to visualize how these actions can address a problem.
- **Narrative pattern** uses one or more stories to organize a speech.
- **Working outlines** help a speaker to develop ideas as they brainstorm, investigate topics, and reflect emerging views. This type of outline can undergo many changes before completion.
- **Formal full-sentence outlines** are completed after research and before delivery. These outlines contain full-sentences and bibliographies in addition to containing fully supported ideas.
- **Keyword outlines** are often used for speeches because they abbreviate a version of the formal outline and are used to remind the speaker of their ideas.
- **Structure** is a framework to organize speech content. Clear structure helps an audience follow the ideas of a speaker and contains both macro and micro structure.
- **Macrostructure** is the overall organizational framework used to present speech content and is comprised of four elements: introduction, body, conclusion, and transitions. Formal outlines help a speaker see their macrostructure.
- **Microstructure** involves the specific language and styles within sentences.
- **Thesis statement** is a single declarative statement that contains the central topic, purpose, and goal of a speech.
- **Transitions** are statements that verbally summarize one main point and introduce the next main point.
- **Section transitions** are complete sentences that show the relationship between and bridge major parts of the speech.
- **Signposts** are words or phrases that connect pieces of supporting material to the main point or sub-points.

4.6 Chapter Four Practice Exam

1. Which type of outline uses main ideas and words to structure a speech?
 - a. Working outline
 - b. Formal full-sentence outline
 - c. Keyword outline
 - d. Generic outline

2. Which type of outline follows a particular format, including a claim, main ideas, and supporting ideas written out in phrases?
 - a. Working outline
 - b. Formal full-sentence outline
 - c. Keyword outline
 - d. Generic outline

3. Organizing a speech from the most simple idea to the most complex idea is called using a _____ pattern.
 - a. Chronological
 - b. Sequential
 - c. Climatic
 - d. Narrative

4. Organizing a speech using a step-by-step procedure is called using a _____ pattern.
 - a. Chronological
 - b. Sequential
 - c. Climatic
 - d. Narrative

5. Organizing a speech by starting at a point in time and moving either forward or backward is called using a _____ pattern.
 - a. Chronological
 - b. Sequential
 - c. Climatic
 - d. Narrative

Speech Study Guide

6. Which of the following are part of the speech microstructure?
 - a. Introduction, body, and conclusion
 - b. Transitions, evidence, and attribution
 - c. Specific language and use of style within sentences
 - d. Organizational pattern, flow, and support

7. The statement that clearly defines the topic, purpose, and main points of the speech is called the _____.
 - a. Claim
 - b. Hook
 - c. Self-introduction
 - d. Main point preview

8. Words or phrases that help the speaker move from one part of the speech to the next are called _____.
 - a. Transitions
 - b. Section transitions
 - c. Signposts
 - d. Clarifying points

9. Words or phrases that connect supporting material back to the claim are called _____.
 - a. Transitions
 - b. Section transitions
 - c. Signposts
 - d. Clarifying points

10. Arousing the audience's attention, gratifying them by telling them they have the power to solve the problem, and helping the audience visualize how they can improve the situation is all part of _____.
 - a. Maslow's motivated sequence
 - b. Dewey's reflective thinking sequence
 - c. Cream's organic thinking sequence
 - d. Rida's logical processing sequence

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Chapter Five: Content and Supporting Materials

Objectives

- Discuss claims and types of reasoning.
- Understand ethical proofs (the basic definitions).
- Elaborate on reasoning fallacies.
- Explain why evidence is important and be able to evaluate different types of evidence.

5.1 Claims

Claims are debatable assertions a speaker makes. Speakers need to prove their claims by providing convincing evidence and reasoning to support those claims. Claims may take many different forms, typically arising out of persuasive or controversial issues. **Claims of value** assume a variety of forms, including what is effective or ineffective, just or unjust, moral or immoral, legal or illegal, and if something is beneficial or harmful. **Claims of fact** examine if something exists, what caused something to happen, or the scope and magnitude of a phenomenon. **Claims of policy** debate about what should be done or the future course of action. These types of claims are the hardest to prove because of their involvement in predicting the future.

Speakers may choose to use qualifiers in order to better assert their claims. **Qualifiers** are words that indicate a speaker's level of confidence in their claims and may include words such as possibly, probably, or beyond any doubt. Effective speakers will acknowledge any reservations there may be to their claims, that is to say, exceptions to their claims or the stipulated conditions under which a claim can no longer be held. When a speaker identifies one or two major reservations, a claim can be asserted more confidently.

5.2 Arguments

The majority of speeches seek to persuade an audience of something. Ancient Greeks and Romans described persuasion as logical and well-supported arguments that are developed via rhetorical appeals: logos, ethos, and pathos. **Argument** means articulating a position with the support of logos, ethos, or pathos. In line with the Ancient Greeks and Romans, **logos** (logical) are a means of persuasive strategy by constructing logical arguments that support a speaker's point of view. **Ethos** (credibility) highlights a speaker's competence, credibility, and good character as a means by which to convince an audience to accept the speaker's point of view. **Pathos** (emotional) is a persuasive strategy that appeals to the emotions of a listener to convince others of a speaker's position. When addressing an audience of mixed diversity or unknown origin (such as a virtual audience), it is best to use logos as a means of persuasion because most individuals can be appealed to through the use of logic and reason.

Speech Study Guide

Stephen Toulmin developed a model to explain the form of everyday arguments. Toulmin's model includes three elements: the claim, the support, and the warrant. The claim is the conclusion a speaker wants their audience to agree with. **Support** is the evidence offered as grounds for accepting and/or agreeing with the claim. Claims are supported with types of evidence such as facts, opinions, experiences, and observation. Support is also commonly referred to as the burden of proof. **Warrant** is the reasoning process that connects the support to the claim. Sometimes the warrant is verbalized and other times it is implied. There are general assumptions, principles, or rules that connect claims with one or more types of reasoning.

Reasoning is also about drawing inferences from known facts, and involves a mental leap from the known to the unknown. There are four types of reasoning: inductive, deductive, casual, and analogical. Each of these types of reasoning involves inferences that may not lead to absolute or certain conclusions. The strength of conclusions depends on the strength of evidence and the quality of reasoning.

Inductive reasoning involves reasoning from a set of specific examples, or series of observations, to a general conclusion. This method of reasoning demands a speaker qualify their claims carefully while avoiding making generalizations based on few examples. Reservations to claims and identifying conditions when a generalization may not be credible can be a part of this method. Inductive reasoning may be strengthened by testimony and evidence that establishes the reliability of examples.

Deductive reasoning draws conclusions about specific cases based on inferences from a generally accepted premise or principle. Syllogism contains a major premise, a minor premise, and a conclusion. Often times a speaker will not state their premise because it is already accepted by their audience; they assume the audience will supply the missing premise from their own store of beliefs and values. This method of reasoning is **rhetorical syllogism** or **enthymeme** and typically is how arguments are constructed in everyday speech. If an audience is skeptical of a speaker's premise, the speaker should provide evidence to support their premise.

Causal reasoning is the ability to identify the relationship between a cause and its effect. We naturally want to know the cause for trends, problems, or policies. Causal reasoning tries to solve the mysteries of the world. Establishing causation is seldom simple. Speakers are responsible for recognizing the difficulties of proving causation and for seeking out the best evidence available from reputable sources. Responsible orators qualify their claims while acknowledging it is difficult to assert causal claims with absolute certainty, or to talk about any single factor as the cause of a complex problem.

Analogical reasoning is an inference that two or more things that are similar to each other in one way are also similar in other ways. In this type of reasoning the information is taken from a particular source and then transferred to another subject. Analogical reasoning is especially useful when engaging in persuasive arguments.

5.3 Reasoning Fallacies

Regardless of the form of reasoning, speakers should test the validity of their arguments. Faulty reasoning might involve “arguing in circles.” If this occurs, a speaker will not be able to draw clear conclusions. Fallacies may involve faults in relevance, and unintentionally muddle a speaker’s thinking and organization.

One of the most common reasoning fallacies is ***hasty generalizations***. These occur when a claim is not supported or is supported with weak evidence. Supporting material that is cited needs to be representative of a speaker’s information in its entirety. A speaker should have enough supporting material and evidence to satisfy an audience. If a speaker does not provide sufficient evidence for a topic, the speaker will not appear to be credible or trustworthy.

Ad hominem fallacies attack or praise the individual making the argument, instead of addressing the argument or problem itself. These types of fallacies have become popular in politics, when an individual’s character, integrity, or even intelligence falls under scrutiny, rather than the candidate’s ideas or proposals. Ad hominem fallacies occur often in the media when an individual is attacked or praised for a particular reason instead of looking at an overall issue.

Related to ad hominem and hasty generalizations is the fallacy of ***guilt by association***, which arises when ideas, people, or programs are judged solely on the basis of their associations with other ideas, people, programs, or groups. It does not assess the quality of an idea or argument and may dismiss ideas simply due to their connection. According to research, many individuals rate ideas, speeches, paintings, Facebook posts, or articles depending on who created the idea, speech, painting, post, or article. Conversely, guilt by association suggests individuals may discredit an otherwise good idea by associating it with an unpopular source. An example of this can be seen in how society reacts to specific dog breeds. If someone has had a dog bite by a specific breed, they may say all dogs of that breed are bad or aggressive. Hasty generalizations, ad hominem, and guilt by association fallacies are flawed because they tend to sidestep the real issues needing to be addressed. In addition, they debase the quality of our public discourse because they undermine the politics of ideas.

False cause fallacy occurs when it is proven that there is no relationship between a supposed cause and effect. This is also called post hoc, ergo propter hoc, which means “after this, therefore because of this.” Just because one event happens after another does not mean the first event caused the second event, or that it was the only event to cause the second event. Speakers often fall into oversimplification, which can lead to this fallacy.

False dilemma happens by suggesting there are only two alternatives when others may exist. Even with the oversimplification, which generally occurs with this fallacy, it may take on more complex forms by proposing three or more false alternatives. When an audience is confronted with complex issues, there are always many options they should be presented with. Otherwise, an audience may become suspicious of the speaker. A speaker must give all realistic alternatives so false dilemma is not committed.

Speech Study Guide

Faulty analogy occurs when speakers compare things that are not similar. There are no specific rules for when an analogy might become “faulty” but figurative analogies are logically faulty. Literal analogies may provide support for an argument, but their legitimacy is always open to debate. In conjunction with faulty analogies, **slippery slopes** are another fallacy which can occur if a speaker claims a cause will inevitably lead to undesirable effects. It treats probable or possible causal links as certain and or inevitable, while preying on the fears of a worst-case scenario. Slippery slopes and faulty analogies lead to fallacious arguments.

Straw man fallacy occurs when a speaker weakens the opposing position of an argument by misrepresenting it or by attacking the weaker (straw man) position. A speaker may attempt to misrepresent an opponent’s position or argue in such a way to make the opponent’s position appear ridiculous. Straw men have been prominent in debates over welfare reform in the United States. When this fallacy is used intentionally, it violates the spirit of deliberating in good faith. It produces conclusions that do not logically follow the evidence, and serves to distract from the real issues, along with appeal to ignorance, popular beliefs, non-sequitur, appeal to tradition, and red herring fallacies.

Ad populum (appeal to popular beliefs) may also be called the “bandwagon appeal” and occurs when a speaker urges listeners to accept something simply because others do. Being aware that other people support an idea or policy is one piece of information that someone may want to take into account, but it should not be used to persuade another individual’s opinion. The bandwagon fallacy is dangerous to fall into because it does not allow for individual thinking and judgment, and appeals to the human desire to be accepted and not stand out.

Non-sequitur is a fallacy which means “it does not follow” and occurs when a conclusion does not follow logically from arguments and the evidence that precedes it. Logical fallacies are more specific types of non-sequiturs. When a problem with an argument has evidence that is not relevant to the claim, the speaker has committed a non-sequitur. Basically, when evidence does not follow the argument, or is important to a different topic, non-sequitur has occurred. A speaker can avoid committing this fallacy by compiling a comprehensive outline to ensure logical organization and flow.

Ad verecundiam (appeal to tradition) is typically heard in contexts when ideas or policies that hold a long history are being challenged and may be expressed as, “We’ve never done it that way before,” or “This is the way we’ve always done it.” Tradition can be a good thing, but it is unreasonable to use it as a shield against compelling arguments for changes. Change involves risk, while advocates of change have to meet the burden of proof. A speaker has to provide sufficient proof and evidence in order to convince an audience that change is warranted, otherwise the audience may subscribe to ad verecundiam.

Red herring fallacy is an attempt to throw an audience off track by raising an irrelevant, often emotional issue, that prevents critical examination of the relevant issue. Essentially, this fallacy

Speech Study Guide

diverts the attention of an audience from the real issue. For example, the debate of prayer in schools may not be due to religious beliefs, but more out of concern for the separation of church and state. There are many more fallacies that may be committed if a speaker is not careful. Speakers can and should avoid these fallacies at all possible costs. The best ways to avoid these fallacies are proper audience research, adaptation, and most importantly, preparation and proofreading.

5.4 Evidence

The types of evidence a speaker will use depends on the purpose and topic of a speech. Regardless of the type of speech, setting, or purpose, a speaker needs to use a variety of strong and credible evidence. In order for a speaker to avoid plagiarism, evidence needs to be cited so that an audience knows the source of the evidence. When researching for evidence, a speaker may find more evidence than is needed. If a speaker encounters more evidence than is necessary, they should employ evidence evaluating strategies.

One of the best questions to ask is, “Does this evidence come from a well-respected source?” Individuals should question where evidence comes from and the credibility of the source. In addition, a speaker should examine if the evidence is still recent or, if it is not recent, if it is still valid. Typically, when a source is not recent the evidence provided by the source may no longer be pertinent to the speaker’s purpose. One of the gravest mistakes a speaker can make is to use evidence that does not support the speaker’s claim. Evidence may be indirectly related to a claim, but not directly related, so it should be avoided. In addition, evidence should be persuasive. If evidence is compelling, the audience is more likely to pay attention and align themselves with the speaker’s point of view.

To further evaluate evidence, a speaker should examine criteria for the quality of supporting material, such as accuracy, completeness, appropriateness for the audience, and ethical considerations. Evidence should be accurate, true, and verifiable. Questions of accuracy should be raised if there are inconsistencies found. In addition, sources should enable a speaker to obtain complete knowledge of their subject. Gathering complete information helps a speaker respond to questions after their speech. Regardless of the quality of evidence, it should not be used if it may be considered inappropriate for a specific audience or situation. Speakers should take into account the type of speech, their topic, audience characteristics, and values when considering the appropriateness of supporting materials or evidence.

An orator should be aware of the ethical considerations raised by tests of evidence. If a speaker uses evidence that is known to be inaccurate, incomplete, biased, or offensive to an audience the speaker might be accused of misleading them. Unethical evidences show that a speaker does not have an audience’s best interest at heart. At times a speaker may lose track of their ethical responsibilities because they may want, more than anything, for their audience to respond in a particular way. Even though anyone can make mistakes, all speakers have ethical obligations to scrutinize their own evidence and fulfill their civic responsibilities.

5.5 Types of Evidence

Effective speakers use multiple types of evidence. When speakers utilize a variety of evidence, they appear to be more interesting and convincing. Speakers may use facts, definitions, statistics, examples, testimony, or comparison and contrast.

Facts are data that can be verified by observation and are used by nearly every speaker. Factual information can be judged for being factual, correct or incorrect, verified or unverified, and simply true or false. Many speakers take certain facts and misinterpret them to support their claim. As such, it is crucial for a speaker to look at how a fact is labeled or described. In order to ensure facts are sound, a speaker must validate them by consulting multiple credible sources. If a speaker encounters inconsistencies, they should keep searching for more credible and reliable data.

Definitions are used to define a word or concept and can be straightforward or provide uncontroversial information. They also challenge the audience to think in new and/or creative ways. Definitions can be persuasive and informative, or reflect an individual's perspective on a controversial subject. A speaker wants their audience to take into account their definition.

Statistics are empirical bits of data that are quantifiable and verifiable. Speakers may rely too heavily on statistics and overwhelm listeners. In order for statistics to be effective, a speaker has to make every attempt to present the information clearly and meaningfully. It may serve a speaker to translate a statistic into more specific or more personal terms. Due to statistics changing rapidly, all statistical evidence should be as up-to-date as possible. Statistical data should be used cautiously.

Speakers may face many challenges, such as trying to make general principles or abstract notions interesting and meaningful to an audience. **Examples** provide concrete illustrations and interject life and meaning into the ideas a speaker is communicating; they can also function as compelling evidence. There are multiple types of examples: actual examples, narratives as actual examples, hypothetical examples, and narratives as hypothetical examples. Speakers should also think critically about their examples.

Actual examples deal with real cases, something that actually happened. Even a brief example can make a point more vivid and memorable. These types of examples not only give an audience a more concrete understanding of some problem, but they can also help an audience imagine a solution. After hearing actual examples an audience may understand the form an abstract idea may take.

Narrative examples are extended examples from a speaker's research or their own experiences. When an audience identifies with a speaker, they respond better to the speaker's propositions. **Hypothetical examples** are examples that are plausibly real, but not actually true or empirically

Speech Study Guide

verifiable. Despite these examples being “made-up” they should not be overused or grossly exaggerated; they need to be realistic enough to be effective. **Narratives as hypothetical examples** involve speakers using proverbs, stories, or folktales to illustrate an idea or make a compelling point. These examples rely on an audience’s imagination or cultural symbols to convey a moral or lesson, instead of describing actual people or events. To ultimately be effective, a speaker must examine the importance of an example and if it will aid or hinder their points.

Testimony consists of opinions, interpretation, or judgments of other people. There are three kinds of testimony: personal, lay, and expert testimonies. **Personal testimony** happens in many speeches and may add to credibility. This type of testimony cannot be used in all speeches because there is almost always a need to go beyond a speaker’s own experiences and expertise. It is always a good idea to gather other kinds of testimonial evidence. **Lay testimony** is based on firsthand experience and comes from ordinary individuals, not necessarily from the speaker or an expert, whose personal experiences make their testimony compelling. This form of testimony can be effective, depending on how the testimony is used; standing alone it may not be enough, but when used in tandem with other supporting evidence, it may be effective. Sources of lay testimony may not have special education or qualifications but they should have direct, firsthand experience which lends them a unique perspective on their topic. **Expert testimony** is one of the most frequently used types of evidence, especially when a speech is complicated or highly technical. This form of testimony relies on individuals regarded as experts, someone with special education training, or related experiences. **Prestige testimony** can provide support for an argument if the source is perceived as intelligent, dedicated, well-educated, or inspirational (think of Goodwill Ambassadors, celebrities who work with charities, or relief organizations).

Speakers may also find that **comparison and contrast** are effective tools to examine the similarities and differences between a new experience and an old experience. This method can provide strong support for ideas and enhance the clarity or persuasiveness of speeches. There are many methods of comparison and contrast between ideas.

Effective and ethical speakers will examine and think critically about their evidence. They seek to ensure their evidence supports their topics, purposes, and claims. In addition, when thinking critically about evidence and supporting material, a speaker will attempt to understand how the speech will be received, and if the material is appropriate for the given audience. To engage in such critical thinking, a speaker must conduct research to obtain evidence.

5.6 Key Terms

- **Claims** are debatable assertions a speaker makes.
- **Claims of value** assume a variety of forms, including what is effective or ineffective, just or unjust, moral or immoral, legal or illegal, and if something is beneficial or harmful.
- **Claims of fact** examine if something exists, what caused something to happen, or the scope and magnitude of a phenomenon.

Speech Study Guide

- **Claims of policy** debate about what should be done or the future course of action, and are the hardest claims to prove because of their involvement in predicting the future.
- **Qualifiers** are words that indicate a speaker's level of confidence in their claims and may include words such as possibly, probably, or beyond any doubt.
- **Reservations** are when speakers acknowledge exceptions to their claims, or the stipulated conditions under which a claim can no longer be held.
- An **argument** means articulating a position with the support of logos, ethos, or pathos.
- **Logos** is a means of persuasive strategy by constructing logical arguments that support a speaker's point of view.
- **Ethos** highlights a speaker's competence, credibility, and good character as a means by which to convince an audience to accept the speaker's point of view.
- **Pathos** is a persuasive strategy that appeals to the emotions of a listener to convince others of a speaker's position.
- **Stephen Toulmin** developed a model to explain the form of everyday arguments, which includes three elements: the claim, the support, and the warrant.
- The **claim** is the conclusion a speaker wants their audience to agree with.
- **Support** is the evidence offered as grounds for accepting and/or agreeing with the claim.
- **Warrant** is the reasoning process that connects the support to the claim.
- **Inductive reasoning** involves reasoning from a set of specific examples or series of observations to a general conclusion.
- **Deductive reasoning** draws conclusions about specific cases based on inferences from a generally accepted premise or principle.
- **Causal reasoning** is the ability to identify the relationship between a cause and its effect.
- **Analogical reasoning** is an inference that two or more things that are similar to each other in one way are also similar in other ways.
- **Reasoning fallacies/faulty reasoning** are errors in reasoning, typically in analogical or causal arguments, that may involve "arguing in circles" or creating false choices.
- **Hasty generalizations** occur when a claim is not supported or is supported with weak evidence.
- **Ad hominem** fallacies attack or praise the individual, making the individual the argument, instead of addressing the actual argument or problem itself.
- **Guilt by association** arises when ideas, people, or programs are judged solely on the basis of their associations with other ideas, people, programs, or groups.
- **False cause** fallacy occurs when it is proven that there is no relationship between a supposed cause and effect. This is also called "post hoc, ergo propter hoc," which means "after this, therefore because of this."
- **False dilemma** happens by suggesting there are only two alternatives when others exist.
- **Faulty analogy** occurs when speakers compare things that are not similar.
- **Slippery slopes** occur when a speaker claims a cause will inevitably lead to undesirable effects.
- **Straw man fallacy** occurs when a speaker weakens the opposing position of an argument by

Speech Study Guide

misrepresenting it or by attacking the weaker (straw man) position.

- ***Ad populum*** (appeal to popular beliefs) may also be called the “bandwagon appeal” and occurs when a speaker urges listeners to accept something simply because others do.
- ***Non-sequitur*** is a fallacy that means “it does not follow” and occurs when a conclusion does not follow logically from arguments and the evidence that precedes it.
- ***Ad verecundiam*** (appeal to tradition) is typically heard in contexts when ideas or policies that hold a long history are being challenged and may be expressed as, “We’ve never done it that way before,” or “This is the way we’ve always done it.”
- ***Facts*** are data that can be verified by observation and are used by nearly every speaker.
- ***Definitions*** are used to define a word or concept and can be straightforward or provide uncontroversial information, or challenge the audience to think in new or creative ways.
- ***Statistics*** are empirical bits of data that are quantifiable and verifiable.
- ***Examples*** provide concrete illustrations and interject life and meaning into the ideas a speaker is communicating; they can also function as compelling evidence.
- ***Narrative examples*** are extended examples from a speaker’s research or their own experiences.
- ***Hypothetical examples*** are examples that are plausibly real but not actually true or empirically verifiable.
- ***Testimony*** consists of opinions, interpretation, or judgments of other people. There are three kinds of testimony: personal, lay, and expert.
- ***Personal testimony*** happens in many speeches and may add to credibility.
- ***Lay testimony*** is based on firsthand experience and comes from ordinary individuals, not necessarily from the speaker or an expert, whose personal experiences make their testimony compelling.
- ***Expert testimony*** is one of the most frequently used types of evidence, especially when a speech is complicated or highly technical.
- ***Prestige testimony*** can provide support for an argument if the source is perceived as intelligent, dedicated, well-educated, or inspirational (think of Goodwill Ambassadors, celebrities who work with charities or relief organizations).

5.7 Chapter Five Practice Exam

1. Claims of value include discussions about what is effective or ineffective, what is just or unjust, moral or immoral, legal or illegal, and which of the following?
 - a. Beneficial or harmful
 - b. Healthy or unhealthy
 - c. Stressful or not stressful
 - d. Sweet or salty

2. Which of the following is NOT a reason for using research in speeches?
 - a. To provide evidence to support an opinion
 - b. To improve information literacy
 - c. To meet the required one fact per point requirement
 - d. To make the speaker more credible and effective

3. The experience that qualifies a person to speak give information or speak on a certain topics is called their _____.
 - a. Consulting
 - b. Accuracy
 - c. Abstract
 - d. Credentials

4. A method that is used to mislead audiences is called a _____.
 - a. Stereotyping
 - b. Egocentrism
 - c. Ethnocentrism
 - d. Logical fallacy

5. In public speaking, how can a speaker use logos?
 - a. By using logical arguments to support a point of view
 - b. By stressing competence and credibility to the audience
 - c. By appealing to the emotions of the audience
 - d. By employing humor and wit

Speech Study Guide

6. In public speaking, how can a speaker use pathos?
 - a. By using logical arguments to support a point of view
 - b. By stressing competence and credibility to the audience
 - c. By appealing to the emotions of the audience
 - d. By employing humor and wit

7. In public speaking, how can a speaker use ethos?
 - a. By using logical arguments to support a point of view
 - b. By stressing competence and credibility to the audience
 - c. By appealing to the emotions of the audience
 - d. By employing humor and wit

8. Each point made within the speech should support the _____.
 - a. Support
 - b. Transition
 - c. Claim
 - d. Explanation

9. After each piece of evidence, a(n) _____ is needed to connect how the evidence relates to the main idea.
 - a. Support
 - b. Transition
 - c. Claim
 - d. Explanation

10. _____ should be used with each point to help provide enough evidence to prove a point.
 - a. Support
 - b. Transition
 - c. Claim
 - d. Explanation

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Chapter Six: Research

Objectives

1. Understand why research is important.
2. Demonstrate basics knowledge of how to conduct research.
3. List the types of research commonly used by speakers.
4. Discuss how to evaluate research.
5. Understand what citation is and how to use it (even in a verbal speech).

6.1 Why is Research Important?

Effective speakers recognize the need to do research in order to find evidence to support their opinions and perspectives. No matter how credible a speaker may be, he or she may be perceived as ineffective and not credible if the claims are not well supported in evidence acquired through research. Speakers develop information literacy through practice and research. **Information literacy** involves knowing how to find and evaluate relevant information, recognizing what information is needed, and effectively incorporating that information into one's research. The ability to develop information literacy is important to help speakers ascertain a source's authenticity, validity, and reliability. When speakers have well developed information literacy, they are often deemed more effective and credible.

6.2 Types of Research

Depending on their needs, the most effective and influential speakers engage in multiple types of research. Typically, speakers start with their own knowledge and experience and then move to **secondary research**, which is the process of locating information discovered by other people. Information or evidence may come in various forms, such as written, audio, visual, and audiovisual forms. Sometimes information acquired from secondary research is not sufficient, and a speaker must engage in **primary research**, which is the process of collecting data about a topic directly from the real world. No matter the type of research, speakers need to evaluate their sources.

One form of evidence may be the personal experience and knowledge of the speaker. When speakers choose to share their personal knowledge or experience, they should establish their **credentials**, or their experience and education that qualifies them to speak with authority on a specific subject. An audience is more likely to respond well to speakers who have properly established their credentials.

Secondary research consists of gathering research from sources that are not acquired from the speaker personally. With the progression of technology, most individuals conduct research from online resources. Computers and other devices that connect to the internet provide individuals with a wealth of information. Typically, online searches begin with a key word, or words, typed into a

Speech Study Guide

search engine. As technology and internet accessibility progress, libraries are putting more and more information online. Speakers may also use for-profit websites, which are distinguished by their URL ending in “.com.” These websites may be important for finding current material. Not-for-profit websites are distinguished by their URL ending in “.org.” These websites are dedicated to issues or causes that may provide emotional appeals. Speakers may also utilize blogs, which are websites that provide personal viewpoints of the author and are created and maintained by an individual or organization. Blogs may be focused on a particular subject. Typically, blogs are biased toward the opinion of the blogger and may be a good source for finding public opinion examples and humanizing a topic. Verifying the credentials of a blog can be difficult and should be used with caution. The other most common type of website involves online social networking sites. These are websites where communities of people interact with one another via the internet.

Many speakers forget, or become overwhelmed with the fact that there are more sources than internet sources. These sources include encyclopedias, books, articles in academic journals or magazines, news media, statistical sources, biographies, quotation books, and government documents. Some of these sources may be found online.

Encyclopedia entries may serve as a good starting point by providing an overview about a topic. Encyclopedias may only provide overviews, so therefore, they should never be the only source consulted. Typically, encyclopedias contain short articles about a variety of subjects, but may be more focused in a specialized area (history, religion, philosophy, etc.). Reference lists and note sections in encyclopedias may serve as a useful tool to point a speaker in the right direction for more sources. Books provide in-depth information about a topic. One book’s call number (the number that indicates its location in a library) may provide the call number for another book.

Articles may contain more current or highly specialized information on a topic than a book can/will. Articles tend to be published in periodicals. Information in periodicals tends to be more current due to the frequency of publication, which is typically weekly, biweekly, or monthly. Many libraries, especially if they are “connected” will subscribe to electronic databases. News media may provide facts and interpretations of contemporary and historical issues. They may also provide information about local issues and perspectives, however most authors of news media articles are journalists who are not experts themselves. As such, it is best not to solely rely on news media as the only source for information.

Statistical sources present numerical information on a wide variety of subjects. When a speaker needs facts about demography, continents, heads of state, weather, or similar subjects, it is logical to access one of the many single-volume sources from the U.S. Government. A speaker may find statistical sources online. Biographies are accounts of a person’s life from thumbnail sketches. They are easily encountered in libraries and online outlets. Many famous individuals have some biographical information posted on websites. A simple keyword search is needed to find this kind of website.

Quotations can be provocative and informative. When a quote comes from a respected source, it can

Speech Study Guide

be more effective. Quotes may come from contemporary or historical figures. No matter the method of retrieval, a quote can be particularly influential to an audience because it allows them to identify with the speaker. Government documents may be useful if a topic is related to public policy. There are many different sources a speaker may utilize, depending on their topic. These sources may be found through online resources or libraries.

6.3 Evaluating Secondary Sources

Due to the wealth of information a speaker may encounter, it is pertinent to have strategies to sift through information. **Skimming** is a method of rapidly going through a source to determine what is covered and how to use that information. In order to effectively use skimming, it is important to read the table of contents, index, and review the headings and visuals in useful chapters. A speaker may also look at the **abstract**, which is a short paragraph summarizing the research findings.

The primary categories a source should fulfill are validity, accuracy, and reliability. **Valid sources** convey factual information that can be counted on as true. Mainline news publications use “fact-checker” to verify information before publication. **Accurate sources** attempt to present unbiased information and include a balanced discussion of controversial topics. **Reliable sources** are sources that have a history of presenting valid and accurate information. To determine if a source is valid, accurate, or reliable there are four criteria that may help a speaker to evaluate the source: authority, objectivity, currency, and relevance.

Authority is the first test of a source to determine the expertise of the author and/or the reputation of the publishing organization. When an author is listed, a speaker should check the author’s credentials via biographical references. It is possible to see what an author has published in a specific field. With online sources, the credibility of the information may not be clear and will depend on the speaker’s ability to trust the information depending on evaluations of the sponsoring organizations. If a speaker is unsure of the authority of a source it should not be used.

Objectivity refers to a source’s ability to not express one particular attitude, perspective, or viewpoint on a topic. If a source appears to be slanted in one direction or another it should not be used. Documents that have been published by businesses, government, or public interest groups should be scrutinized for obvious biases or public relations fronts. To identify the objectivity of a source, a speaker should examine the preface and thesis statements because these will reveal the author’s point of view.

Currency refers to how current a source is. The more current the source is, the better it is. One of the main reasons for using web-based sources is that they often provide more up-to-date information than printed sources. To determine how current a source is the date of publication needs to be observed. Without dates of publication there is no way to tell how current the information in the source is.

Relevance refers to how pertinent the information is for a specific topic or audience. It should be directly related to the topic and support a speaker's main points, making it easier for the speech to be followed and understood. Irrelevant information only serves to confuse listeners, and should be avoided at all costs.

6.4 Primary Research

If there is little or unsatisfactory secondary research available, a speaker should conduct primary research. Primary research is much more labor intensive and time-consuming than secondary research. It may consist of fieldwork observations, surveys, interviews, original artifacts, document examinations, or experiments.

Fieldwork observations, otherwise known as **ethnography**, involve the observation of a group of people and their practices while being immersed in the community of observation. By focusing on specific behaviors and taking notes on observations and interpretations, a speaker will have a record of specific information to use.

Surveys consist of canvassing people to get information about their ideas and opinions; they may be conducted in person, over the phone, via the internet, or in paper-and-pencil documents. Sometimes secondary research calls for the summarization of surveys and at other times a speaker has to conduct their own survey.

Interviews are highly structured conversations where one person asks questions and another person answers them. They may be conducted in person, over the phone, or online. There are certain ethical guidelines to adhere to when conducting and processing an actual interview.

- Select the best person: Some research will lead an individual to the right person to talk to. Before the interview, the interviewer should ensure they have conducted the proper research to converse with the interviewee to understand the interviewee's credentials, and to appear to be more informed.
- Prepare the interview protocol: The heart of an effective interview is the **interview protocol**, which is a list of good questions the speaker plans to ask. The amount of questions that can be asked depends on the timeframe for the interview. It is essential to prepare a list of topics for the interview and then prepare **rapport-building questions**, which are nonthreatening questions designed to put the interviewee at ease and demonstrate an interviewer's respect for the interviewee. Interviewers may also utilize different types of questions:
 - Primary questions: Introductory questions about each major interview topic
 - Secondary questions: Follow up questions designed to probe the answers given to the primary questions; some follow-up questions are to simply encourage the interviewee to continue, others are to get more specific details
 - Open-ended questions: Broad-based queries that allow freedom regarding what specific

Speech Study Guide

information or opinions to talk about

- Close-ended questions: Narrowly focused and require brief answers; some require simple, one word answers, others need a short response; by asking these questions, the interviewers can control the interview and obtain specific information quickly
- Neutral questions: Do not direct a person's answers; for example, "What can you tell me about your work?"
- Leading questions: Guide respondents toward providing certain types of information and imply that the interviewer prefers one answer over another
- Conducting the interview: To guide the process of conducting effective and ethical interviews, there is a list of best practices:
 - Dress professionally: Even if an interview is not face to face, when the interviewer is dressed well they are more confident and make a better impression.
 - Be prompt: Promptness demonstrates respect for both the interviewer and interviewee.
 - Be courteous: By introducing themselves, and thanking the interviewee, the interviewers show respect and authority.
 - Ask permission to record: If the interviewee says it is not okay to record the interview then their wishes should be respected and the interviewer should take more careful notes.
 - Listen carefully: It is crucial to repeat what the listener says at key points to ensure the speaker/interviewer understands. This will ensure that the answers reported will be done so truthfully and fairly.
 - Monitor nonverbal reactions: Integrity is demonstrated by maintaining eye contact. Nodding and smiling occasionally maintains a friendly persona. Body language and nonverbal reactions influence how the interviewee will "warm up."
 - Get permission to quote: It is necessary to obtain permission for exact quotes. Doing so demonstrates the interviewer respects the interviewee and wants to report ideas honestly and fairly. This communicates integrity and responsibility.
 - Confirm credentials: It is pertinent to confirm the interviewee's professional title and company or organization they represent.
 - End on time: Respect the begin and end times of the interview.
 - Thank the interviewee: After closing the interview, thank the interviewee. Closure leads to positive rapport that should be followed up later.
- Processing the interview: Notes should be taken in outline to bullet-point form. The longer the wait to translate notes into full form, the more difficult it will be. If the speech was recorded it should be transcribed into written format.

Original artifact or **document examinations** occur when information has not been published and an original artifact needs to be examined. Perhaps the object needs to be viewed, such as geographic features, buildings, monuments, or buildings. Experiments are conducted around hypothesis, which are educated guesses about a cause and effect relationship between one or more things. After a hypothesis is tested the results can be incorporated into a speech.

6.5 Citation

Any communication when information is used beyond the speaker's own personal experience and knowledge should be cited. The reason this type of information needs to be cited is to avoid plagiarism. **Plagiarism** entails passing someone else's information off as your own, without giving proper credit to the original source. By specifically mentioning sources it helps an audience to evaluate the content, but also adds to the speaker's credibility. **Oral footnotes** are references to an original source that are made at the point in a speech where information from that source is presented. The key to these notes is to include enough information for listeners to access the sources themselves and offer enough credentials to enhance the credibility of the cited information. Citations are compiled in an **annotated bibliography**, which is a preliminary record of the relevant sources pertaining to a topic. These include short summaries of the information in that source and how it might be used to support the speech. It can also be used to create research cards as well as a reference list later. Listing resources can be done in a variety of ways. There are styles such as MLA, APA, Chicago, and CBE. The correct form depends on the professional or the academic discipline. Coordinate sources with notes to help save time when compiling a list of sources.

6.6 Key Terms

- **Information literacy** involves knowing how to find and evaluate relevant information, recognizing what information is needed, and effectively incorporating that information into one's research.
- **Secondary research** is the process of locating information discovered by other people.
- **Primary research** is the process of collecting data about a topic directly from the real world.
- **Credentials** are experience or education that qualifies someone to speak with authority on a specific subject.
- **Skimming** is a method of rapidly going through a source to determine what is covered and how to use that information.
- **Valid sources** convey factual information that can be counted on as true.
- **Accurate sources** attempt to present unbiased information and include a balanced discussion of controversial topics.
- **Reliable sources** are sources that have a history of presenting valid and accurate information.
- **Authority** is the first test of a source to determine the expertise of the author and/or the reputation of the publishing organization.
- **Objectivity** refers to a source's ability to not express one particular attitude, perspective, or viewpoint on a topic.
- **Relevance** refers to how pertinent the information is for a specific topic or audience.
- **Ethnography** involves the observation of a group of people and their practices while being immersed in the community of observation.
- **Surveys** consist of canvassing people to get information about their ideas and opinions; they may

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be conducted in person, over the phone, via the internet, or in paper-and-pencil documents.

- **Interviews** are highly structured conversations where one person asks questions and another person answers them; they may be conducted in person, over the phone, or online.
- **Interview protocol** is a list of good questions the speaker plans to ask.
- **Rapport-building questions** are nonthreatening questions designed to put the interviewee at ease and demonstrate an interviewer's respect for the interviewee.
- **Primary questions** are introductory questions about each major interview topic.
- **Secondary questions** are follow-up questions designed to probe the answers given to the primary questions. Some follow-up questions are to simply encourage the interviewee to continue, others are to get more specific details.
- **Open questions** are broad-based queries that allow freedom regarding what specific information or opinions to talk about.
- **Close questions** are narrowly focused and require brief answers. Some require simple, one word answers, others need a short response. By asking these questions, the interviewers can control the interview and obtain specific information quickly.
- **Neutral questions** do not direct a person's answers.
- **Leading questions** guide respondents toward providing certain types of information and imply that the interviewer prefers one answer over another.
- **Plagiarism** entails passing someone else's information as your own without giving proper credit to the original source.
- **Oral footnotes** are references to an original source that are made at the point in a speech where information from that source is presented.
- **Annotated bibliography** is a preliminary record of the relevant sources pertaining to a topic.

6.7 Chapter Six Practice Exam

1. 1. What is information literacy?
 - a. a. Providing research to support a point
 - b. b. Knowing how to evaluate relevant information
 - c. c. Understanding successful search criteria
 - d. d. Incorporating research into a speech

2. 2. What is a primary source?
 - a. a. Research done by others
 - b. b. Research from only one source
 - c. c. Research you have collected
 - d. d. Research from multiple sources

3. What is a secondary source?
 - a. a. Research done by others
 - b. b. Research from only one source
 - c. c. Research you have collected
 - d. d. Research from multiple sources

4. A summary of an article or book is called the _____.
 - a. Primary source
 - b. Secondary source
 - c. Abstract
 - d. Credential

5. Asking questions to learn more about a person's beliefs and opinions is called _____.
 - a. Ethnography
 - b. Surveying
 - c. Interviewing
 - d. Analysis

Speech Study Guide

6. A question with a one-word answer is called a(n) _____.
- a. Leading question
 - b. Neutral question
 - c. Open-ended question
 - d. Close-ended question
7. A question that provides an opportunity for someone to elaborate is called a(n) _____.
- a. Leading question
 - b. Neutral question
 - c. Open-ended question
 - d. Close-ended question
8. Asking questions to learn more about a person's beliefs and opinions is called _____.
- a. Ethnography
 - b. Surveying
 - c. Interviewing
 - d. Analysis
9. A question with a one-word answer is called a(n) _____.
- a. Leading question
 - b. Neutral question
 - c. Open-ended question
 - d. Close-ended question
10. A question that provides an opportunity for someone to elaborate is called a(n) _____.
- a. Leading question
 - b. Neutral question
 - c. Open-ended question
 - d. Close-ended question

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Chapter Seven: Language, Style, and Listening

Objectives

1. Discuss what oral style is and its importance.
2. Know the different components or types of language.
3. Understand how to tailor language to a specific audience.
4. Differentiate between the components and types of listening and feedback.
5. Discuss why listening is important.

7.1 Styles

Every speaker has a style regardless of the type of speech. **Oral style** refers to how people convey messages through spoken word. Effective oral styles differ greatly from written styles, however when giving a speech, a speaker's oral style is still more formal than everyday speech. The degree of formality required can be determined by the rhetorical situation (type, setting, and audience of the speech). In other words, a speaker should attempt to adapt their language to the purpose, the audience, and the occasion. Even if the situation is formal, a speaker must establish a relationship with the listener while reflecting a personal tone that encourages an audience to listen and respond accordingly to the speech and the speaker's propositions. A speaker may use different types of language to convey style. When a speaker uses clear and appropriate speaking styles it can and will enhance a speaker's ethos. Even the best of speeches can be undermined by poor stylistic choices. There are four primary characteristics that distinguish an effective oral style from an effective written style:

- An effective oral style tends toward short sentences and familiar language. Audiences respond better to speeches they can understand the language of; if an audience has to look up definitions they are not likely to pay attention.
- An effective oral style features plural personal pronouns. With the use of personal pronouns, such as "we," "us," or "our," a sense of relationship is created with the audience. Personal pronouns also demonstrate a respect for the audience as participants in the rhetorical situation. The goal of the speaker is to create the perception of conversation with the audience, rather than presenting to or in front of the audience.
- Effective oral style features descriptive words and phrases that appeal to the ear in ways that sustain listener attention and promote retention. Colorful adjectives and adverbs appeal to the senses. Rhetorical figures of speech capture the interests of the audience and motivate them to stay focused throughout the speech.
- An effective oral style incorporates clear macro-structural elements. Typically, listeners only hear a speech once. As such, a speaker needs to intentionally articulate a preview of main ideas so listeners can place them firmly in their mind at the outset. Clear section transitions verbally signal when a speaker needs to move from one major idea to another.

7.2 Speaking Appropriately

A speaker needs to adapt to the needs, interests, knowledge, and attitudes of listeners while avoiding the use of language that might alienate anyone. This is referred to as speaking appropriately. **Speaking appropriately** entails making language choices that enhance a sense of connection between the speaker and audience. One way a speaker may strive towards appropriate speaking is through the use of **verbal immediacy**, which describes language used to reduce the psychological distance between a speaker and audience.

When adapting a speech to a specific audience, a speaker will face the first challenge of helping the audience to see the relevance of the topic. Listeners tend to be more interested in topics that relate to them directly or personally. Topics that are relevant have some potential physical, economic, or psychological impact on the audience members. As mentioned previously, the use of personal pronouns helps to tailor a speech to a specific audience.

Often forgotten, speakers need to demonstrate **linguistic sensitivity**, which includes choosing words that show respect of others and avoid potentially offensive language. By observing linguistic sensitivity, a speaker can enhance their verbal immediacy by avoiding generic language, non-parallelism, potentially offensive humor, and profanity or vulgarity.

- **Generic language** uses words that apply to only one sex, race, or another group to represent a larger portion of everyone. In the past, English speakers used the masculine pronoun “he” to stand for all humans regardless of sex. The best way to avoid generic language is through the use of plural personal pronouns. Another common problem with generic language is the traditional use of “man.” Bias-free language is not only more appropriate, but more accurate to avoid confusion over words, such as manmade, mankind, or policeman.
- **Non-parallelism** denotes when terms are changed due to the sex, race, or other group characteristics of the individual. Two common forms are marking and irrelevant association. **Marking** is the addition of sex, race, age, or other group designation to a description. It is inappropriate because it trivializes the person’s role by introducing an irrelevant characteristic. The second form of non-parallelism is **irrelevant association**, which is the emphasis of one person’s relationship to another when that relationship is irrelevant to the point.
- **Offensive humor** includes, but is not limited to, dirty jokes and racist, sexist, or other “ist” remarks, and although the intention may not be to offend, if an audience is offended the speaker will lose their verbal immediacy. Humorous comments and jokes should be avoided. As a general rule, when in doubt leave it out.
- **Profanity** and **vulgarity** include expressions that are not considered appropriate language. Despite casual swearing injected into regular conversation being commonplace in some communities, it is never acceptable to use in public speeches. If someone uses profanity or vulgarity they are often perceived as being abrasive and lacking character, maturity, intelligence, manners, and emotional control.

Part of speaking appropriately is speaking accurately. Using **accurate language** means using words that convey the speaker’s meaning precisely. It may seem that speaking appropriately is easy,

Speech Study Guide

however it is not. Language is arbitrary. There is not necessarily any literal connection between a word and the thing it represents. For a word to have meaning, it must be recognized by both or all parties as standing for a particular object, idea, or feeling. Language is also abstract. Two people might interpret the same word differently. Language also changes over time. New words are constantly being invented and existing words, abandoned or assigned new meanings. Some words become obsolete because the thing they represent becomes obsolete. The use of accurate language is crucial to effective speaking because it helps to make a speaker intelligible or clearly understood. If listeners don't understand what a speaker means then the attempt to communicate is doomed. To help ensure that language is accurate, there are three concepts to examine for how they are interpreted: denotation, connotation, and dialect.

Denotation is a word's explicit definition. In some situations, the denotative meaning of a word may not be clear. Dictionary definitions reflect current and past practices in the language community. Another reason for confusion is that dictionaries offer more than one definition for a given word. Words are defined differently in various dictionaries and may include multiple meanings that may also change over time. Meanings also vary depending on the **context**, which is the position of a word in a sentence and its relationship to the words around it.

Connotation is the positive, neutral, or negative feelings or evaluations that can be associated with a word. Perception of a word's connotation may be even more important than its denotation in how the word is interpreted. Ogden and Richards were among the first scholars to consider the misunderstandings that result from failure of communicators to realize their subjective reactions are the product of their life experiences. Connotations give emotional power to words, so much so, that people may choose to fight and die for them. They increase the emotional appeal of a speaker's message. It is crucial to avoid words that might raise unintended connotations.

Dialect is a unique form of a more general language spoken by a specific cultural or co-cultural group. They evolve over time and the manner in which they differ from the "standard" of the language may be influenced by other languages spoken in the region or by an ethnic group. If the audience does not share the speaker's dialect there may be interference with the speaker's intelligibility. Differences of dialect may affect the speaker's ethos, the audience's perception of the speaker's competence, and the speaker's credibility. The best way to ensure being understood by all and conveying positive ethos is by using standard English.

7.3 Components of Language

All speakers face a choice of which figures of speech, or language components, to use. **Figures of speech** are used to heighten the beauty of expression, clarify ideas, or enhance the emotional impact of speeches.

Similes are used when making comparisons. Direct comparisons between things that an audience may not see as being similar may help them understand a concept or particular set of circumstances.

Speech Study Guide

Similes are achieved by taking an idea the audience comprehends and comparing it with a new or unfamiliar idea to help an audience understand the new idea. These comparisons are comprised using words such as, “like” or “as.” **Metaphors** are like similes, in that they compare objects that the audience may think of as dissimilar. Unlike similes, the comparison is not so direct and does not use words such as, “like” or “as.” Instead of saying that one thing is like another, a metaphor says one thing is another. For example, a problem car is a lemon. Metaphors can be effective because they make abstract concepts more concrete, strengthen important points, and heighten emotions. **Analogies** are extended metaphors. At times a speaker may be able to develop a story from a metaphor that makes a concept more vivid. They can be effective for holding a speech together in a creative and vivid way. They are also useful to showcase similarities between a complex and unfamiliar concept with a familiar one.

Alliteration is the repetition of consonant sounds at the beginning of words that are near one another. Tongue twisters use alliteration. When used sparingly, it can be an effective tool to get an audience’s attention and make the speech more memorable. Overuse will hurt the message of the speech because listeners may focus on the technique rather than the speech content. **Assonance** is the repetition of vowel sounds in a phrase or phrases. Sometimes the words rhyme but this is not necessary. It can make a speech memorable when used sparingly.

Onomatopoeia is the use of words that sound like the things they stand for. Basically, they are sound words, for example buzz, hiss, crack, or pop. These are sounds represented as words without mimicking the actual sound. **Personification** is attributing human qualities to a concept or an inanimate object. This can be anything from talking about a car as a trusted friend and companion or talking about flowers dancing on a lawn.

Repetition is restating words, phrases, or sentences for emphasis. When a speaker wants to emphasize a certain point, they may choose repetition to draw the audience’s attention to the particular point. However, effective speakers will not use the same phrase or word but will instead use a variation of the phrase or word.

Antithesis is the combination of contrasting ideas in the same sentence. For example, John F. Kennedy said, “Ask not what your country can do for you. Ask what you can do for your country.” Likewise, astronaut Neil Armstrong used antithesis when he first stepped onto the moon and said, “One small step for man, one giant leap for mankind.” These statements or sentences, present contradictory ideas but serve as concluding remarks, which are often very memorable.

Irony is a device that is typically used to highlight something absurd or a bitter disconnect between what is asserted and what is real; irony is a way to strongly imply a meaning that is opposite of what is stated. **Oxymoron** is used to combine seemingly contradictory expressions. This device might be used to emphasize the contrast between two things or to give an amusing twist of meaning to phrases. Some have become so commonplace that their contradictory nature is no longer recognized, but accepted as truth; others however, still provoke thought or reinforce ideas.

Speech Study Guide

Effective speakers will combine these components of speech, or different components, to give a speech more depth and creativity. When a speech lacks these components, they tend to be bland and dull. Audiences listen and respond well to speeches that have a mixture (but not too much) of figures of speech.

7.4 Types of Language

Beyond the basic figures of speech, a speaker should learn to use language in different ways. Some audiences and settings call for one type of language while other settings need different language.

Speakers may use **vocalized pauses**, which are unnecessary words interjected into sentences to fill moments of silence. Words commonly used for this purpose are “like,” “you know,” “really,” “basically,” “um,” “well,” or “uh.” Sometimes vocalized phrases are called “verbal garbage.” Use of these words conveys to an audience that the speaker is not confident and does not have a command of a topic. Few vocalized pauses do not typically cause a hindrance to a speech, and may be avoided by practicing a speech and managing speech apprehension.

A speaker may be better able to capture and maintain an audience’s attention. Speaking vividly is one effective way to accomplish this. **Vivid language** is language that is full of life; it is vigorous, bright, and intense. More than the use of vivid language, a speaker may employ sensory language and can make their ideas come to life and fully engage their audience. **Sensory language** appeals to the senses of seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling, and feeling. Vivid sensory language begins with vivid thought. An audience is more likely to express themselves vividly if they can physically or psychologically sense the meanings of the speaker. In order to develop vivid sensory language, a speaker begins with how they would recreate what something, someone, or some place looks like. Such language can arouse and maintain listener’s interests and helps the speaker’s ideas become more memorable.

Speakers may choose to use **specific language** to clarify meaning by using precise words that narrow what is understood from a general category to a particular item or group within that category. Choosing specific language is easier when the speaker has a large working vocabulary. If a speaker has a large vocabulary, they have more words to choose from when using specific language. Speakers may increase their vocabularies via studying, taking notes of unfamiliar words, or by using a thesaurus to identify synonyms that may offer more specific options. With a large vocabulary, speakers may fall into the trap of wanting to impress their audience. As a result of this trap, speakers do not use specific or precise words; they aim to elect words which appear pompous, affected, or stilted to the listener.

One of the most effective ways to reach an audience is through the use of familiar terms. The use of familiar terms is as important as the use of specific words. Speakers should avoid the use of jargon, slang, abbreviations, and acronyms, unless they are defined clearly the first time they are used. **Jargon** is a unique technical term of a trade or profession that is not generally understood by

Speech Study Guide

outsiders. Good speakers are able to recognize when they use jargon and avoid it. Speakers should also strive to avoid the use of **slang**, which is informal, nonstandard vocabulary where definitions are assigned by a social group or co-culture. Speakers should strive to avoid slang in speeches because they risk being misunderstood and not sounding professional. It can also impact the speaker's credibility.

7.5 Listening Types

It may seem illogical, at first, for a speaker to understand listening and everything involved with how an audience is going to listen to a speech; however, the most effective speakers understand their audience. Communication is the process of shared meaning.

One of the first things to understand is that hearing and listening is not the same thing. **Hearing** is a physiological process of receiving and processing sound. **Listening** is the process of receiving, attending to, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken or nonverbal messages. It is important because of the time spent communicating. Even when listening carefully, most people remember about fifty percent of what they hear. Effective listening is critical for successful communication. Audiences may listen for various reasons depending on the situation:

- **Appreciative listening** occurs when listening to music for enjoyment and to speakers because the audience likes their style.
- **Discriminative listening** occurs when an audience listens to infer what more a speaker might mean beyond the words they are saying. For example, when a doctor is giving test results the patient tries to infer if the results are positive or negative.
- **Comprehensive listening** occurs when the listener's goal is to understand, remember, and recall information.
- **Empathic listening** occurs when the listener wants to provide emotional support.
- **Critical listening** occurs when an audience wants to understand and critically evaluate the worth of a message and requires more psychological processing than other forms of listening.

7.6 Listening Challenges

To be effective listeners in any situation, there are a few challenges to listening that are rooted in listening apprehension, listening styles, approaches to listening, passivity syndrome, automatic rejection, short attention span, and stereotyping.

Listening apprehension is the anxiety felt about listening, and may increase when the listener is worried about misinterpreting the message or when the listener is concerned about how the message may affect the listener psychologically. Anxiety and apprehension may increase if the listener is feeling ill, tired, or stressed about something else going on in life. This challenge makes it difficult to focus on the message.

Speech Study Guide

Listening styles are the favored and usually unconscious approach to listening; each listener has a favored style, with only a few people being able to effectively switch between styles based on the situation. A speaker who can identify their own listening style and the likely style of their audience is more likely to be an effective speaker. There are four listening styles:

- **Content-oriented listeners** focus on and evaluate the facts and evidence, while appreciating details and enjoying processing complex messages that may include technical information. These listeners are likely to ask questions to get even more information and are likely to understand and remember details. However, they may miss the overall point of the message and be unaware of the speaker's feelings.
- **People-oriented listeners** focus on the feelings their conversational partners may have about what is being said. These individuals tend to notice if their partners, or loved ones, are pleased or upset and will encourage them to continue based on nonverbal cues like head nods, eye contact, and other body language. These individuals are likely to understand how the speaker feels, empathize, and offer comfort and support. However, this type of listener might become so focused on the speaker's emotions they may miss the message or fail to evaluate facts.
- **Action-oriented listeners** focus on ultimate points the speaker is trying to make and tend to get frustrated when ideas are disorganized and when people ramble. These listeners also often anticipate what the speaker is going to say and may even finish the speaker's sentence for them. Even though these listeners can anticipate what the speaker may say next, they might miss important details.
- **Time-oriented listeners** prefer brief and hurried conversations and often use nonverbal and verbal cues to signal that their partner needs to be more concise. These listeners may tell others exactly how much time they have to listen, interrupt when feeling time pressures, regularly check the time on smart phones, watches, or clocks, and may even nod their heads rapidly to encourage others to pick up the pace of the speech. Too often, these listeners are prone to only partially listening to a message while thinking about their time constraints.

According to research, people tend to listen in two ways: actively or passively, depending on the rhetorical situation. Audiences listen more carefully when the topic seems important to the audience, when there is trust and respect for the sender, and during times when the audience is not constrained by other distraction or obligations. **Passive listening** is the habitual and unconscious process of receiving messages; listeners are on auto pilot and tend to listen this way when they are not interested in the topic. By contrast, **active listening** is the deliberate and conscious process of attending to, understanding, remembering, evaluating, and responding to messages. This kind of listening requires practice.

Passivity syndrome is the notion that listening is easy and the responsibility for good listening rests with the speaker. It is rooted in the view of public speaking being one way. It fails to acknowledge the transactional nature of communication, or the fact that effective communication requires active participation of both speaker and listener.

Speech Study Guide

Automatic rejection involves the rejection of a speaker who challenges the existing beliefs or values of a speaker. Effective and ethical listeners should allow the speaker to state his or her whole case before jumping to conclusions. Every speaker deserves a fair and honest hearing before raising objections. Genuine listening means listening actively with an open mind and respect for those with whom a listener may disagree with.

Though many individuals seem to think stereotyping is no longer a problem, it is evident that it is still prevalent, albeit subtler. **Stereotyping** involves making ill-founded generalizations about a specific group of people based on race, ethnicity, gender, religion, or age. This practice represents a problem in many realms of life. Scholars have linked it to prejudice and discrimination, lower self-esteem, adverse health outcomes, and impaired performance among the targets of stereotyping. No matter the basis, whether it be from direct experience, family members' expressed views and attitudes, or various media portrayals, the practice of stereotyping unfairly categorizes and stigmatizes people. It can also greatly interfere with an audience's ability to listen effectively. If an audience member is preoccupied with a speaker's gender, race, age, or other characteristic they are not fully focusing on the information and ideas being communicated. Stereotyping is invariably misleading and should be avoided at all possible costs.

7.7 Listener Responsibility

Though it may seem odd to think about, speakers and listeners have responsibilities to each other. Effective active listening begins with **attending**, which is the process of intentionally perceiving and focusing on a message. Poor listeners have difficulty exercising control over what they attend to, often letting their mind drift to thoughts unrelated to the topic. A reason for poor attendance is that the human brain can process between four hundred and eight hundred words per minute, but can only speak between one hundred twenty and one hundred fifty words per minute. The brain tries to assume what the speaker is going to say before they say it, and thus the brain has time to wander. Not only is there an opportunity for the mind to wander in the gap between speaking rates and processing rates, but research suggests that the average adult attention span is approximately twenty minutes or less. To really become an effective listener, an individual can train themselves how to focus or attend to what people are saying, regardless of the potential distractions. There are four techniques to help train oneself:

- Get physically ready to listen. Good listeners create an environment that reduces potential distractions and adopt a listening posture.
- Resist mental distractions. Work consciously to block out wandering thoughts while listening to a speech or webcast that might come from a visual distraction or physical distraction.
- Hear the speaker out. Often listeners stop listening because they disagree with something the speaker says, because a listener anticipates what the speaker is going to say, or because the listener becomes offended by an example or word the speaker uses.
- Find personal relevance. Sometimes speakers articulate relevance for listeners but other times it can be discovered independently by consciously considering how one might benefit from learning the information to improve some aspect of life.

Speech Study Guide

Speakers also try to understand what they hear. **Understanding** is accurately interpreting a message. Sometimes a listener may not fully understand a speaker's message because the speaker uses words that are not in the audience's vocabulary or discusses complex technical concepts that are new to listeners. There are four strategies to help a listener understand a speaker's message:

- Identify the goal and main points. Sometimes people's thoughts are easy to follow. Other times, a listener must work to decode the speaker's goal, main points, and some of the key details. Effective listeners ask, "What does the speaker want me to know or do?", "What are each of the main points?", and "What details explain or support each of the main points?"
- Ask questions. A **question** is a statement designed to clarify information or get additional details. Ethical listeners wait for the speech to conclude before asking questions. Some of these questions may eventually be answered; the ones that are not may be answered in a question and answer period, or guide a listener to research the question themselves.
- Paraphrase silently. **Paraphrasing** is putting a message into a listener's own words.
- Observe nonverbal cues. Messages are interpreted more accurately when observing nonverbal behaviors that accompany the words.

One of the main responsibilities of a listener is to remember what a speaker had to say; this is the process of moving information from short-term to long-term memory. Remembering may be difficult because listeners filter out information that does not appeal to the listener's particular style. There are three techniques to improve memory:

- Repeat the information. Repetition involves saying something mentally several times to help store information in long-term memory.
- Construct mnemonics. A **mnemonic device** associates a special word or short statement with new and longer information.
- Take notes. Note-taking is a powerful method for improving memory. It provides a written record that can be referred to later, and it allows the listener to take a more active role in the learning process.

7.8 Critique and Feedback

When listening to a speech, listeners give critique to the speaker. **Constructive critique** is an evaluative response that identifies what was effective and what could be improved in a message. There are four guidelines to follow to give constructive critique:

- Constructive critique statements need to be as specific as possible, referencing specific statements or points within the speech. If statements are too vague the speaker will not receive any constructive feedback.
- Constructive critique statements begin with observations about what was effective or done well. Beginning with positive observations reinforces what the speaker did well. The goal of a critique is to help the speaker improve.
- Constructive critique statements explain how and why the observed behavior affected the

Speech Study Guide

speech. Explaining critiques helps a speaker to understand how to improve.

- Constructive critique statements are phrased as personal statements.

The best constructive critiques are comprised of statements about a speech's content, structure, and delivery. Content critique statements focus on the goal, main points, and supporting material used to develop them. Structure critique statements focus on the macrostructure (overall framework) and microstructure (language and style). Providing feedback on specific points helps a speaker understand how their speech was received and how the audience was affected by it. Delivery critique statements focus on the use of voice and body. When commenting on voice, a speaker might consider intelligibility (understandable rate, volume, pronunciation, and enunciation), conversational style, and emotional expression. When commenting on body language, it is pertinent to consider attire, poise, posture, eye contact, facial expression, gestures, and movement.

Not only can listeners critique a speaker, but a speaker can self-critique following the same guidelines as a listener would. Self-critique is a form of cognitive restructuring that can help reduce anxiety because it forces one to temper negative self-talk with positive self-talk immediately.

7.9 Key Terms

- **Oral style** refers to how we convey messages through spoken word.
- A speaker needs to adapt to the needs, interests, knowledge, and attitudes of listeners while avoiding the use of language that might alienate anyone. This is referred to as **speaking appropriately**.
- **Verbal immediacy** describes language used to reduce the psychological distance between a speaker and audience.
- **Linguistic sensitivity** is choosing words that are respectable of others and avoiding potentially offensive language.
- **Generic language** uses words that apply to only one sex, race, or another group to represent a larger portion of everyone.
- **Non-parallelism** denotes when terms are changed due to the sex, race, or other group characteristics of the individual.
- **Marking** is the addition of sex, race, age, or other group designation to a description.
- **Irrelevant association** is the emphasis of one person's relationship to another when that relationship is irrelevant to the point.
- **Offensive humor** includes, but is not limited to, dirty jokes and racist, sexist, or other "ist" remarks. They may not be intended to be offensive, however, if an audience is offended the speaker may lose their verbal immediacy.
- **Profanity and vulgarity** include expressions that are not considered appropriate language.
- **Accurate language** means using words that convey the speaker's meaning precisely.
- **Denotation** is a word's explicit dictionary definition.
- **Context** is the position of a word in a sentence and its relationship to the words around it.

Speech Study Guide

- **Connotation** is the positive, neutral, or negative feelings or evaluations that can be associated with it.
- **Dialect** is a unique form of a more general language spoken by a specific cultural or co-cultural group.
- **Similes** are used when making comparisons.
- **Metaphors** are like similes in that they compare objects that the audience may think of as dissimilar. Unlike similes, the comparison is not so direct and does not use words such as “like” or “as.”
- **Analogies** are extended metaphors.
- **Alliteration** is the repetition of consonant sounds at the beginning of words that are near one another.
- **Assonance** is the repetition of vowel sounds in a phrase or phrases.
- **Onomatopoeia** is the use of words that sound like the things they stand for.
- **Personification** is attributing human qualities to a concept or an inanimate object.
- **Repetition** is restating words, phrases, or sentences for emphasis.
- **Antithesis** is the combination of contrasting ideas in the same sentence.
- **Irony** is a device that is typically used to highlight something absurd, or a bitter disconnect between what is asserted and what is real. Irony is a way to strongly imply a meaning that is opposite of what is stated.
- **Vocalized pauses** are unnecessary words interjected into sentences to fill moments of silence.
- **Vivid language** is language that is full of life; it is vigorous, bright, and intense.
- **Sensory language** appeals to the senses of seeing, hearing, tasting, smelling, and feeling.
- **Specific language** is language used to clarify meaning by using precise words that narrow what is understood from a general category to a particular item or group within that category.
- **Jargon** is a unique technical term of a trade or profession that is not generally understood by outsiders.
- **Slang** is informal, nonstandard vocabulary whose definitions are assigned to words by a social group or co-culture.
- **Hearing** is a physiological process of receiving and processing sound.
- **Listening** is the process of receiving, attending to, constructing meaning from, and responding to spoken or nonverbal messages.
- **Appreciative listening** occurs when listening to music for enjoyment and to speakers because the audience likes their style.
- **Discriminative listening** occurs when an audience listens to infer what more a speaker might mean beyond the words they are saying.
- **Comprehensive listening** occurs when the listener’s goal is to understand, remember, and recall information.
- **Empathic listening** occurs when the listener wants to provide emotional support.

Speech Study Guide

- **Critical listening** occurs when an audience wants to understand and critically evaluate the worth of a message and requires more psychological processing than other forms of listening.
- **Listening apprehension** is the anxiety felt about listening, and may increase when the listener is worried about misinterpreting the message or when the listener is concerned about how the message may affect the listener psychologically.
- **Listening styles** are the favored and usually unconscious approach to listening. Each listener has a favored style, with only a few people being able to effectively switch between styles based on the situation.
- **Content-oriented listeners** focus on and evaluate the facts and evidence, while appreciating details and enjoying processing complex messages that may include technical information.
- **People-oriented listeners** focus on the feelings their conversational partners may have about what is being said.
- **Action-oriented listeners** focus on the ultimate point the speaker is trying to make. They tend to get frustrated when ideas are disorganized and when people ramble.
- **Time-oriented listeners** prefer brief and hurried conversations and often use nonverbal and verbal cues to signal that their partner needs to be more concise.
- **Passive listening** is the habitual and unconscious process of receiving messages. Listeners are on auto pilot and tend to listen this way when they are not interested in the topic.
- **Active listening** is the deliberate and conscious process of attending to, understanding, remembering, evaluating, and responding to messages. It requires practice.
- **Passivity syndrome** is the notion that listening is easy and the responsibility for good listening rests with the speaker. It is rooted in the view of public speaking being one way.
- **Automatic rejection** involves the rejection of a speaker who challenges the existing beliefs or values of a speaker.
- **Stereotyping** is making ill-founded generalizations about a specific group of people based on race, ethnicity, gender, religion, or age.
- **Attending** is the process of intentionally perceiving and focusing on a message.
- **Understanding** is accurately interpreting a message.
- A **question** is a statement designed to clarify information or get additional details.
- **Paraphrasing** is putting a message into a listener's own words.
- A **mnemonic device** associates a special word or short statement with new and longer information.
- **Constructive critique** is an evaluative response that identifies what was effective and what could be improved in a message.

7.10 Chapter Seven Practice Exam

1. Making an assumption about a group of people is called _____.
 - a. Stereotyping
 - b. Egocentrism
 - c. Ethnocentrism
 - d. Logical fallacy

2. What is diction?
 - a. Combining the ideas of multiple sentences into one effective sentence
 - b. An author's word choice
 - c. General terms used to describe things
 - d. Specific terms used to describe things

3. Saying *Nitto Ridge Grapplers* instead of tires would be an example of _____.
 - a. Abstract diction
 - b. Word economy
 - c. General diction
 - d. Specific diction

4. The _____ of a word refers to the literal definition of the word.
 - a. Abstract diction
 - b. Concrete diction
 - c. Connotation
 - d. Denotation

5. The _____ of a word refers to the feeling or emotional impact of the word.
 - a. Abstract diction
 - b. Concrete diction
 - c. Connotation
 - d. Denotation

Speech Study Guide

6. Which of the following is NOT a way to listen to the audience during a speech?
 - a. Read the body language of the audience
 - b. Make eye contact with the audience
 - c. Allow for audience questions
 - d. Give the audience a task to complete while listening

7. Which of the following should be avoided in a speech?
 - a. Academic language
 - b. Specific diction
 - c. Slang or jargon
 - d. Vivid language

8. _____ occurs when listening to music for enjoyment and to speakers because the audience likes their style.
 - a. Discriminative listening
 - b. Empathetic listening
 - c. Comprehensive listening
 - d. Appreciative listening

9. _____ occurs when an audience listens to infer what more a speaker might mean beyond the words they are saying.
 - a. Discriminative listening
 - b. Empathetic listening
 - c. Comprehensive listening
 - d. Appreciative listening

10. _____ occurs when the listener's goal is to understand, remember, and recall information.
 - a. Discriminative listening
 - b. Empathetic listening
 - c. Comprehensive listening
 - d. Appreciative listening

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Chapter Eight: Delivery and Apprehension

Objectives

1. Understand effective delivery, including using voice effectively when delivering a speech.
2. Discuss the importance of articulation and pronunciation in the delivery of a speech.
3. Explain how body language and appearance are also critical parts of effective delivery.
4. Understand the nature of public speaking apprehension and how to handle it as a speaker.

8.1 Characteristics of Effective Delivery

Most have experienced speeches that held the audience's attention and focus until the end. Likewise, most have experienced speeches that were boring and did not hold the focus of the audience. In all likelihood, the more effective speaker held their listener's attention through the delivery of the speech. **Delivery** is how a message is communicated nonverbally through a speaker's voice and body. **Nonverbal communication** includes all speech elements other than the actual words themselves. These elements are used in voice and body language. Keep in mind that while good delivery is important, it is no substitute for sound ideas. Poor ideas can be delivered well and great ideas can be delivered poorly. Having an effective delivery means remaining audience-centered, avoiding behaviors that distract from the message, and promoting the listeners' understanding. Below are some of the characteristics of voice and body language:

- Voice includes pitch, volume, rate, quality, articulation, pronunciation, and pauses.
- Body language includes appearance, gestures, facial expressions, eye contact, and posture and poise.

8.2 Conversational

Effective delivery is both conversational and animated. **Conversational** simply means that the audience perceives a speaker is talking with them, and not performing in front of them or reading to them. It is as if the speaker is talking directly to the listener, as if they are having a conversation. A key part of conversational speaking is **spontaneity**, which is the ability to sound natural, as though the speaker is really thinking about the ideas and getting them across to the audience. Another key part of the conversational style is for speakers to learn the ideas of a speech before giving it, rather than trying to memorize every word. As speakers read and create an outline, they will absorb those ideas and as they practice delivering the speech, they can focus on getting the message conveyed in a natural, conversational style.

8.3 Animated

Many individuals have experienced a professor reading a well-structured lecture while looking, mostly, at the lecture notes rather than the students. That professor seldom made eye contact with the audience and made very few gestures other than turning the page. While the material was well

Speech Study Guide

written, it was still dry and boring due to the lack of animation. An animated speech is lively and dynamic. The secret to delivering both an animated and conversational speech is sharing something people are passionate about. The passion will show through in the conversation and the gestures that are made as the speaker delivers the speech.

8.4 Vocal Characteristics

Regardless of the type of speech, but especially critical for virtual speeches, vocal characteristics play a huge role in the delivery of the speech. Simply put, **voice** is the sound that the speaker produces using vocal organs. It is how a voice sounds and depends on pitch, volume, rate, and quality.

The **pitch** of a speaker's voice is the highness or lowness of the sounds produced. Most people speak at a pitch that is appropriate for listeners. However, speaking at an appropriate pitch is particularly important if the audience includes people with hearing loss. They may find it difficult to hear a pitch that is too low or too high. In normal conversations, pitch fluctuates frequently and perhaps more during a speech.

Volume is how loudly or softly someone speaks. Speakers must speak loudly enough with or without a microphone to be heard easily by the audience members seated near the back of the room, but not so loudly to bother the audience seated at the front of the room. Speakers do not want to sound like they are shouting, however they want their words to be easily heard and understood.

Rate is the speed at which people talk. Speaking too slowly allows the listener time to let their minds wander after they've processed an idea. Speaking too quickly, especially when sharing complex ideas and thoughts, may not give listeners enough time to process the information completely. Because nervousness may cause speakers to speak at a different rate than they would normally, it is important to monitor speaking rate. This is where practicing a speech in front of someone else will be helpful.

Quality is the timbre that distinguishes a voice from others. A speaker's goal in public speaking is to vary pitch, volume, rate, and quality to achieve a conversational and animated style that is both intelligible and expressive.

Articulation is using the tongue, palate, teeth, jaw movement, and lips to shape vocalized sounds that combine to produce a word. Many people suffer from minor articulation problems and therefore, have problems with pronunciation of words. Often, sounds are added where none appear ("warsh" for wash), are left out where one occurs, transposing sounds ("git" for "get"), and distorting sounds ("truf" for truth).

Accent is the inflection, tone, and speech habits typical of native speakers of a language. When

Speech Study Guide

speakers misarticulate, or speak with a heavy accent during a conversation, listeners ask the speaker to repeat themselves to better understand. However, in a speech setting, audience members are unlikely to interrupt to ask for something to be repeated. This can be a major concern for second language speakers or speakers from various regions of a country. If a speaker's accent is very different from that of most of the audience, it is important to practice pronouncing key words so that a speaker is easily understood.

Vocal expression is achieved by changing pitch, volume, and rate, stressing certain words, and using pauses strategically. Speeding up the rate and raising the pitch can reinforce emotions, such as joy and enthusiasm. Slowing down the rate and lowering the pitch can communicate resolution, peacefulness, remorse, or sadness. A total lack of vocal expressiveness produces a monotone.

Monotone is a voice in which the pitch, volume, and rate remain constant, with no word, idea, or sentence differing significantly in sound from any other. Monotone speakers are extremely difficult to listen to and make it difficult for a listener to follow what they are saying.

8.5 Use of Body

An audience will see a speaker, as well as hear the speaker, therefore speakers use their body can contribute to how conversational and animated the audience perceives them to be. Moods are affected by what people wear and how they look. Body language elements include appearance, posture and poise, eye contact, facial expression, and gestures.

Appearance is the way people look to others. Studies have shown that neatly groomed and professional appearances send an important message about the speaker's commitment to the topic and occasion. There are three guidelines to consider when deciding how to dress for a speech. First, consider the audience and the occasion. Speakers should plan to dress a bit more formally than they would expect members of the audience to dress. Next, consider the topic and purpose. In general, the more serious the topic, the more formally a speaker should dress. For example, if someone is speaking on AIDS and trying to convince everyone they need to be tested, the speaker would want to look like someone with authority in this area. If the topic is on yoga and the speaker wants to convince the audience they will enjoy a yoga class, the speaker might want to dress more casually or in sportswear. Posture and poise will tell an audience that the speaker is self-assured, calm, and dignified. People communicate a sense of confidence that tells the audience that they are someone to listen to. **Posture** is defined as how someone holds their body. **Poise** is a graceful and controlled use of the body.

Eye contact during a speech involves looking at people in all parts of the room throughout the speech. If a speaker is looking around at the audience, they will perceive the speaker as having good eye contact with them. They will find the speaker to be sincere.

Maintaining eye contact is important for the following reasons:

- It helps the audience concentrate on the speech

Speech Study Guide

- It bolters ethos
- It helps the speaker gauge audience reaction to ideas

Facial expressions are the eye and mouth movements that convey emotions. When someone talk with friends, their facial expressions are naturally animated with smiles, frowns, raising an eyebrow, and so forth. Audiences expect a speaker's facial expressions to be similarly animated. This conveys nonverbal immediacy by communicating that the speaker is personable and likeable. Through facial expressions, people can "say" a lot.

Gestures are movements of a person's hands, arms, and fingers. Effective gestures emphasize important points and ideas, refer to presentational aids, or clarify structure. The audience generally will find a speech easier to listen to when the speaker uses effective gestures as compared to a speaker with his hands in his pockets. Gestures should appear natural and not a nervous type behavior.

Though it may seem odd, body language is conveyed even if an audience cannot see the speaker. As such, it is crucial for a speaker to adhere to the general guidelines of body language and voice expression.

8.6 Understanding the Nature of Public Speaking Apprehension

When many adults are asked about what they fear the most, public speaking is at the top of the list. Studies have shown almost all Americans have some level of public speaking apprehensions, and about fifteen percent experience high levels of apprehension. One author writes that some public speaking apprehension makes one a better public speaker than having none at all. That fear can be labeled as an adrenaline boost that will help speakers perform at their best. While some tension is constructive, the goal is not to eliminate the nervousness, but to learn how to manage it and use it for good.

8.7 Factors that Contribute to Communication Apprehension

Understanding the underlying causes of communication apprehension is the essential first step in learning to manage it effectively. The first cause to mention is simply that the speaker feels **poor preparation**, or ill-prepared. **Trait anxiety** is when someone is apprehensive whenever they are called upon to speak. **State anxiety** is mentioned as a particular set of circumstances that trigger communication apprehension. People may see a particular audience or speech setting as threatening. **Self-expectations** can be large stumbling blocks for many. Speakers can expect too much of themselves with unrealistic expectations, hoping for perfection, while others may expect too little. Perhaps they had a disappointing speaking experience early in their lives and have avoided speaking since then. Sometimes, speakers fear evaluation by others. They may perceive that listeners will judge them critically and be quick to note flaws. Fearing that listeners perceive apprehension is often another concern for speakers. The speaker just knows that the audience can

Speech Study Guide

sense his or her anxiety. Going right along with that is the fear of failure. No one wants to fail and if someone is already apprehensive about speaking, that fear can go into “overdrive.” When a speaker’s anxiety level is elevated and they are apprehensive, they may experience a wide range of physiological reactions. Overreacting to these physical symptoms can aggravate anxiety level. The following is only a partial list of some physiological reactions to anxiety:

- Parched mouth
- “Frog in the throat”
- Shortness of breath
- Butterflies in the stomach
- Trembling hands or legs
- Hot flashes
- Flushed cheeks
- Red blotches on neck or face
- Shaking voice
- Trembling hands
- Sudden urge to visit the restroom
- Loss of focus on speech
- Mind going blank

8.8 Managing Public Speaking Apprehension

Because public speaking apprehension has multiple causes, describing a few general methods that will help manage anxiety and boost confidence can be helpful. If a speaker is committed to the topic, that will increase his or her confidence in speaking.

Communication orientation motivation (COM) methods are designed to reduce anxiety by adopting a communication rather than a performance orientation. A performance orientation is demanding a special delivery technique that will impress the audience. A communication orientation is an opportunity to engage in a conversation with a number of people about an important topic.

Visualization is a general method for reducing apprehension that involves picturing oneself giving a masterful speech. Visualization has been used extensively to improve athletic performances. The players that visualize making a foul shot and practice continually making those shots were able to improve greatly. The same idea is used for public speaking.

Relaxation exercises include breathing techniques and progressive muscle relaxation exercises. For these exercises to be effective, the speaker must learn how to do them and practice them regularly so they eventually become habitual.

Systematic desensitization is a method that reduces apprehension by gradually visualizing oneself in and then performing increasingly more frightening events while remaining in a relaxed state. Essentially, once a speaker is in a relaxed state he can then visualize himself successfully completing each stage of the preparation for the speech. For example, the library researching, the speech planning, the writing, and successfully practicing the speech, visualizing each successfully completed while remaining calm and relaxed.

Speech Study Guide

Cognitive restructuring is a process designed to help a speaker change intrapersonal communication about public speaking. The goal is to have anxiety-reducing positive self-talk.

Suggestions to benefit the speaker:

- Be well prepared; be honest with oneself in knowing enough preparation has occurred.
- Develop a positive attitude.
- Practice the speech.
- Anticipate the speech situation.
- Practice active listening.
- Exercise for relaxation.
- Remember some apprehension can be positive.
- Maintain a sense of perspective. Even the most-well prepared person can have things happen. The microphone may fail, the person introducing mispronounces the speaker's name, or note cards drop during the speech. Keep a sense of perspective.

8.9 Key Terms

- **Delivery** is how a message is communicated through the use of voice and body.
- **Nonverbal communication** is all speech elements other than the words themselves.
- **Conversational** is a type of delivery that seems spontaneous, as though one is talking with an audience.
- **Spontaneity** is sounding natural no matter how many times one has practiced.
- **Animated** is a type of delivery that is lively and dynamic.
- **Voice** is the sound someone produces using vocal organs.
- **Pitch** is the highness or lowness of the sounds produced in the larynx.
- **Volume** is how loudly or softly one speaks.
- **Rate** is the speed at which one talks.
- **Quality** is the tone, timbre, or sound of a voice.
- **Articulation** is using the tongue, palate, teeth, jaw movement, and lips to shape vocalized sounds that combine to produce a word.
- **Pronunciation** is the form and accent of various syllables of a word.
- **Accent** is the inflection, tone, and speech habits typical of native speakers of a language.
- **Vocal expression** is the variety created in a voice through changing pitch, volume, and rate, as well as stressing certain words and using pauses.
- **Appearance** is the way people look to others.
- **Posture** is the position or bearing of the body.
- **Poise** is the graceful and controlled use of the body.

Speech Study Guide

- **Eye contact** is looking at the people to whom one is speaking.
- **Audience contact** is creating a sense of looking listeners in the eye when speaking to a large audience.
- **Facial expressions** are eye and mouth movements that convey emotions.
- **Public speaking apprehension** is the level of fear one experiences when anticipating or actually speaking to an audience.
- **Communication orientation motivation methods** are designed to reduce anxiety by helping the speaker adopt a communication, rather than a performance orientation, toward the speech.
- **Performance orientation** is viewing public speaking as a situation demanding special delivery techniques to impress an audience.
- **Communication orientation** is viewing a speech as just an opportunity to talk with a number of people about an important topic.
- **Visualization** is a method that reduces apprehension by helping speakers develop a mental picture of themselves giving a masterful speech.
- **Relaxation exercises** are breathing techniques and progressive muscle relaxation exercises that help reduce anxiety.
- **Systematic desensitization** is a method that reduces apprehension by gradually having people visualize and perform increasingly more frightening events while remaining in a relaxed state.
- **Cognitive restructuring** is a process designed to help the speaker systematically change intrapersonal communication about public speaking.

8.10 Chapter Eight Practice Exam

1. When people communicate with body language and voice it is called _____.
 - a. Poise
 - b. Gestures
 - c. Articulation
 - d. Nonverbal communication

2. Posture, poise, and facial expressions are all part of _____.
 - a. Gestures
 - b. Articulation
 - c. Voice
 - d. Body language

3. Pitch, volume, rate, and pronunciation are all part of _____.
 - a. Gestures
 - b. Articulation
 - c. Voice
 - d. Body language

4. What is rate?
 - a. The speed at which one talks
 - b. How loudly or softly one speaks
 - c. The highest or lowest sounds one produces
 - d. The body movements needed to produce a word

5. What is pitch?
 - a. The speed at which one talks
 - b. How loudly or softly one speaks
 - c. The highest or lowest sounds one produces
 - d. The body movements needed to produce a word

Speech Study Guide

6. What is volume?
 - a. The speed at which one talks
 - b. How loudly or softly one speaks
 - c. The highest or lowest sounds one produces
 - d. The body movements needed to produce a word

7. Which of the following is NOT a factor associated with public speaking apprehension?
 - a. Poor preparation
 - b. Fear of failure
 - c. Relaxing before a speech
 - d. Having unrealistic expectations

8. Which method of managing public speaking apprehension involves picturing yourself giving a good speech?
 - a. Motivational methods
 - b. Visualization
 - c. Relaxation exercises
 - d. Cognitive restructuring

9. Which method of managing public speaking apprehension involved decreasing negative self-talk about public speaking and shifting to positive self-talk?
 - a. Motivational methods
 - b. Visualization
 - c. Relaxation exercises
 - d. Cognitive restructuring

10. Neatly groomed hair, professional clothing, and appropriate jewelry can help add to the _____ of a speaker during a speech.
 - a. Posture
 - b. Poise
 - c. Body language
 - d. Appearance

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Multiple Choice Practice Exam

1. What is public speaking?
 - a. Talking in any form
 - b. A prerecorded presentation
 - c. A sustained, formal presentation from a speaker to an audience
 - d. A speech that requires the use of visual aids and is given to a group of 50 or more people

2. Honesty, integrity, fairness, respect, and responsibility are _____ considerations.
 - a. Ethical
 - b. Theoretical
 - c. Social
 - d. Moral

3. Researching the culture of others and avoiding anything that would be offensive is considered a(n) _____ consideration.
 - a. Ethical
 - b. Theoretical
 - c. Social
 - d. Moral

4. Examining classical versus contemporary views on public speaking methods is considered a(n) _____ consideration.
 - a. Ethical
 - b. Theoretical
 - c. Social
 - d. Moral

5. A speech that is based on facts and irrefutable evidence is considered to be _____.
 - a. Objective
 - b. Subjective
 - c. Classical
 - d. Contemporary

Speech Study Guide

6. A speech that is more audience focused is considered to be _____.
 - a. Objective
 - b. Subjective
 - c. Classical
 - d. Contemporary

7. A speech that is more speaker focused is considered to be _____.
 - a. Objective
 - b. Subjective
 - c. Classical
 - d. Contemporary

8. When communication occurs between two people who have a relationship with each other it is called _____.
 - a. Interpersonal communication
 - b. Intrapersonal communication
 - c. Small group communication
 - d. Mass communication

9. What is mass communication?
 - a. Transmitting information to a group of 3-10 people
 - b. Transmitting information to large groups within a population
 - c. Communication within the person, as in self-talk
 - d. Communication between two people with an established relationship

10. What is interpersonal communication?
 - a. Transmitting information to a group of 3-10 people
 - b. Transmitting information to large groups within a population
 - c. Communication within the person, as in self-talk
 - d. Communication between two people with an established relationship

11. A speech that has been carefully prepared and has a written transcript is a(n) _____ speech.
 - a. Impromptu
 - b. Manuscript
 - c. Extemporaneous
 - d. Prepared

Speech Study Guide

12. Which prewriting strategy makes use of letters of numbers to create a more formal overview of a speech, including main points and sub points?
- Brainstorm
 - Cluster map
 - Outline
 - Free write
13. Phrases or words that help move from one idea to the next are called _____.
- Double negatives
 - Redundant phrases
 - Trite expressions
 - Transitions
14. A phrase that helps credit a source or attribute information is called a _____.
- Verbal footnote
 - Road sign
 - Paragraph marker
 - Symbol point
15. If a speech flows from one idea to the next in a smooth, logical manner it is said to be _____.
- Perfect
 - Average
 - Meaningful
 - Cohesive
16. What needs to be done to adapt a speech for a specific group of people?
- Demographic explorer
 - Credibility check
 - Interest survey
 - Audience analysis
17. Which of the following is NOT part of an audience analysis?
- Considering what the audience already knows about the topic
 - Understanding the reason as to why the audience is there
 - Thinking about the demographics of the audience
 - Conducting additional research to increase the credibility of the speech

Speech Study Guide

18. Being interested in things that only effect your culture or community is called _____.
- a. Stereotyping
 - b. Egocentrism
 - c. Ethnocentrism
 - d. Logical fallacy
19. The audience's perception of whether or not the speaker is knowledgeable is referred to as _____.
- a. Common ground
 - b. Timeliness
 - c. Credibility
 - d. Proximity
20. Using information that is pertinent to the current time is referred to as considering the _____.
- a. Common ground
 - b. Timeliness
 - c. Credibility
 - d. Proximity
21. Finding a shared experience or background between the speaker and audience is called _____.
- a. Common ground
 - b. Timeliness
 - c. Credibility
 - d. Proximity
22. Using information that is geographically relevant to an audience is referred to as considering the _____.
- a. Common ground
 - b. Timeliness
 - c. Credibility
 - d. Proximity

Speech Study Guide

23. A voice that remains at a constant pitch, rate, and volume is considered to be _____.
- Accented
 - Expressive
 - Monotone
 - Articulate
24. Which of the following are part of the speech macrostructure?
- Introduction, body, and conclusion
 - Transitions, evidence, and attribution
 - Specific language and use of style within sentences
 - Organizational pattern, flow, and support
25. What comes first in a speech introduction?
- The claim
 - The hook
 - Introducing yourself
 - Previewing main points
26. Using a quote, rhetorical question, or anecdote are all related to the _____.
- Claim
 - Hook
 - Self-introduction
 - Main point preview
27. Words or phrases that summarize one point and help move to another point are called _____.
- Transitions
 - Section transitions
 - Signposts
 - Clarifying points
28. A call for action, a rhetorical question, or a point to the future are all methods used in the _____.
- Introduction
 - Body
 - Conclusion
 - Transition

Speech Study Guide

29. You interview a physician about clinical trials for a new drug. What type of source is this?
- Primary source
 - Secondary source
 - Accredited source
 - Credentialed source
30. You used information from an article in a health journal about a new drug. What type of source is this?
- Primary source
 - Secondary source
 - Accredited source
 - Credentialed source
31. Canvassing people to get information on their ideas and opinions is called _____.
- Ethnography
 - Surveying
 - Interviewing
 - Analysis
32. Conducting field observations of a group of people to learn about their practices is called _____.
- Ethnography
 - Surveying
 - Interviewing
 - Analysis
33. Asking questions to learn more about a person's beliefs and opinions is called _____.
- Ethnography
 - Surveying
 - Interviewing
 - Analysis
34. A question with a one-word answer is called a(n) _____.
- Leading question
 - Neutral question
 - Open-ended question
 - Close-ended question

Speech Study Guide

35. A question that provides an opportunity for someone to elaborate is called a(n) _____.
- a. Leading question
 - b. Neutral question
 - c. Open-ended question
 - d. Close-ended question
36. When evaluating sources, which criteria is used to ensure the information is up to date?
- a. Authority
 - b. Objectivity
 - c. Currency
 - d. Relevance
37. When evaluating sources, which criteria is used to ensure the information is without bias?
- a. Authority
 - b. Objectivity
 - c. Currency
 - d. Relevance
38. When evaluating sources, which criteria is used to ensure the information comes from a credentialed source?
- a. Authority
 - b. Objectivity
 - c. Currency
 - d. Relevance
39. When evaluating sources, which criteria is used to ensure the information relates to the topic?
- a. Authority
 - b. Objectivity
 - c. Currency
 - d. Relevance
40. What is plagiarism?
- a. Attributing information used in a speech
 - b. Using information from an unreliable source
 - c. A compilation of all the sources used in a speech with information on how and why the source was used

Speech Study Guide

- d. Passing off information or ideas from another as your own
41. What are oral footnotes?
- a. Attributing information used in a speech
 - b. Using information from an unreliable source
 - c. A compilation of all the sources used in a speech with information on how and why the source was used
 - d. Passing off information or ideas from another as your own
42. What is an annotated bibliography?
- a. Attributing information used in a speech
 - b. Using information from an unreliable source
 - c. A compilation of all the sources used in a speech with information on how and why the source was used
 - d. Passing off information or ideas from another as your own
43. How a speaker holds her body during a speech contributes to her _____.
- a. Posture
 - b. Poise
 - c. Body language
 - d. Appearance
44. A graceful and controlled use of the body during a speech contributes to the _____ of a speaker during a speech
- a. Posture
 - b. Poise
 - c. Body language
 - d. Appearance
45. Looking at people in all parts of the room is a good way to improve _____.
- a. Facial expressions
 - b. Gestures
 - c. Eye contact
 - d. Poise

Speech Study Guide

46. _____ can help the speaker seem more natural and can help emphasize points during a speech.
- a. Facial expressions
 - b. Gestures
 - c. Eye Contact
 - d. Poise
47. The speed at which one speaks is called the _____.
- a. Pitch
 - b. Volume
 - c. Rate
 - d. Expression
48. The highest and lowest sounds that one produces is called the _____.
- a. Pitch
 - b. Volume
 - c. Rate
 - d. Expression
49. What is the connotation of a word?
- a. The literal definition of a word
 - b. The emotional impact of a word
 - c. Using specific details to describe something
 - d. Using general details to describe something
50. Which of the following is NOT helpful in overcoming public speaking apprehension?
- a. Being well prepared
 - b. Visualizing yourself giving good speech
 - c. Increasing positive self-talk
 - d. Expecting a lot out of yourself and your speaking

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Speaking Practice Exam

Speech Assignment:

Compose a 3-5 minute persuasive speech about whether confederate monuments should be removed from public places. Be sure to take one, clear stance and use evidence to support your claim. You have ten minutes to prepare your speech for delivery.

Rubric:

- Structure and Organization = 25%
- Delivery = 25%
- Content/Supporting Material = 20%
- Effect/Persuasive = 20%
- Language/Style = 10%

The answers can be found on the Answer Keys page.

Speech Study Guide

Answer Keys

Chapter 1

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. C | 3. D | 5. A | 7. D | 9. B |
| 2. A | 4. A | 6. C | 8. D | 10. C |

Chapter 2

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. C | 3. B | 5. C | 7. B | 9. D |
| 2. D | 4. A | 6. A | 8. B | 10. C |

Chapter 3

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. E | 3. A | 5. A | 7. B | 9. A |
| 2. A | 4. B | 6. B | 8. D | 10. C |

Chapter 4

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. C | 3. C | 5. A | 7. A | 9. C |
| 2. A | 4. B | 6. C | 8. B | 10. A |

Chapter 5

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. A | 3. D | 5. A | 7. B | 9. D |
| 2. C | 4. D | 6. C | 8. C | 10. A |

Chapter 6

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. B | 3. A | 5. C | 7. C | 9. D |
| 2. C | 4. C | 6. D | 8. C | 10. C |

Chapter 7

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. A | 3. D | 5. C | 7. C | 9. A |
| 2. B | 4. D | 6. D | 8. D | 10. C |

Chapter 8

- | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|-------|
| 1. D | 3. C | 5. C | 7. C | 9. D |
| 2. D | 4. A | 6. B | 8. B | 10. D |

Speech Study Guide

Multiple Choice Practice Exam

1. C	11. B	21. A	31. B	41. A
2. A	12. C	22. D	32. A	42. C
3. C	13. D	23. C	33. C	43. A
4. B	14. A	24. A	34. D	44. B
5. A	15. D	25. C	35. C	45. C
6. D	16. D	26. B	36. C	46. B
7. C	17. D	27. A	37. B	47. C
8. A	18. B	28. C	38. A	48. A
9. B	19. C	29. A	39. D	49. B
10. D	20. B	30. B	40. D	50. D

Speaking Practice Exam

Good afternoon, I'm Derrick Waterford, a Sociology major at the University of Kentucky. My primary focus and interest is in race relations, and the current struggles concerning confederate monuments is a passion of mine. Nightly news reports are filled with stories about racial tension. From the black lives matter movement to protests in the streets over racially motivated acts of aggression, the divide in the United States over continuing racial conflict seems to be growing. Fueling this growing divide is the movement to remove confederate monuments from public places. While many agree that the antiquated monuments are a painful reminder for African American communities, there are still some who argue that those monuments honor beloved historical figures from an era of southern greatness. Despite the ongoing debate, it is essential that monuments honoring white supremacy be removed from public locations as they celebrate a horrific time in history and promote racial tension.

The Civil War and Jim Crow law eras were periods of history that should not be celebrated. During the Civil War the South fought to maintain slavery. Upon the abolishment of slavery, states instead enacted Jim Crow laws, which legally enforced segregation. It was during this time that lynching was an acceptable and commonplace occurrence as African Americans were routinely hanged, burned alive, or violently dismembered. People sought to continue traditions of racial inequity and enacted a campaign that honored the Confederate past, including the practice of slavery. It was during this time that Confederate statues and monuments were built in public places, many of which are still there today. This time of acceptable horrific violence towards African Americans is not one that should be celebrated, let alone revered by statues of Confederate generals or founders of the Ku Klux Klan in public parks and outside prominent government buildings.

While some may argue that the statues are simply honoring political and military leaders of the time without any underlying implications of the promotion of racial inequality, it is impossible to have memorials immortalizing people who sought to foster racial violence without also acknowledging what they stood for. Additionally, the timing in which these statues were put in place are times in which white people have wanted to celebrate racial division and exert that one race is better than another.

Regardless of the intent and motivation behind these statues, the bottom line is that they do continue to foster racial tension. Many of the cities where these monuments are displayed are predominately African American. Why would an African American on his way to the courthouse for a marriage license want to pass by a statue of the KKK founder? It just serves as a reminder of the

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division of races in the country and an incredibly painful past.

Another issue is that in the current climate of our country, racial inequities are still a concern. These statues to the Confederate era only continue to remind people of the division between races. These statues serve as a painful reminder to African Americans of a violent time in history towards their race, in addition to the violence that still occurs in racially motivated acts of aggression in our current time.

Statues honoring white supremacy need to be removed from public land. They celebrate a horrific and violent time in the history of the United States where racial aggression was encouraged. Steps need to be taken to remove them from public areas, and that starts with you, the public. Let your political representatives know your stance, let them know you will not tolerate monuments that encourage racial division. Let them know that if these monuments remain they will continue to foster racial tension within the country, which is unacceptable to the American public.

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Works Consulted

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