



TEACHING MATERIALS PUBLIC SPEAKING

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FOREWORD

In the name of Allah, the Most Merciful, the All-merciful, we praise Him who has given us His mercy, guidance, and guidance so that we can complete the public speaking.

This public speaking material is structured to the maximum as a teaching material that is used to help students in the recovery process. For that we extend our thanks to all those who have contributed to the preparation of this paper.

In spite of all that, we are fully aware that there are still shortcomings both in terms of the ordering of sentences and language. Therefore, with open hands we accept all advice and criticism from readers so that we can improve this teaching material.

Finally, we hope that this material will be useful to students and inspire readers.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC SPEAKING



A. Introduction

Humans have a unique ability to communicate via regulated language systems, therefore public speaking is a crucial skill. Despite its importance, many people dislike or are unwilling to give speeches. This book aims to teach readers the fundamental concepts of communication and public speaking, including the benefits of learning, the transactional model of communication, the fundamental components of the communication process, various types of speeches, and the eleven most important public speaking abilities. Readers can learn and apply these approaches to develop engaging speeches and deliver them in their own distinctive style.

B. Material

1. Benefit of Public Speaking

The Association of American Colleges and Universities emphasizes the importance of a specific set of skills for a globally engaged democracy and a dynamic, innovation-driven economy (Rhodes, 2010, p. 10). Public speaking is one of the core skills included in the "Intellectual and practical skills" category. This isn't unexpected given how important communication skills are for intellectual development, job advancement, and civic engagement. Public speaking is a crucial employability skill for job applicants in the United States, applicable to all majors and occupations (Rockler-Gladen, 2009; US Department of Labor, 2000). Whatever your goals and interests are, improving your speaking skills will help your personal, professional, and public life. According to the expert above public speaking is communication skill to the development someone to achive high intellectual in their job.

a. Personal

People don't simply give presentations at work and in class. In our personal lives, we are occasionally required to deliver speeches. Perhaps it is for a particular occasion, such as a wedding toast. We may be requested to deliver a eulogy at the funeral of a friend or loved one. Volunteer work may require introducing a guest speaker at an event, as well as presenting or accepting a service award. Practicing public speaking can enhance our ability to play important roles in our family and community. Another significant personal benefit of public speaking is

increased self-confidence. It's no surprise that speaking in public is intimidating, but by participating in the activity, you'll gain confidence from the experience.

b. Professional

TV announcers, professors, lawyers, and entertainers must be able to communicate effectively, but most other jobs require or benefit from public speaking skills. It is estimated that 70% of employment nowadays require some type of public speaking (Aras 2012). With the current economic shift from industrial to service careers, communication skills have become increasingly important. According to top CEOs, outstanding leaders must be able to successfully express their ideas, convince, develop support, negotiate, and talk in public. The chapters "Informative Speaking" and "Persuasive Speaking" might help readers understand how to create presentations that improve their leadership abilities.

However, before you can begin your career, you must first find work. Effective speaking skills make you more appealing to employers, increasing your chances of finding work and eventually progressing in your career. Employers, career counselors, and the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) all place effective communication skills at the top of their lists of desired traits in future employees. According to NACE's executive director, Marilyn Mackes, the Job Outlook 2013 Report indicated that businesses want people who can communicate effectively (Koncz & Allen, 2012). Monster.com states that "articulating thoughts clearly and concisely will make a difference in both a job

interview and subsequent job performance" (McKay, 2005).

c. Public

Public speaking is crucial for democracy and societal development. It allows for critical evaluation of speeches and understanding public challenges. Goddu and Russ's book, "Listening Effectively" and "Critical Thinking and Reasoning," enhance these skills. Advocates of new ideas have led to progress in areas like segregation, women's rights, and environmental protection.

2. Model of Communication

It should be evident by now that public speaking occurs in a variety of contexts. However, in order to fully comprehend what is going on in these presentations, we must first take a step back and examine some of the important components of communication. Model of communication is divided into two:

a. Linear

Shannon and Weaver's 1949 linear model of communication, initially designed for radio and television transmission, later applied to human communication. It consists of the sender, channel, and receiver, representing the sender, channel, and receiver respectively. However, this model is unsuitable for face-to-face communication or giving a speech, as it is more involved than just sending a message.

Linear Model of Communication



Figure.1 Linear Model of Communication

b. Transactional

Communication models have developed greatly since Shannon and Weaver proposed their well-known conceptual model more than sixty years ago. Barnlund's (2008) transactional model of communication is a valuable tool for studying public speaking. The transactional model views communication as a continuous, cyclical process. We are always influencing and being influenced by the people we communicate with. The transactional model consists of several interdependent processes and components, such as the encoding and decoding processes, the communicator, the message, the channel, and noise. Although not explicitly addressed in Barnlund's (2008) original transactional model, participants' worldviews and context are essential factors in the communication process. Figure 2 on the following page provides an illustration.

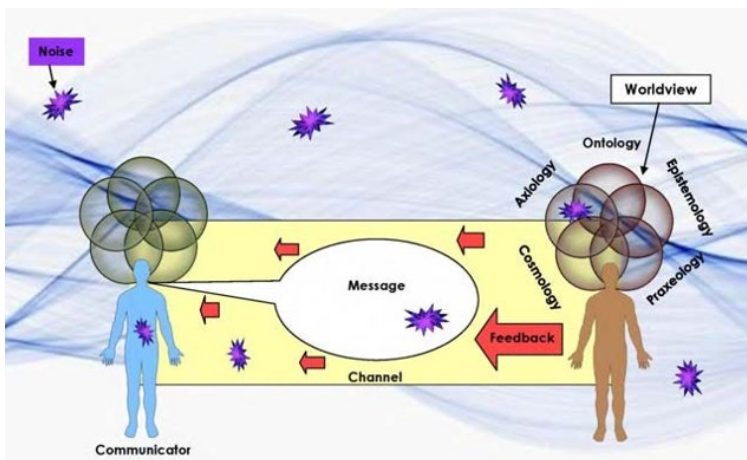


Figure 2. Illustration Transactional Model of Communication

3. Element of the Communication Process

a. Encoding and Decoding

Encoding involves connecting an idea or mental image with words to communicate a message, like giving instructions to an aunt about a new apartment.

Decoding involves hearing words, thinking about them, and converting them into mental representations, like your aunt constructing a mental map of your apartment's route.

b. Communicator

The term communicator refers to all those involved in an encounter or speech setting. It is used instead of sender and receiver because when we communicate with others, we are both sending and receiving messages at the same time. When we communicate, we study others' nonverbal conduct to determine whether they comprehend us and their emotional condition. The

information gleaned from these observations is known as feedback.

Over the phone, we listen to paralinguistic cues such as pitch, tone, volume, and fillers (e.g., "um," "uh," "er," "like," and so on). This implies that communication is not a one-way process. Even when we're giving a public speech, we pay attention to the reactions of the audience. Audience members who are interested, agree, and understand us may lean forward in their chairs, nod their heads, make positive or neutral facial expressions, and provide positive voice cues (such as laughter, "That's right," "Uh-huh," or "Amen!").

If audience members are bored, disagree, or are confused by our message, they may text or look away from us, shake their heads, have unhappy or confused expressions on their faces, or present oppositional vocal cues (such as groans, "I don't think so," "That doesn't make sense," or "You're crazy!"). Thus, communication is always a transactional activity, involving the exchange of messages.

c. Message

The message consists of verbal and nonverbal activities performed by communicators that are interpreted meaningfully by others. The verbal element of the communication relates to the things we say, but the nonverbal portion comprises our tone of voice and other non-verbal components such as personal appearance, posture, gestures and body movements, eye behavior, how we use space, and even how we smell. For example, a person who stands up to talk in a good suit will be

perceived more positively than someone who gives the same speech in sweatpants and a graphic t-shirt.

Using a monotone voice to persuade others to donate to a charity that constructs wells in destitute African villages is less effective than speaking with a somber tone. If there is a dispute between the verbal and nonverbal elements of a message, people tend to believe the nonverbal portion. Tense your muscles, clasp your hands at your sides, draw your brows together, purse your lips, and tell someone in a stern voice, "NO, I'm not angry!" Determine whether they believe your words or your nonverbal conduct. The message may also be intentional or unintended. When the message is purposeful, it indicates that we have an image in our brains that we want to transmit to an audience or a person in a conversation, and we can successfully transfer that image from our minds to the minds of others with reasonable precision. An accidental communication is conveyed when the message we intend to send differs from the one received by the other person.

Assume you're coming from an outing with your significant other, and she or he says, "Did you have a good time?" You had a good time but were distracted by a television commercial when asked, so you replied in a neutral tone, "Sure, I had fun." Your significant other may read your apathetic tone of voice and lack of eye contact as signs that you did not enjoy the evening, despite the fact that you did. As communicators, we cannot always be certain that the message we desire to convey is received as intended.

d. Noise

The noise component of the communication model comes next. Noise is anything that interferes with message transmission or reception. There are various forms of noises. The first sort of noise is physiological noise, which refers to body processes and conditions that interfere with a signal. For example, if a speaker has a headache or the flu, or if audience members are overheated or hungry, these factors can interfere with message accuracy. The second category of noise is psychological noise.

Psychological noise refers to mental or emotional conditions that disrupt message transmission or reception. For example, if someone has recently split up with a significant other, is concerned about their grandma in the hospital, or is thinking about their shopping list, these factors may all interfere with communication processes. The third form of noise is actual physical noise, which simply refers to the sound intensity in a room. Loud music at a party, a group of eager people conversing, a lawnmower outside the window, or anything else that is too loud will disrupt communication. The final sort of noise is cultural noise.

Cultural noise refers to message interference caused by differing worldviews. **Worldview** is covered in greater depth below, but suffice it to say that the bigger the disparity in worldview, the more difficult it is to understand and communicate successfully.

e. Channel

The channel is merely the medium via which the communication passes. In face-to-face communication, the channel encompasses all of our senses, including what we see, hear, touch, smell, and possibly taste. When we communicate with someone online, the channel is the computer; when texting, it is the cell phone; and when viewing a movie on cable, it is the television. The channel can have a significant impact on how a message is understood. Listening to a recording of a speaker has a different psychological impact than hearing the same speech in person or viewing them on television. One classic example is the 1960 televised presidential debate between John F. Kennedy and Richard Nixon. According to History.com (2012), Nixon looked away from the camera at the reporters asking him questions; he was sweaty and pallid, had facial hair stubble, and was dressed in a grey suit that blended into the set background. "Chicago mayor Richard J. Daley reportedly said [of Nixon], 'My God, they've embalmed him before he even died'" (History.com, (2012)). Kennedy, on the other hand, gazed into the camera, was tanned, wearing a black suit that made him stand out from the crowd, and appeared to be at ease after spending the entire weekend with aides practicing in a hotel room. The majority of those who listened to the radio broadcast of the debate believed it was a draw or that Nixon had won, but 70% of those who saw the television discussion thought Kennedy won.

f. Worldview

Most people do not give much thought to the communication process. The majority of our interactions with people are conducted on automatic pilot. Although the encoding and decoding processes appear to be simple, they are actually far more complex. The reason for this is that we all have distinct worldviews. Worldview is the overarching framework through which a person perceives, thinks about, interprets, and interacts with the world. Our worldview consists of five essential components.

- 1) Epistemology** refers to how we acquire and define knowledge. Consider the process of conducting research. Thirty years ago, finding a series of facts required using a card catalog and scouring the library shelves for volumes. Researchers can now access thousands of pages of information on their computer from the comfort of their own home. Epistemology is relevant to public speaking because it controls audience members' preferred learning modes and who or what they see as reliable sources.
- 2) Ontology** refers to our belief system, how we perceive the nature of reality, and what we consider true or untrue. We may or may not believe in aliens from outer space, butter is terrible for you, the Steelers will win the Super Bowl, or humanity will go extinct in 200 years. Speechwriters should avoid assuming that their audience members have the same beliefs. If a

speaker asserts that prayer will help with disease, yet numerous people in the audience are atheists, the speaker has lost credibility, and the audience members may feel outraged.

- 3) **Axiology** represents our value system, or what we believe is right or wrong, good or bad, fair or unfair. One method to learn what people value is to question them about their objectives or what attributes they search for in a life mate. Our ideals represent what we wish for; they do not reflect reality. Values can influence many aspects of the public speaking process, but they have a particularly strong impact on speaker credibility and persuasion efficacy. For example, some cultures respect modesty in women, so a female speaker wearing a sleeveless top while speaking may lose credibility with some audience members. Alternatively, if audience members value the right to bear arms over the benefits of government regulation, a speaker will have a tough time convincing them to vote for stricter gun control legislation.
- 4) **Cosmology** represents how we perceive our relationship to the cosmos and to other people. Cosmology shapes our perception of power dynamics and may influence our religious or spiritual views. Controversial speech themes (such as universal health care and the death sentence) are frequently linked to this component of worldview, since we must

evaluate our obligations to other people and our ability to influence them. Interestingly, cosmology would also influence such logistical issues as who is permitted to speak, the order of speakers on a schedule (e.g., from most to least important), the amount of time a speaker has to speak, the seating arrangement on the dais, and who gets the front seats in the audience.

- 5) **Praxeology** refers to our chosen strategy for doing daily activities or solving challenges. Some speech writers may begin working on their outlines as soon as they learn they will be giving a speech, while others may wait until a few days before the speech to begin preparing (we do not encourage this strategy). Praxeology may also influence a speaker's preferred delivery style, techniques of organizing important points, and slideware (e.g., PowerPoint versus Prezi). Understanding worldview is critical since it has a significant impact on the encoding and decoding processes, as well as our ability to communicate with others. Try this easy experiment. Ask two or three others to envision a dog silently as you do the same. "Dog" is a fairly concrete word (meaning it depicts a substantial object that can be perceived with the senses), and it is one of the first words that children in the United States learn in school. After a few seconds, ask each person what kind of dog they were thinking of.

g. Context

The final component of the communication process is the context in which the speech or interaction occurs. In the 1980s, context was defined as the real physical location where communication took place, such as a place of worship, an apartment, a job, a noisy restaurant, or a grocery shop. People communicate differently in each of these environments because they are governed by unwritten communication rules (known as norms). More recently, the concept of context has evolved and expanded to include the kinds of interactions we have with others and the linguistic rules that govern those relationships. So you don't speak to your best friend in the same way that you would to a little child, your parent, your boss, your doctor, or a police officer. And you may communicate with your best friend differently in your apartment than you do at your parents' house, and your communication may also shift when you are both out with pals on the weekend. In summary, context refers to the rules that regulate communication in various settings and relationships.

4. Types of Speeches

There are three main reasons for speaking in public. The occasion on which a speech is delivered usually determines its overall intent. The first broad objective is to educate your audience. An instructive speech is one in which the presenter defines, describes, or explains a certain person, place, object, process, concept, or issue. An educational speech would be given on occasions such as a report to coworkers, a teacher presenting facts to his or her class, or a job training session.

The second objective of public speaking is to convince. In a persuasive speech, the speaker aims to reinforce or influence their audience's beliefs, attitudes, sentiments, or values. Persuasion is employed in a variety of contexts, including a sales presentation to potential consumers, a politician's campaign speech, and a debate in public. The final general objective is to commemorate or entertain. These types of presentations frequently establish relationships between audience members by reminiscing a shared experience or by attempting to entertain them with humor, anecdotes, or visuals. A toast, such as a best man's speech at a wedding reception, a eulogy to honor the deceased, a commencement speech at graduation, or the presentation of an award are all examples of this. It is crucial to remember that these general goals may overlap with one another. While informing or persuading his or her audience, it may be appropriate to utilize some type of amusement.

5. Speaking Competencies

a. Usefull Topic

The first speaking ability is to choose a topic fit for the audience and the situation. An experienced speaker chooses a relevant topic that engages the audience. His topic also provides the audience with new knowledge that they did not know prior to the speech. A beginner speaker chooses a topic that lacks creativity or is out of date. His topic has no new information for the audience. An ineffective speaker may deliver a speech in which the listener is unable to deduce any specific theme.

b. Engaging Introduction

The second speaking competency is to provide an introduction that orients the listener to the topic and speaker. An advanced speaker creates an introduction that includes a strong attention-getter. She clearly demonstrates her credibility. She delivers a solid introduction to the subject, effectively presents her thesis, and summarizes her points in a logical and memorable manner. The beginning speaker's attention-getter is commonplace, and she gradually gains her credibility. Her thesis is clumsily constructed, and she gives no direction to the audience. The ineffectual speaker has no starting approach, no credibility assertion, and no background on the subject. In addition, she lacks a thesis statement and a summary of her views.

c. Clear Organization

Competency three is to employ an effective organizational pattern. An accomplished speaker is well-organized and presents a speech with distinct primary themes. His points are mutually exclusive and relevant to the thesis. Furthermore, he uses good transitions and signposts to keep the conversation flowing smoothly. The beginning speaker's key points are somewhat ordered, however their material may overlap. Transitions may appear in his speech, but they are not particularly effective. The unsuccessful speaker's speech lacks a clear organizational pattern, transitions, and appears to be offered at random.

d. Well-Supported Ideas

The fourth skill on the list of speaking competencies is the ability to seek, synthesize, and use convincing supporting materials. In the advanced speaker's speech, her essential points are well backed by a variety of reputable resources, and her sources are good for supporting her thesis. In addition, all of her sources are properly cited. A beginning speaker's views are typically supported by a diverse range of materials. Only a portion of her material supports her thesis, and her source citations should be explained. An unsuccessful speaker delivers a speech with no supporting materials or source citations.

e. Closure in Conclusion

The fifth speaking ability is to craft a conclusion that complements the argument and provides psychological closure. The advanced speaker summarizes his arguments in a concise and memorable manner, while also referring back to the thesis or larger picture. His speech concludes with a forceful clincher, or call to action. A beginning speaker gives a summary of his views, but there is no obvious relation to his thesis. The concluding technique of his speech can also be improved. An ineffective speaker's speech has no ending. His discourse ends abruptly and without conclusion.

f. Clear and Vivid Language

The sixth speaking capability is the ability to choose words carefully. An accomplished speaker's language is extremely clear, inventive, and vibrant. Her language is likewise free of bias, grammatical faults, and improper

usage. The beginning speaker chooses language that is adequate to convey her message. She makes minor language problems and occasionally utilizes slang, jargon, or strange phrase construction. The inept speaker makes several faults in grammar and syntax. She also mispronounces phrases and frequently employs slang, jargon, and/or sexist or racist language.

g. Suitable Vocal Expression

The seventh competency is the ability to effectively engage the audience through vocal expression and paralanguage. Advanced speakers have excellent use of vocal variety, intensity, and pacing. His vocal expression is spontaneous and energetic, and he avoids fillers. The beginning speaker's speech includes some vocal fluctuation. He also pronounces well, speaks audibly, and avoids fillers (such as "um," "uh," "like," etc.). An ineffective speaker is inaudible, has poor enunciation, and speaks in a monotonous voice. His speech is also poorly paced, and he uses fillers to distract listeners.

h. Coresponding Nonverbals

The eighth competency is to display nonverbal behavior that supports the verbal message. An accomplished speaker's posture, gestures, facial expressions, and eye contact are natural, well-developed, and exude poise and confidence. The beginning speaker relies on notes, but she maintains appropriate eye contact. She also avoids annoying mannerisms. The ineffective speaker typically looks down and avoids eye contact. She exhibits tense gestures and nonverbal mannerisms that detract from or contradict the message.

i. Adapted to the Audience

The ninth speaking ability is to properly tailor the presentation to the audience. The advanced speaker demonstrates how significant knowledge is to the audience members, tailoring his speech to their views, values, and attitudes. He may also make references to culturally relevant experiences. A new speaker assumes but does not communicate the significance of the topic. His presentation is little tailored to the audience, and some of the ideas offered in the speech are outside of the listener's frame of reference or experience. An unsuccessful speaker's speech contradicts the audience's beliefs, values, and attitudes. His message could be generic or canned, and no attempt is made to find common ground.

j. Adept Use of Visual Aids

The eleventh competency is knowing how to employ visual aids effectively. Advanced speakers excel in explaining and presenting visual aids. Her speech includes images that provide compelling insight into the speech topic, and they are of excellent professional quality. The visual aids used by the beginning speaker are generally carefully constructed and described, though small inaccuracies may occur. An ineffective speaker employs visual aids that detract from her message. Her visuals may be irrelevant or of low professional quality.

k. Convincing Persuasion

The eleventh and last speaking ability is to create an effective persuasive message using trustworthy evidence and sound reasoning. An accomplished speaker presents

the problem and solution in a clear and appealing manner. He backs up his claims with compelling and believable data while totally avoiding thinking fallacies. His message is a compelling call to action. In the first speaker's speech, the problem and solution are obvious, and most claims are supported by evidence. He has generally strong arguments and a clear call to action. For the ineffective speaker, the problem and/or remedy are not clear. His arguments are not backed by evidence, his speech comprises faulty reasoning, and there is no call to action.

C. Evaluation

1. What are the personal, professional, and public benefits of improving your public speaking abilities?
2. What distinguishes the linear and transactional models of communication?
3. Provide original examples of each communication process aspect. Which communication process factors do you believe have the most impact on message interpretation? Explain.
4. Define the three sorts of speeches. Give two instances of each of the three types of speeches, along with an occasion or setting in which they could be delivered.
5. List the 11 speaking competencies. For each ability given, explain the distinctions between the advanced and inexperienced speakers.

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CHAPTER II

ORIGINS OF PUBLIC SPEAKING



A. Introduction

The art of public speaking had existed long before the Greeks wrote about it in their treatises over 2,500 years ago. It was a way of life for Greek males, much as football and baseball are for us today. We owe today's field of communication to the ancient Greeks, who were the first to organize the skill of public speaking, which they named "rhetoric." The art or practice of public speaking has evolved significantly since its origins with the Greeks and then the Romans. Their era lacked multimedia tools such as television, radio, the internet, movies, newspapers, and so on to disseminate their messages to the public. Instead, the Greeks and Romans informed, commended, and convinced people the old-fashioned way: through speech, often known as oral tradition. That means speaking directly to their audience. The art of public speaking has evolved significantly since the days of Pericles, Cicero,

and Quintilian. Public speaking took us through the Middle Ages, was reborn as a result of the Renaissance, redefined to conquer and explain the known and unknown, interpreted to perform theatrics, and finally, along this historical path from the ancient Greeks and Romans, the art of public speaking was reinvented to accommodate the electronic age of the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. So, what is public speaking? Has it truly altered since the time of the Greeks and Romans, St. Augustine, and Descartes? No, the concept of public speaking has not altered; it has essentially remained the same. However, as the discipline of communication evolved from one century to the next, so did our understanding of public speaking.

This chapter is intended to provide you, the reader, with an authentic and extensive history of the origins of public speaking, beginning with the ancient Greeks and Romans. We will discover how the Greeks developed the skill of public speaking, which was later formalized and polished by the Romans. Following the fall of the Roman Empire, we will see how public speaking was kept alive by a few individuals until the Renaissance, when documents, or extants (treatises and writings that survived history), were discovered in Italy, and the scientific and humanistic approaches that defined the art of public speaking emerged. Finally, we look at the late nineteenth and twentieth centuries to better comprehend modern public speaking.

B. Material

1. Ancient Greece

a. The Rise of Democracy

To comprehend contemporary public speaking, we must first understand how it came to be. We start with the Greeks and rhetoric. Aristotle defined rhetoric as the "faculty of discovering in the particular case all the available means of persuasion" (Kennedy, 1963, p. 19). For the Greeks, rhetoric, or the art of public speaking, was primarily a technique of persuasion. Oral expression was important in Greek civilization, and this included the ability to inform and give praise speeches, known as epideictic (to laud or criticize someone). The ability to exercise rhetoric in public was a direct result of years of change in Attica's governance institutions (a peninsula jutting into the Aegean Sea centered on the city of Athens). Athenians were among of the most opulent people in the Mediterranean.

The Homeric Period, often known as "The Age of Homer," lasted from 850 B.C. to 650 B.C., and saw a transition in systems of government from monarchy to oligarchy, tyranny to eventual democracy in ancient Greece. Homer was an important character in ancient Greek literature and the author of the first epic poems, the Iliad and Odyssey. In 630 B.C., Ceylon, the last tyrant of Attica, seized the Acropolis, Athens' seat of government, and declared himself ruler of all Attica. He did not rule for long. Farmers and heavily armed foot warriors known as hoplites overran Ceylon in just a few

weeks. Many of Ceylon's followers were slaughtered, and the few that survived retreated into the mountains. Thus, Athenian democracy was established.

In 621 B.C., the citizens of Athens commissioned Draco, an elder citizen regarded as the wisest of the Greeks, to organize their laws into an organized system known as codification, because they had previously been an oral form of custom and tradition and had not been written down like modern laws are. Draco was only concerned with criminal acts, which were formerly resolved through blood feuds (an eye-for-an-eye type of revenge between families) or King's decrees. Draco established courts with juries to hear cases of murder, assault, and robbery. By converting criminal offense laws into norms of practice, Draco established the legal system in which cases were judged based on precisely defined crimes and penalties prescribed by statute rather than the whims of the nobles. His rules contributed to a boom in Athenian democracy.

In 593 B.C., Solon, an Athenian politician, modified Draco's laws and established the first type of popular democracy to Athens. Solon's courts served as a model for the Romans and, centuries later, for England and America. Murphy and Katula (1995) contended that "It is with Solon's reforms that we mark the unalterable impulse toward popular government in Western civilization" (p. 7). Legislative and judicial reform were both part of the Athenian democratic process. Athens rose to its pinnacle under Pericles' reign, which lasted from 461 B.C. to 429 B.C. Some of these triumphs

included the construction of a pure democracy, a liberalized legal system that allowed poor residents to serve on juries, and the formation of a popular legislative assembly to examine all legislation on a yearly basis. In addition, he established the power of any Athenian citizen to propose or reject legislation during assembly. Pericles' achievements greatly surpassed those described. His achievements elevated Athens to the hub of Western civilization, necessitating public speaking skills. Persuasion is the civilized substitute for harsh authority and ruthless force," wrote R.T. Oliver (1950, p. 1). Oliver stated that the recipients of any persuasive conversation must feel free to make a decision. In a free society, persuasion dictates rules, conduct, and serves as the regulating agent in human physical and mental activities. In every free society, people are constantly striving to influence the beliefs and/or actions of others. It is a basic principle of a free society. According to Ian Harvey (1951), persuasion is the skill of persuading free individuals to a pattern of life, and it is the only way to combine freedom and order. That combination, when effectively achieved, provides the solution to our time's major issues. Persuasion, public speaking, and democracy are inextricably linked. Democracy will endure as long as there is rhetoric and public speaking to transmit that message.

b. The Nature of Rethoric

Pericles' democracy emphasized the importance of public speaking training. Greek assembly debated old and new legislation on an annual basis. The courtrooms that

Solon restored were suddenly rife with litigation. Pericles' juries ranged from 500 to 2,000 persons, so speaking at a public trial was comparable to speaking at a public meeting. And speaking in a legislative assembly necessitated serious, well-developed, and sophisticated argument, because the topics at stake were typically those of peace and war. According to Murphy and Katula (1995), Athenian inhabitants recognized that their capacity to speak eloquently often determined their very future. Public speaking was an Olympic event, with the winner receiving an olive wreath and being paraded through town as a hero. Thus, Athens evolved into a city of words, ruled by the orator. Athens witnessed the beginnings of what we now know as rhetoric.

To suggest that rhetoric was significant in Greek and Roman culture would be an understatement. The importance of rhetoric and oratory was clear in Greek and Roman schooling. George Kennedy (1963) observed that rhetoric had a significant part in ancient teaching. At the age of fourteen, (only) males were sent to the rhetorician's school for theoretical instruction in public speaking, which was an important aspect of sophist education. "Public speaking was fundamental to the educational system of Isocrates (the most famous of the sophists), and it was even taught by Aristotle" (p.7).

c. Dialectic and Logic

It is vital to emphasize that rhetoric and oratory are not equivalent, despite the fact that we use the terms interchangeably. Neither are rhetoric and dialectic. Zeno of Elea (5th century B.C.), a Greek mathematician and

philosopher of the Eleatic school, is regarded as the originator of dialectical reasoning. However, the popularity of dialectical reasoning might be attributed to Plato, another Greek philosopher and Aristotle's teacher, rather than Socrates. Dialectic is a logical debate that seeks to resolve a problem between two conflicting (or polar opposite) concepts or elements by establishing truths on both sides rather than disproving one argument. Critical analysis can take several forms, including rhetoric and dialectic.

Sophists, or itinerant lecturers, were among the most influential intellectuals of the fifth century B.C. They were essentially political excellent teachers who addressed practical and current challenges of the day, and their inquiries often led to philosophical relativism. Unlike Socrates and Plato, the sophists held that absolute truth was unknowable and maybe nonexistent, particularly in forensics and politics, where no universal rules could be recognized. Courses of action needed to be presented persuasively. Unlike the sophists, Socrates taught that truth was absolute and knowable, and that a clear distinction should be made between dialectic, the question and answer method of obtaining the one correct answer, and rhetoric, which appears to be less concerned with the universal validity of the answer than with its persuasiveness at the time. Plato became the most well-known and thorough critic of eloquence. Plato preferred dialectic, a philosophical process of formal inquiry.

d. The Rhetorical Approach

Aristotle defined rhetoric as the ability to identify all available methods of persuasion in a given situation. He cited four uses for rhetoric: (1) it maintains truth and justice's natural superiority; (2) it is appropriate for popular audiences, who cannot follow scientific demonstrations; (3) it teaches us to see both sides of an issue and refute unfair arguments; and (4) it is a means of self-defense. Aristotle defines rhetoric as the act of formulating a persuasive argument, whereas oratory is the process of conveying that argument. He said that the "authors of 'Arts of Speaking' have built up but a small portion of the art of rhetoric; because this art consists of proofs alone - all else is but accessory." However, these writers mention nothing about enthymemes, the fundamental body and substance of persuasion.

Aristotle stated that rhetoric has no special subject-matter, meaning that it is not limited to specific topics and nothing else. He claimed that certain forms of persuasion originate outside of the art and are not inherent in it. This includes, for example, witnesses, forced confessions, and contracts, all of which Aristotle considered to be outside of the art of speech. He deemed these non-artistic proofs. Aristotle defined artistic proofs as those that must be given by the speaker's creation (the "faculty of discovering" that Aristotle employed in his definition of rhetoric), and these artistic ways of persuasion are threefold. They consist of (1) demonstrating a personal character in the speech that will gain the listener's confidence; (2) engaging the

listener's emotions; and (3) showing a truth, genuine or apparent, through argument. Aristotle reasoned that mastery of the art required (1) logical thinking (logos); a knowledge of character (ethos); and an understanding of emotions (pathos).

In summary, Plato opposed rhetoric and dialectic; Aristotle compared the two: both deal with topics that are common knowledge and not part of any specific study. They differ not in nature, but in subject and form: dialectic is largely philosophical, and rhetoric is political; dialectic consists of question and answer, while rhetoric is a scripted speech. Both can be reduced to a system and are thus appropriately referred to as "art."

Aristotle became the fundamental source for all subsequent rhetorical theory. Eventually, the struggle between rhetoric and philosophy during Aristotle's time resulted in a compromise in which philosophy acknowledged rhetoric as a means to an end. The rhetoric of not only Cicero and Quintilian, but also of the Middle Ages, Renaissance, and current times is fundamentally Aristotelian.

2. The Roman Republic's Adoption of Rhetoric

As Athens collapsed in power, a new force emerged: the Roman Republic. The Senate was the only permanent governing body and the only one where debate was permitted. To dispute, one needed to understand the persuasive skill of rhetoric and oratory, or public speaking. Greek rhetoric first arose in republican Rome in the middle of the second century BCE. The rhetoric professors were Greeks who taught in both Greek and Latin. Eventually, Roman

teachers were developed. According to Murphy and Katula (1995), the amazing thing about Roman rhetorical theory is that it initially appeared in its final form around 90 B.C., with very little direct evidence as to how it evolved into its completed form. Following Aristotle, writers improved and divided the subject of rhetoric into five parts: invention, arrangement, style, memory, and delivery. These five canons remain part of public speaking in school today.

a. Cicero's Influence

Marcus Tullius Cicero was born on January 3, 106 BC, and assassinated on December 7, 43 BC. His life coincided with the collapse and fall of the Roman Republic, and he played a key role in many of the major political events of the time. He is regarded as the greatest Roman orator and was also a lawyer, politician, and philosopher. In Cicero's Rome, the government gradually fell under the power of a well-trained ruling class. Legal training became an essential component of this governing class. Roman rhetoric established norms for all types of oratory; yet, legal speaking became the primary concentration of textbooks. Cicero is credited with penning the *De Inventione* when he was approximately twenty years old. It is significant because it provides insight into the overall character of rhetorical education in the first century B.C. Later in life, as a more mature individual, he penned the *De Oratore*, comparing and contrasting it to the *De Inventione*. Cicero's contributions to the theory of oral discourse included the belief that the orator needed a solid basis of public knowledge. Cicero felt that the ideal

orator should be able to speak wisely and eloquently about any subject in a dignified, restrained manner.

According to Corbett (1965), Cicero believed that the ideal orator should be knowledgeable about a wide range of topics. "In order to invent his arguments, the perfect orator must command a wide range of knowledge" (p. 542).

Cicero criticized the shallowness of orators who relied solely on beautiful language and attractive phrases without content. His ideal individual was a philosopher-statesman-learned orator who used eloquence to shape public opinion. Cicero believed oratory to be the pinnacle of intellectual endeavor and an essential tool for the wellbeing of the state. In addition, he coupled the three roles of the orator with the three levels of style. He was able to give his peers with a broad view of Atticism while also reviving the best Greek theorists and orators. Cicero can be described as an idealist. As a student of Greek eloquence, he urged his contemporaries to follow the same values, ethics, and standards as the past. His principal goal was to apply Hellenic (ancient Greek) doctrine to the demands of Rome. During Cicero's time, Rome had evolved into a society where free expression of ideas was no longer tolerated. The government had become compromised.

b. Quintilian's Influence

Marcus Fabius Quintilianus (A.D. 35-95) was a renowned orator, rhetorician, Latin instructor, and writer who advanced rhetorical philosophy from ancient Greece to the peak of Roman rhetoric. His work on

rhetoric, the *Institutio Oratoria*, is a comprehensive set of twelve books that made significant contributions to educational theory and literary criticism. Many later rhetoricians, particularly those of the Renaissance, drew directly on this text to develop their rhetorical theory. During the more than a century between Cicero's death and Quintilian's birth, education had extended across the Roman Empire, with rhetoric being the most significant aspect of education. However, by Quintilian's time (Gwynn, 1926), the prevalent trend in oratory was not rhetoric in the classic sense, but rather "silver Latin," a style that prized elaborate ornamentation above clarity and precision. During this period, rhetoric was generally divided into three components: theoretical (considering new rhetorical methods), educational (teaching students the five canons), and practical (courtroom and political addresses).

Quintilian's *Institutio Oratoria* may be interpreted as a reaction to this trend, advocating a return to simpler and clearer language. According to Gwynn (1926), Quintilian used Cicero's oratory prowess as a model for this return to rhetorical tradition, because Cicero's significantly more succinct style had been the standard for the preceding century. Quintilian hated the excessive embellishment prevalent in his contemporaries' oratory style (silver Latin). Quintilian believed that deviating from natural language and thinking order in pursuit of an overly complex style confused both the orator and his audience. Much of this work focused on the technical aspects of rhetoric, and the *Institutio Oratoria* was

regarded as one of the best works on rhetoric in antiquity, alongside Aristotle's *Rhetoric* and Cicero's writing. Barrett (1987) divided oratory practice into five canons: *inventio* (argument discovery), *dispositio* (argument arrangement), *elocutio* (expression or style), *memory* (memorization), and *pronuntiatio* (delivery). This complete presentation reflects his wide experience as an orator and teacher, and in many ways, the work represents the pinnacle of Greek and Roman rhetorical thought.

Quintilian highlighted the importance of eloquence as a moral force in the community. "My aim," Quintilian stated, "is the education of the perfect orator" (I. Pref. 8). Because the job of the orator is to advance the cause of truth and good government, Quintilian stated that he must, by definition, be a morally good man as well as an effective speaker. According to Gwynn (1926), this was a novel theory in the history of rhetoric: Aristotle considered rhetoric as morally neutral, a human instrument whose moral character rested in the speaker rather than the art. Quintilian saw rhetoric as a means of creating a more self-governing community by incorporating moral excellence into oratory.

How does Quintilian's rhetorical approach relate to that of Plato, Aristotle, and Cicero? Plato defined rhetoric as a philosophy, not an art, and a useless tool. Plato was more concerned with truth than Quintilian, although Aristotle defined rhetoric as "finding the available means of persuasion." Quintilian questioned this description, believing that Aristotle had overlooked the reality that

anyone, not just the learned, can persuade. To Quintilian, rhetoric was "the good man speaking well" (Honeycutt, 2007).

Quintilian's rhetorical education method aspired to produce the perfect Roman orator: one who was virtuous, efficient, courageous, and eloquent. His purpose was to train an orator, philosopher, and statesman who could use intelligence and persuasion to regulate the state. Cicero and Quintilian became the two most powerful classical influences on rhetorical education in England and America because of their emphasis on intellectual and moral training for aspiring orators. From Quintilian's death (about A.D. 100) to the fall of the Roman Empire (A.D. 410), little was added to rhetorical doctrine. The "Second Sophistic," a Greek cultural movement in the second and third centuries A.D. (though some sources situate it in the fourth and fifth centuries A.D.), was concentrated in Athens (Barrett, 1987). However, the art of oratory emphasized excessive performance (delivery) and professional speech making over the art of intellectual progress. There isn't a complete separation between Quintilian and medieval rhetoric. Victorinus, who developed a systematic commentary on Cicero's eloquence, Aquila Romanus, Fortunatianus, and Sulpitius Victor all wrote during this time period. They are highlighted because they represent the style of rhetorical instruction that was prevalent in the third and fourth century and serve as a link between classical and medieval rhetorical traditions.

3. The Middle Ages

a. St. Augustine

The Middle Ages (400-1400 A.D.) followed the Second Sophistic movement, according to Foss, Foss, and Trapp (1991), and during this time, rhetoric became associated with preaching, letter writing, and education. As Christianity grew in power, rhetoric was condemned as a pagan art; many Christians believed that the rhetorical ideas expressed by the pagans of classical Greece and Rome should not be studied, and that believing in Christian truth provided the ability to effectively communicate that truth. St. Augustine was a rhetoric teacher before becoming a Christian in A.D. 386, and he is regarded as the sole prominent thinker on rhetoric associated with the Middle Ages. Rhetoric, as one of the three great liberal arts, played an important part in medieval education. Rhetoric, like logic and grammar, is regarded as part of the trivium of learning, analogous to the three R's of reading, writing, and arithmetic in the West.

b. Christianity

Murphy and Katula (1995) believe that Saint Augustine's *De doctrina christiana* (354-430 A.D.) provides the most direct link to the Middle Ages. Augustine organized his work into four books. The first three focus on "sign," or "that which is used to signify something else" (Robertson, 1958). For Augustine, language was a set of conventional signs that humans agreed to use to communicate ideas and feelings. He claimed that the world itself is a manifestation of God.

Augustine contended that humans needed to comprehend the nature of signs in order to understand the language of the Bible, and then rhetoric in order to explain and teach the Christian message to others. He felt that every Christian was responsible for spreading Christ's message (e.g., Matthew 18:20), making rhetoric an obligation for all Christians. His influence prevailed, and the Christian Church accepted Ciceronian eloquence as a guide for preachers. Saint Augustine is frequently described as "the last classical man and the first medieval man." In terms of rhetoric, Foss et al. (1991) argued that this is undoubtedly accurate, and he can be viewed as a communicator from one era to the next.

4. The Renaissance

The Renaissance (1400-1600) marked the end of the Middle Ages and the rise of Humanism, a movement that brought together thinkers and writers such as Petrarch, Francis Bacon, Albertus Magnus, Joseph Webber, Ben Jonson, William Shakespeare, Thomas More, Descartes, Hobbes, Locke, Hume, and Kant. Copernicus, Galileo, Kepler, and Newton all made significant discoveries during this period of emergence. In architecture, it led to the rebirth of the classical style. In the fine arts, it influenced new schools of painting in Italy, including Raphael, Leonardo, Bellini, Michael Angelo, Giorgione, and the Flemish school of the Netherlands. The Renaissance refers to the great intellectual and cultural movement of the 14th, 15th, and 16th centuries, which saw a revival of interest in classical culture. The Renaissance began in Italy as a significant protest against an intellectually sterile medieval ethos, particularly scholasticism, in favor of

intellectual liberation. There was a growing desire for everything classical. Greek scholars were encouraged to visit Italy. Florence became the epicenter of classical revival. Latin classics were in demand. Libraries were built. Schools for classical Greek and Latin were established in Rome and other major towns.

a. The Humanists

The second stage of the Renaissance saw a renewed interest in classical study, which was later dubbed "Humanism" in 1808 by a German educator, F.J. Niethammer, to designate a course of study distinct from scientific and engineering educational programs. Nothing distinguishes Renaissance Europe from the Middle Ages more than Humanism, which served as both a program and a philosophy. The Humanists began by uncovering lost Latin texts rather than looking for classical Greek surviving texts. The two most influential classical authors of the Renaissance were Cicero and Quintilian, not Aristotle or Plato. Petrarch spearheaded Cicero's rediscovery, and one of the manuscripts he discovered, the *Brutus*, a rhetorical guide, became one of the Renaissance's most important works. Quintilian later became the foundation of the Humanistic education program. Cicero and Augustine were Petrarch's most important influencers. He drew on Cicero's Latin composition techniques and much of his philosophy, as well as Augustine's beliefs regarding the human-divine relationship.

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The Humanists, who were more interested in the human world as formed through language than the natural world, concentrated on the human epistemology. They stressed the realm of human culture and language, believing in the power of the word not just because it offers those who understand it an advantage in everyday encounters, but also because of its intrinsic ability to reveal the world of humans. The Italian Humanists considered rhetoric, rather than philosophy, to be the major study because language is the means by which humans interact with the world.

b. The Rationalists

A second movement in rhetoric arose during the Renaissance, and it dominated subsequent rhetorical ideas. The work of Peter Ramus (1515-1572) and René Descartes (1596-1650) exemplified rationalism, which sought objective, scientific truths that would persist indefinitely. Foss et al. (1991) stated that "Not surprisingly, the rationalists had little patience for rhetoric: while poetry and oratory might be aesthetically pleasing, they were seen as having no connection to science and truth" (p. eight). According to Howell (1956), Ramus was a French scholar who reduced rhetoric to logic by subsuming innovation and organization under logic and leaving rhetoric with only style and delivery. Ramus contended that invention should not be an intellectual process governed by conditions, as Aristotle and Cicero would have it. He framed invention as a rhetorical activity that must adhere to logical theory. He effectively argued that rhetoric should be limited to canons of style and delivery. Ramus' connection of rhetoric with style sparked a centuries-long criticism of creation (Virtualology.com, 2007).

Among the most influential Western thinkers of the last several centuries is René Descartes. Descartes was equally well-known as an early physicist, physiologist, and mathematician throughout his lifetime. But the reason he is read the most nowadays is because he is a really inventive philosopher. He made an effort to take philosophy in a new path. For instance, Descartes' philosophy attempted to fully integrate philosophy with

the "new" sciences and rejected the Aristotelian and Scholastic traditions that had dominated philosophical thought throughout the Medieval period. It also altered the relationship between philosophy and theology. Descartes felt that one had to reject the presumptions of others' thinking in order to arrive at a certain knowledge. Only something which would stand the test of time would he accept. He disapproved of facts that were established via discourse or via social or political activity. After the truth was revealed, language ceased to be a potent medium for the emergence of human life and instead served as a means of transmitting the truth (Foss et al., 1991).

5. The Modern Period

Under the dominance of Descartes' and Ramus' rationalism, modern rhetoric persisted in elevating philosophy and science above rhetoric. Within the modern era, Francis Bacon (1561–1626) was a well-known individual. He aimed to encourage a rebirth of secular knowledge by an empirical analysis of the world because he was troubled by the lack of intellectual advancement during the Middle Ages. According to his definition of rhetoric, he is trying to subdue language's power by applying reason and imagination to better influence the will (Dick, 1955, p. 100). Therefore, in order to promote the three streams of contemporary rhetorical thought, Bacon advanced the scientific approach to the study of rhetoric. The modern era was marked by three distinct developments in rhetoric: belletristic, elocutionist, and epistemological. The study of the sources, types, applications, and boundaries of human

knowledge is known as epistemology. Philosophers of epistemology, like Bacon, aimed to modify traditional perspectives concerning contemporary advancements in the field of psychology. They made an effort to comprehend rhetoric in light of psychological processes and helped to shape rhetoric grounded on human nature.

a. The Epistemological Tradition

The epistemological traditions of George Campbell (1719–1796) and Richard Whately (1758–1859) are among the greatest. The *Philosophy of Rhetoric* was written by Campbell in 1776. He drew on the empiricism (experience of the senses) and faculty psychology of his period, as well as Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian. Campbell's notion of rhetoric was aimed at the five faculties of the mind—understanding, memory, imagination, passion, and will—which faculty psychology used to try to explain human behavior. Campbell identified three categories of evidence: common sense, which is an innate sense that almost all people possess; consciousness, which is the outcome of sensory input; and mathematical axioms, which are obtained by reasoning (Foss et al., 1991).

Elements of Rhetoric was published by Richard Whately in 1828. His conception of rhetoric shared Campbell's reliance on psychology, but he distinguished himself from Campbell by emphasizing argumentation as the central component of rhetorical craft. In addition, he is renowned for having analyzed the burden of proof and presumption [of innocence], which helped to shape contemporary debate and reasoning techniques. The

epistemologists developed rhetorics based on an awareness of human nature by fusing their knowledge of modern psychology with that of classical rhetoric. They paved the way for modern audience analysis research by accomplishing this and introducing audience-centered methods to rhetoric.

b. The Belles Lettres Movement

The belles lettre movement—whose name literally translates to "fine or beautiful letters" in French—is the second turn rhetoric took in the modern age. This literary movement differs from both elocutionists and rationalists in that it prioritizes writing's aesthetic characteristics over any potential informational utility. Oral conversation, writing, criticism, and all of the beautiful arts of the time—poetry, music, theater, gardening, and architecture—were all included in the expanding definition of rhetoric.

The belletristic movement is the cause for which Hugh Blair is most well-known. In addition to being a Presbyterian preacher, he held the University of Edinburgh's Chair of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres. Although he wrote several books, the one that is most well-known is *Lectures on Rhetoric and Belles Lettres*, which was based on his talks. *Lectures* is significant because it was one of the first comprehensive language guides, drawing from the writings of Quintilian and Cicero as well as contemporary authors Addison and Burke. Blair's beliefs were based on the idea that natural principles are the ancestors of rhetorical principles.

c. The Elocutionary Movement

The mid-eighteenth century saw the height of the elocutionary movement, the third rhetorical trend of the modern era. The majority of rhetoric experts swiftly integrated the Latin term *elocutio* (style) with the English word *elocution* prior to the Elocutionary Movement. But by the eighteenth century, scholars started to understand *elocution* as the Latin *pronunciatio*, or delivery, more precisely. Due to this shift in affiliation, the Elocutionary Movement—which prioritized delivery—was born. Thomas Sheridan is the most well-known theorist connected to the Elocutionary Movement, despite the fact that there are several. Sheridan was an Irish *elocution* instructor and actor. In order to address the grave disregard for rhetorical delivery and *elocution*, he sought to restructure the British school system. This idea encompassed not just the voice but the whole person, including posture, movement, facial expressions, and gestures. But the *elocutionists* of this era considered their art to be rhetoric and themselves rhetoricians. The movement was successful for several reasons. Public speaking became more and more necessary for a growing range of vocations in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Because of this, a necessary shift from style to delivery emerged in response to the subpar delivery of modern preachers, attorneys, and other public figures.

C. Evaluation

1. What historical developments led to the establishment of democracy for the people of Athens?
2. What did Draco accomplish at Athens, and who was he?
3. Who reigned over Athens to the greatest extent, and why?
4. Who was Plato and what kind of investigation did he support?
5. What is Aristotle most known for, and who was he?
6. What aspects of Greek culture did the Romans adopt, and how did they refine them?
7. What made Cicero the most renowned orator in Rome?
8. What advances did Quintilian make in the field of persuasion?
9. How did rhetoric function in medieval education?

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CHAPTER III

ETHICS IN PUBLIC SPEAKING



A. Introduction

According to the National Communication Association (NCA, 1999), communicators should be dedicated to abiding by ethical communication norms. "Ethical communication is fundamental to responsible thinking, decision making, and the development of relationships and communities within and across contexts, cultures, channels, and media," according to the NCA Credo of Ethical Communication (para. 1). Positive results from ethical communication include accuracy, respect, and sincerity in the information shared. It is evident that ethics play a crucial role in the communication process. It is also a crucial step in the public speaking process.

Unethical communication can jeopardize people's wellbeing as well as society by causing bad decision-making or a lack of respect for oneself and others. The first academics to address ethics in communication were Nielsen (1966) and

Johannesen (1967), who started to include ethics in all facets of communication. These pioneers started investigating public speaking ethics.

Communication specialists concur that speakers have a significant need to communicate ethically. The topic of ethics and ethical communication in public speaking is covered in this chapter. The definition of ethics and ethical norms comes first. The second section of this chapter discusses ethical public speaking concepts, including tips on how to avoid plagiarism, properly credit sources, and establish goals for your speech. Finally, your obligations as a moral public speaker's listener are discussed.

B. Material

1. Defining Ethics

Aristotle, Socrates, and Plato were among the early luminaries in philosophy who spoke extensively about morality and ethical ideas. Aristotle is commonly considered as a key player in the creation of ethics as we study them today in the communication field, as you studied in Chapter 2. According to Aristotle, someone with ethos, or trustworthiness, could communicate morality in addition to common sense and good intentions (Aristotle, 1954). The virtues of doing good deeds, living well, and even speaking well have all been discussed by great philosophers. Aristotle stated that ethics are "a matter of virtue" and that public communication is "a means of civic engagement" (p. 1). In addition to playing a significant role in our daily lives and decision-making, ethics and ethical communication are also

essential to the public speaking process. Representative Anthony Weiner angrily denied any wrongdoing and asserted that he had been set up when he was accused in 2011 of sending a lady sexually graphic images. His denial soon gave way to an admission and an apology. Rep. Weiner's ethics were put into question by this affair, but it was also his lack of ethical communication that made things worse (Schouten & Page, n.d.).

a. Ethics and Ethical Standard

The process of determining what is right and evil is known as morality. Determining what is good and wrong in a given situation is a crucial aspect of ethics. For instance, you may argue that morality dictates that theft is immoral. But when a mother steals a loaf of bread to feed her four starving children, does it make it ethically wrong to steal? This particular situation calls for an awareness of ethics. When faced with a moral quandary, we utilize ethics to determine what is right or wrong, good or terrible. Sometimes moral conundrums are easy to solve. Sometimes they call for difficult decisions, like telling your direct supervisor that they have been misrepresenting their expenses or deciding to put your grandma in a retirement center. These situations are more intricate than straightforward decisions about right and wrong. These instances, however, present ethical conundrums when two "right" decisions are contrasted with one another. Reporting an unethical supervisor is a good thing, but you should also want to keep your job. Although your grandmother's sense of independence is

admirable, it's also advantageous for her to have additional support as her health declines.

As public speakers, we have moral decisions to make both in speech preparation and delivery. Choosing what information to disclose or how to appropriately convey that information might easily present us with a moral conundrum. With a strong moral compass, we can face ethical quandaries knowing the issue, the speaking environment, and the audience. Our ethical principles facilitate this procedure. The set of guidelines that help us distinguish between right and wrong and define what constitutes "good" behavior are known as moral standards, or ethical principles. Our perception of ethics is influenced by the moral principles we uphold. For example, adherents of the Buddha hold that cautious speech should demonstrate self-control, accountability, and kindness (Merrill, 2009).

One's ethical values are shaped by this position. Merrill (2009) reveals that the Buddhist spiritual leader, the holy Dalai Lama, feels compassion is even more important than truth. Being dishonest is therefore acceptable when it is a necessary aspect of providing for another person. This example shows how a person's ethical standards are influenced by their belief system. These moral principles serve as our benchmarks for determining what is acceptable and wrong in interpersonal interactions, public speaking, and daily life. Ethics in communication standards "should emphasize the means used to secure the end, rather than upon achieving the end itself," according to Wallace (1955) (p.

2). According to this theory, speakers should think about moral principles at every stage of the speech-making process.

"Whenever people communicate, moral dilemmas come up" (NCA, 1999, para. 1). We can use these to ensure that we are communicating ethically once we have determined our own standards. An exchange of responsible and reliable messages guided by our moral values is known as ethical communication. Written, spoken, and nonverbal communication can all be used to practice ethical communication. When delivering a speech in front of an audience, we decide what to say and how to say it using ethical criteria. You will start to grasp the principles of ethical communication in the public speaking process as you continue reading this chapter.

2. Ethical Speaking

Speaking in public with ethics is a continuous process. It happens all the time, not only when you get up to give your coworkers or classmates a five-minute presentation. Speaking in public with ethics is a process. When you start generating ideas for your speech's theme, this process gets started. There are ethical obligations you have to uphold each and every time you prepare to speak in front of an audience, be it at an official speaking engagement or an unexpected pitch at work. The capacity to maintain integrity while avoiding plagiarism and the ability to establish and accomplish responsible speech goals are the two most crucial components of ethical communication.

a. Be Honest and Plagiarism

The audiences of credible public speakers are treated with candor and openness. Being truthful involves outlining for your audience both the purpose of your speech (thesis statement) and the topics you'll be covering (preview). When a vacation spot offers "complimentary tours and sessions," which are really opportunities for a salesperson to promote a timeshare to gullible travelers, it is an example of dishonest speech. Honest presenters communicate clearly with the audience while offering supporting details, in addition to being explicit about the speech's objective.

The music industry is one setting where dishonest public communication happens, as there are several instances of illicit melody lifting. According to Egger (2000), the well-known Beach Boys song "Surfin' USA" is actually a note-for-note cover of a 1958 Chuck Berry tune. It is unethical to practice without giving authors proper credit for their work, even though it may be common. Intentionally misleading the audience through political speeches is another kind of dishonest communication. For example, Scott McClellan, a former press aide in the White House, asserts that President Bush deceived the American public regarding the rationale behind the war in Iraq (Shear, 2008). According to McClellan, the President had fabricated information to justify the war. One's reputation may suffer as a result of such statements.

b. Identify Sources

Making notes while you investigate your speech topic is the first stage in preparing an ethical speech. Making thorough notes will aid in your memory of your information's source. It's critical to remember your sources since it promotes speaker integrity. Plagiarism is defined as using someone else's words as your own or failing to provide credit where you got the information. This unethical behavior may have a number of negative effects, such as diminished credibility, dismissal from school, or loss of employment. Despite these possible repercussions, plagiarism is regrettably widespread. According to a national survey, 87 percent of students said that at least occasionally, their friends stole ideas from the Internet (Cruikshank, 2004).

This number does not account for deliberate plagiarism, which occurs when a writer or speaker consciously presents information as original to the audience, or inadvertent plagiarism, which occurs when citation errors cause information to be misattributed or left unattributed (Wilhoit, 1994). It's crucial to remember, though, that accidental plagiarism should never be justified by a lack of knowledge on how to properly cite sources. Stated differently, presenters bear responsibility for both deliberate and inadvertent instances of plagiarism. How to make sure appropriate credit is provided when preparing and making a speech is covered in the remaining portion of this section.

Global, patchwork, and incremental plagiarism are the three different categories of plagiarism (Lucas, 2011).

The most blatant type of plagiarism, known as global plagiarism, occurs when a speaker gives a speech that is not their own. Global plagiarism occurs, for instance, when a student discovers a speech online or takes a roommate's previous speech and repeats it word for word. One of the most blatant forms of stealing is global plagiarism. Other types of plagiarism, on the other hand, are less evident yet nonetheless constitute dishonest public speech. Patchwork plagiarism is when you compose a speech by combining passages from another speech or piece of writing. Incremental plagiarism is the third kind of plagiarism, which occurs when the speaker uses their own words for the most of the speech but uses quotes or other information without giving credit. If you present a statistic to back up your argument but fail to cite the source, for instance, that may be considered incremental plagiarism. Another instance may arise from a student quoting former President Ronald Reagan verbatim without disclosing to the audience that those were Reagan's exact comments. To make sure you compose an honest speech, the first step is to understand the many forms of plagiarism.

Table 3.1 Purdue OWL APA Guide for Citing Sources

| Cite | Don't Cite |
|--|---|
| Words or concepts expressed in a letter, advertisement, computer program, TV show, movie, magazine, book, newspaper, song, Web page, or other medium | Writing about a subject from your own perspective, including your observations, insights, ideas, and conclusions |
| Information obtained through in-person interviews, phone conversations, or written correspondence with another individual | When you are compiling your own findings from field or laboratory experiments |
| When you replicate a unique phrase or set of words exactly | When you utilize your own digital photos, audio, video, or artwork, etc. |
| When you reproduce any charts, photographs, drawings, diagrams, or other visual materials | When applying common knowledge, which includes historical occurrences (but not historical documents), myths, urban legends, folklore, and common sense observations |

When you repost or reuse any type of electronically accessible media, such as audio, video, photographs, or other types of media

When utilizing well acknowledged facts, such as the fact that pollution harms the ecosystem, ...

Source: Stolley & Brizee, 2011, page 5-6

c. Cite Source Properly

You now understand how crucial it is to cite your sources. Now that you understand the significance of both written and spoken citations for the ethical practice of public speaking, let's concentrate on the proper way to cite supporting materials for speeches. According to studies, students frequently fail to identify sources because they are unclear of the proper format or timing (Shi, 2010). "I couldn't remember where I learned the information," or "I had already cited that author and didn't want the audience to think all of my information was from some outside source," are some common excuses given by students for not citing sources, according to Shi's study. These justifications make sense, but they are unethical.

1) Recognize direct quotations and paraphrases

The next step is to make sure you know how to properly cite and paraphrase sources so that your speech's arguments are backed up. To begin with, what distinguishes a direct quote from a paraphrased version of a source? When you conduct study and obtain knowledge from an organization, such as the

Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), and then disseminate that knowledge in your own words, you acknowledge the CDC as your source without putting quotation marks around it. A sentence or series of sentences that conveys knowledge in your own words is referred to as a paraphrase. Any line or series of sentences that exactly expresses the concept of the author is referred to as a direct quotation. The APA (American Psychological Association) Publication Manual (2010) states that you have to enclose an author's words, phrases, or sentences in quote marks when using them in spoken material. This might be pertinent for a handout, visual aid, or speech plan. Additionally, when you are quoting something orally in your speech, it is crucial to include an exact quote. This lets the reader know that you are quoting verbatim from the original source. Although it's okay to use "begin quote" and "end quote" to let your audience know this, the audience may find these terms irritating. Pausing deliberately before and after the cited language is one approach to express a direct quote in a clear and succinct manner. This sets your words apart from those in the original material. For examples of both paraphrasing and directly quoting an author in written speech materials and oral citations, see Table 3.2.

2) Create precise citations

Presenters that uphold ethics divulge source details to their audience. Citations are treated similarly to essays on written materials, such as handouts or speech outlines. Oral citations, in addition to written citations, give audience members who might not see your written address access to the source material. Enough details should be provided in every citation to enable the viewer to locate the source with ease.

Table 3.2 Written and Oral Source Citations

| | Written Citations | Oral Citations |
|---|--|---|
| Original Text | Reading a lot of books, like this one, about the second half of life won't take you there on a nonstop trip. Grace needs to and will push you ahead. | Vaccinating yourself against influenza each year is your best line of defense against the virus and any potential repercussions. Actually, the CDC advises that everyone six months of age and older receive a yearly flu shot. |
| Paraphrase for Written Speech Materials | We become more like ourselves by the practice of | To prevent the flu, the CDC (2008) advises individuals to have a |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | extending grace (Rohr, 2011). | vaccination at least once a year. |
| Direct Quote for Written Speech Materials | Grace "must and will edge you forward," claims Rohr (2011) (p. 2). | You have a way to prevent getting the flu. "Receiving an annual vaccination is your best defense against influenza—and its possible complications," according to the CDC (para. 6). |
| Oral Citation for Paraphrase | In his 2011 book <i>Falling upward: A spirituality for the two halves of life</i> , Rohr talked about how extending grace to others helps us to mature as people. | In order to avoid contracting the flu, people should get vaccinated against it at least once a year, according to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention website (2008). |
| Oral Citation for Direct Quote | "Grace must and will edge you forward," said Rohr (2011) in | The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (2008) indicate that getting vaccinated |

| | |
|---|--|
| his book <i>Falling upward: A spirituality for the two halves of life</i> . [Stop]. | annually is "your best defense against influenza—and its possible complications." Pause. [Stop]. |
|---|--|

d. Set Responsible Speech Goal

The phrase "rightsabilities" was first used by Jensen (1997) to describe the need for a communicator to strike a balance between their rights as a speaker and their obligation to others. Achieving ethical communication in public speaking can be accomplished, for example, by making sure your speech aims are responsible. The mission of speech is supported by multiple speech goals. Here, we'll concentrate on five objectives: 1) Encourage variety; 2) Speak inclusively; 3) Steer clear of hate speech; 4) Increase social consciousness; and 5) Use civil discourse.

3. Ethical Listening

As much as you want other people to pay attention to what you have to say, it's equally critical to learn how to listen morally so that you can respect other speakers. The ethics of ethical listening will also be covered in this chapter. This section covers how to give ethical comments and how to become a better listener. While hearing occurs naturally, listening is a skill. We will start off by talking about how important ethical listening is.

a. Develop Ethical Listening Skill

Our ear receives sound waves, which is how our body physically performs hearing. But hearing is the process by which we decipher (or make meaning of) those sound waves. Recall the last speech you delivered. How did the people in the audience behave? Which individuals tended to pay the most attention, in your memory? Those were ethical listening behaviors from the crowd. An ethical listener actively evaluates the information presented and assesses the speaker's potency and content. The goal of a good listener is to show that they value the speaker. When a listener does two things, they are showing respect for the speaker: (1) gets ready to listen, and (2) listens with their entire body.

b. Provide Ethical Feedback

People who are moral speakers and listeners are able to give others constructive criticism. An explanation and description of the speaker's remarks constitute ethical feedback. According to Brownell (2006), your answer to a speaker should show that you have paid attention and have given thought to the message's content and delivery. In your response, please be truthful about your attitudes, values, and beliefs while still showing respect for the speaker's viewpoint. Praise for the speaker's content or delivery might help them feel more confident and motivate them to talk well. Still, constructive criticism is not always required when it comes to ethics. While offering solutions, constructive criticism can also highlight the speaker's shortcomings. Constructive criticism recognizes that there is room for improvement

in a speaker's message delivery or substance because they are human. Constructive criticism actually aids in improving the content or delivery of a speech. Every ethical comment provides a thorough explanation of the listener's viewpoint.

Tabel 3.3 Unethical and Ethical Feedback

| | |
|--------------------|--|
| Unethical Feedback | <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ I really enjoyed your speech.▪ Your speech lacks supportive information.▪ You are the worst public speaker ever. |
|--------------------|--|

| | |
|------------------|--|
| Ethical Feedback | <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Because I found your topic to be particularly intriguing, I truly appreciated your lecture.▪ There was not enough evidence to back up your speech. There was no outside information cited by you. Rather, YOU were the only source available to you.▪ .I think the reason your speech didn't work was because you didn't look at the audience and you were obviously unprepared. |
|------------------|--|

C. Evaluation

1. From where did ethics come? How can public speaking apply ethics?
2. How does one define plagiarism? What distinguishes patchwork plagiarism from global plagiarism?
3. How does one distinguish between straight quoting and paraphrase from a source?
4. What rights does a speaker have in terms of free speech?
5. Why is it unethical to bring up social consciousness when writing a speech?
6. How may language be used in presentations in an ethical manner?
7. How is listening applied when giving a speech in public? What rules should one follow in order to listen ethically?

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CHAPTER IV

AUDIENCE ANALYSIS



A. Introduction

The audience is the most significant element of any speechmaking as, in modern public speaking, the audience is the primary motivation for giving the speech. It can't be emphasized or emphasized enough: be aware of your audience! Developing your speech strategy and execution plan requires understanding your audience, including their language, culture, age, education level, job duties, beliefs, and attitudes. This is the most crucial step. Your audience is more than just a collection of uninterested individuals who chance to gather to hear you speak. The reason the audience is gathered is extremely real and important: they are interested in hearing what you have to say. Thus, get ready. In order to find material that can strengthen the link between the speaker and the audience, we conduct an audience analysis. This link is known as "identification." It was referred to as

"finding a common ground" by Aristotle. This is a two-way transactional process rather than a one-way one between the speaker and the listener. You are encouraging an audience to partake in a portion of your professional and personal experience as a skilled speaker when you invite them to listen to your ideas. As an audience, you have an obligation to participate partially in their experience as well. Your ability to prepare a speech and your own nervousness as a speaker will both improve with increased knowledge about your audience and their psychological demands (Dwyer, 2005).

Understanding how a speaker engages an audience through audience analysis by direct observation, analysis by inference, and data collecting is the focus of this chapter (Clevenger, 1966). The five kinds of audience analysis are also covered in this chapter: (1) situational analysis, (2) demographic analysis, (3) psychological analysis, (4) multicultural analysis, and (5) topic interest and prior knowledge analysis.

B. Material

1. Approaches of Audience Analysis

It's always a good idea to start planning your speech by having a solid understanding of your target audience and the various components that make up that specific audience. This is simply referred to as "doing an audience analysis" in voice communication. According to McQuail (1997), an audience analysis is the process of taking into account all relevant factors that define the composition and demographic features (often referred to as demographics) of your target audience.

We learn that there are thorough descriptions of human population characteristics, such as age, gender, education, occupation, language, ethnicity, culture, background knowledge, needs, and interests, as well as previously held attitudes, beliefs, and values, from the Greek prefix *demo* (of the people). Public relations and advertising experts frequently utilize demographics to research target audiences in order to maximize the impact of their concepts or offerings. But all effective public speakers also take into account the demographics of their audience. This is the most important phase of speech preparation. A few examples of demographics and their potential application in speech development are shown in Table 4.1. Naturally, this is not a complete list. However, it does assist you in gaining a solid basic idea of the audience's demographics.

Table 4.1 Tailoring a Speech to Demographic Characteristics

| Demographic Characteristics | Do's and Don'ts |
|------------------------------------|--|
| Ethnicity | Avoid attempting to "cuddle up" to any one race or group with words or phrases. If you presented a point in your speech and then said, "So get jiggy with it," or "You could enjoy that with your afternoon tea ceremony," you would lose some credibility (Pearson, et al, 2011). |

| | |
|------------|--|
| Age | Avoid using age-specific vocabulary, such as "OMG" or "the cat's pajamas" (Gamble & Gamble, 2013). |
| Sex/Gender | Make use of non-sex- or gender-specific language. Use the terms police officer, firefighter, and flight attendant in place of policeman, fireman, and stewardess. Avoid using one-sex or gender pronouns, such as believing that a dentist is a "he" and a teacher is a "she" (Eisen burg & Wynn, 2013). |
| Income | There will be a wealthier audience member than the others. Therefore, don't assume that everyone else can afford to keep themselves in shape the way you do if you maintain membership in a well-known gym and attend classes there as well. You can explain what you do to your audience, but also offer them alternatives, such as parking far from the business and exercising at home with a Pilates or yoga CD. |
| Occupation | Make your speech more informative unless you are giving it at a convention where everyone in the audience is employed in the same industry. Neither medical nor legal jargon is very familiar to your audience. Therefore, you must |

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| | clarify what you are saying without resorting to technical vocabulary that could condescendingly or confuse our readers. |
| Religion | Recognize that a wide range of religions will probably be represented in your audience, and that some may not hold any spiritual or religious beliefs at all. You may therefore claim that even if you spend ten minutes reading the Bible each night, you advise everyone to read something spiritual or religious to unwind before bed (Gamble & Gamble, 2013). |
| Education Level | Not every member of the audience, even if they are college freshmen, has had the same educational experiences. For instance, some students in your class might have gone to a private honors-based prep school, some might have been homeschooled, some might have completed a high school equivalency program like the GED, and some might be high school students enrolled in college courses. It's important to use caution when speaking to an audience and avoid using flowery language in an attempt to impress them. Determining |

the appropriate communication level for your speaking is a significant task.

You might be thinking to yourself right now, "Wow, that's fantastic! How should I approach the analysis of my specific audience? The first thing you should be aware of is that there are three main approaches (also known as "paradigmas") that can be used to conduct an audience analysis: direct observation, inference, and data collecting. You should be able to decide which approach—or a combination of approaches—is best for your situation once you understand how these work.

a. Direct Observation

By far the simplest of the three paradigms for "getting the feel" of a certain audience is audience analysis through direct observation or direct experience. It's a method of collecting qualitative data. One or more of the five senses that we are born with—hearing, seeing, touching, tasting, and smelling—help us to perceive it. Experience-based learning has a greater influence on us than information that we learn about indirectly. Compared to what we learn from secondary sources of information, we are more likely to believe what we hear, see, feel, taste, and smell (Pressat, 1972).

Basically, all you have to do to apply this observational strategy is look at your audience. Should you be fortunate enough to accomplish this prior to addressing your audience, you will be able to obtain some fundamental reflection information (e.g., what is their

age? Which racial groups make up this audience? It will assist you in organizing your ideas and arguments for your speech (Nierenberg & Calero, 1994). Does their nonverbal conduct suggest that they are thrilled to hear your speech?).

Asking your audience about themselves is a great method to learn more about them. This is data collection in its most basic form. Engage in dialogue with them whenever you can to get to know them better on a personal level. (For example, where did you go to school? Do you have pets or siblings? Which type of vehicle do you drive? You will be able to understand and value each audience member as a person and as a fellow audience member through these kinds of discussions. You will learn what piques their curiosity, persuades them, or even makes them giggle. You may spark curiosity and interest in your subject while obtaining insightful information.

For instance, let's say you wish to give a speech that provides information about the recreational opportunities and amenities in your area. If, prior to starting work on your speech, you ascertain whether your audience consists of senior citizens, high school kids, or new parents, your focus will be in line with their needs. Of course, this isn't possible in every speaking circumstance. We are frequently asked to present to an unfamiliar audience. Presentations with an entirely unknown audience are talks in which you do not know the demographics of the audience. In these situations, it is advisable to make every effort to schedule some time

to speak with a trusted individual—or several—who may be acquainted with the target audience. You can gain a lot from these discussions by better understanding the situation you will be speaking in.

Your presentation aims will be, at most, haphazard if you don't know the fundamental demographics of the audience and, in addition, what their attitudes, values, and beliefs are regarding a particular topic. Take a look at the people in the room who will be attending your speech. Which demographics—gender, age, ethnicity, and educational attainment—are represented? What kind of expectations do they have for your presentation? You should be aware of this crucial information before starting your study and creating your outline. Who am I going to be speaking with?

b. Inference

Simply put, audience analysis via inference is a logical progression of the conclusions you made using the previous technique. It is another method of collecting qualitative data and a type of critical thinking called inductive reasoning. An inference is a logical judgment or reasoned tentative conclusion drawn from the evidence at hand. It works best when you can spot patterns in your data that suggest something should hold true based on past experiences or is likely to happen again. A skilled communicator is able to understand information and make inferences from it. Individuals frequently draw conclusions or make logical assumptions. For instance, we assume someone is from the Middle East when we hear them speaking Arabic. We can assume that this

person is a Muslim because we see them carrying a copy of the Qur'an. These are well-reasoned judgments that we have reached based on the information at our disposal and our broad understanding of individuals and their characteristics. When we reason, we draw connections, draw distinctions, and make predictions; we apply our knowledge of the familiar to draw conclusions about the unfamiliar in order to make sense of the unknown. Of course, conclusions aren't always accurate. Here's a well-known instance: When you reach into a jar of jelly beans, everything is black. You have a deep affection for black jelly beans. You reach back into the jar and scoop out another handful of food, which is once more entirely black. You assume that all of the jelly beans are black since you can't see them inside the jar based on empirical evidence—two handfuls of jelly beans. This time, instead of finding black jelly beans in the jar, you reach inside a third time and remove a handful of white, pink, and yellow jelly beans. Your deduction that every jelly bean was black was reversed.

c. Sampling

Audience analysis via data sampling, as opposed to analysis by inference and direct observation, makes use of statistical evidence to quantify and elucidate the attributes of your target audience. These traits are also referred to as variables (Tucker et al., 1981) and are given a number value so that we may gather and categorize them in an organized manner. They are presented as statistics, sometimes referred to as quantitative data gathering or quantitative analysis. Numerical summaries

of facts, figures, and study findings are called statistics. Surveying your audience prior to your speech is necessary for audience analysis using data sampling. It is necessary to understand the fundamentals of conducting a survey before you begin gathering and analyzing data.

1) Basic Survey

The speaker has access to a wide range of survey techniques. But since they are the most commonly used, we shall discuss three main kinds in this section. The first kind of survey technique you should be aware of is the standard questionnaire, which consists of a set of inquiries designed to elicit demographic and attitude information from your target population. It is obvious that the simple quiz shouldn't require audience members to give their name. Information obtained through anonymous questionnaires is more likely to be accurate. Recall that all you want is a broad understanding of your audience; you shouldn't be searching for individual details about every response in relation to your inquiry. It is solely a tool for bulk sampling.

2) Basic Demographic

Information can be easily gathered (a sample of demographic questions is provided in the chart that follows this section). However, in order to understand the audience's "predispositions" to think or act in particular ways, we need to focus our questions a little more or adjust them more tightly. One possible use for the basic questionnaire would be to include an attitudinal extension (see Figure 4.1

for examples of attitudinal questions). These inquiries go deeper into the minds of your audience members and will enable you to ascertain their positions on various topics. To truly get to the core of your particular topic, you might need to make these inquiries more focused. But once you do, you'll be armed with an abundance of information that will ultimately help you figure out how to interact with your target market.

3) Arranged Groups

Surveying your audience based on their value hierarchy is another way to learn about their values. A person's value structure positioned in relation to a certain value set is called a value hierarchy (Rokeach, 1968). The method of ordered categories sampling can be used to ascertain an individual's value hierarchy. In this instance, a list of values is provided to each audience member on paper, and each person then ranks the values on another piece of paper based on how important they are to them. Naturally, every response varies as every member of the audience is unique, but if the speaker examines the entire set of data, common themes will emerge. The speaker can therefore relate to those common value topics as a result. Figure 4.1 shows examples of an ordered value set.

2. Categories of Audience Analysis

will eventually need to focus on the five "categories" of audience analysis, regardless of which of the aforementioned inquiry methodologies you use to conduct your analysis.

These five areas can help you develop a deeper understanding of your audience. Now let's look at these categories and learn about the factors and limitations you should consider when estimating the information needs of your target audience.

a. Situational Analysis

The situational audience analysis category examines the reason for gathering an audience, whether they are willingly gathered, paid for, or coerced into hearing a speaker. These factors significantly influence the tone and agenda of a speech, determining whether the audience truly wants to hear from the speaker. Captive audiences are those who have no choice in attending a speech, making it difficult to address them. For instance, in a mandatory work meeting, some people may not be happy to listen to a speech they believe is compulsory, making it crucial to consider this factor when preparing a speech. Captive audiences are those who have no choice in attending a speech, making it difficult to address them. For instance, in a mandatory work meeting, some people may not be happy to listen to a speech they believe is compulsory, making it crucial to consider this factor when preparing a speech. A voluntary audience is willing to listen to a message, making it easier to address. Reflecting on your past experiences can help visualize this. Mixed audiences, like in the classroom, can result in a hybrid captive-voluntary audience. This allows you to hone your speech skills on both types of audiences, enhancing your skill set. Start by considering ways to

inform, persuade, and humor a mixed situation audience, viewing it as a learning occasion.

b. Demographical Analysis

Demography is a category of audience analysis that categorizes characteristics of people, such as age, gender, major, school year, race, ethnicity, and religious affiliation. Accurate demographic analysis involves gathering and interpreting demographic data, either through questionnaire sampling or database access. Some speakers have "scouts" who research their audience before a speech, based on visual cues. Studying demographic characteristics is an art form rather than a science, but is common among professional speakers. As a public speaker, understanding your audience's demographics is crucial. If your audience is predominantly female, aged 25-40, married, and Caucasian, you may need to adapt your message accordingly. Demographics help you understand the acceptable parameters of your audience's needs. Modern speakers must balance adapting to audience preferences with remaining true to their message, as this can lead to tension and a need to maintain their originality, as per Natalie & Bodenheimer (2004).

c. Psychological Analysis

To effectively address your speech topic, it's crucial to understand your audience's attitudes, beliefs, and values. This can be achieved through a psychological description, which involves a quick questionnaire or survey before the event, allowing you to gauge their thoughts and beliefs. It is highly likely that your audience

will already have "attitudes, beliefs, and values" regarding the concepts you will deliver, unless your speech topic is completely unknown to them. Because of this, it is crucial to always be aware of your audience's position on the topics you intend to discuss in advance. The most effective approach to do this is to use a brief poll or questionnaire to sample your audience before the event. This is referred to as the psychological description or third category of audience analysis. When giving a description, you should try to ascertain the attitudes, convictions, and values of the audience (Campbell & Huxman, 2003). These are the keys to deciphering the thoughts of your audience.

1) Attitudes

To put it simply, an attitude is a taught tendency to react to a person, an item, a concept, or an event in a consistently positive or negative way (Jastrow, 1918). Different forms can be found in attitudes. When someone declares themselves to be "pro" or "anti" anything, you can pretty well expect an attitude to show through. Above all, though, attitudes are taught and not always ingrained. While ideas and ideals are more stable, attitudes are more malleable and can occasionally alter. A set of sample attitudes is provided in Table 4.2

Table 5.2
Examples of Attitudes

| |
|------------------------------|
| Pro-/Anti-war |
| Pro-diversity |
| Anti-affirmative action |
| Pro-choice |
| Pro-life |
| Pro-/Anti-gambling |
| Pro-/Anti-prostitution |
| Pro-/Anti-capital punishment |
| Pro-/Anti-free trade |
| Pro-/Anti-outsourcing |
| Pro-/Anti-welfare |
| Pro-/Anti-corporate tax cuts |
| Pro-/Anti-censorship |

These are only a few of the issues on which one can have a "for" or "against" stance. Even though we are greatly oversimplifying the concept of an attitude in social science here, these examples are nonetheless useful for our goals. Recall that values and beliefs are more enduring than attitudes. Nonetheless, they serve as useful gauges of how people perceive the individuals, things, concepts, or occasions that define their reality.

2) Beliefs

According to Bem (1970), beliefs are presumptions or principles about the cosmos. Because beliefs are based on ideals rather than

problems, they are more enduring than attitudes. You might, for instance, subscribe to the adage "what goes around comes around." If so, you accept the concept of karma. Consequently, you might connect your actions with this philosophy of beliefs. You refrain from acting immorally or negatively because you think that things will "come back" to you.

In a similar vein, you could make an effort to project morally upright and constructive behaviors because you hope that others will reciprocate. You might have the exact opposite opinion and not think this at all. In any case, your thoughts are influenced by a belief system. Table 4.3 contains some examples of beliefs.

Table 4.3
Examples of Beliefs

The world was created by God.

Marijuana is an addictive gateway drug.

Ghosts are all around us.

Smoking causes cancer.

Anyone can acquire HIV.

Evolution is fact, not fiction.

Marijuana is neither addictive nor harmful.

Ghosts are products of our imagination.

Smoking does not cause cancer.

Only high-risk groups acquire HIV.

3) Values

In contrast, a value is a guiding principle that governs our attitudes (Rokeach, 1968). The fundamental ideas that guide our attitudes are our values. There is always an underlying value to someone's attitudes and views if you look hard enough. Crucially, you should also be aware that we organize our values according to our own value hierarchy, which is a mental schema that arranges values according to how important they are to each other. Everybody has a set of values to which they adhere, as well as a hierarchy of values that they employ to make sense of the problems in the world. In actuality, though, it isn't until some of our beliefs directly contradict one another that we even realize we have a hierarchy of values. Next, we must deal with a phenomenon known as cognitive dissonance, which is the psychological strain resulting from having to select between two significant options.

Table 4.4 Examples of V alues

| | | |
|---------------|--------------|----------------|
| Inner Harmony | Enjoyment | Belonging |
| Friendship | Trust | Equality |
| Control | Family | Security |
| Peace | Wisdom | Tradition |
| Unity | Achievement | Power |
| Generosity | Conformity | Intelligence |
| Leadership | Creativity | Responsibility |
| Health | Independence | Loyalty |

As you enjoy having fun with friends, you may find yourself torn between enjoying the fun of your close friends and being responsible for their drug use. This situation highlights the importance of understanding our value hierarchies, which guide our decisions, both small and grand, and can be found in Table 4.4.

d. Multicultural Analysis

Demography examines racial and ethnic issues from a fundamental perspective. But speaking to a multicultural audience is a topic worth addressing, especially in our increasingly diverse world (see Chapter 14, Speaking to a Global Audience). It's likely that every audience you interact with in the real world will have some sort of multicultural background. As a speaker, you must understand that not everyone in your audience will share your point of view on any particular subject (Ting-

Toomey & Chung, 2005). It is therefore essential that you develop into a speaker who is culturally effective. Effective communicators across cultures cultivate an appreciation of different cultures and learn how to communicate with individuals from a variety of ethnic backgrounds. If you are composing a speech for a diverse audience, bear these points in mind.

1) Language

Since many individuals speak multiple languages, avoid employing jargon or slang when translating terms as they can be confusing. A poster, an image, or a few PowerPoint slides may be added to help your audience understand what you're saying. This would help them understand you more quickly (Klopf & Cambra, 1991; Tauber & Mester, 1994).

2) Cognition

Recognize that there are cultural-cognitive variations among civilizations, or alternative perspectives on the meaning of logic itself. As a result, assess your audience's varied thought processes and pay attention to their disparate logics.

3) Ethnocentricity

Keep in mind that you will typically appeal to folks from different cultural backgrounds. Never think that your culture is superior to or more dominating than others. This presumption is known as ethnocentrism, and according to Pearson et al. (2011), ethnocentric beliefs tend to distance you from your audience.

4) Values

Value systems are not limited to the personal beliefs of individuals; communities also actively propagate value systems. Remember that you will be appealing to both personally carried and socially loaded value systems.

5) Communication Style

As you strive to strike a balance between these challenges of language, cognition, culture, and values, keep in mind that certain cultures appreciate animated delivery more than others. A wise speaker will recognize this and modify both their vocal and nonverbal cues accordingly.

e. Interest and Knowledge Analysis

Finally, you should know ahead of time whether your audience is interested in what you have to say and whether they have any prior knowledge about your topic if the aim of your speech is to make a memorable and captivating presentation—which it should be. Giving a dry or monotonous speech is not what you want to do. Rather, you should present your best work and let your audience to see how prepared and confident you are. Furthermore, you should avoid giving a speech on a subject that your audience is well-versed in. It is therefore your responsibility to "test" your issue by gauging the interest and subject knowledge of a sample of your audience. Similar to this, topic knowledge refers to the audience's overall level of expertise on a certain subject. These are crucial analytical elements of well-

constructed speeches, not just definitions provided for the sake of debate.

Assessing your audience's interest in and knowledge of a topic is a relatively easy undertaking, in contrast to multicultural audience analysis. You can accomplish this by conducting a formal survey or by having casual Q&A sessions. In any case, having some knowledge is preferable to having none at all. Consider the huge list of subjects that individuals have heard repeatedly. Without any thought, you can probably name a few yourself at this very moment. If you found yourself reciting a list of themes, please remember that this is the purpose of this module's part; your audience is essentially thinking the same things that you are. In light of this, choosing a topic is strategically crucial to the success of your speech as a whole.

To ensure a successful public speaking speech, it's crucial to assess the audience's interest in the topic. If the audience is not interested or already knowledgeable, the speech may be mind-numbing. The concept of uniqueness is essential, where a topic is exceptional in interest and knowledge to a specific audience. Ensure the audience is engaged and not overwhelmed by the subject matter.

The adage in communication studies advises against using puffery to blind your audience about your knowledge on a subject. Remember that there may be someone with more knowledge than you. Respond appropriately if you know the answer, and strive to be a

resource for your audience, as they expect an expert on the topic.

f. Conclusion

This chapter discusses the importance of audience analysis in selecting speech topics. It outlines methods and five categories of audience analysis, highlighting the need for speakers to adapt their content to meet the audience's information needs to be informative and convincing. The proverb "Fail to plan, plan to fail" is given to Winston Churchill (Lakein, 1989). You are, in our opinion as your writers, essentially ignoring the goal of the public speaking exercise if you have not given careful thought to the composition, makeup, and traits of your audience. Speaking in front of groups with assurance can become a little addictive. When done right, the experience may empower you and help you achieve in both your personal and professional life. However, you must first take into mind the audience you will be speaking to and fulfill all of their needs (Lewis, 1989). Our listeners are a part of us, if not bound by us.

C. Evaluation

1. Why is it crucial to analyze your target audience before crafting your speech?
2. Why is it necessary to do a demographics survey?
3. Of the three paradigms, why is direct observation-based audience analysis the simplest?
4. What challenges may a presenter expect while addressing an unfamiliar audience?

5. In what situations could a speaker draw conclusions about an audience while conducting an audience analysis?
6. How is a variable utilized in data sampling, and what does it mean?
7. What distinguishes statistics from qualitative analysis as a type of quantitative analysis?
8. How may a value hierarchy be used to assist a speaker in crafting a speech?
9. What benefit does the speaker receive from administering a Likert-style attitude test?
10. Which do you believe to be the most effective of the Five Audience Analysis Categories, and why?
11. How do values, attitudes, and beliefs differ from one another?
12. What difficulties might a speaker encounter when addressing a multicultural group of people?

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TEACHING MATERIALS
PUBLIC SPEAKING

CHAPTER V

SUPPORTING IDEAS



A. Introduction

Jamie Oliver, a celebrity chef, won the Technology Entertainment Design (TED) Prize in 2010 for his "One Wish to Change the World." In addition to a monetary reward, he was granted 18 minutes at the famed TED Conference in Long Beach, California to discuss his dream: "Teach every child about food" (Oliver, 2010). This chef from Essex, England, had only a limited amount of time to persuade an American audience to change their most fundamental eating habits. To convince them to listen, he needed to capture their attention and establish his credibility. He was able to accomplish both utilizing persuasive research. He began by saying, "Sadly, in the next 18 minutes... four Americans who are alive will die from the food that they eat" (Oliver, 2010).

He highlighted the issue with a graph demonstrating that diet-related diseases kill far more Americans each year than

other diseases, accidents, or murder. Along with the facts, he included evidence from people living in the "most unhealthy state in America" (Oliver, 2010). In his brief address, Oliver made a persuasive argument for a significant transformation in how Americans teach their children about food by weaving together several types of research.

To give a great speech, you must provide support for the ideas you convey, just as Oliver did. Finding assistance necessitates research. Librarians have discovered that professors and students have extremely diverse views on what it means to undertake research (Sjoberg & Ahlfeldt, 2010). Professors who routinely perform scholarly research as part of their job picture a process including late nights in library stacks (Leckie, 1996).

Students who routinely undertake research on where to eat or what to do on weekends imagine a more informal procedure that includes consulting the most popular web search results. The reality is that in order to effectively support your ideas and produce a captivating speech, you will need a mix of each strategy, potentially paired with extra research tools with which you are unfamiliar. The vast number of materials available for undertaking research can be overwhelming. However, if you have a clear topic, recognize the aim of your speech, and understand the audience you will be speaking to, you can limit the amount of sources you will need to review.

Once you've determined the theme of the speech, you can write a precise mission statement. This is a one-sentence explanation of your speech's purpose, which may begin with the phrase "At the end of my speech, the audience will be able

to." This statement will guide your study as you gather supporting evidence to complete the remainder of your speech. As you move through the different sorts of support in this chapter, ask yourself, "Does this evidence support the goal of my speech?" If the source provides material that contradicts your specific goal statement, keep it so you can use it as proof to support your own idea. If information appears to support your specific purpose statement, the next question to consider is, "Is this evidence appropriate for my target audience?" Different forms of pleas and evidence are more effective with different audiences. The finest speeches will mix several types of evidence to present the most convincing case possible. This chapter will assist you in researching your speech by combining personal and professional experience, library resources, and Internet searches. It will assist you in evaluating and citing your sources in order to avoid plagiarism.

B. Material

1. Personal and Professional Knowledge

Professional public speakers are typically asked to address a topic on which they are considered an expert. You may not feel like an expert on the topic of your speech right now, but you should examine whether you have any prior knowledge of the subject that could help you craft your speech. Do not be hesitant to use your personal experience to strengthen the message.

a. Personal testimony

Walter Fisher contends that people are natural storytellers. People use tales to make sense of their experiences and to invite others to comprehend their lived reality as members of a community (Fisher, 1984). One fascinating narrative you can share is your personal testimony. Although you are not a known expert on the subject, you might invite the audience to share your direct knowledge. Offering your testimony within a speech serves as an example of your thesis while also increasing your credibility by demonstrating that you have relevant experience. Furthermore, personal testimony can improve your speech by showing your insight and feeling about the subject, making it more memorable (Beebe and Beebe, 2003; Parse, 2008). For example, if you're making a speech about the significance of hunting in local culture, you could discuss how the last deer you shot nourished your family for a full season.

Because personal testimony refers to your own experience, it is natural to imagine that you can deliver it with little preparation. However, psychologists have discovered that when people relate their experiences, they relive the event (Gladding & Drake Wallace, 2010). As you recall the incident, your natural urge will be to add detail and emotion to the account, which is part of what makes it memorable, but this approach may also lengthen the story and divert attention away from your point. If you intend to use personal testimony in your speech, practice the narrative to ensure that it conveys the proper point in the time allotted.

If you do not have personal familiarity with the subject, you might seek out alternative sorts of lay testimony to back up your claim. Lay testimony is any testimony based on witnesses' opinions or impressions in a particular case (Watt, S. S. .2011). For example, if you're giving a speech about Occupy Wall Street but haven't been to one of their marches, you may add words from a protestor or someone who supports the movement's ideals.

b. Interview

Lay testimony can provide insight into the past and into areas where individual sentiments are relevant, but if you are asked to predict the future or speak on an issue in which you have little relevant experience, expert testimony may provide more convincing support (Beebe & Beebe, 2003). Expert testimony is provided by a recognized authority who has undertaken substantial research on a given topic. Experts regularly publish their study findings in books and journals, as we shall cover later in this chapter, but you may require additional information from the expert to corroborate your claim. For example, if you were making a speech about how to prepare for a natural disaster, you could interview someone from the Red Cross. They may be able to advise you on the supplies required for the specific types of catastrophes that are likely to occur in your area. Interviews allow people to expand on their published research and provide an informed perspective on the precise point you're attempting to convey.

If you want to interview an expert, you should schedule it at a time and location that is convenient for them. Start the process with a polite phone call or email describing who you are and why you're contacting them. Be open about the information you're looking for and the schedule on which you're working. Also, be flexible with the format of your interview. If you can meet in person, it is frequently preferable because it allows you to get to know the person and ask follow-up questions as needed. A video call utilizing a service like Skype is an excellent alternative to an in-person interview. These services are frequently free for both callers and enable you to see and hear the person you are interviewing. If none of these techniques work, a phone call or email will suffice. Keep in mind that, while an email may appear convenient to you, it will likely take considerably more time from the expert because they must type each answer, and they may not be as forthcoming with information in that format. The expert will most certainly spend significantly more time typing each answer, and they may not be as forthcoming with information in that manner.

Prepare your questions for the interview ahead of time. When talking to someone, it's easy to get caught up in what they're saying and lose sight of the information you need. When you begin the interview, try to create rapport with the person you are interviewing. You can create rapport by displaying respect for their point of view, taking turns in your conversations, allowing them to finish their idea without interrupting, and allowing them to express themselves freely (Lindolf & Taylor,

2002). As you ask each question, take note of their response and ask for clarification or follow-up on any unexpected facts. If you intend to record the interview, obtain permission in advance. Even if you are granted permission to record, bring paper and a writing utensil to make backup notes in case your recording equipment fails. When the interview is finished, thank the person and ask if they would like further contact to follow up if necessary.

After the interview, go over your notes for information that supports your specific purpose statement. Look for quotes that combine the person's expertise with their thoughts on the subject you are discussing. The interview will most likely provide you with more information than you could reasonably convey in a brief speech. Work to combine the key points from the interview into a clear statement that supports your topic. Remember to carefully quote the precise language that the person used. Even if you paraphrase, properly mention the interview and give the expert credit for all of the insights they shared with you.

2. Library Resources

The library is a crucial resource for research, but many students may feel intimidated by its imposing nature. However, the librarian is a valuable resource, knowledgeable about available resources and able to assist in finding relevant material. Many libraries have librarians specializing in specific research areas. It's advisable to conduct initial research independently, demonstrating ownership and

responsibility. Libraries typically contain books, periodicals, and full text databases.

a. Books

Books provide comprehensive investigations of a subject, allowing authors to convey substantial information without strict page counts. Some books are written by a single author, while others bring scholars together in edited collections. Melissa Harris-Perry's (2011) book *Sister Citizen*, for example, explores the development of stereotypes of black women in America, offering compelling images, narratives, and social scientific evidence.

Libraries often index books in an online catalog, providing titles, authors, and call numbers for each book. These elements serve as backups for your search and can be used to find other relevant titles. If a book is found, check nearby shelves for other titles. If the book isn't found, ask the librarian for interlibrary loan. To streamline research, determine what you're looking for in advance and use the table of contents, headings, and index to guide you to the right section. Skim for key words and phrases related to your topic. Careful notes help remember the information gained from each source. In addition to traditional stacks, libraries often have a reference section with basic summary knowledge on various topics. Carefully draft notes and record page numbers and authors according to your preferred style.

b. Periodicals

Books are comprehensive but take years to publish, often containing years-old material. For recent

information, periodicals like magazines, newspapers, and journals are recommended, which are published weekly, monthly, or quarterly, offering various articles related to a specific subject area.

c. Full Text Databases

Full text databases provide access to citations, abstracts, and articles in indexed journals, sometimes limiting access to certain data ranges. They allow searching for articles matching desired time period, author, publication, or key words, and specifying general interest or scholarly publications.

3. Internet Resources

a. Search Engines

Identify the owner and creator of a website to determine the quality of its content. If a site does not have a direct link to its homepage, use "home" or "about" instead. The trustworthiness of the item can also be influenced by its originator, such as a journalist or blogger. For additional help, see the section on evaluating information.

b. Defining Search Terms

When conducting research, it is essential to begin as detailed as possible and then extend your scope as needed. If there is something specific you want to convey, you don't want to miss it while sifting through a sea of articles on your general topic area. To get the most out of your search engine, spend some time reading the site's help section and learning. The assistance section will provide further guidance to help you navigate the idiosyncrasies of that site and do the best possible search.

The help section will provide extra advice to help you navigate the subtleties of the site and conduct the best possible search.

1) Google

You may be familiar with Google, the term that has become synonymous with "internet search," as well as "the most used and most popular search engine" (Tajane, 2011). You may already be proficient at searching Google for a wide range of information, but you may be unfamiliar with some of its specialized search engines. Google Scholar, Google Books, and Google Images are three search engines that might be especially useful for someone who wants to back up their arguments in a speech.

2) Google Scholar

The search engines discussed earlier in this chapter will assist you in navigating a variety of websites to get the information you seek. However, certain themes and types of presentations necessitate more thorough research. This type of study is generally conducted in libraries, but Google has added a function that makes it easier to access scholarly sources. Google Scholar allows you to search for research published in scientific journal articles, books, theses, conference proceedings, and court opinions.

Google Scholar is a useful tool for academic research, offering features to refine search results. To find full-text articles in your library's databases, click the "scholar preferences" link next to the search

button on scholar.google.com. Type your school or library's name in the "library links" section and click "find library." Google will include your library in the search results, providing links to articles in your library's databases.

To access articles in your library's databases, search for the journal title and check if it's available in hard copy form. If not, copy the citation information and use interlibrary loan to request a copy from another library. Google Scholar can broaden your search by providing links to "related articles" and "cited by" links. Similar resources and provide a more recent perspective on the article. For example, Paul Rozin and April Fallon's 1988 article on male body image might be helpful, but more recent research is also beneficial.

3) Google Books

Google Books can help researchers by making book searches more efficient. Some library catalogs allow you to search for all books on a specific topic, while others only search for library holdings. Searching Google Books will help you identify whether the library currently has the book or if it has to be obtained through interlibrary loan. Skimming can also be made more effective by utilizing Google Books to identify essential phrases in a book. However, it is not a replacement for borrowing a book from the library or purchasing a copy. Instead, use Google Books to find the books most relevant to your inquiry.

4) Google Images

Google Images can be a useful tool for visual aids in speeches, including photographs, charts, illustrations, and clip art. However, it's important to use "safe search" settings to limit exposure to explicit images. These settings have three options: strict filtering, moderate filtering, and no filtering. Proper source citations are required for every image used, and if publishing your speech online, use images in the public domain to avoid infringing on copyrights. This ensures that your topic is well-presented and not influenced by explicit content.

c. Websites

Google and Bing search for websites owned by individuals, organizations, businesses, or governments. These websites offer a homepage with links to other resources, allowing for new connections between ideas and research. However, they might also lead to becoming disoriented among available sources. To keep on track, continue to check for sources that support your purpose statement. Most websites are designed to promote the interests of their owners. Critical that you verify to see whose website you are seeing. Typically, the creator or owner of the site is mentioned near the top of the homepage or in the copyright notice at the bottom. Identify the owner and author of a website before evaluating its information quality. If a site does not have a direct link to its homepage, utilize "home" or "about" links. The author of the item, such as a journalist or blogger, can also influence credibility. For additional

help, go to the section on evaluating information. Bookmark useful and credible websites in your browser as "favorites" for future reference. Click on the bookmarking link or drag tabs into a toolbar. If struggling, use CTRL+D or browser help links.

4. Evaluating Information

To reduce your support options from a flood of information, assess the quality and credibility of each source. Assess the quality by verifying that the information is comprehensive, thoroughly covers the problem, takes into account conflicting points of view, and cites the sources from which supporting material was obtained. The source should provide strong logic, consider opposing viewpoints, and include supporting facts and citations. Avoid using a source that is weak in one area. Assess source credibility by considering qualifications, message parity with similar sources, and biases. Qualification is important since it can be related to a person's occupation or experience. The information in the chosen source should be consistent with information from other sources on the subject. Avoid using weak sources that lack solid argumentation or examine alternative viewpoints.

5. Citing Sources and Avoiding Plagiarism

a. Style Sheets

APA is one of the most developed and used styles among those that originate from the so-called Harvard system. According to the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA), cited sources

are written in the text within parentheses with information about the author and year. APA Style has guidelines for both the referencing and formatting of academic texts. However, the JU Library APA guide focuses primarily on the reference list and in-text citations. The guide is based on the latest edition of APA (the 7th edition). APA Style is used in many programs at JU, and most APA guidelines can be applied to student papers. APA encourages instructors and institutions to adapt the APA guidelines to fit their needs (Carlstein, S.2019)

The American Psychological Association (APA) style is widely used and follows guidelines for referencing and formatting academic texts. The JU Library's APA guide focuses on the reference list and in-text citations. Citations are written in parentheses within the text and include author and year information.

b. Plagiarism

Plagiarism is the act of presenting someone person's work ideas as your own. This is occasionally purposeful in which case someone opt to duplicate from another source while convincing their audience that their idea was original. Plagiarism occurs by mistake when people do not know how to correctly summarize and cite the sources from which they obtained information. This occurs when someone uses words or ideas from a source but fails to properly cite it. Even if you have given your professor a written draft of the speech with source citations, you must additionally provide oral acknowledgment for ideas that are not your own.

Omitting the oral attribution from the speech causes the audience, who does not have a written version, to believe that the words are yours. Cite and attribute all information taken from others, including paraphrases and summaries. When unsure, remember to "always provide oral citations for direct quotations, paraphrased material, or especially striking language, letting listeners know who said the words, where, and when" (Osborn & Osborn, 2007, p.23). Whether deliberate or not, plagiarism is immoral, and someone who plagiarizes may frequently face consequences under their institution's code of conduct.

C. Evaluation

1. Identify the strongest evidence for each point made by the speaker. List as many as you can think of.
 - a. Photo-retouching alters our perception of beauty.
 - b. Protests can be effectively carried out using the Internet.
 - c. Body scanners in airports are detrimental to our health.
2. You are giving a speech about the importance of legislation banning text messaging while driving. You want to present diverse backing for your claim the legislation is necessary. What research tools would you use to find the following forms of evidence?
 - a. A personal narrative concerning the effects of texting while driving.

- b. A scholarly research investigating the dangers of texting while driving.
- c. Current legislation on cell phone use.

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CHAPTER VI

DELIVERY OF SPEECH



A. Introduction

Imagine this. A speech topic is precisely picked; the information is well-organized and well researched; a lot of effort was put into preparing the speech's "text" or "script," but the speech is delivered poorly. Will the speech be effective? Will the audience remain aware and follow along? Will the audience understand the speaker's intended message? These final questions lead to the general anxiety of public speaking. Many people are terrified by the performance of a speech rather than the preparation of one!

Because an audience normally listens to a speech rather than reading it, the speaker's material must be encoded into a complicated combination of communication channels (words, sounds, visual elements, etc.) that are ready to be performed. The goal of this chapter is to provide direction for moving the speech from the page to the stage.

B. Material

1. Methods of Delivery

There are four basic approaches (or styles) for delivering a speech: manuscript, memorized, extemporaneous, and spontaneous. Each can be used in a variety of communication contexts:

a. Manuscript Style

The word manuscript refers to the style. The speech is written, and the speaker delivers it word for word to the audience. Originally, it was done using a handwritten paper text. The manuscript style is still popular today, but paper is no longer used. Who delivers the address to the audience? Answer: Newscasters and television personalities. Previously, the manuscript was hand-lettered on cue cards held near the camera lens. Then paper scrolls, similar to printed piano rolls, were utilized, particularly in soap operas. Today, a dedicated teleprompter (which functions similarly to a periscope) is linked to the camera, allowing the newscaster to read while gazing through the lens.

Why is the manuscript relevant and in use? Precision. Every fraction of a second counts in the news industry since broadcast time is expensive. In addition, the information and names must be exact and correct, leaving no opportunity for error. Errors in reporting undermine the credibility of the news organization and the newscaster. The US President makes the most frequent use of the teleprompter for textual delivery. In reality, the teleprompter, which has been utilized by every President

since Reagan, is referred to as the "Presidential Teleprompter." It is made up of two pieces of glass, one flanking the podium. They reflect the words from a monitor on the floor, much like a periscope. The wording on both sides of the glass is the same, and the speaker alternates between the two glasses, as if looking at the audience through them. The audience cannot see the displayed text. The President's remarks frequently reflect national policy and define international connections, and the press scrutinizes every word. It must not only be extremely accurate, but also perfectly phased. The speech is written by professional writers and policy experts, and the President delivers it as if he authored it from scratch. That is the ability of an effective politician, actor, or speaker. Those who are not proficient with a teleprompter or writing will sound stilted and uninteresting.

b. Memorized Style

The memorized method of speaking involves committing the manuscript to memory and reciting it verbatim to the audience. This was a common strategy while teaching elocution. A speech was a recitation. The Optimists Club, a national organization, used to hold a "Oratory" contest for high school students. Contestants prepared articles on a certain theme in order to prepare a speech of a certain length (for example, three minutes). The essay was remembered, and the delivery was evaluated based on 1) the quality of the writing, 2) the accuracy with which it was recited, and 3) the exact

length of time. Such competitions appear outdated in today's more informal and slightly less formal standards.

Where is memorized delivery still common? Actors on stage are required by copyright regulations and licensing contract agreements (save for scripts in the public domain) to remember the play's script and execute it verbatim exactly as written. Speakers in high school and university speech and debate teams typically memorize their competitive speeches. Corporate conventions frequently use enormous LCD monitors in front of the stage as teleprompters. This permits the speaker to roam more freely around the stage while remaining true to his or her script. Some monologists (like the stand-up comics discussed at the beginning of the chapter) have a memorized delivery style. If your speech is relatively brief or you know you will have to deliver it frequently, such as a tour operator, they will always give the idea that it is memorized.

c. Impromptu Style

In theory, a "impromptu" speech is "made up on the spot." It's unprepared and unrehearsed. This category frequently includes ceremonial toasts, grace before meals, acknowledgements, introductions, and expressions of gratitude, among others. While some speeches in those categories are prepared (plan your acceptance speech for the Academy Award BEFORE you are called!), there are many times where there is little or no time to prepare. Impromptu speeches are often brief and are frequently delivered with little or no notice. Notes are infrequent, and the speaker usually looks

directly at the audience. Declaring rules for impromptu speaking would be presumptuous and arrogant. It is safe to say that "impromptu" refers to anything from no preparation to a small bit of preparation (mainly thought), and rarely includes research or the formalities of plans and citations that more formal speeches would entail.

Example: During a surprise 10th anniversary party for my mother (Margaret) and stepfather (Lidio), my siblings used complex language to convey a sense of emotion. It was their third marriage, and they were both in their sixties. When the cries of "surprise" subsided, Lidio grabbed up his wine glass and made a toast:

"I can't believe the surprise! I'm not sure what to say... Um, Dino [his brother], when was that Yankee game Dad took us to as kids? It was the Fourth of July, right? 1939? And it felt like yesterday, and today reminds me of the day Lou Gehrig came out to the mound. He was slow, but we were all applauding for the 'Pride of the Yankees.' He wasn't playing anymore because he was too sick, but he looked around the audience and exclaimed, 'I'm the luckiest man alive. That's how I feel about having you all here tonight to celebrate our tenth anniversary. I am here with you and Margaret, and I am the luckiest guy alive.'"

The speech was brief, emotionally intense, beautifully articulate, and completely unprepared. The speech contained one basic emotionally charged message; simple in words and wording, yet sophisticated in conveying a sense of profound sentimentality to the occasion. He responded to the situation and spoke "from

the heart." In contrast, famed magician Harry Houdini was frequently asked to perform for the entertainment of his fellow passengers when sailing to Europe. I've always associated "impromptu" with stories about Houdini's shipboard conjuring. Nothing could be further than "impromptu." The renowned magician's skill was in making his illusions appear spontaneous using seemingly commonplace materials that "happened" to be on hand. Houdini spent countless hours planning and rehearsing. The real illusion was that they "appeared" to be spontaneous.

d. Extemporaneous Style

The extemporaneous speech style falls somewhere between memorized and unplanned delivery techniques. For this technique, the discourse is not entirely written out. It is typically provided with keynotes for reference. Most public speaking classes and manuals characterize extemporaneous speeches as meticulously planned and rehearsed, but given with notes of essential words and phrases to help the speaker. The phrasing is pre-rehearsed, the words are pre-selected, and the structure is flowing and well-constructed. There should be no fumbling for words, no rambling, and the duration of time should be strictly controlled. The style allows the speaker to make references to their immediate surroundings, prior speeches, current events, and so on.

The individual determines how the notes are developed and how they appear, but a natural extemporaneous delivery is impossible if you are relying on a manuscript. Under no circumstances should the

speaker look at their notes for more than 20% of the time they are speaking. It would be excellent to practice so that you only look at your notes about 5% of the time during the speech.

Those who have little experience with formal speaking find it useful to write down the speech as if it were an essay, then read it, modify it, and produce speaking notes from it. This aids in refining and thinking over the phrases. This approach of public speaking was taught to my colleagues and me decades ago and has since fallen out of fashion. However, it is an effective method of thoroughly thinking through the speech. If this technique is followed, it is best to rehearse the speech with the notes but without the essay before presenting it. But be warned: having the completed essay on the podium may detract from the delivery.

The extemporaneous style is the most commonly suggested (and even obligatory) way in today's public speaking classes, and it is also the greatest method in other situations. While it is not the only approach of presenting a speech, it is the most useful for presentations in other classes, in the business world, and while pursuing future employment.

2. Vocal Aspect of Delivery

Though we speak regularly throughout the day, preparing for a formal speech needs special attention to detail. What can you do in advance to prepare for a speech? The speaker's experience, history, and cultural impact, as well as existing speaking patterns, all contribute to the issue. Articulation, pronunciation, dialect, tone, pitch, and

projection all require long-term effort to succeed. These elements are similar to signatures, and each speaker should develop and employ them in accordance with his or her persona.

Voice, or vocal sound, is produced when regulated air exhaled from the lungs travels over the vocal chords, resulting in a controlled vibration. The vibrating air resonates throughout the body, including the chest cavity, mouth, and nasal passages. The vibrating air sets off a chain reaction with the air in the room. The listener's ear captures the movement of the air in the room caused by the voice. The vibration of the air against the eardrum is converted into electrical impulses that are processed by the listener's brain. Thus, the noises we can generate depend on the breaths we take.

a. Articulation

Articulate is a measure of perceived intelligence or education. That is, how well and correctly we create our vowels and consonants with our lips, jaw, tongue, and palate to produce the sounds associated with speech. Diction and enunciation are alternative names that refer to the same concept. Good versus bad articulation can be demonstrated by saying "going to" instead of "gonna" or "did not" instead of "dint". Consonants and vowels are spoken with standard precision, and serious students and speakers will work to improve the clarity of their sounds. Proper diction is as important to the English language as proper spelling, but it requires practice.

b. Pronunciation

The pronunciation of a word is determined by the proper articulation used for it. The pronunciation

involves how the vowels and consonants are formed, as well as which syllable is stressed. For years, people relied on "markings" (such as the International Phonetics Alphabet or other Dictionary Symbols) to determine how words were officially pronounced. With online dictionaries now freely available, one merely needs to "look up" a word and select "play" to hear an auditory recording of the official and correct pronunciation of that term. There is no longer an excuse to mispronounce a word in a speech. A mispronounced term will destroy a speaker's credibility, and the audience will focus on the error rather than the message.

c. Accent, Dialect and Regionalism

Accents, regionalisms, and dialects all reveal subtle differences in how we pronounce words and phrase our speech within a given language. An accent refers to the prominence with which syllables are spoken in words, such as when someone from Australia speaks "undah" versus "under." A regionalism is a sort of idiom, such as saying "The dog wants to be walked," rather than "The dog wants to go for a walk." Dialect is a type of language that is distinguishable from others by grammar and vocabulary. In Pennsylvania, you may hear someone remark they are going to "red up the room," which implies "to clean the room."

Broadcasters, politicians, and entertainers frequently speak unaccented General or Standard English while eschewing regionalism. Accent, dialect, and regionalism can all have an impact on audience prejudice. Speakers should be conscious of these views and make an

extra effort to comprehend the accent and phrasing in their speeches. Asking a sympathetic listener can help you practice more effectively.

d. Vocal Quality

The quality of the voice, including its timbre (distinctive sound) and texture, influences audibility and can impact articulation. Our voices are distinct to everyone of us. It results from our physical vocal instrument, which includes the diaphragm, vocal cords, lungs, and body mass. Vocal qualities include warm, clear, gentle, scratchy, mellow, and breathy. Each speaker should work on maximizing the vocal effect of his instrument, which can be achieved through vocal exercises. There are several books, records, and trainers available to help improve one's vocal quality when necessary. The pitch range of a voice determines its quality.

e. Pitch and Inflection

Similar to musical terms, pitch refers to the "highness" or "lowness" of the voice. We all have a variety of tones. Vocal sounds are vibrations sent forth from the vocal cords that reverberate through chambers in the body. Vibrations can be measured in terms of audio frequency, just like music. Inflection occurs when the pitch is shifted to convey a meaning. For example, raising the pitch at the end of a question sentence. Inflections are pitch fluctuations, turns, and slides that help convey information.

Aristotle's "Poetics" lists "Music" as an element of drama, which includes the musicalization of spoken words with dramatic inflection. The meaning and effectiveness of a spoken line are greatly dependent on the "melody" of its inflection. The study of elocution formalizes the conventions of inflection, but in some contemporary cultures, inflection has been minimized due to its perceived "melodramatic" sound. Good animated inflection makes a speaker more interesting and conveys energy and "aliveness" that compels the audience to listen. In music, songs were written to be consistent with the melody, while today's songs, particularly Rap, depend solely on rhythm. Even non-singers can be expressive with inflection and pitch, like Professor Harold Hill in *The Music Man's* "Think System." A balance between melodramatic and monotonous inflection is preferred, and speakers should think through each phrase and its musicalization separately. Inflection and varied pitch must be organic and natural for the speaker, rather than artificial or disingenuous.

f. Rate of Speaking

To maintain voice clarity through articulation and inflection, the speaker must be aware that there is a range of appropriate speaking tempos. If the tempo is set too slowly, the speech may sound monotonous. If it is too rapid, consonants or vowels may be deleted or rushed in order to maintain the speed. An audience may feel irritated with either extreme. The pacing should be appropriate for the speaker's style, but not timed like a Gilbertian Lyric (as in "Gilbert and Sullivan") patter or a

funereal dirge. The optimal pace is one that is both comfortable and clear. An appropriate speaking tempo allows you to comfortably increase or drop your pace to create a sensation of excitement.

g. Pauses Versus Vocalized Versus

Readable writing includes visible punctuation. Miniature landmarks help to define the text. To improve comprehension, speakers should use consistent punctuation and make an attempt to resolve any differences. The task is to provide the text with pauses. Proper spacing between phrases allows the audience to understand the structure of the speaker's sentences and paragraphs. It also provides the listener time to "digest" key phrases. Generally, spoken words and paragraphs should be simpler and shorter than what can be understood from reading. Pauses can improve comprehension. However, pauses punctuated with "uh's," "um's," and so on are referred to as vocalized pauses or fillers and should be avoided. When utilized excessively, they can be distracting and obnoxious, as well as create the impression of a lack of preparedness. Even worse is the usage of colloquial terms such as "y' know" (a contraction of "Do You Know"), which create the impression of a lack of education or regard for the listener. The usage of vocalized pauses may be the result of a habit that requires effort to unlearn. Avoid statements like "Uh," "OK?", "y'know", "like..., I mean," and "right?".

h. Vocal Projection

Vocal projection refers to the volume produced by the vocal instrument and can be improved with frequent practice and guidance from a vocal trainer, teacher, or coach. Speakers should project so that they can be clearly heard by the crowd, even when amplified. Warming up before a speech, such as humming, yawning, or singing scales, might assist to relax the voice and reduce discomfort. If public speaking is a career ambition, it is recommended that you have your voice, articulation, and projection assessed by an objective specialist. Courses, private sessions, and professional voice coaches can all help you improve your projection, tone, and pitch.

3. Nonverbal Aspect of Delivery

a. Personal Appearance

Dress appropriately for a class speech, making sure you look well and feel comfortable. Men should wear a button-down shirt and casual dress pants, while ladies can wear skirts or slacks with a blouse/shirt. When choosing dress, consider the audience's culture and standards. Secure long hair with clips or gel, and make sure you can be seen, particularly your eyes and mouth. Dress at the level of the interviewer, not as a carpenter. Step confidently into the room, keeping everything nice and clean. A confident and well-prepared speech will allow your audience to recognize and respect your message.

b. Movement and Gesture

Body language, which includes body posture, gestures, and facial expressions, is essential in a speech.

It should be comfortable and natural, rather than excessive. Practice is crucial, and actors can benefit from having directors or objective observers. Movement should be practiced as part of the presentation because too much might be distracting. Hand gestures, which are widespread in Italy, can assist keep people's attention and deliver their message. Actors and speakers should use their entire body to express themselves, as well as practice physical exercises on a daily basis to maintain their hands and arms relaxed. Hand motions should be natural and spontaneous, not staged, in order to preserve believability.

c. Eye Contact

In addition to correctly conveying a structured text, eye contact is a vital aspect of communicating. An audience must be interested in the speaker and believe the speaker cares about them. Whether addressing a 1,000-person audience or speaking across a "deuce" (table for two), eye contact strengthens the speaker-audience relationship. Good eye contact requires practice. The finest strategy is to scan the crowd and make each person believe the speaker is speaking directly to them.

However, there are certain instances of failed eye contact.

1) Head bobber

Someone who bobs their head in a rhythmic manner, looking down at the notes and up at the audience.

2) Balcony Gazer

A person who glances over the heads of his or her audience in order to avoid looking at any individual.

3) The obsessor

A person who exclusively glances at one or two people in the audience or in a single direction.

Eye contact is vital in communication, accounting for 80% to 90% of a speaker's delivery time. Modern teleprompters enable speakers to communicate with their audience without missing a syllable. Good eye contact also enables presenters to assess audience attention and response, which improves the feedback process. To improve your eye contact, practice your speech, know it well enough to glance at notes, and produce notes that are easy to read and follow.

d. Facial Expression

Emoticons are visual representations of facial expressions that convey a variety of emotions, based on a universal language of expressions learned at birth. Facial expressions are vital for delivering speeches, expressing dedication to the content, and establishing credibility. They should be natural and spontaneous, with no artificiality, as they will be analyzed by the press and detectives.

4. Mastering the Location

a. The Room

Do not wait until you go up to talk to see how it will go. Before you talk, check out the room (venue) and podium. Check the room's width and where the audience

will sit. Practice making eye contact with an imaginary audience. Will you be illuminated more brightly than the audience? Will they be able to see your face? Can you comfortably project your voice into the back row? Will you have a microphone?

b. The Podium

To confidently present, make sure the podium is the proper height, solid, visible, and well-lit. Test note cards and consider your standing position, even if you are not behind the lectern. Maintain good posture and ensure that motions are not obscured by the podium. Even if you don't spend much time behind the podium, becoming familiar with it will increase your speaking confidence.

c. The Equipment

To prepare for a multimedia speech, practice it beforehand and make sure the audience can see both you and the screen. Check the controls, slide clicker, and screen-to-pronunciation linkages. Maintain various versions of audio/video and guarantee that the room's equipment can play them correctly. Check all PowerPoint slides for spelling, content, and common errors such as formatting changes. Avoid equipment breakdowns and unexpected surprises to reduce stress and ensure a good presentation.

d. Using a Microphone

Before a performance, test the amplifier to confirm that it is compatible with your projection and audio pickup system. Amplification can compensate for insufficient speech space, but not for bad articulation or inflections. Consider the microphone's position and keep

a consistent distance to avoid distortion or feedback. To avoid syllable overlap in specific settings, avoid amplification of consonants and slow down or use more pauses.

e. Water Rules

Water should be the sole beverage offered to a speaker. It should be cool, but not icy cold, to avoid temperature shock to the neck and voice cords. If it is poured into a glass, make sure it is not too full so that the speaker is not overwhelmed by the quantity. There should be no ice in the glass or pitcher on the podium. Ice might be a choking threat for a speaker who is concentrating on speaking rather than drinking. The current tendency is to supply bottled water to guest speakers. It should be opened, but the cap remained on to ensure sanitation. The water should be placed on an absorbent tray to avoid suction making it harder to lift up the glass.

Drinking water is vital to keep the vocal chords hydrated. Taking a sip can be used to create an effective pause in a speech.

5. Preparation, Practice and Delivery

a. Preparing Notes

Create note cards or cue sheets for your speech, ensuring that they contain enough material to allow you to deliver it without missing any nuances. Print the outline in large font for easy viewing from a distance. Keep the cards numbered and color-coded for easy organization. eliminate writing or printing on both sides to eliminate distractions. Slide the cards aside to proceed

to the next card. Rehearse your speech utilizing the notes, making sure you can glance at them while maintaining eye contact with the audience.

b. Rehearsing the Speech

To prepare for a speech at Carnegie Hall, rehearse it aloud in front of a coworker or fellow student. Record the rehearsal speech and timing it to the allotted time. Phrase the speech exactly as you will deliver it, paying special attention to verbal fillers and uncomfortable pauses. Plan out what you'll do with your hands and how your speech will begin and end. A memorized introduction makes the listener feel more prepared, emphasizes the importance of the speech, and commands attention. The conclusion of the speech is critical since it marks the finish of the speech and the audience's chance to applaud. A bold and decisive opening and logical conclusion will create an indelible impact on the listener.

c. Managing Stress

Stress and fright can have a deleterious effect on speaking, causing muscles to tense and restricting the speaker's vocal tone. Speakers at corporate or commercial meetings should talk slowly and attentively to prevent rushing. Stress can also cause excessive sweating and dryness in the mouth and throat. Hypnosis, envisioning the audience naked, and moderate exercise are all effective stress relievers. Warming up the voice and practicing relaxation exercises will also help you relax and improve your posture. Being prepared and confident is the greatest way to deal with stress.

d. Delivering the Speech

Before delivering a speech, you have completed the necessary steps, such as selecting a good topic, researching it, organizing information, rehearsing, receiving feedback, practicing notes, planning the speech, checking the room and equipment, reducing stress, performing vocal warm-ups, selecting the perfect outfit, arriving at least 15 minutes early, and delivering with enthusiasm. The phrase "deliver" suggests a predetermined responsibility to provide knowledge that will benefit or enlighten your audience.

C. Evaluation

1. Create a list of 10 prospective speech themes. Consider an environment in which a speech on a given topic could be delivered. Next, decide which kind of delivery (manuscript, memorized, impromptu, or extemporaneous) is most suited to the topic and setting.
2. Which three qualities of voice delivery do you believe are most crucial for a speaker's credibility? Explain.
3. How does a speaker's accent alter the audience's view of them? Provide an example to support your response.
4. Which guidelines from the speech attire section were most helpful to you?
5. How do you see presenters who avoid eye contact with their audience? What ideas would you provide to help these speakers improve their eye contact?

6. What equipment is available in the space(s) where you intend to deliver your speeches? What types of presentations can be made using this equipment?
7. Identify three personal strategies for reducing nervousness before talks.
8. What advice from the chapter was most valuable to you?

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