

INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC SPEAKING

Summarized from:
The Art of Public Speaking
Stephen E. Lucas

Compiled by:
Dr. Kenneth Meadors

Introduction to Public Speaking

SPH201

Syllabus

- 1) Speaking in public.
- 2) Ethics and public speaking.
- 3) Listening.
- 4) Selecting a topic and a purpose.
- 5) Analyzing the audience.
- 6) Gathering Materials.
- 7) Supporting your ideas.
- 8) Review

Materials taken from:

The Art of Public Speaking (6th ed), Stephen E. Lucas, 1998.

Public Speaking (3rd ed). Michael and Suzanne Osborn. Houghton Mifflin Company. Boston:
1994.

LESSON ONE

Speaking in Public

The Power of Public Speaking

- 1) Pericles (Greek leader): “One who forms a judgment on any point but cannot explain it clearly ‘might as well never have thought at all on the subject.’”
- 2) Lee Iacocca: “You can have brilliant ideas, but if you can’t get them across, your brains won’t get you anywhere.”
- 3) Midge Costanza: “To get to the top, you must have the ability to stand on your feet, either on a one-to-one basis or before a group, and make a presentation that is convincing and believable.”
- 4) Communication skills—including public speaking—are among the most prized assets job recruiters look for when hiring college graduates.
- 5) Public speaking offers at least three possibilities for making a difference:
 - a) By persuading people to do something you feel is right.
 - b) By informing people about things they don’t know.
 - c) By entertaining people and making them feel happy and good about themselves.

Similarities between Public Speaking and Conversation

- 1) Organizing your thoughts logically.
- 2) Tailoring your message to your audience.
- 3) Telling a story for maximum impact.
 - a) Build up to climax or punch line.
- 2) Adapting to listener feedback.
 - a) Whenever you talk with someone, you are aware of that person’s verbal, facial, and physical reactions.

Differences between Public Speaking and Conversation

- 1) Public speaking is more highly structured.
- 2) Public speaking requires more formal language.
- 3) Public speaking requires a different method of delivery.
 - a) When conversing casually, most people talk quietly.
 - b) Effective public speakers adjust their voices to be heard clearly throughout the audience.
 - i) They assume a more erect posture.
 - ii) They avoid distracting mannerisms and verbal habits.

Developing Confidence

- 1) List of greatest fears:

Greatest Fear

Percent Naming

A party with strangers	74
Giving a speech	70
Asked personal questions in public	65
Meeting a date's parents	59
First day on a new job	59
Victim of a practical joke	56
Talking with someone in authority	53
Job interview	46
Formal dinner party	44
Blind date	42

- 2) Nervousness is normal.
 - a) Most people tend to be anxious before doing something important in public.
 - i) Surveys show that 76 percent of experienced speakers have stage fright before taking the floor.
 - ii) Nervousness is a healthy sign that they are getting “psyched up” for a good effort.
 - b) It is perfectly normal—even desirable—to be nervous at the start of a speech.
 - i) Body produces extra adrenaline, which is what makes your heart race, your hands shake, your knees knock, and your skin perspire.
 - ii) Question is: “How can you control your nervousness and make it work for you rather than against you?”
- 3) Dealing with nervousness.
 - a) Acquire speaking experience.
 - i) The biggest part of stage fright is fear of the unknown.
 - ii) The more you learn about public speaking and the more speeches you give, the less threatening speechmaking will become.
 - b) Prepare, prepare, prepare.
 - i) Key to gaining confidence is to pick speech topics you truly care about.
 - ii) Prepare your speeches so thoroughly that you cannot help but be successful.
 - iii) How much time devoted to preparing your speeches?
 - (1) For each minute of speaking—one to two hours preparation, depending on amount of research required.
 - c) Think positively.
 - i) If you think you can do it, you usually can.
 - ii) If you predict disaster and doom, that is almost always what you will get.
 - iii) Changing negative thoughts into positive ones:

Negative Thought

I wish I didn't have to give this speech.

I'm not a great public speaker.

I'm always nervous when I give a speech.

No one will be interested in what I have to say.

Positive Thought

This speech is a chance for me to share my ideas and gain experience as a speaker.

No one's perfect, but I'm getting better with each speech I give.

Everyone's nervous. If other people can handle it, I can too.

I have a good topic and I'm fully prepared. Of course they'll be interested.

- d) Use the power of visualization.

- i) Creating a vivid mental blueprint in which you see yourself succeeding in your speech.
- ii) See yourself at the lectern, posed and self-assured, making eye contact with your audience and delivering your introduction in a firm, clear voice.
- iii) Don't allow negative images to eclipse the positive one.
- iv) Acknowledge your nervousness, but picture yourself overcoming it to give a vibrant, articulate presentation.
- v) Combined with the other methods of combating stage fright, it is a proven way to help control your nerves and to craft a successful presentation.
- e) Know that most nervousness is not visible.
 - i) It is hard to speak with poise and assurance if you think you look tense and insecure.
 - ii) Only a fraction of your inner turmoil is visible on the outside.
 - iii) If you do your best to act cool and confident, your listeners probably won't really how tense you are, even though your palms are sweating and your heart is pounding.
- f) Don't expect perfection.
 - i) Every speaker says or does something that does not come across exactly as he or she had planned.
 - (1) Audience may not be aware; they don't what you were going to say anyhow.
 - (2) If you momentarily lose your place, reverse the order of a couple statements, or forget to pause at a certain spot, no one need be the wiser—just proceed as if nothing happened.
 - ii) Mistake of viewing speechmaking as a kind of performance rather than as an act of communication.
 - iii) Make sure you prepare thoroughly and do all you can to get your message across to your listeners.
- g) Tips for dealing with nervousness.
 - i) Be at your best physically and mentally.
 - ii) As you are waiting to speak, quietly tighten and relax your leg muscles, or squeeze your hands together and then release them.
 - iii) Take a couple slow, deep breaths before you start to speak. Deep breathing breaks the cycle of tension and helps calm your nerves.
 - iv) Work especially hard on your introduction.
 - v) Make eye contact with members of your audience.
 - (1) Individual people, not a blur of faces.
 - (2) They are your friends.
 - vi) Concentrate on communicating with your audience rather than on worrying about your stage fright.
 - vii) Use visual aids.
 - (1) They create interest, draw attention away from you, and make you feel less self-conscious.

The Speech Communication Process

- 1) Speaker.
 - a) Speech communication begins with a speaker.

- b) Your success as a speaker depends on you—on your personal credibility, your knowledge of the subject, your preparation of the speech, your manner of speaking, your sensitivity to the audience and the occasion.
 - c) Successful speaking requires enthusiasm.
 - i) Can't expect people to be interested in what you say unless you are interested yourself.
 - ii) If you are truly excited about your subject, your audience is almost sure to get excited along with you.
- 2) Idea
- a) An idea is a fabric of thoughts, feelings, information, and recommendations.
 - b) Idea should be important to you—something you want to share with others.
 - c) Listeners must find the idea useful and valuable.
 - d) You should be qualified to present the idea through your previous knowledge or experience.
 - e) You must have done research that makes you an informed, authoritative, responsible speaker.
- 3) Message.
- a) The message is whatever a speaker communicates to someone else.
 - i) Your goal in public speaking is to have your intended message be the message that is actually communicated.
 - ii) Depends on what you say (the verbal message) and on how you say it (the nonverbal message).
 - iii) You send a message with your tone of voice, appearance, gestures, facial expression, and eye contact.
 - b) The message is the carefully designed structure of thoughts, presented through the speaker's words, visual aids, vocal patterns, and body language, that conveys the idea of the speech to a specific audience.
- 4) Medium
- a) Public speaking is often a direct, face-to-face encounter between a speaker and an audience—usually the medium is the air between them.
 - b) If speech is outside, or in a large auditorium, a microphone and amplifier may be part of the medium.
 - i) If problem arises, must make adjustment.
 - ii) Speak more distinctly and slowly.
 - c) Radio and Television.
 - i) Radio emphasizes the attractiveness, clarity, and expressiveness of the speaker's voice.
 - ii) Television brings a speaker into a close relationship with unseen viewers, so personality and physical appearance become important determinants.
- 5) Listener.
- a) The listener is the person who receives the communicated message.
 - b) Everything a speaker says is filtered through a listener's frame of reference—the total of his or her knowledge, experience, goals, values, and attitudes.
 - c) Since the speaker and listener's frame of reference is different, the message will never be exactly the same to a listener as to a speaker.

- d) Because people have different frames of reference, a public speaker must take great care to adapt the message to the particular audience being addressed.
 - i) To be an effective speaker, you must be audience-centered.
 - ii) You must do everything in your speech with your audience in mind.
 - iii) You must understand their point of view as you prepare the speech; you must work to get them involved.
 - iv) You will lose your audience if you do not relate to their experience, interests, knowledge, and values.
- 6) Response.
- a) Response to a speech can be both immediate and delayed.
 - i) The immediate response, called feedback, can take the form of puzzled looks, smiles or frowns, nods of agreement, and looks of intense interest or boredom.
 - ii) Feedback is the message(s), usually nonverbal, sent from a listener to a speaker.
 - b) Effective speakers are sensitive to feedback from their listeners and adjust their messages accordingly.
 - c) There is always plenty of feedback
 - i) Leaning forward in seats as if paying close attention.
 - ii) Applaud in approval.
 - iii) Laugh at your jokes.
 - iv) Quizzical looks on faces.
 - v) Shuffle feet and gaze at the clock.
 - d) Feedback is affected by one's frame of reference.
- 7) Interference.
- a) Interference is anything that impedes the communication of a message.
 - b) Two kinds of interference in public speaking:
 - i) External.
 - (1) Traffic outside the building, the clatter of a radiator, students conversing in the hall, a room that is stifling hot or freezing cold.
 - (2) Any of these can distract your listeners from hearing you.
 - ii) Internal—comes from within your audience rather than from outside.
 - (1) A listener may have an annoying mosquito bite.
 - (2) Another listener is thinking about what they need to do when they leave.
 - (3) As a speaker, you must try to hold your listeners' attention despite these various kinds of interference.
- 8) Situation.
- a) The situation is the time and place in which speech communication occurs.
 - b) Certain occasions require certain kinds of speech.
 - i) Funerals, church services, graduation ceremonies.
 - ii) Whether presented indoors or out; in a small setting or large one.

Public Speaking in a Multicultural World

- 1) Cultural diversity.
 - a) Words change from language to language, as do ways of thinking and of seeing the world.

- b) The meanings attached to gestures, facial expressions, and other non-verbal signals vary from culture to culture.
 - i) In the U.S., affirmation by nodding head up and down; say no by shaking head back and forth.
 - ii) In Thailand, the opposite.
 - iii) In the U.S., the all is well sign is the classic “OK” sign; in Brazil, this means what extending the middle finger does in the U.S.
 - c) Public speakers can ill afford to overlook their listeners’ cultural values and customs.
- 2) Avoiding ethnocentrism.
- a) Ethnocentrism is the belief that one’s own group or culture is superior to all other groups or cultures.
 - b) Tend to see our values, beliefs, and customs as being natural while believing that others are unnatural.
 - c) If speakers are to be successful, they must show respect for the cultures of the people they address.
 - d) When preparing a speech, be aware of the growing diversity of life in the modern world and be alert to how cultural factors might affect the way listeners respond to your speeches.
 - e) If there is a puzzled look on listeners’ faces, restate your point to make sure it is understood.
 - i) “Am I making myself clear?”
 - ii) “Did I explain this point fully enough?”

LESSON TWO

Ethics and Public Speaking

The Importance of Ethics

- 1) Ethics is the branch of philosophy that deals with issues of right and wrong in human affairs.
 - a) Questions of ethics arise whenever we ask whether a course of action is moral or immoral, fair or unfair, just or unjust, honest or dishonest.
 - b) The goal of public speaking is to gain a desired response from listeners, but not at any cost.
 - c) Speechmaking is a form of power and carries with it heavy ethical responsibilities.
- 2) As a public speaker, you will face ethical issues at every stage of the speechmaking process—from the initial decision to speak through the final presentation of the message.
- 3) Ethical decisions are sound ethical decisions involving weighing a potential course of action against a set of ethical standards or guidelines.
- 4) An ethical speech is based on ***respect for the audience, responsible knowledge of the topic, and concern for the consequences*** (*Public Speaking*, Michael Osborn and Suzann Osborn)
 - a) Respect for the audience.
 - i) People have different backgrounds, experiences, and interests; therefore, their opinions often vary widely.
 - (1) Ethical speakers sensitive to such differences.
 - (2) Two scenarios:
 - (a) “I have the truth; those of you who disagree are either stupid or ignorant.”
 - (b) “You are intelligent people. I have some information and ideas to share with you. I trust your judgment upon them.”
 - (3) The more ethical speaker should be the more effective.
 - ii) Respect for the audience means the speaker does not conceal his motives or reasoning.
 - iii) Ethical speakers acknowledge all viable options.
 - b) Responsible knowledge.
 - i) Requires that the speaker invest the time and effort necessary to speak with authority.
 - ii) Assertions and conclusions are based on a comprehensive view of all sides of the issue.
 - iii) Should assess the accuracy and objectivity of sources of information and be aware of the possibilities of bias.
 - (1) A biased source of information has such strong self-interest in an issue that it cannot be expected to give a report or opinion that is entirely objective.
 - iv) Speaker must be aware of his own personal prejudices as well.
 - (1) Have a special obligation to reveal their biases so that these can be taken into consideration by listeners.
 - (2) Candor often creates respect for the speaker’s integrity.
 - v) Must draw a distinction between facts, opinions, and inferences.
 - (1) Unethical to present an opinion or assertion as a fact.

- (2) An ethical speaker will report the sources of factual data, present the qualifications of those who offer opinions, and demonstrate the legitimacy of evidence.
- vi) A speech built on responsible knowledge will represent the original work of the speaker and acknowledge all sources of information.
 - (1) Not doing so is called plagiarism.
 - (2) Damages one's credibility once it is discovered.
 - (a) In 1988, Senator Joe Biden was accused of "lifting the words of others" and using them in speeches as his own.
 - (b) He had been disciplined for plagiarism while in college.
- c) Concern for consequences.
 - i) Words can influence the reputations and fate of others.
 - ii) The greater the possible consequences, the more careful speakers must be to assess the potential effects of their language, to support what they say, and to season their conclusions with due regard for the humanity of others.

Guidelines for Ethical Speaking

- 1) Make sure your goals are ethically sound.
- 2) Be fully prepared for each speech.
 - a) Respect the audience's time; give them something worthwhile.
 - b) As a speaker you have an ethical responsibility to consider the impact and to make sure you prepare fully so as to not communicate erroneous information.
- 3) Be honest in what you say.
 - a) Unspoken assumption: "Words can be trusted and people will be truthful."
 - i) Necessary, or no communication.
 - ii) Once the bond of trust between a speaker and listener is broken, it can never be fully restored.
 - b) May be impossible to always tell the whole truth and nothing but the truth.
 - i) May not know the whole truth.
 - ii) May be inadvisable, since it could be tactless or imprudent.
 - c) Subtle dishonesty.
 - i) Juggling statistics.
 - ii) Quoting out of context.
 - iii) Misrepresenting the sources of facts and figures.
 - iv) Painting tentative findings as firm conclusions.
 - v) Portraying a few details as the whole story.
 - vi) Citing unusual cases as typical examples.
 - vii) Substituting innuendo and half-truths for evidence and proof.
 - d) Ethically responsible speakers do not present other people's words as their own—do not plagiarize their speeches.
- 4) Avoid name-calling and other forms of abusive language.
 - a) Words can leave psychological scars.
 - b) Our identities, who and what we are, how others see us, are greatly affected by the names we care called and the words with which we are labeled.
 - c) Name-calling and personal dignity.

- i) Name-calling is the use of language to defame, demean, or degrade individuals or groups.
 - (1) Avoid epithets as kike, nigger, wop, jap, chink, and spic.
 - (2) These words dehumanize groups and imply they are inferior and do not deserve to be treated with the same dignity and respect as other members of society.
- ii) Words that disparage, patronize, or ridicule (little woman, chick, dumb blonde).
- iii) Other word imply second-class status (“the other sex,” “the weaker sex”)
- iv) Words that classify women in ways seldom applied to men: co-ed, woman pioneer, unchaste.
- v) The issue is not one of politics but of respecting the dignity of the diverse groups in contemporary society.
- d) Name-calling and free speech.
 - i) Name-calling and abusive language pose ethical problems when they are used to silence opposing voices.
 - ii) You have an ethical responsibility to avoid name-calling and other tactics that harm the free and open expression of ideas.
 - iii) Difference in being legal and being ethical.
 - (1) Not illegal to call names, but unethical.
 - (2) Nothing illegal about falsifying statistics in a speech, but it is unethical.

Plagiarism

- 1) Plagiarism.
 - a) Plagiarism is presenting another person’s language or ideas as one’s own.
 - b) Plagiarism can lead to serious consequences.
- 2) Global plagiarism.
 - a) Global plagiarism is stealing your speech entirely from another source and passing it off as your own.
 - b) Happens deliberately.
- 3) Patchwork plagiarism.
 - a) Occurs when a speaker pilfers from two or three sources.
 - b) Copying word for word from a few sources is no less plagiarism than is copying from a single source.
 - c) Should come up with your own slant on someone else’s resources.
 - d) If you have only two or three sources to turn to for inspiration, you are far more likely to fall into the trap of patchwork plagiarism than if you consult a wide range of research materials.
- 4) Incremental plagiarism.
 - a) Occurs when the speaker fails to give credit for particular parts—increments—of the speech that are borrowed from other people.
 - b) The most important of these increments are quotations and paraphrases.
 - i) Whenever you quote someone directly, you must attribute the words to that person.
 - ii) When you paraphrase an author, you restate or summarize her or his ideas in your own words.
 - (1) If borrowing someone’s opinion or judgment on a subject, give resource.

- (2) If simply recounting basic facts you do not have to report the source of your information.

Guidelines for Ethical Listening

- 1) Be courteous and attentive.
 - a) Professional speakers are trained to deal with inconsiderate or unresponsive audiences, but novices need encouraging, sympathetic listeners to help maintain their morale and confidence.
 - b) Be conscious of the feedback you are sending the speaker.
 - i) Sit up in your chair rather than slouching.
 - ii) Maintain eye contact with the speaker.
 - iii) Show support and encouragement in your facial expressions.
 - c) You have power over the speaker's confidence and composure, and you should exercise that power with a strong sense of ethical responsibility.
- 2) Avoid prejudging the speaker.
 - a) Does not mean you must agree with every speaker you hear.
 - b) Your aim is to listen carefully to the speaker's ideas, to assess the evidence and reasoning offered in support of those ideas, and to reach an intelligent judgment about the speech.
- 3) Maintain the free and open expression of ideas.
 - a) Debate as to the extent of obligation to support free speech.
 - b) Kinds of speech not protected under the First Amendment.
 - i) Defamatory falsehoods that destroy a person's reputation.
 - ii) Threats against the life of the President.
 - iii) Inciting an audience to illegal action in circumstances where the audience is likely to carry out the action.
 - c) In contrast, it has been argued that some ideas are so dangerous, so misguided, or so offensive that society has a duty to suppress them.
 - i) Who is to determine which ideas are too dangerous, misguided, or offensive to be uttered?
 - ii) Who is to decide which speakers are to be heard and which are to be silenced?
 - d) Efforts to "protect" society by restricting free speech usually end up repressing minority viewpoints and unpopular opinions.
 - i) To stop abolitionist orators from exposing the evils of slavery before the Civil War.
 - ii) To muzzle labor organizers during the 1890s.
 - iii) To impede civil rights leaders in the 1960s.
 - e) Ensuring a person's freedom to express her or his ideas does not imply agreement with those ideas.
 - i) You can disagree entirely with the message but still support the speaker's right to express it.
 - ii) No better way to maintain liberty and human dignity than to protect the free and open expression of ideas.
 - iii) The Speech Communication Association: "Much good and little harm can ensue if we err on the side of freedom, whereas much harm and little good may follow if we err on the side of suppression."

LESSON THREE

Listening

Listening Is Important

- 1) In our communication-oriented age, listening is more important than ever.
 - a) Effective listeners hold higher positions and are promoted more often than people who are ineffective listeners.
 - b) The art of listening can be helpful in almost every part of your life.
- 2) Listening is important to you as a speaker.
 - a) Probably the way you get most of your ideas and information—from television, radio, conversation, and lectures.
 - b) If you don't listen well, you will not understand what you hear and may pass along your misunderstanding to others.
 - c) An excellent way to improve your own speeches is to listen attentively to the speeches of other people.
- 3) During the 95 percent of the time when you are not speaking, you have nothing else to do but listen and learn.
- 4) Four kinds of listening.
 - a) *Appreciative listening*—listening for pleasure or enjoyment, as when we listen to music, to a comedy routine, or to an entertaining speech.
 - b) *Empathic listening*—listening to provide emotional support for the speaker, as when a psychiatrist listens to a patient or when we lend a sympathetic ear to a friend in distress.
 - c) *Comprehensive listening*—listening to understand the message of a speaker; as when we attend a classroom lecture or listen to directions for finding a friend's house.
 - d) *Critical listening*—listening to evaluate a message for purposes of accepting or rejecting it, as when we listen to the sales pitch of a used-car dealer; the campaign speech of a political candidate; or the closing arguments of an attorney in a jury trial.

Four Causes of Poor Listening

- 1) Not concentrating.
 - a) Easy to lose track of a discussion.
 - b) Easy to give in to physical and mental distractions.
 - c) Concentration is hard work.
- 2) Listening too hard.
 - a) Try to remember all the details; in process miss the speaker's point.
 - b) Losing the main message by concentrating on details.
- 3) Jumping to conclusions.
 - a) Putting words into a speaker's mouth.
 - i) We are so sure we know what the speaker means, we don't listen to what they actually say.
 - ii) Sometimes we don't hear them out.
 - b) Prematurely rejecting a speaker's ideas as boring or misguided.
 - i) Determine something is boring, so tune out.

- ii) Every speech has something to offer us—whether it be information, point of view, or technique.
- 4) Focusing on delivery and personal appearance.
 - a) Tend to judge people by the way they look or speak and don't listen to what they say.
 - b) Some are so put off by personal appearance, regional accents, speech defects, or unusual vocal mannerisms that they can't be bothered to listen.

How to Become a Better Listener

- 1) Take listening seriously.
 - a) The first step to improvement is always self-awareness.
 - i) Analyze your shortcomings as a listener and commit yourself to overcoming them.
 - ii) Good listeners work at learning how to listen effectively.
 - iii) Comes from practice and self-discipline.
 - b) Should begin to think of listening as an active process.
 - i) Many aspects of modern life encourage us to listen passively.
 - ii) We listen to the radio while studying.
 - iii) This type of passive listening is a habit—but so is active listening.
- 2) Resist distractions.
 - a) Because we think so much faster than a speaker can talk, it's easy to let our attention wander while we listen.
 - b) Easy to be distracted when the room is too hot.
 - c) Attention can stray even in the best of circumstances—failure to stay alert and make ourselves concentrate.
 - d) Ways to keep mind on a speech.
 - i) Anticipate what the speaker will say next.
 - ii) Review mentally what the speaker has already said and make sure you understand it.
 - iii) Listen between the lines—assess what a speaker implies verbally or says nonverbally with body language.
 - e) Attentive listeners can pick up all kinds of clues to a speaker's real message.
- 3) Don't be diverted by appearance or delivery.
 - a) Must be willing to set aside preconceived judgments about a person's looks or manner of speech.
 - b) Even though it may tax your tolerance, patience, and concentration, don't let negative feelings about a speaker's appearance or delivery keeps you from listening to the message.
 - c) On the other hand, don't be misled if the speaker has an unusually attractive appearance.
 - i) Assume that because someone is good-looking and has a polished delivery, he or she is speaking eloquently.
 - ii) Some of the most unscrupulous speakers in history have been handsome people with hypnotic delivery skills.
 - iii) Be sure to respond to the message—not to the package it comes in.
- 4) Suspend judgment.
 - a) When we listen only to people who think exactly as we do, we are going to hear things with which we disagree.

- i) Our natural inclination is to argue mentally with the speaker or to dismiss everything she or he says.
 - ii) We blot out any chance of learning or being persuaded.
 - b) Doesn't mean we agree with everything we hear.
 - i) Means you should hear people out before reaching a final judgment.
 - ii) Try to understand their point of view.
 - iii) Listen to their ideas, examine their evidence, assess their reasoning; then make up your mind
 - iv) If you're sure of your beliefs, you need not fear listening to opposing views.
 - v) If you're not sure of your beliefs, you have every reason to listen carefully.
 - vi) A closed mind is an empty mind.
- 5) Focus your listening.
 - a) Listen for main points.
 - i) Unless speaker is scatter-brained, you should be able to detect his or her main points with little difficulty.
 - ii) Often at the outset of a speech, a speaker will give some idea of the main points to be developed.
 - b) Listen for evidence.
 - i) Listen for supporting evidence to main points.
 - ii) Four basic questions to ask about a speaker's evidence.
 - (1) Is it accurate?
 - (2) Is it taken from objective sources?
 - (3) Is it relevant to the speaker's claims?
 - (4) Is it sufficient to support the speaker's point?
 - c) Listen for technique.
 - i) To be successful speaker, listen to others to see how they speak effectively.
 - ii) Analyze the introduction.
 - (1) What methods does the speaker use to gain attention, to relate to the audience, to establish credibility and goodwill?
 - iii) Assess the organization of the speech:
 - (1) Is it clear and easy to follow?
 - (2) Can you pick out the speaker's main points?
 - (3) Can you follow when the speaker moves from one point to another?
 - iv) Study the speaker's language.
 - (1) Is it accurate, clear, vivid, appropriate?
 - (2) Does the speaker adapt well to the audience and occasion?
 - v) Diagnose the speaker's delivery:
 - (1) Is it fluent, dynamic, convincing?
 - (2) Does it strengthen or weaken the impact of the speaker's ideas?
 - (3) How well does the speaker use eye contact, gestures, and visual aids?
 - vi) As you listen, focus on the speaker's strengths and weaknesses.
 - (1) If the speaker is not effective, try to determine why.
 - (2) If he or she is effective, try to pick out techniques you can use in your own speeches.

Develop Note-Taking Skills

- 1) When note taking is done properly, it is a surefire way to improve your concentration and keep track of a speaker's ideas.
 - a) Can't take down everything a speaker says.
 - b) Learn to listen for major points.
- 2) Inefficient note takers suffer from one or both of two problems.
 - a) They don't know what to listen for.
 - b) They don't know how to record what they do listen for.
- 3) The keyword outline is best way to listen to classroom lectures and formal speeches.
 - a) Briefly notes a speaker's main points and supporting evidence in rough outline form.
 - b) Requires practice.

LESSON FOUR

Selecting a Topic and Purpose

Choosing a Topic

Introduction

- 1) The first step in speechmaking is choosing a topic.
 - a) Usually the topic is determined by the occasion, the audience, and the speaker's qualifications.
- 2) Two broad categories of potential topics.
 - a) Subjects you know a lot about.
 - b) Subjects you want to know more about.
- 3) Topics you know a lot about.
 - a) Can't go too far wrong by drawing on your own knowledge and experience.
 - b) Think about special knowledge or expertise you may have acquired.
- 4) Topics you want to know more about.
 - a) May make your speech a learning experience for yourself as well as for your audience.
 - b) Think about subjects about which you hold strong opinions and beliefs.
 - c) Surely have issues about which you can deeply.
 - i) National or international concerns such as gun control, protection of the environment, or the spread of pornography.
 - ii) Can deal with anything from graduation requirements to helping people with physical disabilities, from religious cults to preserving a nature sanctuary, from dormitory regulations to building a church recreation center.
- 5) Brainstorming for topics.
 - a) Personal inventory.
 - i) Make a quick inventory of your experiences, interests, hobbies, skills, beliefs, and so forth.
 - ii) Jot down anything that comes to mind, no matter how silly or irrelevant it may seem.
 - iii) From this list may come a general subject area out of which you can fashion a specific topic.
 - b) Clustering.
 - i) Take a sheet of paper and divide it into nine columns as follows: People, Places, Things, Events, Processes, Concepts, Natural Phenomena, Problems, and Plans and Policies.
 - ii) Then list in each column the first five or six items that come to mind.
 - iii) Very likely, several items on your lists will strike you as potential topics.
 - (1) If not, take the items you find most intriguing and compose sublists for each.
 - (2) Try to free-associate.
 - (3) Write down a word or an idea.
 - (4) What does it trigger in your mind? Whatever it is, write that down next, and keep going until you have six or seven ideas on your list.
- 6) Reference search.

- a) Go to the reference room of the library and browse through an encyclopedia or some other reference work until you stumble across what might be a good speech topic.
- 7) Internet search.

Determining the General Purpose

- 1) The general purpose usually falls into one of two overlapping categories—to inform or to persuade.
- 2) When your general purpose is to inform, you act as a teacher or lecturer.
 - a) Your goal is to convey information—and to do so clearly, accurately, and interestingly.
 - b) Your aim is to enhance the knowledge and understanding of your listeners—to give them information they did not have before.
- 3) When your general purpose is to persuade, you act as an advocate or a partisan.
 - a) Go beyond giving information to espousing a cause.
 - b) You want to change or structure the attitudes or actions of your audience.
 - c) The difference between informing and persuading is the difference between “explaining” and “exhorting.”
 - d) You will give information, but your primary goal is to win over your listeners to your point of view—to get them to believe something or do something as a result of your speech.
- 4) Making sure of your general purpose.
 - a) Are you going to explain, report, or demonstrate something? (inform).
 - b) Are you going to sell, advocate, or defend something? (persuade).

Determining The Specific Purpose

- 1) Introduction.
 - a) The specific purpose of your speech should focus on one aspect of a topic.
 - b) Should be able to state your specific purpose in a single infinitive phrase (to inform my audience about...to persuade my audience to...)
 - c) Example:
 - i) Topic: computers.
 - ii) General purpose: to inform.
 - iii) Specific purpose: to inform my audience of the major factors to consider when buying a notebook computer.
 - iv) If doesn't include the audience: “To explain the major factors to consider when buying a notebook computer.
 - (1) Explain to whom?
 - (2) To a group of computer science majors?
 - (3) To first-time computer buyers?
 - v) It is almost impossible to prepare a good speech without keeping constantly in mind the people for whom it is intended.
- 2) Tips for formulating the specific purpose statement
 - a) Write the purpose statement as a full infinitive phrase, not as a fragment.
 - i) *Ineffective*: Calendars.

- ii) *More effective*: to inform my audience about the four major kinds of calendars used in the world today.
 - iii) *Ineffective*: Halloween.
 - iv) *More effective*: to inform my audience about the history of Halloween observances.
- b) Express your purpose as a statement, not as a question.
- i) *Ineffective*: What is Quinceanera?
 - ii) *More effective*: To inform my audience about the origins, ceremonies, and importance for young women of the traditional Quinceanera celebration in Mexico.
 - iii) *Ineffective*: Is the U.S. space program necessary?
 - iv) *More effective*: To persuade my audience that the U.S. space program provides many important benefits to people here on earth.
- c) Avoid figurative language in your purpose statement.
- i) *Ineffective*: to persuade my audience that the university's plan to reduce the number of campus parking spaces assigned to studies is a real bummer.
 - ii) *More effective*: To persuade my audience to petition against the university's plan to reduce the number of campus parking spaces assigned to students.
 - iii) *Ineffective*: To persuade my audience that banning all fraternities because there have been hazing abuses at some colleges would be like throwing out the baby with the bath water.
 - iv) *More effective*: To persuade my audience that banning all fraternities because there have been hazing abuses at some colleges would punish the vast majority of fraternities for the actions of a few.
- d) Limit your purpose statement to one distinct idea.
- i) *Ineffective*: to persuade my audience that the federal government should ban all cigarette advertising and that smoking should be prohibited in all public buildings.
 - (1) This purpose statement expresses two separate ideas.
 - (2) The easiest remedy is to select one or the other as a focus for your speech.
 - ii) *More effective*: to persuade my audience that the federal government should ban all cigarette advertising.
 - iii) *Or*: to persuade my audience that smoking should be prohibited in all public buildings.
- e) Make sure your specific purpose is not too vague or general.
- i) *Ineffective*: to inform my audience about the Civil War.
 - (1) Too broad and ill-defined.
 - (2) Gives no clues about what aspect of the Civil War the speaker is covering.
 - ii) *More Effective*: To inform my audience about the role of African-American soldiers in the Civil War.
 - iii) *Ineffective*: to persuade my audience that something should be done about the federal budget deficit.
 - iv) *More effective*: To persuade my audience that a national sales tax should be instituted to help reduce the federal budget deficit.
- 3) Questions to ask about your specific purpose.
- a) Does my purpose meet the assignment?
 - b) Can I accomplish my purpose in the time allotted?
 - c) Is the purpose relevant to my audience?
 - d) Is the purpose too trivial for my audience?

- e) Is the purpose too technical for my audience?

Phrasing the Central Idea

- 1) What is the central idea?
 - a) A concise statement of what you expect to say.
 - b) Sometimes called the thesis statement, the subject sentence, or the major thought.
 - c) Usually expressed as a simple, declarative sentence that refines and sharpens the specific purpose statement.
 - d) Your residual message—what you want your audience to remember after they have forgotten everything else in the speech.
 - i) Most of the time the central idea will encapsulate the main points to be developed in the body of the speech.
 - e) Example:
 - i) *Topic*: computers.
 - ii) *General purpose*: to inform.
 - iii) *Specific purpose*: to inform my audience of the major factors to consider when buying a notebook computer.
 - iv) *Central idea*: The major factors to consider when buying a notebook computer are price, speed, screen quality, and special features.
 - f) Example:
 - i) *Topic*: Calendars
 - ii) *General purpose*: To inform.
 - iii) *Specific Purpose*: To inform my audience of the four major calendars used in the world today.
 - iv) *Central Idea*: The four major calendars used in the world today are the Gregorian calendar, the Hebrew calendar, the Chinese calendar, and the Islamic calendar.
 - g) Example:
 - i) *Topic*: Campus parking.
 - ii) *General Purpose*: To persuade.
 - iii) *Specific Purpose*: To persuade my audience to petition against our school's plan to reduce the number of campus parking spaces assigned to students.
 - iv) *Central Idea*: Our school's plan to reduce student parking spaces is an infringement of student rights and will result in wide-spread illegal parking.
 - (1) Often can settle on a specific purpose statement early in preparing your speech.
 - (2) The central idea usually emerges later, after you have done your research and have decided on the main points of the speech.

Guidelines for the Central Idea

- 1) Ineffective
 - a) Paying college athletes a salary is a good idea.
 - i) Too general.
 - ii) More effective: Because college athletes in revenue-producing sports such as football and basketball generate millions of dollars in revenue for their schools, the

NCAA should allow such athletes to receive a \$200 monthly salary as part of their scholarships.

- b) Problems of fad diets.
 - i) Too general and suffers from not being written as a complete sentence.
 - ii) More effective: Although fad diets produce quick weight loss, they can lead to serious health problems by creating deficiencies in vitamins and minerals and by breaking down muscle tissue as well as fat.
- 2) How does indoor soccer differ from outdoor soccer?
 - a) Phrased as a question rather than as a full declarative sentence.
 - b) More effective: Played on a smaller, enclosed field that resembles a hockey rink with artificial turf, indoor soccer involves faster action, more scoring, and different strategies than outdoor soccer.
- 3) Mexico's Yucatan Peninsula is an awesome place for a vacation.
 - a) Flawed by use of figurative language.
 - b) More effective: Mexico's Yucatan Peninsula has many attractions for vacationers, including a warm climate, excellent food, and extensive Mayan ruins.

LESSON FIVE

Analyzing the Audience

1. Audience-centeredness.
 - a. Good speakers are audience-centered.
 - i. They know the primary purpose of speechmaking is not to display one's learning or demonstrate one's superiority or blow off steam.
 - ii. Purpose is to gain a desired response from listeners.
 - iii. Translate a truth into language perfectly intelligible to the person to whom you speak.
 - b. Being audience-centered does not mean taking any means to an end.
 - i. Need not prostitute your beliefs to get a favorable response from audience.
 - ii. Should not use devious, unethical tactics to achieve your goals.
 - iii. Can remain true to yourself while adapting your message to the needs of a particular audience.
 - c. Several questions to keep in mind.
 - i. To whom am I speaking?
 - ii. What do I want them to know, believe, or do as a result of my speech?
 - iii. What is the most effective way of composing and presenting my speech to accomplish that aim?
 - d. Study a politician.
 - i. To an audience of senior citizens, might talk about Social Security benefits.
 - ii. To a group of farmers the speech might emphasize agricultural price supports.
 - iii. To urban apartment dwellers the candidate might stress methods to counteract street crime.
 - e. Can find out in advance as much as possible about your listeners' positions on various subjects.
 - i. Must know what your listeners believe now in order to change their beliefs.
2. The psychology of audiences.
 - a. Even when people pay attention to a speech, they don't process what the speaker says in exactly as the speaker intends.
 - i. Auditory perception is always selective.
 - ii. Every speech contains two messages—the one sent by the speaker
 - iii. What a speaker says is filtered through a listener's frame of reference—the sum of her or his needs, interests, expectations, knowledge, and experience.
 - iv. We listen and respond to speeches not as they are, but as we are.
 - b. What do people want to hear?
 - i. Things that are meaningful to them.
 - ii. People are egocentric—they pay closest attention to messages that affect their own values, beliefs, and well-being.
 - iii. Why is this important to me?
 - iv. These points are the primary starting point of all successful public speaking.
 - v. What psychological principles mean to the speaker.

- i) Your listeners will hear and judge what you say on the basis of what they already know and believe.
- ii) You must relate your message to your listeners—show how it pertains to them, explain why they should care about it as much as you do.

Adjusting to the Communication Environment

(Includes the *time* of your presentation; the *place* in which you will speak, *context* of your speech; *nature and purpose* of the occasion, and anticipated *size* of your audience.

1. Time.
 - a) Time of day.
 - i) Early in morning; right after a meal, audience may be sleepy.
 - (1) Some lively or startling examples to keep them awake.
 - ii) On Monday, may need a light, bright touch to hold their attention.
 - iii) On Friday, may need to be more direct and to the point to keep listeners' minds from drifting to the weekend.
 - b) Time of year can influence audience response.
 - i) Gloomy winter days or balmy spring weather may put audience in different frames of mind.
 - ii) A bit more humor or a more forceful presentation might enliven an audience on a dreary day.
2. Place.
 - a) Indoors or outside.
 - i) If outside, may have to cope with weather or other distractions such as passing traffic.
 - ii) Inside, if noise is temporary or intermittent, pause and wait until it stops, repeat your last words, then go on.
 - iii) With constant noise, speak louder.
 - iv) If noise is so loud you must shout, pause and ask someone to close the window or door.
 - b) Listeners seated or standing.
 - c) Size of room.
 - i) Access to microphone?
 - ii) Electronic equipment available?
 - iii) Lectern and place to display visual aids?
3. Context.
 - a) Context of recent speeches.
 - i) If your speech is considerably lighter than the one that preceded it, you might decide to begin with a story to involve listeners and refocus their attention.
 - ii) Sometimes humor can help relieve the tension.
 - iii) Humor dependent on mood of listeners, the subject under discussion, and your ability to use this technique constructively.
 - b) Context of recent events.
 - c) Nature and Purpose of the Occasion.
4. Size of Audience
 - a) Larger the audience, more diverse.

- i) Concentrate on primary audience (those listeners who are capable of making your words effective).
- b) With small audiences (under 20), you get more direct feedback, can interact more effectively; make and maintain eye contact with nearly everyone present.
 - i) Small audiences, less formal.
 - ii) Can ask questions and solicit responses.
 - iii) Standing behind a lectern may create barrier to good communication.
- c) Large audiences.
 - i) Speech more formal.
 - ii) Speak more deliberately and enunciate your words more carefully.
 - iii) Establish eye contact with listeners in all section of room.
 - iv) With larger group, your gestures must be more emphatic so everyone can see them.
 - v) Visual aids must be large enough to see.

Adjusting to Audience Demographics

Gathering information systematically is called demographic audience analysis.

- 1) Age.
 - a) Few things affect a person's outlook more than his or her age.
 - b) Each generation has more or less common values and experiences that set it apart from other generations.
 - i) Young listeners are pleasure loving, optimistic, impulsive, trusting, idealistic, and easily persuaded.
 - ii) The elderly are more set in their ways, more skeptical, cynical, and concerned with maintaining a comfortable existence.
 - c) Aristotle: "Those in the prime of life present a balance between youth and age, being confident yet cautious, judging cases by the facts, and taking all things in moderation.
- 2) Gender.
 - a) Gender stereotyping occurs when broad generalizations are made about men or women based on outmoded assumptions.
 - i) Must be wary of making assumptions with respect to gender until you have tested those assumptions and found them to be correct.
 - ii) Social distinctions between the sexes have been eroding for some years.
 - iii) The typical composition of audiences has also changed.
 - b) Women and men not alike in all their values.
 - i) In politics, women tend to emphasis education, health care, and social justice.
 - ii) Men tend to emphasize military and economics.
 - c) Speaker should avoid using sexist language.
 - i) Avoid references that tend to be stereotypical demeaning views of women.
 - (1) Women don't understand business.
 - (2) Marking (adding a gender reference when none is needed).
 - (a) Refer to "the woman engineer Thompson.
 - (b) May be trivializing her contribution by drawing attention to gender when it is irrelevant.

- (c) May insinuate that Thompson is a pretty good engineer for a woman.
 - ii) Making gender references where the gender is unknown or irrelevant.
 - (1) Generic use of masculine pronouns, (Man's advances in science)
 - (2) Using he when the intended reference is to both sexes.
 - d) Racial, ethnic, or cultural background.
 - i) United States becoming more and more a multiracial, multicultural society.
- 3) Educational level.
- a) The more educated, the more you can assume they know about general topics and current affairs.
 - b) Generally more concerned with social, consumer, political, and environmental issues.
 - c) Higher educational level, broader their range of interests.
 - d) Tend to be more open-minded.
 - e) Should be careful to acknowledge alternatives and explain why you have selected your position.
- 4) Religion.
- a) Cannot assume that your views on religion—whatever they may be—are shared by your listeners.
 - b) Religious views are among the most emotionally charged and passionately defended of all human concerns.
 - c) As the U.S. is becoming more diverse culturally, it is also becoming more diverse religiously.
 - i) There is also great diversity within different faiths.
 - ii) Cannot assume all Catholics support the official view of their church on such matters as birth control or women in the priesthood.
 - iii) All Baptists are born-again.
 - d) Knowing the religious affiliations of listeners can provide useful information because religious training often underlies the social and cultural values that form the foundation of attitudes.
 - i) Members of fundamentalist religious groups likely to have conservative social and political as well as religious attitudes.
 - ii) Baptists tend to be more conservative than Episcopalians, who are more conservative than Unitarians.
 - e) Whenever you speak on a topic with religious dimensions, be sure to consider the religious orientations of your listeners.
- 5) Group membership.
- a) Occupational groups.
 - i) United by special career or employment interests.
 - ii) Often share leisure activities, civic concerns, and even reading and television-viewing habits.
 - b) Political groups.
 - i) Knowing how interested in politics your listeners are and their political party preferences can be useful in planning and preparing your speech.
 - ii) People with strong political ties usually make their feelings known.
- 6) Anything characteristic of a given audience is potentially important to a speaker addressing that audience.
- 7) How to avoid gaffes in your speeches.

- a) Recognize that some of your listeners may indeed have special racial, ethnic, or cultural orientations that bear upon your speech topic.
- b) Try to determine what those orientations are and how they are likely to affect the audience's response to your message.
- c) Adjust your message so it will be as clear, suitable, and convincing as possible given the racial, ethnic, or cultural background of your listeners.

Situational Audience Analysis

- 1) Size.
 - a. The larger the audience, the more formal the speech.
 - b. Size can affect language, choice of appeals, and use of visual aids.
- 2) Physical setting.
 - a. Receptivity of listeners often influenced by factors beyond their control, and sometimes beyond your control.
 - i. Audience assembled immediately after lunch, crammed into an over-heated room with inadequate seating.
 - ii. Should know in advance if there will be any difficulties with the physical setting.
 - b. Look over the room in advance; arrive early to give the room a quick inspection.
 - c. If too warm or too cold, adjust the thermostat.
 - d. Check the seating arrangements and the location of the lectern to be sure your audience can see you properly.
 - e. When faced with an audience that is potentially hot, sleepy, and cross, do your best to make the speech as interesting and lively as you can.
- 3) Disposition toward the topic.
 - a. Interest.
 - i. Won't attend speech unless they are interested in the topic.
 - ii. Assess their interest in advance and adjust your speech accordingly.
 - b. Knowledge.
 - i) Often correlation between interest in a topic and knowledge about it.
 - ii) People tend to be interested in what they know about.
 - iii) Inclined to learn about subjects that interest them.
 - iv) Will determine what you can say in your speech.
 - v) If little knowledge, will have to speak at more elementary level.
 - c. Attitude.
 - i) Attitude important in determining how you handle the material.
 - ii) If you know in advance the prevailing attitude among members of your audience, you can adjust what you say to what your audience needs to hear.
- 4) Disposition toward the speaker.
 - a. The more competent listeners believe a speaker to be, the more likely they are to accept what the speaker says.
 - b. The more listeners believe that a speaker has their best interests at heart, the more likely they are to respond positively to the speaker's message.
- 5) Disposition toward the occasion.
 - a. No matter what the situation, listeners have fairly definite ideas about the speeches they consider appropriate.

- i) Expect to hear political speeches in Congress.
 - ii) Sermons in church.
 - iii) Speakers who seriously violate these expectations can almost always count on infuriating the audience.
- b. The occasion will dictate how long a speech should be.
 - i) Usually will be told how much time you have for your talk.
 - 1. If not, be sure to ask.
 - 2. Pare speech to fit time allotted.

Getting Information about the Audience

- 1. Interviewing.
 - a. When planned, structured, and conducted, can be superb way of learning about individual members of an audience.
 - b. Can be costly and time-consuming.
- 2. Questionnaires.
 - a. Three major types of questions to choose from.
 - i. Fixed-alternative questions.
 - ii. Scale questions.
 - iii. Open-ended questions.
 - b. Fixed-alternative:

Do you know what the insanity plea is in the U.S. legal system?

Yes _____
 No _____
 Not sure _____

c. How often do you believe the insanity plea is used in U.S. court cases?

Very seldom _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ Very often

d. Open-ended questions

What is your opinion about insanity plea in U.S. court cases?

- e. Because each type of question has its advantages and disadvantages, many questionnaires contain all three types.
 - i. Elicit specific information about the audience.
 - ii. Probed more deeply into their attitudes toward the topic.

Adapting to the Audience

1) Intro.

- a) Once you have completed the audience analysis, you should have a pretty clear picture of your listeners.
 - i) Should know their relevant demographic characteristics.
 - ii) Know their interest in and knowledge about the topic.
 - iii) Know their attitudes toward the topic and the speaker.
 - iv) Know their expectations about the occasion.
 - b) Key is how well you use what you know in preparing and presenting the speech.
 - i) One of the hardest tasks facing a novice speaker.
 - ii) May identify the major characteristics of their audience, but have trouble adapting their ideas to the audience.
 - c) Two major stages in the process of audience adaptation.
 - i) The first occurs before the speech, as part of your preparation and rehearsal.
 - ii) The second occurs during the presentation of the speech itself.
- 2) Audience adaptation before the speech.
- a) Keeping your audience in mind means two things.
 - i) Assessing how your audience is likely to respond to what you will say in your speech.
 - ii) Adjusting what you say to make it as clear, appropriate, and convincing as possible.
 - b) Sometimes have trouble seeing things from other people's perspective, especially if their perspective is quite different from ours.
 - i) You must submerge your own views so completely that you can adopt, temporarily, those of your listeners.
 - ii) You will begin to hear your speech through the ears of your audience and to adjust it accordingly.
 - c) Keep audience in mind while preparing speech.
 - i) Try to imagine what they will like, what they will dislike, where they will have doubts or questions, whether they will need more details here or fewer there, what will interest them and what will not.
 - ii) At every point you must anticipate how your audience will respond.
 - (1) How react to your introduction and conclusion.
 - (2) Will they find your examples clear and convincing?
 - (3) How will they respond to your language and manner of delivery?
 - iii) Be creative in thinking about ways to adapt your message to them.
- 3) Audience adaptation during the speech.
- a) Things don't always go as planned.
 - i) Room may have changed.
 - ii) Size of audience may have changed.
 - iii) May have less time than you thought.
 - b) Must make adjustments.
 - i) Adjust your delivery to the changed audience size.
 - ii) If you find you have less time, condense your speech to its most essential points and present them in the time available.
 - c) Be sure to keep an eye out during your speech for audience feedback.
 - i) If your listeners are sitting forward in their chairs, looking at you with interest, and nodding their heads in approval, you can assume things are going well.
 - ii) If you find them frowning or responding with quizzical looks, you may need to back up and go over your point again.

- d) Adapting to your audience, both before the speech and during it, is one of the most important keys to successful public speaking.

Adapting to Audience Dynamics

1) Motivation

- a) Our needs, wants, and wishes make up our motivation, the force that impels us to action and directs our behavior toward specific goals.
- b) Motivation explains why people behave as they do.
 - i) Making people aware of a need, and then showing them a way to satisfy it, is a major persuasive strategy.
 - ii) People will listen, learn, and retain your message only if you can relate it to their needs, wants, or wishes.
 - iii) People are more motivated by things they don't have, but that they want, need, or value.
- c) Major motives.
 - i) Comfort.
 - (1) Having enough to eat or drink, keeping warm or cool, being free from pain.
 - (2) If you can show your audience that your topic could increase their comfort, you'll have most of them sitting up and listening.
 - ii) Safety.
 - (1) All of us need to feel free from threats.
 - (a) Rising crime rates.
 - (b) Terrorism.
 - (c) Accidents.
 - (2) Appeals to such needs are based on arousing a sense of fear.
 - (3) Must be cautious when using fear appeals because if you arouse too much anxiety in listeners, they may resent you and reject your message.
 - iii) Friendship.
 - (1) People need other people to give and receive affection and companionship.
 - (2) Explains our desire to join groups and take pride in our affiliations.
 - (3) The need for friendship is probably the most prevalent appeal in contemporary American advertising.
 - iv) Recognition.
 - (1) Most people want to be treated as valuable and important; like others to acknowledge their existence and accomplishments.
 - (2) Speakers utilize the need for recognition when they find ways to compliment the audience.
 - v) Curiosity.
 - (1) We want to understand the world and the people around us.
 - (2) Speech topics that are unusual, that explain the causes of events or behaviors, or that discuss fears about the future may satisfy this need.
 - vi) Tradition.
 - (1) There are certain things we don't want to change.
 - (2) Showing your audience that you share its traditions, that you value many of the same things it values, can help create identification in speeches.

- vii) Success.
 - (1) The need for achievement and accomplishment is one of the most thoroughly studied human motives.
 - (2) Speeches that show an audience how they can improve themselves and enhance their chances in life touch on this important motivator.
 - viii) Nurture.
 - (1) It makes people feel good to be able to care for, protect, and comfort the helpless or the less fortunate.
 - ix) Enjoyment.
 - (1) People need to have fun occasionally.
 - (2) If you can show listeners how to bring pleasure into their lives, you can be sure of sustaining their attention.
- 2) Attitudes, Beliefs, and Values.
- a) Attitudes: Typically referring to our feelings about something—whether we like or dislike, approve or disapprove of people, places, events, or ideas.
 - i) Attitudes also include our beliefs—what we know or think we know about something—and the way we are predisposed to act toward it.
 - ii) Our important social attitudes are anchored by our values, how we think we should behave or what we regard as an ideal state of being.
 - iii) These ideals guide much of our thinking and behavior.
 - b) President Bush incorporated values in his speech accepting the nomination in 1992.
 - i) Getting back to our roots.
 - ii) Families sticking together and father sticking around.
 - iii) The worth of individual human lives—both born and unborn.
 - iv) Teaching children the difference between right and wrong.
 - v) Respect for work.
 - vi) Love for neighbors and God.
 - c) Information about your audience’s beliefs and values can be useful in planning your speeches.

LESSON SIX

Gathering Materials

Introduction

- 1) Gathering material for a speech is like gathering information for any project.
- 2) Several ways to gather material.
 - a) Interview people with specialized knowledge on a given topic.
 - b) You can write or call organizations that collect information on your subject and are set up to provide it to the public.
 - c) You can do research in the library or on the Internet.
 - d) Sometimes you can use yourself as a resource—whenever you have a personal experience or more-than-average knowledge about a subject.

Using Your Own Knowledge and Experience

- 1) We usually speak best about subjects with which we are familiar.
- 2) You can actively seek out personal experience that will add credibility to your speech.
- 3) When you choose a topic from your own experience, may be tempted to depersonalize it by relying solely on facts and figures from books.
 - a) Such information is necessary, but a personal touch can bring speeches to life.
 - b) A person afflicted with diabetes:
 - i) Cited statistics on the incidence of diabetes in the U.S., identified symptoms of the disease, and related how it is treated.
 - ii) Along the way illustrated his points by talking about his personal experiences.
- 4) Even if your life stories are not that dramatic, you can still put them to work for you.
 - a) You were there; you did, saw, felt, heard whatever it is you are speaking about.
 - b) Using life experiences can provide supporting details for your speeches.
- 5) Examples:
 - a) Making a speech on how television news shows are put together.
 - i) You could arrange to visit a nearby station that produces a live newscast.
 - ii) Take in the noise, the action, and the excitement that occur before and during a show—this atmosphere can enrich your speech.
 - b) Making a speech on the boredom of assembly line work.
 - i) You might phone a local union for help in gaining firsthand exposure.
 - ii) Although personal experience is often a good starting point for your research, it is rarely enough to support an entire speech.
 - iii) To fill in the gaps and verify your knowledge and information, you should turn next to library resources.

Doing Library Research

- 1) Advantage of library research.
 - a) It can give you a broad perspective and a sound basis for speaking responsibly.

- b) It can extend, correct, and enrich your experience by acquainting you with others' experience and knowledge.
- 2) Librarians.
 - a) Librarians are experts in their own field.
 - b) Don't hesitate to ask a librarian.
 - i) Can help you find your way.
 - ii) Can help locate sources, even track down a specific piece of information.
- 3) Library catalogues.
 - a) The card catalogue.
 - i) 3 by 5 card for all books and periodicals owned by the library.
 - ii) Usually three cards:
 - (1) Listing it by the author.
 - (2) Listing it by title.
 - (3) Listing it by subject.
 - b) The computer catalogue.
 - i) Lists books by author, title, and subject.
 - ii) Allows you to conduct keyword search—locate a book by typing in a significant word or phrase.
 - iii) Tells you whether book is available or checked out.
- 4) Periodical Indexes.
 - a) Helps you locate specific magazine or journal articles.
 - b) Previously, were thick bound volumes; today computerized.
 - c) Abstract is summary of an article for you to decide whether or not the article will be of use for your speech.
 - d) Major indices.
 - i) General indexes.
 - (1) *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*, which provides an up-to-date listing of more than 250 of the most widely read magazines in the United States.
 - (a) Electronic version titled *Readers' Guide Abstracts* provides abstracts of the articles it indexes.
 - (b) Articles in the *Reader's Guide* are catalogued alphabetically by author and subject..
 - (c) Each entry gives all the necessary information for finding articles in the magazines—title of article, author, name of magazine, volume number, page numbers, and date.
 - (2) *ProQuest General Periodicals OnDisc*
 - (a) An easy-to-use database that indexes more than 1,100 general-interest, business.
 - (b) Scholarly publications and provides the full text of articles from ore than 300 of the periodicals it indexes.
 - (3) *InfoTrac magazine Index*.
 - (a) A guide to more than 400 popular magazines on topics such as current affairs, education, leisure and travel, science, and the arts.
 - (b) Full text available for many articles.
 - (4) *Academic Search Full TEXT*.

- (a) An extremely valuable resource that indexes and provides the full text of articles from 1,000 popular and academic periodicals.
 - (b) Abstracts for another 1,600 publications.
 - (c) Includes an index to the *New York Times*.
 - (5) *Public Affairs Information Service*.
 - (a) A wide-ranging database that indexes journal articles.
 - (b) Includes citations for government documents, statistical compilations, and other works relating to public policy over the world.
 - ii) Special indexes.
 - (1) *Applied Science and Technology Index*.
 - (2) *Social Sciences Index*.
 - (3) *Art Index*.
 - (4) *Hispanic American Periodicals Index*.
 - (5) *Business Abstracts*.
 - (6) *ERIC (Education Resources Information Center)*.
 - (7) *Education Index*.
 - (8) *Women's Resources International*.
 - (9) *Ethnic Newswatch*.
 - (10) *Index to Black Periodicals*
- 5) Newspaper Indexes.
- a) Back issues of several major U.S. newspapers are now indexed, including the *New York Times*, *Wall Street Journal*, *Christian Science Monitor*, *Los Angeles Times*, *Washington Post*, *Atlanta Constitution*, and *USA Today*.
 - b) May also be able to find newspaper information in *NewsBank*.
 - i) Reprints selected articles on a wide range of topics from more than 450 newspapers.
 - ii) Makes it easy to track down exactly what you need.
 - c) Another resource available is *Lexis/Nexis*, an online service composed of more than 700 full-text database, including a large number of U.S. and international newspapers.
 - i) Provides daily updates from news wire services such as Reuters, United Press International, and the Associated Press.
 - ii) Invaluable for topics that require up-to-the-minute information.
 - d) Specialized newspaper reference sources.
 - i) *Editorials on File*—reprints editorials on important public issues from hundreds of newspapers across the U.S.; is an excellent source of informed opinion on current events.
 - ii) *Black Newspapers Index* provides helpful guide to articles printed in African-American newspapers.
 - (1) *Amsterdam News*.
 - (2) *Chicago Defender*.
 - (3) *Los Angeles Sentinel*.
- 6) Reference Works.
- a) Encyclopedias.
 - i) *Encyclopaedia Britannica* and the *Encyclopedia Americana*.
 - (1) Provide accurate, objective information about all branches of human knowledge; an excellent place to begin your research.
 - (2) Also can be accessed electronically.

- b) Special encyclopedias:
 - i) *Encyclopedia of Philosophy.*
 - ii) *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences.*
 - iii) *Encyclopedia of World Art.*
 - iv) *Encyclopedia of Religion.*
 - v) *Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians.*
 - vi) *Grzimek's Animal Life Encyclopedia.*
 - vii) *Encyclopedia of World Crime.*
 - viii) *McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology.*
 - ix) *Food and Nutrition Encyclopedia.*
 - x) *Encyclopedia of Computer Science.*
 - xi) *African American Encyclopedia.*
 - xii) *Latino Encyclopedia.*
 - xiii) *Asian American Encyclopedia.*
- c) Yearbooks.
 - i) Published annually.
 - ii) Contain an amazing amount of current information that would otherwise be almost impossible to track down.
 - iii) Three most valuable yearbooks.
 - (1) *Statistical Abstract of the United States*
 - (a) Published by Bureau of the Census.
 - (b) Standard reference work for numerical information on the social, political, and economic aspects of American life.
 - (i) U.S. fertility rate, labor union membership.
 - (ii) Death rates from various diseases, median family income by state.
 - (2) *World Almanac and Book of Facts.*
 - (a) Nobel Prize winners since 1901.
 - (b) The most-watched television shows of the previous year.
 - (c) Records for professional and collegiate sports.
 - (d) The literacy rate in Afghanistan.
 - (e) Natural resources of Peru.
 - (3) *Facts on File*
 - (a) Available in both print and electronic versions.
 - (b) A weekly digest of national and foreign news events.
 - (c) Covers politics, sports, medicine, education, religion, crime, economics, and the arts.
 - (d) Good resource to check on something that happened in a given year.
- d) Dictionaries.
 - (1) *Webster's.*
 - (2) *American Heritage Dictionary.*
 - (3) *Oxford English Dictionary.*
 - (4) Specialized Dictionaries.
 - (a) *The Computer Dictionary.*
 - (b) *Black's Law Dictionary.*
 - (c) *The Dictionary of Feminist Theory.*
 - (d) *Morris Dictionary of Word and Phrase Origins.*

- e) Quotation Books.
 - i) *Bartlett's Familiar Quotations*.
 - (1) More than 25,000 quotations from historical and contemporary figures.
 - (2) Long regarded as an indispensable source for speakers and writers alike.
 - ii) *Oxford Dictionary of Quotations*.
 - iii) *Harper Book of American Quotations*.
 - iv) *The New Quotable Woman*.
 - v) *My Soul Looks Back, 'Less I Forget: A Collection of Quotations by People of Color*.
 - vi) *Ancient Echoes: Native American Words of Wisdom*
 - vii) *Fire in Our Souls: Quotations of Wisdom and Inspiration by Latino Americans*.
 - viii) *A Treasury of Jewish Quotations*.
- f) Biographical Aids.
 - i) *International Who's Who*
 - ii) *Who's Who in America*
 - iii) *Who's Who of American Women*
 - iv) *Contemporary Black Biography*
 - v) *Dictionary of Hispanic Biography*
 - vi) *Native American Women*.
 - vii) *Who's Who Among Asian Americans*.
 - viii) *Current Biography*
 - (1) Published every month except December.
 - (2) During each year it offers some 400 independent and highly readable articles about newsworthy people all over the world.
 - (3) Each article is three to four pages long, and the fields covered include politics, science, the arts, labor, sports, and industry.
 - ix) *Biography Index*
 - (1) If having trouble finding what you need about a person.
 - (2) Won't give you biographical information, but will tell you where to find it.
 - (3) Provides citations for biographical material appearing in selected books and some 2,600 periodicals.
- g) Atlases and Gazetteers.
 - i) Atlases.
 - (1) Contain maps.
 - (2) Include a variety of charts, plates, and tables that furnish information about the geography of states, regions, and countries.
 - (3) Leading all-purpose atlas is the *Rand McNally Cosmopolitan World Atlas*—includes maps of the world by region, as well as maps of each state of the United States.
 - (4) Gives a wealth of facts and figures about the population, politics, and geography of the U.S. and other parts of the world.
 - ii) Gazetteers.
 - (1) Geographical dictionaries.
 - (2) Follow the same alphabetical format as regular dictionaries, but all entries deal with geographical topics.
 - (3) Best known is *Webster's New Geographical Dictionary*.

- (a) Lists more than 47,000 places around the world—countries, regions, cities, islands, mountains, rivers.
 - (b) Gives concise facts about each.
 - (c) Find such things as the height of Mount Everest, the state flower of Florida, and all the places in the world named Athens.
- 7) Government Documents.
- a) Intro.
 - i) Most government documents provide more in-depth information than that found in most almanacs.
 - ii) Includes reports on congressional hearings, legislation, and proceedings; the proclamations, orders, and other formal statements of the president; and opinions and decisions of the Supreme Court.
 - b) Some major government publications:
 - i) *Congressional Record*: daily account of the proceedings of Congress.
 - ii) *Federal Register*: proclamations and orders of the president and regulations of various departments of government.
 - iii) *United States Reports*: opinions and decisions of the Supreme Court.
 - iv) *Monthly Catalog of United States Government Publications*: the master list of government documents.
 - v) *Selected Rand Abstracts*: guide to unclassified reports, papers, and books of the Rand Corporation, which conducts government-sponsored studies.
 - vi) *American Statistics Index*: a master guide to government statistical publications.
 - vii) *Undex: (United Nations Document Index)*: covers publications issued by the United Nations.
- 8) Electronic Data Bases.
- a) Most libraries now have electronic data bases.
 - b) Services available:
 - i) On-line catalog.
 - ii) Computerized newspaper index such as: *The National Newspaper Index*
 - iii) Periodical indexes such as *Infotrac* or *ProQuest*, which can access a variety of data bases.
 - (1) *ProQuest*. (useful for speech-making)
 - (a) *General Periodicals Ondisc* contains abstracts to articles from over 450 general interest, scientific, and trade or professional periodicals, as well as complete articles from selected journals.
 - (b) *ABI/Inform Ondisc* is a business database containing abstracts and indexing to articles from over 800 business and management journals.
 - (2) *General Periodicals Ondisc* contains abstracts to articles from over 450 general interest, scientific, and trade or professional periodicals, as well as complete articles from selected journals.
 - (3) *ABI/Inform Ondisc*

Searching the Internet

- 1) Browsers
 - a) Allows you to move easily among the millions of Web sites.

- i) Netscape—employed at most colleges and universities.
 - ii) Microsoft’s Internet Explorer.
 - iii) On-line services such as CompuServe, Prodigy, and America Online offer their own browsers.
- b) Unless you have a systematic method of finding the precise materials that you need for a speech, you can spend hours browsing with little in the way of practical results.
- 2) Search Engines.
 - a) Used to find exactly what you need.
 - b) Each search engine has its strengths and weaknesses; each has its own procedures for in-depth searches.
 - i) Yahoo.
 - ii) Alta Vista
 - iii) Lycos
 - iv) InfoSeek.
 - v) Google.
- 3) Keyword Searches
 - a) Alta Vista Search.
 - i) Typing in *Attention deficit disorder*, yields every document that has either *attention, deficit, or disorder*.
 - ii) Typing in “attention deficit disorder” yields only documents including all.
 - iii) Typing in + adult + “attention deficit disorder” yields only adult attention deficit disorder.
 - b) Basic principles for doing precise, pinpointed keyword searches are similar from search engine to search engine.
- 4) Subject Searches
 - a) Most popular subject-based search engine is Yahoo.
 - b) Find links to a number of general topic areas, including Business, Education, Government, health, News, Science, Society and Sports.
 - c) Clicking on topics brings up list of subtopics.
- 5) Bookmarks.
- 6) Specialized Research Resources.
 - a) Government resources.
 - i) *Federal Web Locator* (<http://www.law.vill.edu/Fed-Agency/fedwebloc.html>)
 - ii) *Fed World Information Network* (<http://www.fedworld.gov>)
 - iii) *State and Local Government on the Net* (<http://www.piperinfo.com/state/states.html>)
 - b) Reference Sources.
 - i) *Virtual Reference Collection* (<http://www.lib.uci.edu/home/virtual/virtual.html>)
 - (1) Link to electronic dictionaries, encyclopedias, phone directories, geographical works, U.S. historical documents, and much more.
 - ii) *Virtual Reference Desk* (<http://thorplus.lib.purdue.edu/reference/index.html>)
 - iii) *Galaxy Quotations* (<http://galaxy.einet.net/galaxy/Reference/Quotations.html>)
 - iv) World Factbook (<http://www.odci.gov/cia/ciahome.html>)
 - v) *Statistical Abstract* (<http://www.census.gov/statab/www>)
 - c) Periodical Resources.
 - i) *Pathfinder* (<http://www.pathfinder.com>)

- (1) Provides free full-text Web versions of selected articles from Time-Warner magazines, including *Time*, *Fortune*, *People*, and *Sports Illustrated*.
- (2) A good search engine.
- ii) *Electronic Newstand* (<http://www.eneews.com>)
 - (1) One of largest and most diverse magazine resources on the Internet.
 - (2) Excellent search capability and provides, without charge, the full text of current and past articles from some 200 publications.
- iii) *Starting Point: Magazines* (<http://www.stpt.com/magazine/magazine.html>)
 - (1) Bills itself as the fastest way to research magazine resources on the Web.
 - (2) Conducts keyword searches in addition to cataloguing magazines by subject.
 - (3) A fee may be required to access the full text of articles.
- iv) *UnCoverWeb* (<http://uncweb.carl.org>)
 - (1) Indexes 17,000 scholarly journals and popular magazines.
 - (2) For a fee, you can get articles faxed to you within a day, but you can search the entire database for free.
 - (3) The ultimate periodical index.
- d) News Resources.
 - i) Most U.S. newspapers now have their own Web sites, as do the major television news organizations.
 - ii) Other services.
 - (1) *United States: Newspaper Services on the Internet* (<http://www.mediainfo.com/ephome/npaper/nphtm/e-papers/e-papers.us.html>)
 - (a) One-stop shopping for U.S. online newspapers.
 - (b) Contains links to everything from the *New York Times* and *Washington Post* to the *Pueblo*, *Colorado*, *Chieftain* and the *Amarillo*, Texas, *Globe-News*.
 - (2) *Newsroom* (<http://www.auburn.edu/~vestmon/news.html>)
 - (a) Provides links to most leading newspapers and broadcast news organizations, including Reuters, CNN, ABC, and CBS.
 - (b) An excellent site for business and financial news.
 - (3) *NewsLink* (<http://www.newslink.org>)
 - (a) Claims to be the Web's most comprehensive news site, with links to hundreds of newspapers, magazines, and broadcasters.
 - (b) Provides access to campus papers from colleges and universities across the United States.
- e) Multicultural Resources.
 - i) A global phenomenon, and it mirrors the internationalism and diversity of our modern ages.
 - (1) *Yahoo: Society and Culture—Cultures* (http://www.yahoo.com/Society_and_Culture/Cultures/)
 - (a) A great starting point that offers links to scores of countries and cultures around the world, as well as to racial and ethnic groups within the United States.
 - (2) *Index of Native American Resources on the Internet* (<http://hanksville.phast.umass.edu/misc/Naresources.html>)

- (a) Comprehensive, well organized resource with hundreds of links to sites dealing with Native American history, language, culture, education, health, art, and the like.
- (3) *Asian American Resources* (<http://www.mit.edu/activities/aar/aar.html>)
 - (a) Provides links to scores of Web sites that feature topics, writings, and organizations of special interest to Asian Americans.
- (4) *Tesoros del Web* (<http://www.hisp.com/tesoros/index.html>)
 - (a) One of several excellent Web sites devoted to Latino- and Latina-related issues.
 - (b) Includes links to the homepages for Hispanic members of the U.S. Congress.
- (5) *African American Web Connection* (<http://www.aawc.com:80/aawc.html>)
 - (a) Deals with all aspects of African-American life, including history, business, politics, and religion.
 - (b) Provides links to organizations such as the National Urban League, Congressional Black Caucus, and NAACP.

Interviewing

- 1) Before the Interview.
 - a) Define the purpose of the interview.
 - b) Decide whom to interview.
 - i) In dealing with administrative organizations it is usually best to go to the leaders first.
 - ii) If you need more specific information, they can get it for you or put you in touch with the right person.
 - c) Arrange the interview.
 - i) It is easier to brush someone off over the telephone than in person; go in person.
 - ii) Introduce yourself, identify your exact purpose, and explain why the interview is important.
 - iii) If your purpose is a serious one and you conduct yourself well, the person you ask to interview is likely to cooperate.
 - d) Decide whether or not to use a tape recorder.
 - i) Interviewee must agree.
 - ii) Two major advantages of using a tape recorder.
 - (1) Concentrate on the interviewee's message and on formulating your questions.
 - (2) Your record of the interview will be exact—there will be no possibility of misquoting or of forgetting important facts.
 - iii) Disadvantages.
 - (1) Interviewee may feel uncomfortable.
 - (2) Have to listen and take notes later.
 - (3) Never smuggle the tape recorder in without consent.
 - e) Prepare your questions.
 - i) Devise questions that are sensible, intelligent, and meaningful.
 - ii) Types of questions to avoid:
 - (1) Questions you can answer without the interview.
 - (2) Leading questions.
 - (3) Hostile, loaded questions.

- iii) Need not shy away from tough questions.
 - (1) Just phrase them as neutrally as possible and save them until near the end of the interview.
 - (2) Ask tough questions at end; if your interviewee becomes irritated or uncooperative, you'll still get most of the information you want.
- 2) During the interview.
 - a) Dress appropriately and be on time.
 - b) Repeat the purpose of the interview.
 - c) Set up the tape recorder, if you are using one.
 - d) Keep the interview on track
 - e) Listen carefully.
 - f) Don't overstay your welcome.
- 3) After the interview
 - a) Review your notes as soon as possible.
 - b) Transcribe your notes

LESSON SEVEN

Supporting Your Ideas

Supporting Materials and Critical Thinking

- 1) The skillful use of supporting materials often makes the difference between a poor speech and a good one.
- 2) Must decide which ideas need to be supported given your audience, topic, and specific purpose.
- 3) Must do research to find materials that will bring your ideas across clearly and creatively.
- 4) Must evaluate your supporting materials to make sure they really do back up your ideas.
- 5) Make sure your supporting materials are accurate, relevant, and reliable.
 - a) Are my examples representative?
 - b) Am I using statistical measures correctly?
 - c) Am I quoting reputable, qualified sources?

Examples

- 1) Introduction.
 - a) Research has shown that vivid, concrete examples have more impact on listeners' beliefs and actions than any other kind of supporting material.
 - b) Without examples, ideas often seem vague, impersonal, and lifeless.
 - c) With examples, ideas become specific, personal, and lively.
- 2) Brief Examples: mentions a specific instance to demonstrate a more general statement.
 - a) Also called specific instances.
 - b) May be used to introduce a topic.
 - c) Are concise and to the point.
 - d) Another way to use brief examples is to pile them one upon the other until you create the desired impression.
- 3) Extended Examples: an extended example contains more detail and allows you to dwell more fully on a single instance.
 - a) Often called illustrations, narratives, or anecdotes.
 - b) They are longer and more detailed than brief examples.
 - c) By telling a story vividly and dramatically, they pull listeners into the speech.
- 4) Factual examples: based on a real event or person.
 - a) Factual examples provide strong support for any assertion because they ground the point you are making in reality.
 - b) If the speaker's association with topics is direct—when you actually know the persons involved as opposed simply to having read about them—the factual examples are even stronger.
- 5) Hypothetical Examples: a composite of actual people, situations, or events.
 - a) Examples can be either factual or hypothetical.
 - i) Although invented by the speaker, it represents reality.
 - ii) It is a fiction that may open the door to truth even better than a factual example.

- b) Usually a brief story that relates a general principle.
 - i) Can create a realistic scenario, relate it directly to listeners, and get them involved in the speech.
 - ii) When use hypothetical example, it is good idea to follow it with statistics or testimony to show that the example is not far-fetched.
 - c) An example: “Let me tell you about Mary Jones. Mary lives in a shack that backs up to what the newspaper calls ‘Sugar Ditch.’ But that’s not what the residents call it. Because none of the houses in the area have inside plumbing, raw sewage is often dumped into the ditch. That’s where it gets the name residents use. Mary, her sister Jasmine, Mary’s four children, and Jasmine’s two children all live in this three-room shack. The outside walls are covered with tarpaper. Inside, wadded-up newspapers are jammed into cracks to keep out the cold winter winds. An old pot-bellied stove provides heat and a way for Mary to cook. Does Mary Jones exist? Yes and no. There is not a Mary Jones, but there are *many* Mary Joneses in Pottsville and in other towns and cities in our nation. We all pay the price for the way they must live.”
 - d) Hypothetical examples must be true to the reality they represent.
 - i) To satisfy ethical standards, their hypothetical nature must be acknowledged in the speech (“There is not a Mary Jones but there are many Mary Joneses...”)
 - ii) They work best and are most ethical when they accompany and bring to life facts and figures and testimony that demonstrate that the situation they illustrate does indeed exist.
- 6) Tips for using examples.
- a) Use examples to clarify your ideas.
 - i) Examples are an excellent way to clarify unfamiliar or complex ideas.
 - ii) Example put abstract ideas into concrete terms that listeners can easily understand.
 - b) Use examples to reinforce your ideas.
 - i) If claim that violence in the workplace has reached epidemic proportions in the U.S., may give plenty of examples to prove point.
 - ii) When you use such examples, make sure they are representative—that they do not deal with unusual or exceptional cases.
 - iii) Listeners may feel betrayed if they suspect you have chosen an atypical example to prove a general point.
 - c) Use examples to personalize your ideas.
 - i) People are interested in people.
 - ii) Most people are more deeply influenced by one clear, vivid, personal example than by an abundance of statistical data.
 - iii) The abstract becomes more meaningful when applied to a person.
 - d) Make your examples vivid and richly textured.
 - i) Examples supply everyday details that bring the example to life.
 - ii) More likely to stay in audience’s mind.
 - e) Practice delivery to enhance your extended examples.
 - i) An extended example is just like a story.
 - ii) The impact of your story will depend as much on delivery as on content.
 - iii) When you use an extended example, think of yourself as a storyteller.
 - iv) Don’t race through the example as though you were reading a newspaper; use your voice to get listeners involved.

- v) Speak faster to create a sense of action; slower to build suspense.
- vi) Raise your voice in some places; lower in others.
- vii) Pause occasionally for dramatic effect.
- viii) Maintain eye contact with your audience.
- ix) As you practice your speech, “talk through” your extended examples without relying on your notes.

Statistics

- 1) Introduction.
 - a) Lord Kelvin (19th century physicist): “When you can measure what you are speaking about, and express it in numbers, you know something about it. But when you cannot measure it, when you cannot express it in numbers, your knowledge is...meager and unsatisfactory.”
 - b) Like brief examples, statistics are often cited in passing to clarify or strengthen a speaker’s points.
 - c) Statistics can be used in combination—stacked up to show the magnitude or seriousness of an issue.
- 2) Understanding statistics.
 - a) Are the statistics representative?
 - b) Are statistical measures used correctly (mean, median, mode).
 - i) Statistics can be presented with partisan motives.
 - ii) Statistics can be interpreted by many different ways.
 - c) Are the statistics from a reliable source?
 - i) Seek figures gathered by objective, nonpartisan sources.
- 3) Tips for using statistics.
 - a) Use statistics to quantify your ideas.
 - i) The main value of statistics is to give your ideas numerical precision.
 - ii) Research has shown that the impact of examples is greatly enhanced when they are followed by statistics that show the examples to be typical.
 - b) Use statistics sparingly.
 - i) Can put audience to sleep by quoting statistics from beginning to end.
 - ii) Use statistics only when they are needed, and then make sure they are easy to grasp.
 - c) Identify the sources of your statistics.
 - d) Explain your statistics.
 - i) Statistics don’t speak for themselves.
 - ii) They need to be interpreted and related to your listeners.
 - iii) Explaining what statistics mean is particularly important when you deal with large numbers, since they are hard to visualize.
 - iv) Whenever you use statistics in your speeches, think of how you can make them meaningful to your audience.
 - v) Be creative in thinking of ways to relate your statistics to your audience.
 - e) Round off complicated statistics.
 - f) Use visual aids to clarify statistical trends.
- 4) Where to find statistics.

- a) Statistics can be found in any kind of reputable publication—books, magazines, newspapers, scholarly journals, government documents, business reports.
- b) A world almanac can be a treasure house of interesting numbers.
- c) The *Statistical Yearbook* (put out by the United Nations).
- d) The *Statistical Abstract of the United States* (published annually since 1878 and also available on CD-ROM).
- e) The *Guinness Book of World Records* offers more esoteric information, such as the weight of the world's largest polished diamond, the internal temperature of the sun, and how many hours of television the average child watches by the age of eighteen.

Testimony

- 1) Introduction
 - a) Audiences tend to respect the opinions of people who have special knowledge or experience on the topic at hand.
 - b) By quoting or paraphrasing such people, you can give your ideas greater strength and impact.
 - c) Two major kinds of testimony.
 - i) Expert testimony.
 - ii) Peer testimony.
- 2) Expert testimony.
 - a) Testimony from people who are acknowledged authorities in their fields.
 - i) Citing the views of people who are experts is a good way to lend credibility to your speeches; shows that you are not just mouthing your own opinions, but that your position is supported by people who are knowledgeable about the topic.
 - ii) Expert testimony is even more important when a topic is controversial, innovative, unfamiliar, highly technical, or when the audience is skeptical about a speaker's point of view.
 - b) When using expert testimony, do not overlook the power of titles such as *scientist* or *doctor* when such terms can be used legitimately to identify a source.
 - c) Certain publications and institutions carry more weight than others.
 - i) Financial information from the *Wall Street Journal* may be better received than the same type of information from your local newspaper.
 - ii) Medical studies conducted at the National Institutes of Health may be more respected than similar studies done in smaller, less prestigious institutions.
- 3) Peer testimony.
 - a) Opinions of people like ourselves; not prominent figures, but ordinary citizens who have firsthand experience on the topic.
 - b) Especially valuable because it gives a more personal viewpoint on issues than can be gained from expert testimony.
 - c) Conveys the feelings, the knowledge, the insight of people who speak with the voice of genuine experience.
 - d) Can be used to increase identification—the sense of close relationship—between your listeners and your speech.
 - i) If listeners can identify with the sources you use because they are “just like us,” then they may be more willing to accept the point you are making.

- ii) Ronald Reagan made effective use of lay testimony in his first inaugural address as he quoted the diary of Martin Treptow, a young soldier who died on the Western front during World War I:
 “On the flyleaf under the heading, ‘My Pledge,’ he had written these words: ‘America must win this war. Therefore I will work, I will save, I will sacrifice, I will endure, I will fight cheerfully and do my utmost, as if the issue of the whole struggle depended on me alone.’”
- 4) Quoting versus paraphrasing
 - a) Put the gist of a person’s ideas in your own words.
 - b) Quotations are most effective when they are brief, when they convey your meaning better than you can, and when they are particularly eloquent, witty, or compelling.
 - c) Paraphrasing better in two situations.
 - i) When the wording of a quotation is obscure or cumbersome, as is often the case with government documents.
 - ii) When a quotation is longer than two or three sentences.
- 5) Tips for using testimony.
 - a) Quote or paraphrase accurately.
 - b) Accurate quotation involves three things.
 - i) Making sure you do not misquote someone.
 - ii) Making sure you do not violate the meaning of statements you paraphrase.
 - iii) Making sure you do not quote out of context.
 - (1) By quoting out of context, you can twist someone’s remarks so as to prove almost anything.
 - (2) Quoting or paraphrasing accurately is an important ethical responsibility for all communicators.
 - c) Use testimony from qualified sources.
 - i) Being a celebrity or an authority in one area does not make someone competent in other areas.
 - (1) Football player endorsing cereal.
 - (2) Comedian promoting a credit card.
 - ii) Listeners will find your speeches much more credible if you use testimony from sources qualified on the subject at hand.
 - d) Use testimony from unbiased sources.
 - i) Spokesperson for drug company denies the side effects of his drug.
 - ii) Careful listeners are suspicious of opinion from biased or self-interested sources.
 - iii) Be sure to use testimony from credible, competent, objective authorities.
 - e) Identify the people you quote or paraphrase.
 - i) The usual way to identify your source is to name the person and sketch her or his qualifications before presenting the testimony.
 - ii) If you use another person’s words or ideas without giving credit to that person, you will be guilty of plagiarism.

Narratives

- 1) Narratives go beyond the example by telling a story within the speech—narratives have plot lines.

- 2) Because people love stories and get caught up in the action, narratives—perhaps more than any other technique—can capture and hold attention and demonstrate the meaning of what the speaker is trying to communicate.
- 3) A narrative may be remembered long after the rest of the speech is forgotten.
- 4) Narration has a considerable history in public discourse.
 - a) Aesop’s fables have long warned children of the dangers of pride and deception.
 - b) Jesus used parables to illustrate moral lessons.
 - c) Narratives usually invite audiences to discover the “truth” for themselves.
- 5) A well-told story creates anticipation and suspense and brings a sense of concreteness to abstract concepts or principles.
 - a) Function like a speech within a speech, beginning with an attention-arousing introduction, continuing with a body in which the story develops, and ending with a conclusion that reinforces the point in question.
- 6) Examples:

President Reagan in a speech delivered at Pointe du Hoc, Normandy, as a D-Day memorial to the Allied forces who fought there during World War II:

“At dawn, on the morning of the 6th of June, 1944, 225 Rangers jumped off the British landing craft and ran to the bottom of these cliffs. Their mission was one of the most difficult and daring of the invasion: to climb these sheer and desolate cliffs and take out the enemy guns. The Allies had been told that some of the mightiest of these guns were here and they would be trained on the beaches to stop the Allied advance.

The Rangers looked up and saw the enemy soldiers [at] the edge of the cliffs shooting down at them with machine guns and throwing grenades. And the American Rangers began to climb. They shot rope ladders over the face of these cliffs and began to pull themselves up. When one Ranger fell, another would take his place. When one rope was cut, a Ranger would grab another and begin his climb again. They climbed, shot back, and held their footing. Soon, one by one, the Rangers pulled themselves over the top, and in seizing the firm land at the top of these cliffs, they began to seize back the continent of Europe.

Two hundred and twenty-five came here. After two days of fighting, only 90 could still bear arms.”

Concluding narratives leave the audience with something to remember and extend the impact of a message. They can establish a mood that will last long after the last words have been spoken. In a speech to the Rotarians of Murray, Utah, David Archambault, Lakota Sioux and president of the American Indian College Fund, used the following narrative as part of his conclusion:

“More than 100 years ago, our great chief Sitting Bull was murdered. His people—frightened that they too would be killed—set out on foot across South Dakota along with Chief Big Foot. Carrying their children, they fled across the frozen prairie through the bitter subzero cold 200 miles to seek refuge on the Pine Ridge reservation in southwestern South Dakota.

On December 29, 1890, near a creek now known to all the world as Wounded Knee, Chief Big Foot and his followers were massacred. No one knows who fired first, but when the shooting was over, nearly 300 Indians—men, women, and children—lay dead and dying across

the valley. Their bodies were dumped into a mass grave. The survivors were unable to hold a burial ceremony, a ceremony we call the wiping away of tears. It meant the living could never be free.

On the 100th anniversary of the massacre at Wounded Knee, several hundred of us on horseback retraced the journey of Big Foot and his band during those final days. We arrived at dawn at the site of the mass grave at Wounded Knee and completed the wiping of tears ceremony. The Si tanka Wokiksuye, the Chief Big Foot Memorial Ride, was a mourning ritual that released the spirits of our ancestors and closed a tragic chapter in our history.

We have the opportunity now to help rebuild our nation. And I do not mean just the Indian nations. On this 500th anniversary of Columbus's voyages, we together can build a better America, a nation enriched by the diversity of its people and strengthened by the values that bring us together as a community."

Conclusion

- 1) Speakers can involve the audience in the story by making them a part of the action by beginning with:
 - a) "Picture yourself in the following situation."
 - b) "Imagine that you are..."
- 2) In a narrative, dialogue is almost always preferable to paraphrase.
 - a) When speakers use dialogue, they reproduce conversation directly.
 - b) When they paraphrase, they summarize what was said.
 - c) Paraphrasing can save time, but it can also rob a narrative of power and authenticity.
- 3) Evaluating narratives.
 - a) Question whether the narrative is relevant to your purpose.
 - b) Narratives should never be used simply for the sake of telling a story or amusing your audience.
 - c) An irrelevant narrative distracts your audience and may even overpower your actual message.
 - d) Narrative should establish a mood consistent with the topic and meet acceptable standards of taste.
 - i) Stay away from narratives that foster negative stereotypes or contain language your audience would find offensive.
 - ii) Ask yourself whether the narrative will be interesting.

LESSON EIGHT

Specialized Speaking and Review

(From *Speech for Today*—A Beka Books)

We learn several things from good conversation:

- 1) We gain knowledge and understanding.
 - a) Helps us to distinguish good thoughts from bad; useful ideas from useless ones.
 - b) Talk things over with people we know.
- 2) We are able to judge other people by their conversation.
 - a) Find out what sort of people your acquaintances are—whether you admire them, trust them, think them amusing but silly, or heartily wish they would leave you alone.
 - b) People judge you by your conversation.
- 3) We gain inspiration.
 - a) We are stimulated by good conversation.
 - b) If we are discouraged, it takes us out of ourselves to talk with others.

How to Improve Conversation.

- 1) Give others a chance to talk.
 - a) Good conversation is both give and take.
 - b) You must listen as well as talk.
 - i) You don't cut in and take the talk away from your friends.
 - ii) You don't rehearse your next speech while they are talking.
 - iii) You really listen to them and talk when your turn comes again.
- 2) Don't be dogmatic.
 - a) Resent a dogmatic person who pushes us aside, seizes the floor, and disposes of the topic completely with an air that plainly says, "All right, I've settled that for you. Bring on the next subject."
 - b) Avoid arguments
 - i) Want to prove that you're right and others are wrong.
 - ii) If you want to lose your friends and make people heartily wish you would stay away, just argue on every subject that comes up.
 - iii) It won't take long to lose your friends.
- 3) Be considerate and tactful.
 - a) Two kinds of conversationalists.
 - i) One who thinks chiefly of himself and very little of the feelings of others.
 - ii) Often rude.
 - iii) Self-centered.
 - iv) Never asks himself whether he offends others or bores them.
 - v) In a sense, he doesn't care; all he wants is to be in the limelight.
 - (1) The "know-it-all"

- (2) The braggart
- (3) The interrupter.
- (4) The faultfinder.
- vi) Typical untactful remarks:
 - (1) Isn't that last year's dress?
 - (2) What did you pay for that suit?
 - (3) You look pale! You must be ill!
 - (4) You've put on weight. I notice your clothes don't fit.
 - (5) Does your father have a job yet?
- b) The truly considerate person has these qualities:
 - i) He talks about subjects that interest others. If the conversation lags, he introduces a new subject.
 - ii) He tries to see that everyone has a share in the conversation. If someone seems to be left out, he directs a question to that person or otherwise encourages him to talk.
 - iii) If someone makes a tactless remark, he covers it by carrying on the conversation as if nothing out of place had been said.
 - iv) If others try to start an argument, he avoids the argument by steering the subject away from disputable ground.
 - v) He avoids gossip.
 - vi) He never asks personal questions that are embarrassing.
- 4) Avoid Triteness.
 - a) Anyway...
 - b) Like...
 - c) You know what?
 - d) See?
 - e) You're kidding!
 - f) Whatever!
 - g) It was a breeze!
 - h) What's up?
 - i) To tell the truth...
 - j) No problem!
- 5) Practice improving your conversation.
 - a) Real improvement will come only from honest self-criticism and deliberate practice in improvement.
 - b) Ten questions to ask yourself:
 - i) Did you talk too much about yourself, or did you talk on subjects of interest to others?
 - ii) Did you do most of the talking, or did you give others a chance to talk?
 - iii) Did you pass the conversation on in a way that made it easy for others to take it up? Or did you try to be clever and put them in a hole?
 - iv) How often did you interrupt?
 - v) How many times did you try to argue?
 - vi) Did you steer away from dispute when others tried to start an argument?
 - vii) Did you listen, and show an interest in listening, while others talked?
 - viii) Did you encourage timid persons in your group to talk?
 - ix) Did you avoid asking embarrassing personal questions or making personal remarks?

- x) How often did you let trite expressions escape you?

Special Types of Conversations

- 1) Telephone Conversation.
 - a) The good telephone voice.
 - i) Speak slowly enough to be distinct.
 - ii) Enunciate your words clearly. If you are asked to repeat, even occasionally, it indicates a fundamental lack of distinctness.
 - iii) Do not shout or mumble, but speak as if to a person who is five or six feet away.
 - iv) Do not speak in a high shrill voice. This is bad enough at any time, but worse over the phone.
 - b) Making the call.
 - i) You interrupt the other person without regard for his convenience, leisure, or duties at the moment.
 - ii) Be considerate.
 - (1) Brevity is the first essential of telephone courtesy.
 - iii) Answering the call.
 - (1) Businesses.
 - (a) "This is _____'s office."
 - (b) "Vineyard Harvester Bible College, Kenneth Meadors speaking."
 - (2) Home.
 - (a) "Hello"
 - (b) Never give strangers personal information.
 - (i) Are your parents home?"
 1. "No, they will be out all afternoon." (unwise).
 2. "They can't come to the phone right now. May I take a message?" (better)
 - (ii) "Is this 475-3435?" or "What number is this?"
 - (iii) "Yes," or "No, this is 474-6544 (unwise)
 - (iv) "What number were you trying to reach?... That is not this number. You must have misdialed." (better).
 - 2) Introducing People to One Another.
 - a) As a general rule, the name of the honored person should be given first.
 - i) Women, older persons, and guest of honor are considered the honored person in introductions.
 - ii) Guests of honor take precedence over women and elder persons:
 - (1) Woman introduced to man—"Mrs. Jones, this is Mr. Taylor."
 - (2) Elder person to younger person—"Mr. Smith (elder), this is Tim Bailey."
 - (3) Girls to elder men—"Catherine, this is Mr. Woods. He is a good friend of your grandfather's."
 - (4) Hostess to guests—"Mrs. Records (hostess), this is Mr. And Mrs Brown and their children, Sarah and Bill."
 - (5) Clergyman to everyone—"Pastor Smith, this is the couple I've been wanting you to meet, Beth and John Miller."

- b) You should make introductions immediately, so that strangers are put at ease and awkward silences or embarrassing situations are prevented.

FINAL TEST REVIEW

- 1) The eight steps of the **Communication Process**.
 - a) Speaker
 - b) Idea
 - c) Message
 - d) Medium.
 - e) Listener
 - f) Response
 - g) Interference
 - h) Situation
- 2) Two kinds of **interference** in public speaking.
 - a) Internal.
 - b) External.
- 3) Communication Process.
 - a) The **speaker** is the person who is presenting an oral message to a listener.
 - b) An **idea** is a fabric of thoughts, feelings, information, and recommendations.
 - c) The **message** is whatever a speaker communicates to someone else.
 - d) **Medium** is the means by which a message is communicated.
 - i) Radio—voice only.
 - ii) Television—voice and image.
 - e) The **listener** is the person who receives the communicated message.
 - f) **Response** or Feedback.
 - i) The immediate response, called feedback, can take the form of puzzled looks, smiles or frowns, nods of agreement, and looks of intense interest or boredom.
 - ii) Feedback is the message(s), usually nonverbal, sent from a listener to a speaker.
 - g) **Interference** is anything that impedes the communication of a message.
 - h) The **situation** is the time and place in which speech communication occurs.
- 4) **Ethnocentrism**.
 - a) Ethnocentrism is the belief that one's own group or culture is superior to all other groups or cultures.
 - b) Tend to see our values, beliefs, and customs as being natural while believing that others are unnatural.
 - c) If speakers are to be successful, they must show respect for the cultures of the people they address.
- 5) **Ethics** is the branch of philosophy that deals with issues of right and wrong in human affairs.
 - a) An ethical speech is based on respect for the audience, responsible knowledge of the topic, and concern for the consequences
 - b) Guidelines for Ethical Speaking
 - i) Make sure your goals are ethically sound.
 - ii) Be fully prepared for each speech.
 - iii) Respect the audience's time; give them something worthwhile.

- iv) Be honest in what you say.
 - v) Ethically responsible speakers do not present other people's words as their own—do not plagiarize their speeches.
 - vi) Avoid name-calling and other forms of abusive language.
- 6) **Plagiarism** is presenting another person's language or ideas as one's own.
- a) **Global plagiarism** is stealing your speech entirely from another source and passing it off as your own.
 - b) **Patchwork plagiarism** occurs when a speaker pilfers from two or three sources.
 - c) **Incremental plagiarism** occurs when the speaker fails to give credit for particular parts—increments—of the speech that are borrowed from other people.
- 7) **Listening.**
- a) Four causes of poor listening.
 - i) Not concentrating.
 - ii) Listening too hard—try to remember all the details—and miss the speaker's point.
 - iii) Jumping to conclusions—putting words into a speaker's mouth.
 - iv) Focusing on delivery and personal appearance.
 - b) Focusing your listening.
 - i) Listen for main points.
 - ii) Listen for evidence.
 - iii) Listen for technique.
 - c) Guidelines for ethical listening.
 - i) Be courteous and attentive.
 - ii) Avoid prejudging the speaker.
 - iii) Maintain the free and open expression of ideas.
 - d) How to Become a Better Listener
 - i) Take listening seriously.
 - ii) The first step to improvement is always self-awareness.
 - iii) Resist distractions.
 - iv) Don't be diverted by appearance or delivery.
 - v) Suspend judgment.
- 8) The first step in speechmaking is choosing a topic.
- a) Usually the topic is determined by the occasion, the audience, and the speaker's qualifications.
 - b) Two broad categories of potential topics.
 - i) Subjects you know a lot about.
 - ii) Subjects you want to know more about.
- 9) The **general purpose** usually falls into one of two overlapping categories—
- a) To inform.
 - b) To persuade.
- 10) The **specific purpose** of your speech should focus on one aspect of a topic.
- 11) The **central idea** of a speech is a concise statement of what you expect to say; most of the time it will encapsulate the main points to be developed in the body of the speech.
- a) Sometimes called the thesis statement, the subject sentence, or the major thought.
 - b) Usually expressed as a simple, declarative sentence that refines and sharpens the specific purpose statement.
- 12) The purpose of a speech is to gain a desired response from listeners.

- 13) Adjusting to the communication environment includes the *time* of your presentation; the *place* in which you will speak, *context* of your speech, *nature and purpose* of the occasion, and the anticipated *size* of your audience.
- 14) Gathering information systematically is called **demographic audience analysis**.
- Age.
 - Gender.
 - Educational level.
 - Religion.
 - Group membership.
- 15) Information may be gathered from an audience either by questionnaires or interviewing.
- 16) Avoiding **sexist language**.
- Avoid references that tend to be stereotypical demeaning views of women.
 - Making gender references where the gender is unknown or irrelevant.
 - Generic use of masculine pronouns, (Man's advances in science)
 - Using he when the intended reference is to both sexes.
- 17) **Educational level**.
- The more educated, the more you can assume they know about general topics and current affairs.
 - Generally more concerned with social, consumer, political, and environmental issues.
 - Higher educational level, broader their range of interests.
 - Tend to be more open-minded.
- 18) Knowing the **religious affiliations** of listeners can provide useful information because religious training often underlies the social and cultural values that form the foundation of attitudes.
- 19) When utilizing questioning, there are three major types of questions to choose from.
- Fixed-alternative questions.
 - Scale questions.
 - Open-ended questions.
- 20) Our needs, wants, and wishes make up our **motivation**, the force that impels us to action and directs our behavior toward specific goals.
- Motivation explains why people behave as they do.
 - Major motives.
 - Comfort.
 - Safety.
 - Friendship.
 - Recognition.
 - Curiosity.
 - Tradition.
 - Nurturance.
 - Enjoyment.
- 21) **Attitudes** include our beliefs—what we know or think we know about something—and the way we are predisposed to act toward it.

Gathering Information

- 22) **Periodical Indexes**—helps you locate specific magazine or journal articles.

- 23) **Special indexes.**
- a) *Applied Science and Technology Index.*
 - b) *Social Sciences Index.*
 - c) *Art Index.*
 - d) *Hispanic American Periodicals Index.*
- 24) **Newspaper Indexes.**
- a) Back issues of several major U.S. newspapers are now indexed, including the *New York Times*, *Wall Street Journal*, *Christian Science Monitor*, *Los Angeles Times*, *Washington Post*, *Atlanta Constitution*, and *USA Today*.
- 25) **Special encyclopedias** include: *Encyclopedia of Philosophy*, *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*, *Encyclopedia of World Art*.
- 26) You would find in the *World Almanac and Book of Facts*:
- a) Nobel Prize winners since 1901.
 - b) The most-watched television shows of the previous year.
 - c) Records for professional and collegiate sports.
 - d) The literacy rate in Afghanistan.
 - e) Natural resources of Peru.
- 27) Gazetteers are geographical dictionaries.
- 28) Most **government documents** provide more in-depth information than that found in most almanacs.
- a) Includes reports on congressional hearings, legislation, and proceedings; the proclamations, orders, and other formal statements of the president; and opinions and decisions of the Supreme Court.
 - b) Some major government publications:
 - i) *Congressional Record*: daily account of the proceedings of Congress.
 - ii) *Federal Register*: proclamations and orders of the president and regulations of various departments of government.
- 29) Major **search engines** for the internet.
- a) Yahoo.
 - b) Alta Vista
 - c) Lycos
 - d) InfoSeek.
 - e) Google.

Supporting Material

- 30) The skillful use of supporting materials often makes the difference between a poor speech and a good one.
- a) Research has shown that vivid, concrete examples have more impact on listeners' beliefs and actions than any other kind of supporting material
- 31) An **extended example** contains more detail and allows you to dwell more fully on a single instance.
- a) Often called illustrations, narratives, or anecdotes.
- 32) **Hypothetical Examples**: a composite of actual people, situations, or events.
- a) Examples can be either factual or hypothetical.
 - b) Hypothetical examples must be true to the reality they represent.

- 33) Tips for using examples.
- a) Use examples to clarify your ideas.
 - b) Examples are an excellent way to clarify unfamiliar or complex ideas.
 - c) Examples put abstract ideas into concrete terms that listeners can easily understand.
 - d) Use examples to reinforce your ideas.
 - e) Use examples to personalize your ideas.
 - f) Make your examples vivid and richly textured.
- 34) Like brief examples, **statistics** are often cited in passing to clarify or strengthen a speaker's points.
- a) Explain your statistics; statistics don't speak for themselves; they need to be interpreted and related to your listeners.
- 35) **Expert testimony** is a testimony from people who are acknowledged authorities in their fields.
- 36) **Peer testimony** includes the opinions of people like ourselves; not prominent figures, but ordinary citizens who have firsthand experience on the topic.
- a) Especially valuable because it gives a more personal viewpoint on issues than can be gained from expert testimony.
- 37) **Paraphrasing** puts the gist of a person's ideas in your own words.
- 38) **Narratives** go beyond the example by telling a story within the speech—narratives have plot lines.