



NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA

SCHOOL OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

COURSE CODE: ENG 314

COURSE TITLE: PUBLIC SPEAKING



ENG 314

PUBLIC SPEAKING

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Introduction

Welcome to **ENG 314: PUBLIC SPEAKING.**

ENG 314 is a two-unit 300 level course that is taught in the second semester of the B.A. English Programme. It introduces you to the basic concepts and techniques of public speaking, bearing in mind that your ability to develop effective public speaking skills will equip you with the ability to speak English in a variety of social and academic situations, and to enhance your understanding of academic and non-academic spoken discourse.

What you will Learn in this Course

The ideas offered here have three purposes. First, they can help public speaking participants successfully prepare and deliver effective presentations. Second, they guide students, and anyone interested in developing their speaking skills. Third, the information provides an objective basis for judging or assessing the effectiveness of a presentation when delivered before an audience. Throughout the duration of this course, you will be exposed to activities and techniques that will help to increase your confidence and stimulate further learning in speech communication – especially as it relates to public speaking.

The material used in the development of this course is drawn from two principal sources: 1) several well-respected public speaking textbooks used as primary or secondary references for courses in oral communication or public speaking, and 2) comments from follow-up critiques at public speaking events. This information is consistent with accepted practice for public speakers and specifically relevant to the problems young speakers commonly have when faced with a public speaking engagement for the first time.

Course Aims

Every speaker and presentation has different strengths. This course is therefore specifically aimed at helping you develop and deliver the best possible speech presentation, taking into consideration your individual skills, abilities, and style. The general aim of this course is to help you to become a confident, persuasive speaker. To achieve this aim, we shall start by explaining the theoretical foundation of public speaking and the principles of persuasive communication. Then we shall teach you about the techniques and skills involved in the process of preparing a speech.

Throughout the study material, we suggest activities and give assignments that will help you to practise the steps involved in preparing and delivering a successful persuasive speech.

Course Objectives

Upon the successful completion of this course, you should be able to:

- prepare and deliver a functional, intelligent and effective public speech,
- develop, to a very high degree, the techniques of speech preparation and delivery as outlined thus;

Preparation:

- Audience Analysis
- Topic and Purpose
- Content
- Structure
- Developing the Body
- Developing the Introduction
- Developing a Strong Conclusion

Delivery:

- Notes vs. Memorization
- Wording
- Movement
- Gesture
- Vocal Delivery
- Audience Interaction

Please note that the Self Assessment Exercises and Tutor Marked Assignments(TMAs) in this book are essential to the accomplishment of these objectives.

Working through this Course

This course is divided into Modules and units. Within these units, there are Self Assessment Exercises and Tutor Marked Assignments. You are expected to answer these self assessment questions and tutor marked assignments. Additional requirements for the course will include a cumulative e-TMA result and a final examination. The Course Guide tells you briefly what the course is all about, what you are expected to know in each unit, what course materials you need to use, and how you can work your way through these materials.

Course Materials

The main components of the course are:

1. The Course Guide
2. Study Units
3. Assignments
4. References

Study Units

There are fourteen units in this course spread through three modules. These are as follows;

Module 1 Introduction to Persuasion

- Unit 1 Foundations of persuasion
- Unit 2 Theories of persuasion
- Unit 3 Introduction to public speaking
- Unit 4 Analysing the audience
- Unit 5 Selecting a topic and purpose

Module 2 Techniques of Persuasion

- Unit 1 Supporting your ideas
- Unit 2 Organising your material
- Unit 3 Preparing the delivery
- Unit 4 Persuasive speeches

Module 3 Listening in the Public Speaking Context

- Unit 1 Hearing and Listening
- Unit 2 Types of Listening
- Unit 3 Hindrances to Effective Listening
- Unit 4 Techniques of Becoming a Better Listener
- Unit 5 Listening in Persuasive Situations

As mentioned in the preceding section, it is important to recognize that each speaker is an individual with a unique set of strengths. Speakers are not required to meet all of the expectations set forth here to be successful. Beginning speakers should identify their strengths and weaknesses and use the information in this course material to improve their ability to communicate through oral presentations.

Public speaking is an art form that is developed through practice and feedback. For the beginning speaker, the following instructions are essential to developing an effective speech:

- Speakers should start with a message that interests them and their audience.
- Speakers should organize the message so the audience can follow their thinking.
- Speakers should put enough good information in the message to make the presentation believable.
- Speakers should deliver their presentations using voice, gestures, movement, and eye contact to emphasize their words.
- Speakers should include plenty of audience interaction to keep people involved.

Using these five key concepts to develop and deliver presentations will help speakers succeed in public speaking engagements, build strong oral communication

skills, and ensure that the presentation has the meaningful impact desired by participants.

References/Further Reading

The following texts are useful for the course. It is important that you read some of them (at least, two).

Barker, LL & Gaut, DA. (1996). *Communication* (7th edn). Boston, Mass: Allyn & Bacon.

Beebe, SA & Beebe, SJ. (1997). *Public speaking: an audience-centred approach*, (3rd edn.). Boston, Mass: Allyn & Bacon.

Bredenkamp, C. (1996). Persuasive Communication, in *Introduction to communication: course book 4 – communication planning and management*. R. S. Rensburg (ed.). Cape Town: Juta.

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<http://www.articlesbase.com/public-speaking-articles/persuasion-monroes-motivated-sequence-989543.html#ixzz1N6YxS95f>

<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Persuasion>

Steinberg, S. (1999). *Persuasive communication skills: public speaking*. Cape Town: Juta

Assessment

There are two aspects to the assessment of this course. First is the Tutor-Marked Assignments; second is a written examination. In handling these assignments, you are expected to apply the information, knowledge and experience acquired during the course. The Tutor Marked Assignments are now being done online. Ensure that you register all your courses so that you can have easy access to the online assignments. Your score in the online assignments will account for 30 per cent of your total coursework. At the end of the course, you will need to sit for a final examination. This examination will account for the other 70 per cent of your total course mark.

Tutor Marked Assignments (TMAs)

Usually, there are four (4) online tutor-marked assignments in this course. Each assignment will be marked over ten (10). The best three (that is the highest three of the 10 marks) will be counted. This implies that the total mark for the best three (3) assignments will constitute 30% of your total course work. You will be able to complete your online assignments successfully from the information and materials contained in your references, reading and study units.

Final Examination and Grading.

The final examination for ENG 314: Public Speaking will be of two hours duration and have a value of 70% of the total course grade. The examination will consist of multiple choice and fill-in-the-gaps questions which will reflect the practice exercises and tutor-marked assignments you have previously encountered. All areas of the course will be assessed. It is important that you use adequate time to revise the entire course. You may find it useful to review your tutor-marked assignments before the examination. The final examination covers information from all aspects of the course.

How to Get the Most from this Course

1) In distance learning, the study units replace the university lecture. This is one of the great advantages of distance learning; you can read and work through specially designed study materials at your own pace, and at a time and place that suites you best. Think of it

as reading the lecture instead of listening to the lecturer. In the same way a lecturer might give you some reading to do. The study units tell you when to read and which are your text materials or recommended books. You are provided exercises to do at appropriate points, just as a lecturer might give you in a class exercise.

2) Each of the study units follows a common format. The first item is an introduction to the subject matter of the unit, and how a particular unit is integrated with other units and the course as a whole. Next to this is a set of learning objectives. These objectives let you know what you should be able to do, by the time you have completed the unit. These learning objectives are meant to guide your study. The moment a unit is finished, you must go back and check whether you have achieved the objectives. If this is made a habit, then you will significantly improve your chance of passing the course.

3) The main body of the unit guides you through the required reading from other sources. This will usually be either from your reference or from a reading section.

4) The following is a practical strategy for working through the course. If you run into any trouble, telephone your tutor or visit the study centre nearest to you. Remember that your tutor's job is to help you. When you need assistance, do not hesitate to call and ask your tutor to provide it.

5) Read this course guide thoroughly. It is your first assignment.

6) Organize a study schedule – Design a 'Course Overview' to guide you through the course. Note the time you are expected to spend on each unit and how the assignments relate to the units. Important information; e.g. details of your tutorials and the date of the first day of the semester is available at the study centre. You need to gather all the information into one place, such as your diary or a wall calendar. Whatever method you choose to use, you should decide on and write in your own dates and schedule of work for each unit.

7) Once you have created your own study schedule, do everything to stay faithful to it.

The major reason that students fail is that they get behind in their coursework. If you get into difficulties with your schedule, please let your tutor or course coordinator know before it is too late for help.

8) Turn to Unit 1, and read the introduction and the objectives for the unit.

9) Assemble the study materials. You will need your references for the unit you are studying at any point in time.

10) As you work through the unit, you will know what sources to consult for further information.

11) Visit your Study Centre whenever you need up-to-date information.

12) Well before the relevant online TMA due dates, visit your study centre for relevant information and updates. Keep in mind that you will learn a lot by doing the assignment carefully. They have been designed to help you meet the objectives of the course and, therefore, will help you pass the examination.

13) Review the objectives for each study unit to confirm that you that you have achieved them. If you feel unsure about any of the objectives, review the study materials or consult your tutor. When you are confident that you have achieved a unit's objectives, you can start on the next unit. Proceed unit by unit through the course and try to space your study so that you can keep yourself on schedule.

15) After completing the last unit, review the course and prepare yourself for the final examination. Check that you have achieved the unit objectives (listed at the beginning of each unit) and the course objectives (listed in the course guide).

Summary

ENG 314 aims at equipping you with good public speaking skills that can empower you to better communicate your ideas and opinions as well as help you succeed in the job market and other areas of life. Remember; speaking is an art, which can be effectively developed over time. It is not unusual for young students to have poor public speaking skills because they have very little confidence, or they are afraid of this skill. Most students that have great public speaking skills have develop this skill over time and with a lot of practice. Upon completion of this course, your speaking skills should be well-developed, particularly because of your ability to master the techniques needed for the preparation and delivery of your speech.

We wish you success in the course

**COURSE
MATERIAL**

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UNIT 1 Foundations of Persuasion

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The Oxford Dictionary defines “persuade” as causing another person or even oneself to believe, realise or agree with a point of view or to carry out an action. To persuade is to convince. The purpose of persuasive writing or presentation then is to convince one or more people to agree with our point of view or to take the action we want them to take. Effective communication takes careful planning, selection of appropriate words that will engage our intended readers or listeners and a call to action whether it is to believe our point of view or do something we want our reader or listener to do. Everyday we are bombarded with a broad range of persuasive communication. Advertising is one of the most obvious examples and is a multi-billion naira industry focused on enticing someone to act – to buy – to get involved – to sign up. Advertising messages come in many forms, television, radio, direct mail sms, newspapers and magazines. In persuasive communication, the communicator of a message is usually called the **persuader**. Since persuasion often takes place in a public speaking context, the communicator or persuader is also referred to as an orator or speaker. Similarly, the recipient of persuasion is referred to as the **persuadee**. In public speaking context, the persuadee may be called the listener or a member of the audience.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Define persuasion in public speaking,
- Explain the concept of persuasion as a process of communication, and
- Describe the approach to strategic persuasion.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What is Persuasion in Public Speaking?

According to Perloff (2003), persuasion can be defined as "...a symbolic process in which communicators try to convince other people to change their attitudes or behaviors regarding an issue through the transmission of a message in an atmosphere

of free choice." In other words, in public speaking, persuasion is a method of getting someone to do, believe or accept something by means of the words you use. It involves reasoning with the listener, using sound arguments or a compelling entreaty to persuade.

In contrast, manipulation involves controlling or influencing a person or group of people through unfair or unscrupulous means. In the simplest terms, persuasion is to get what you want through the use of words. Persuasion always benefits both the persuader and the persuaded. Manipulation only benefits the manipulator; some think that persuasion is a bad thing. Actually, it can be positive, and in more ways that you would imagine. Persuasion is not the negative kind of manipulation that goes on in the world around us. Manipulation does not create lasting relationships. Many aspects of manipulation are a part of persuasion. Manipulation will always eventually fail. Persuasion will last. Manipulation is always bad.

Persuasion follows a specific pattern of processes, methods and tactics that will help you to help others. True persuasion is ethical, honest, truth and elicits the persuasion criteria that is hard wired into our brains. By learning how to persuade others, you can experience a simple truth. The sooner you help everyone else get what they want, the sooner you will get what you want. To master persuasion will require continuous practice. The difference between persuasion and manipulation mostly lies within you. Your intent is what makes the difference.

Persuasion usually results in long lasting relationships. Persuasion is usually about gaining agreement and support. It is about creating a common ground where you and others can come together in purpose of thought. To become an effective persuader will require taking the time to learn how people make decisions. You will have to look at how you persuade and where you need to make changes and improvements. Where you need to review the techniques, and how to review them to get the best results.

3.2 Relationship based Persuasion

In their book *The Art of Woo* G. Richard Shell and Mario Moussa describe a four step approach to strategic persuasion. They explain that persuasion means to win others over, not to defeat them. Thus it is very important to be able to see the topic from different angles in order to anticipate the reaction of others to a proposal.

Step 1: Survey your situation

This step includes an analysis of the situation of the persuader, his goals and the challenges he faces in his organization.

Step 2: Confront the five barriers

There are five obstacles that pose the greatest risks to a successful influence encounter: relationships, credibility, communication mismatches, belief systems, interest and needs.

Step 3: Make your pitch

People need solid reason to justify a decision, yet at the same time many decisions are taken on the basis of intuition. This step also deals with presentation skills.

Step 4: Secure your commitments

In order to safeguard the long-time success, it is vital to deal with politics at the individual and organizational level.

3.3 Persuasion as a Process of Communication

What is a process? A process is a series of actions or events. This means that communication has no fixed beginning or ending. As the participants express, interpret and reply to each other's messages, the process develops. When we say that persuasion is a process of communication, we imply that without communication, persuasion is impossible. It also means that persuasion is a dynamic, on-going process that includes the expression and interpretation of messages. From the foregoing discussion, we can postulate that persuasion is a process of communication in which a communicator succeeds in voluntarily forming, sustaining or changing the attitudes or behaviour of one recipient or a group of recipients, in accordance with what the communicator intends by his or her message. It is important to also state that persuasion can be used to sustain or strengthen existing attitudes or behaviour, or to encourage recipients to form attitudes and behaviour. For example, advertisements for banking institutions which advertise new services or lower rates not only try to persuade people to become clients of the institution (change), but also try to persuade existing clients to stay with them (reinforcing).

3.4 Persuasive Communication: The historical context

Communication as a field of academic study became established at universities in the western world during the 20th century. However, a systematic study of communication can be traced to classical Greeks (between the fourth and fifth centuries BC). Their focus was on the study of oratory – the creation and delivery of spoken messages

Self Assessment Exercise

What do you understand by the term ‘Relationship based persuasion’?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Persuasion is a powerful force in daily life and has a major influence on society and a whole. Politics, legal decisions, mass media, news and advertising are all influenced by the power of persuasion, and influence us in turn. Sometimes we like to believe that we are immune to persuasion. That we have a natural ability to see through the sales pitch, comprehend the truth in a situation and come to conclusions all on our own. This might be true in some situations, but persuasion is not just an overzealous salesperson trying to sell you a car, or a television commercial enticing you to buy the latest and greatest product. Persuasion can be subtle, and how we respond to such influences can depend on a variety of factors. Interestingly, when we think of persuasion, negative examples are often the first to come to mind, but persuasion can also be used as a positive force. For example, public service campaigns that urge people to quit smoking are great examples of persuasion used to improve people’s lives.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have been learnt that persuasion is symbolic; utilizing words, images, sounds, etc and involves a deliberate attempt to influence others. In other words, during persuasion, people are not coerced; they are instead free to choose. The methods of transmitting persuasive messages can occur in a variety of ways, including verbally and nonverbally via television, radio, Internet or face-to-face communication

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. How would you define persuasion?
2. Mention any three approaches to strategic persuasion.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Barker, L L & Gaut, D A. (1996). *Communication*. Boston, Mass: Allyn & Bacon.

Beebe, S A & Beebe, S J. (1997). *Public Speaking: an audience-centred approach*. Boston, Mass: Allyn & Bacon.

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<http://www.articlesbase.com/public-speaking-articles/persuasion-monroes-motivated-sequence-989543.html#ixzz1N6YxS95f>

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Perloff, R. M. (2003). *The Dynamics of Persuasion: Communication and Attitudes in the 21st Century*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, we defined persuasion and analysed persuasion as a process in communication. In this unit, you will be exposed to the various theories of persuasion that have shaped our understanding of the concept. Suffice it to say that the study of persuasion in modern society takes into account a changed set of social circumstances – we live in a society that is very different from Ancient Greece and Ancient Rome. We live in what is called **mass society**. What makes mass society so different from earlier societies? Briefly, the following reasons: mass society is highly technological; it is highly bureaucratic (that is, it is run by the state) and it depends on the mass media for communication.

Persuasive messages are numerous in mass society – we are bombarded with different forms of persuasion wherever we go. Can you think of a single day in your life when mass communication has not influenced you? Even the carton from which you pour milk into your breakfast cup of tea or coffee carries an advertising slogan. The point we are making here is that most persuasion today takes place through the mass media rather than in public debate (as in the past). However, to understand persuasion in a mass communication context, we must first look at some aspects of persuasion in the interpersonal context.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to;

- State the different theories of persuasion,
- Differentiate ways of studying persuasion,
- Outline the theoretical principles of persuasion, and
- apply what you have learnt to everyday communication encounters.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Persuasion in an interpersonal setting: Broad starting points

In every act of persuasion, the persuader has to find ways to motivate the recipients so that they will voluntarily change their attitudes or behaviour. For example, you might want a group of colleagues to be more positive about affirmative action in the workplace (an attitudinal change), or you might want to persuade someone to stop smoking (a behavioural change) or to vote in the next election (also a behavioural change). How do you go about it?

Complement: In order to motivate people, we must pay attention to both the verbal and nonverbal messages that we send. These messages must **complement** each other. A nonverbal message complements the verbal message when it conveys the same meaning. When you tell someone “I’m pleased to meet you” and accompany it with a warm smile, your tone of voice and facial expression (the nonverbal message) are complementing the verbal message (the spoken words).

Contradict: On the other hand, the person about to make an oral presentation who says, “I’m not nervous”, despite his trembling hands and perspiring forehead (the nonverbal message) is **contradicting** the verbal message. The voice may also contradict the verbal message. A change in pitch, for example, can tell us that someone is perhaps telling a lie or being sarcastic or merely teasing. Research has shown that when we are attempting to conceal the truth, our pitch tends to become higher and this contradicts the verbal message.

3.1.1 Verbal messages

Before you study this section, let us sort out the information it contains so that you can see at a glance how the various subsections relate to each other.

The three aspects of verbal messages that the persuader has to consider are: **human emotions**, the need to **be rational**, and the need to **show credibility**.

- (1) **Human emotions:** here, the persuader has to consider three points, namely people’s **needs, attitudes** and the desire for **consistency** in their lives.

- (2) **Be rational:** to present a rational argument, the persuader has to present the recipients with proof to support his or her argument. The types of proof discussed in this section are **evidence** and **reasoning**.
- (3) **Show credibility:** the three factors to consider here are the persuader's **expertise, trustworthiness** and **goodwill**.

3.1.1.1 Consider human emotions

In this subsection (that is, subsection 3.1.1.1), we look at needs, attitudes and consistency.

Needs: Needs are the basic requirements of life. They can range from the physical need for food and shelter to our need for an overall sense of wellbeing based on some sort of success (for example, passing an examination). The ability to meet people's needs is one of the best motivators of change. The person who is looking at a new car or stove because he or she needs one immediately is more likely to buy one than the person who is just thinking how nice it would be to own the latest model. An understanding of your recipient's needs increases your chances of holding their attention and persuading them to do what you would like them to do. The classic theory that outlines basic human needs was developed by Abraham Maslow (1970). Maslow's theory, which is not difficult to understand, is the need for self-actualisation. This is explained below;

Self-actualisation is the need to develop our potential as human beings, to achieve our highest goals. Self-actualisation is the least concrete of all our needs. It includes excelling in the activities you perform, expressing your creativity, and generally feeling that you are growing as an individual. Messages that focus on being "the best that you can be" appeal to self-actualisation needs, and are often directed at writers, composers, artists, innovators, and campaign leaders. However, whereas **all** people are motivated by physiological needs, relatively fewer are motivated by safety needs, and the number involved in the other motivations steadily decreases to the top, where considerably few respond to self-actualisation needs. To be an effective persuader, you must bear in mind that, if your recipients have to spend most of their time and energy satisfying their physiological and safety needs, they will have little time left for higher needs. In other words, you have to consider your recipient's needs before you can persuade them.

How do we use Maslow's pyramid of needs in a real situation? To persuade your recipients, you need to do two things: (1) determine which of their needs are not fulfilled or which may stop being fulfilled in the near future; and (2) find the information or actions that will show them how to cope successfully with the problem. If you were trying to persuade an audience to join your medical aid scheme, for example, your appeal would be to the need for adequate health care. You would point out that the continued satisfaction of this need is threatened by the ever-increasing cost of medical care. You would then present convincing supporting material (proof) to persuade them that your particular medical aid scheme can look after the health care needs of their family. (We will discuss types of proof later on in this section.)

Please note that Maslow's pyramid of needs reflects his own society and culture. Please note that ideas from other cultures do not always agree with the order in which Maslow has placed the needs. Also, as Burton and Dimbleby (1995) explain, Maslow's highest need is the product of a western, industrial, individualized culture where the highest value is placed on self-actualisation – being able to fulfil your personal, physical and emotional needs and desires, and ultimately achieve a sense of independence. But, then, some cultures place the highest value on qualities such as mutual cooperation or equal opportunity for all. In such cultures, repressing your personal needs and desires and focusing on the needs of other people and the community may take the highest place in the hierarchy.

Consistency: Research shows that people like their lives to be predictable – we do not like unexpected change. We therefore tend to pay attention to messages that are consistent with our existing attitudes and behaviour and avoid messages that contradict or challenge them. Research also shows that our attitudes and behaviour are either in a state of **consonance** (balance) or **dissonance** (imbalance). We will feel dissonance if we are presented with information that is inconsistent with our current attitudes or behaviour. We need to be consistent otherwise we experience psychological tension (discomfort). As a result, when we feel an inconsistency, we seek ways to reduce psychological tension by changing our behaviour until we are in a state of balance; the greater the dissonance, the greater the motivation to change something in order to feel psychologically comfortable again. For example, if you have not made provision for retirement (a source of dissonance which the mass media constantly remind us about) you would probably be easily motivated

(persuaded) to buy a retirement policy in order to reach a state of consonance (peace of mind).

3.1.1.2 Be Rational

We said earlier that the persuader has to offer proof to support an argument or point of view. The two components of proof are evidence and reasoning.

Evidence: Evidence, in its broadest sense, includes everything that is used to determine or demonstrate the truth of an assertion. Giving or procuring evidence is the process of using those things that are either (a) presumed to be true, or (b) were themselves proved through evidence, to demonstrate an assertion's truth. It is often said that evidence is the currency by which one fulfills the burden of proof.

Reasoning: Reasoning describes the process of thinking whereby a person arrives at a logical conclusion based on available evidence. A detective solves a crime, or a labour mediator settles a dispute by using reasoning to arrive at the logical or best conclusion. (see Barker & Gaut, 1996). You often arrive at a conclusion in your everyday life by using reasoning. For example, if you come home and see that your spouse's car has a large dent in the front fender and that the electricity pole outside your house has been knocked sideways, you would probably reason (come to the conclusion) that your spouse ran into the pole. Persuasive communicators use our reasoning ability to convince us about the logic of an argument.

We now go on to the third aspect of verbal messages that the communicator has to consider – the need to show credibility.

3.1.1.3 Show credibility

If you want to persuade somebody, that person must regard you as being a credible (that is, reliable) source of information. Credibility is important in all communication

situations. It is crucial in persuasive speaking situations. The more credible you are perceived to be, the greater will be your success in winning their respect and confidence, and the more likely you are to promote new ideas or change their attitudes. Speakers who are perceived as ignorant, devious, or dishonest do not usually succeed in persuading others. The three characteristics of credibility that Aristotle identified are expertise, trustworthiness and goodwill

3.1.2 Nonverbal messages

Nonverbal messages are highly credible, perhaps because they often convey feelings and emotions. If you are feeling upset, your emotion is usually conveyed by your facial expression. It is important to be aware of the nonverbal messages that we send because people generally believe the evidence of their eyes rather than their ears. In other words, if a nonverbal message contradicts a verbal message, people tend to believe the nonverbal message rather than the words that are spoken. Turn down the sound on your television set and watch an advertisement for a new product. Did the advertisement persuade you to consider buying the product in the absence of the verbal message?

Although we have already explained how nonverbal messages complement or contradict verbal messages in section 3.1., here is an explanation of the other terms that will help you understand better what we explained.

Accent: A nonverbal message **accents** or reinforces the verbal message when it adds to its meaning. In the same way that **underlining** or **italicizing** written words emphasizes them. Saying “Come here **now**” conveys a more urgent message than “Come here now”. Pounding your hand on the table when saying “Listen to me”, conveys a more effective message than the words alone. While your gesture may be redundant, it adds emphasis to your statement and captures the recipient’s attention. Very often, reinforcing the message is not deliberate; it is done without conscious thought or intent on our part.

Substitute: A nonverbal message may be a **substitute** for the verbal message. Gestures, facial expressions, and other nonverbal cues generate meaning without the

use of words. You wave your hand to someone instead of saying hello, or give someone a hug instead of saying thanks for helping me – your message is clear. Similarly, the expression on the face of a dejected person who comes home after a hard day at work is a substitute for the statement “I’ve had a rotten day”.

Regulate: Nonverbal behaviour functions to **regulate** the flow of verbal interaction. Your eye contact, tone of voice, nodding of the head, slight hand movements, and other nonverbal behaviour tell your partner when to talk, to repeat a statement, to hurry up, or to finish the conversation. Good public speakers learn to adjust what they are saying and how they are saying it on the basis of such cues from the audience. The same applies to group communication. The chairperson at a meeting, for example, uses eye contact or hand gestures instead of words to indicate whose turn it is to speak.

3.2 Theories of persuasion

A theory is simply a creative interpretation or explanation of a phenomenon. So, when we speak of different theories of persuasion it is no more than an attempt to explain **why** persuasion occurs in some instances, and **how** it happens. As you will see, no theory can ever fully explain or account for a process of persuasion. These theories evolved over many centuries, from the earliest known ones in Greek era up to the present. The fact that elections are lost, that tribal and sectarian wars are still fought in Nigeria proves that these theories offer no more than partial explanations of the phenomenon of persuasion.

Initially a theory is devised to account for a particular situation. When it is applied to other situations, deficiencies may emerge; so the theory is adapted or a new one is put forward to try and overcome these deficiencies. In a subsequent persuasion situation new deficiencies will come to light, triggering yet another process to overcome the latest weaknesses. Thus the process continues: new answers are looked for all the time. The theories discussed in this section are selected from a wide range of theories on the subject, which are constantly developing.

As we describe the various theories we shall try to demonstrate the progression in their development. That does not mean that any of the theories under discussion are invalid. Each applies to a **specific** situation, but not to **every** situation. A good

persuader will recognise some of these situations and profitably use these existing explanations to persuade an audience as effectively as possible.

3.2.1 Attitude change theories

Attitude change theories are based on the assumption that our behaviour is determined by our attitude to certain ideas, people or products. If we feel strongly about environmental conservation, we will have a negative attitude towards environmental pollution. This will prompt certain kinds of behaviour: we will pick up the litter that others strew around, dispose of our own litter, teach our kids not to litter and campaign for anti-pollution legislation.

In a campaign to combat HIV/AIDS the communicator's first step would be to change the target group's attitude before behaviour can change (although a change of attitude will not necessarily result in changed behaviour, as we shall see in due course).

To change someone's attitude, certain steps in the persuasion process have to be followed. Researchers have found that people will only change their attitudes if there is sufficient reinforcement and they have identified five steps on which persuasion depends:

- **Attention**

The people who are to be persuaded have to pay attention to the message, otherwise they will not be persuaded.

- **Understanding**

If the people to be persuaded do not understand the message, they will not be persuaded.

- **Acceptance**

If people reject the message to which they have been exposed and which they have understood, it will be impossible to persuade them.

- **Retention**

Once the message has been understood and accepted, the people who have been persuaded usually need to remember it for some time; they also need to remember it for future use.

- **Action**

The behavioural change that is effected must correspond with the persuader's appeal to change the attitude.

Although all the elements of the persuasion process were considered important, most researchers working in the Yale tradition concentrated on the third step, **acceptance**. They tried to establish which factors played the greatest role in the acceptance or rejection of messages.

Over a long period, the Yale programme came up with various answers like the credibility of the communicator, different channels for persuasion, and, especially, the presentation of messages. Nonetheless, it failed to explain **why** persuasion was either successful or abortive in certain circumstances. Another problem encountered by persuasion theorists focusing on attitude change was that they could not determine why attitude change did not necessarily result in altered behaviour. It seems that there are various factors, apart from attitude, which ultimately cause behaviour to change.

Self Assessment Exercise

What are the three aspects of verbal messages that the persuader has to consider when trying to persuade anyone?

3.2.2 Learning theory

Researchers who focus on learning theory regard persuasion simply as a specialized form of learning process. The basic assumption is that we learn to behave in a certain way and change our behaviour in accordance with circumstances. Most learning theories are rooted in the behaviourist tradition, which is characterized by experimental proof. The aim is to predict behaviour, and ultimately control it, by means of methods like conditioning.

Classical Conditioning and Skinnerian Behaviourism

Classical conditioning dates back to Pavlov's famous study of dogs. The crux of the theory is that, given the right positive or negative association, behaviour can be established or learnt. The problem with classical conditioning is that it relies on irrational, unconscious forces in human beings: it robs them of their humanity by regarding them simply as beings that react to stimuli.

Skinnerian behaviourism follows this tradition, since it predicts that behavioural change happens simply in response to the person's environment (ie, to external rather than internal factors). Here, too, people are considered as little more than robots which merely react to external stimuli.

Social learning theory

Social learning theory is derived from the work of Albert Bandura (1977), which proposed that social learning occurred through four main stages of imitation:

- close contact
- imitation of superiors
- understanding of concepts
- role model behavior

Julian Rotter (1954) moved away from theories based on psychosis and behaviourism, and developed a learning theory. In *Social Learning and Clinical Psychology* (1954), Rotter suggests that the effect of behavior has an impact on the motivation of people to engage in that specific behavior. People wish to avoid negative consequences, while desiring positive results or effects. If one expects a positive outcome from a behavior, or thinks there is a high probability of a positive outcome, then they will be more likely to engage in that behavior. The behavior is reinforced, with positive outcomes, leading a person to repeat the behavior. This social learning theory suggests that behavior is influenced by these environmental factors or stimuli, and not psychological factors alone.

Bandura (1977) expanded on Rotter's idea, as well as earlier work by Miller & Dollard (1941). This theory incorporates aspects of behavioral and cognitive learning. Behavioural learning assumes that people's environment (surroundings) cause people to behave in certain ways. Cognitive learning presumes that psychological factors are important for influencing how one behaves. Social learning suggests that a combination of environmental (social) and psychological factors

influence behavior. Social learning theory outlines three requirements for people to learn and model behavior including attention, retention (remembering what one observed), reproduction (ability to reproduce the behavior), and motivation (good reason) to want to adopt the behavior.

3.2.3 Consistency Theory

This theory rests on the assumption that human beings do not like disequilibrium and continually strive to maintain equilibrium (balance) in their attitudes and behaviour. Consistency theory assumes that behaviour changes as a result of disequilibrium experienced by recipients. Consistency theory evolved systematically from Heider's (1958) simple **balance theory** into the more sophisticated **theory of cognitive dissonance**. Consistency theory postulates that when our inner systems (beliefs, attitudes, values, etc.) all support one another and when these are also supported by external evidence, then we have a comfortable state of affairs. The discomfort of cognitive dissonance occurs when things fall out of alignment, which leads us to try to achieve a maximum practical level of consistency in our world. Furthermore, we also have a very strong need to believe we are being consistent with social norms, especially when there is conflict between behaviors that are consistent with inner systems and behaviors that are consistent with social norms, the potential threat of social exclusion often sways us towards the latter, even though it may cause significant inner dissonance.

Festinger (1957) opines that the ways we achieve consistency between conflicting items include:

- *Denial or ignoring* : 'I didn't see it happen.'
- *Rationalization and excuses* : 'It was going to fall anyway.'
- *Separation of items* : 'I don't use my car enough to make a difference.'
- *Transcendence* : 'Nobody is perfect.'
- *Changing item* : 'I'll be more careful next time.'
- *Persuasion* : 'I'm good, really, aren't I?'

Example

If you make a promise, you will feel bad if you do not keep it.

Using it

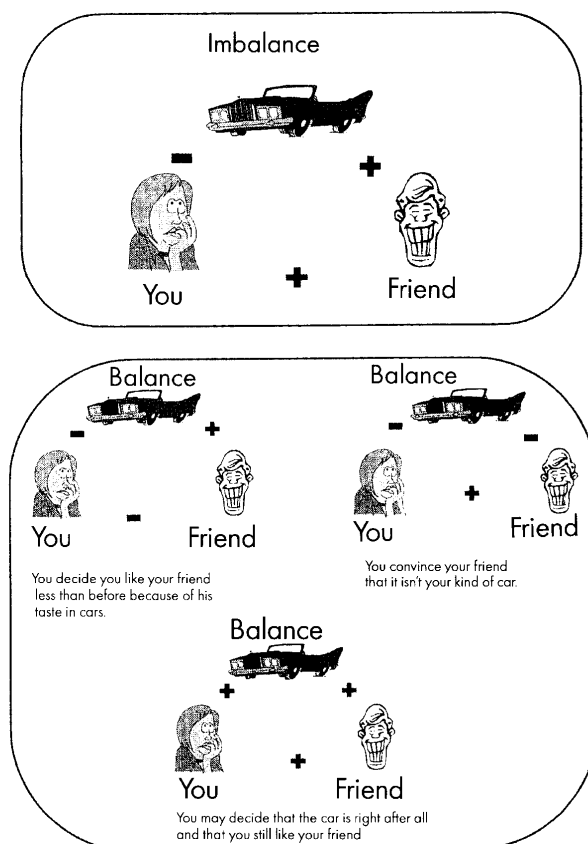
Highlight where people are acting inconsistently with beliefs, etc. that support your arguments. Show how what you want is consistent with the other person's inner systems and social norms.

Defending

You will always be inconsistent in some areas. When changing to fit in with the inconsistencies that someone else is pointing out, think about the other, potentially more serious, inconsistencies that you will be opening up.

Balance theory

This was one of the first consistency theories. It was originated by Fritz Heider (1958) and later expanded by Theodore Newcomb (1959). Newcomb applied the theory to the most elementary form of human communication, namely when one person communicates with another on a single topic.



In such a very basic situation, disequilibrium may arise if, for instance, the two parties have very different opinions on a subject. Your (inconsiderate) friend may, for example, try and sell you a car. You do not like the car, so you feel uncomfortable (in terms of the theory, imbalance arises). There are only a few ways to restore the balance. First, you can try to convince yourself that the car is the right one after all. Or you may decide that if your friend likes such a car, he isn't as smart as you thought. A third way would be to persuade your friend that you do not like the car until he realizes that it isn't the right car for you.

The degree of discomfort will depend on how strongly you feel about the matter. A second-hand car is probably not such a serious issue. But if your friend tries to persuade you to vote for a political party whose ideas and policy you abhor, you will definitely revise your opinion of your friend because you will be disillusioned about her convictions.

It is good to know that those we respect and like share our values and ideas. It is also good to know that people whom we dislike differ from us on issues that matter to us.

A persuader who wants to reinforce existing attitudes in a target audience can do so by creating a balanced or comfortable situation for the recipients. Thus it is nice to know that your soccer hero drives the same kind of car as you do (you may have seen it in a television advert). Political rhetoric contains plenty of examples of political parties trying to establish rapport with their followers. In the 2011 election in Nigeria virtually all the opposition parties based their campaigns on criticism of the prevalent corruption as well as political crime and violence. In this way they linked up with their followers' existing fears in an attempt to reinforce the equilibrium of their target groups.

If persuaders want to change an audience's attitudes or beliefs, on the other hand, they will try to create imbalance by causing psychological discomfort. There are two ways of doing this:

- If the communicator and the recipient like one another, any disagreement on an object or idea will cause the recipient to experience imbalance.

- If the communicator and the recipient do not like each other but share an attitude towards an object or idea, the recipient will experience imbalance.

Here is example:

You need a new car and your employers provide a car allowance. You have no liking for a particular make of Korean car and did not really consider buying one. While going round the various car dealers' showrooms in search of a new car, you happen to walk into one which is selling that particular car. The salesperson is pleasant, creates a good impression and tries to persuade you of the good prices of new models and the luxury features that outclass those of other cars in the same price range. The factor that makes you reconsider your disinclination to buy this car is when the salesperson tells you that both of the medical doctors in your town have traded in their German cars for top of the range models of this make. The fact that the doctors are also driving these Korean cars causes imbalance and you start looking at the car afresh.

Another example would be if a political party tries to expose a scandal in an opposition party. The imbalance this causes among the opposition party's supporters enables the other party to canvass these people for their cause.

The value of this theory is that it demonstrates that the human striving for psychological comfort is a major factor in the persuasion process. The application to the simple situation envisaged by Heider and Newcomb inevitably made researchers wonder about the implications for more complex situations. This led to research that took balance theory a bit further.

Congruency theory

This is a 'theory of prejudice which proposes that the most important determinant of one person's attitude toward another is the similarity or "congruence" between the two people's belief systems. Where there is high similarity mutual attraction is thought to ensue; dissimilarity is presumed to lead to rejection. The rationale for this idea is similar to that derived from social comparison theory: that the perception of similarity of opinion is assumed to provide consensual validation for one's own beliefs, and hence is socially attractive. The theory was proposed by Rokeach (1960) . What lent controversy to the theory was Rokeach's hypothesis that belief similarity (or dissimilarity) was a more important factor in determining people's attitudes

toward outgroups than the ingroup-outgroup category difference itself. That is, he suggested that members of ethnic minorities are discriminated against not because they belong to a particular group but because they are assumed to have different beliefs from the discriminators. In the final analysis, he proposed, an outgroup member who agreed with us would be preferred to an ingroup member who disagreed.

The following example illustrates this:

If you have a strong religious conviction that all humans have a right to live and the political party which you fervently support were to decide in favour of abortion on demand, you will experience incongruence. Osgood and Tannenbaum's (1955) theory of congruence predicts that attitude change will be effected in one of the following two ways in order to restore congruence: (1) you may revise your view on abortion, or (2) you will be critical of your party's decision and loosen your ties with it.

Clearly the principles are the same as those of balance theory; only the situations are more complex. Congruency theory is still a very simplistic approach to persuasion, in that it concentrates on only a few variables and does not take account of the complex interaction between varieties of factors in persuasion. Despite this objection, the theory made a valuable contribution by specifically identifying the role of congruence as a variable in the persuasion process.

Cognitive dissonance theory

Both of the theories discussed here – equilibrium theory and congruence theory – allow for attitude and behavioural change. These changes may be regarded as qualitative, since they relate to degree of difference (ie they presuppose a before and after difference). But they do not take account of quantitative differences (ie we can modify our judgment a little, a lot or not at all).

Cognitive dissonance theory, which was originally evolved by Leon Festinger, tackles the problem of both qualitative and quantitative differences between people and ideas. Whereas earlier theories predicted changes in attitudes, judgments or

evaluations, cognitive dissonance theory predicts that when two things do not follow logically, we experience psychological tension. We will then try to reduce this tension in some way.

Another feature of cognitive dissonance theory is that it considers this tension to be caused by dissonance within the person's psychological system, as opposed to balance and congruency theory which attribute it to logical inconsistencies. Our attitudes and opinions are shaped by how we feel about different ideas and how they relate to our past experience and distinctive individuality. The theory also allows for individual differences and how we feel at a given moment.

Festinger(1957), defines **dissonance** as the feeling one gets as a result of exposure to two pieces of knowledge about the world that do not accord. **Consonance**, on the other hand, is the term he uses to describe equilibrium between two elements which complement and accord with each other can vary from one instance to another – something for which balance theory and congruency theory do not allow (for example, I thoroughly like Communication as a subject and the fact that I am less keen on the compulsory paper on research methodology causes only mild feelings of dissonance or discomfort).

Belief-hierarchy theory

Rokeach and Rothman's (1965) belief-hierarchy theory is relevant particularly to persuasion situations where people are so committed to a particular viewpoint that their self-concepts enter into it. It goes much further than the other consistency theories to accommodate the complex medley of human attitudes, beliefs and values.

Choosing between two brands of detergent does not ask much from a person, so it is relatively easy to persuade people to change to another brand. But when it comes to something like religious beliefs, there is much more at stake, in the sense that what people are and how they perceive themselves enter into it. Hence it is not so easy to persuade them that the religious beliefs that they grew up with and are personally involved with can change.

Some people support their political party so fervently that their self-images are directly committed to that position. These people can only be persuaded to question

their position if the inconsistencies, incongruence or dissonance become so great that they will be prepared to question their self-concepts.

Self Assessment Exercise

Think of a practical situation that you encounter regularly where elements of each of the following consistency theories are applicable. Describe each situation and try to explain it with reference to the specific theory.

- balance theory
- congruency theory
- cognitive theory
- belief-hierarchy theory.

3.2.4 Social Judgment-Involvement Theory

This theory hinges on two key concepts: anchor points and ego involvement. Both concepts represent internal points of reference that we all have. When we assess people, issues, opportunities, ideas, products and the like, we compare them with these internal points of reference in order to make a decision.

Anchor points refer to information on a specific issue which we have come across before and which thus forms part of our frame of reference. We compare the situation we are facing with our existing knowledge about it in order to arrive at a decision. Here is an example:

Suppose you are a member of the governing body of a private secondary school. A child of a prominent public figure, who has been expelled from another school because of drug abuse, applies for admission to this school. The governing body proposes admitting the child. In deciding whether or not to support the proposal, you would consider several internal points of reference (anchor points). You followed the public debate about the child's expulsion in the press at the time. You might also have an opinion about the child's influential parents. In addition, there have been instances of drug abuse in your own family and you have strong views on juvenile drug abuse. A further consideration is the possible reaction of the children currently attending the school and their parents (based on your experience). Social judgment and involvement theory predicts that you will compare the proposal about the child's

admission with all these anchor points before taking a decision. Hence your decision is made purely on the basis of your anchor points (existing knowledge). These anchor points function on a continuum, ranging from full acceptance (because of agreement) through neutrality to rejection (because of conflict with the anchor points). In the case of the proposal to admit the child to the school, you would support, oppose or be persuadable either way, depending on the extent to which the facts of the matter agree or conflict with your existing anchor points.

You would be able to support the proposal quite easily if it accorded fairly well with your established anchor points. You would not be able to support it, however, if it is too remote from these anchor points (that is, if it conflicts with your existing views of the matter).

The second key concept in this theory is **ego-involvement**. This concept relates closely to those elements in consistency theories that refer to attitudes about which recipients feel strongly and which form part of their being. In particular, it links up with Rokeach's notion of self-concept. People may be very much involved with a particular group and may even go so far as to describe themselves in terms of a specific social orientation, by regarding themselves as feminists, liberals, environmental activists and the like. Sherif considers the degree to which people seek social affiliation with like-minded people as a critical factor in determining their ego-involvement with an issue. The degree of ego-involvement determines the extent of message distortion, which in its turn determines people's judgment in a specific situation. Highly involved people tend to look at things in terms of extremes (right or wrong) and are unable to compromise on an issue. Less involved people, on the other hand, are better able to exercise sound judgment because they are able to see all sides of the matter.

Advertising uses ego-involvement a lot to secure product loyalty. The men drinking beer with a famous brand name in an advertisement represent more than just a beverage: they represent a life style and social acceptance.

When people are heavily involved with an issue, to the extent that their self-concepts are associated with it, it is almost impossible to persuade them. Hence, persuasion is usually aimed at people with little or no ego-involvement with a particular issue.

3.2.5 Relationship-Based Persuasion Theory

Richard Shell and Mario Moussa (2007), present a four-step approach to strategic persuasion which they described as “Relationship Based Persuasion Theory”. They explained that persuasion means to win others over, not to defeat them. Thus it is important to be able to see the topic from different angles in order to anticipate the reaction others have to a proposal.

Step 1: Survey your situation

This step includes an analysis of the persuader's situation, goals, and challenges that he/she faces in his organization.

Step 2: Confront the five barriers

Five obstacles pose the greatest risks to a successful influence encounter: relationships, credibility, communication mismatches, belief systems, and interest and needs.

Step 3: Make your pitch

People need a solid reason to justify a decision, yet at the same time many decisions are made on the basis of intuition. This step also deals with presentation skills.

Step 4: Secure your commitments

In order to safeguard the longtime success of a persuasive decision, it is vital to deal with politics at both the individual and organizational level.

4.0 CONCLUSION

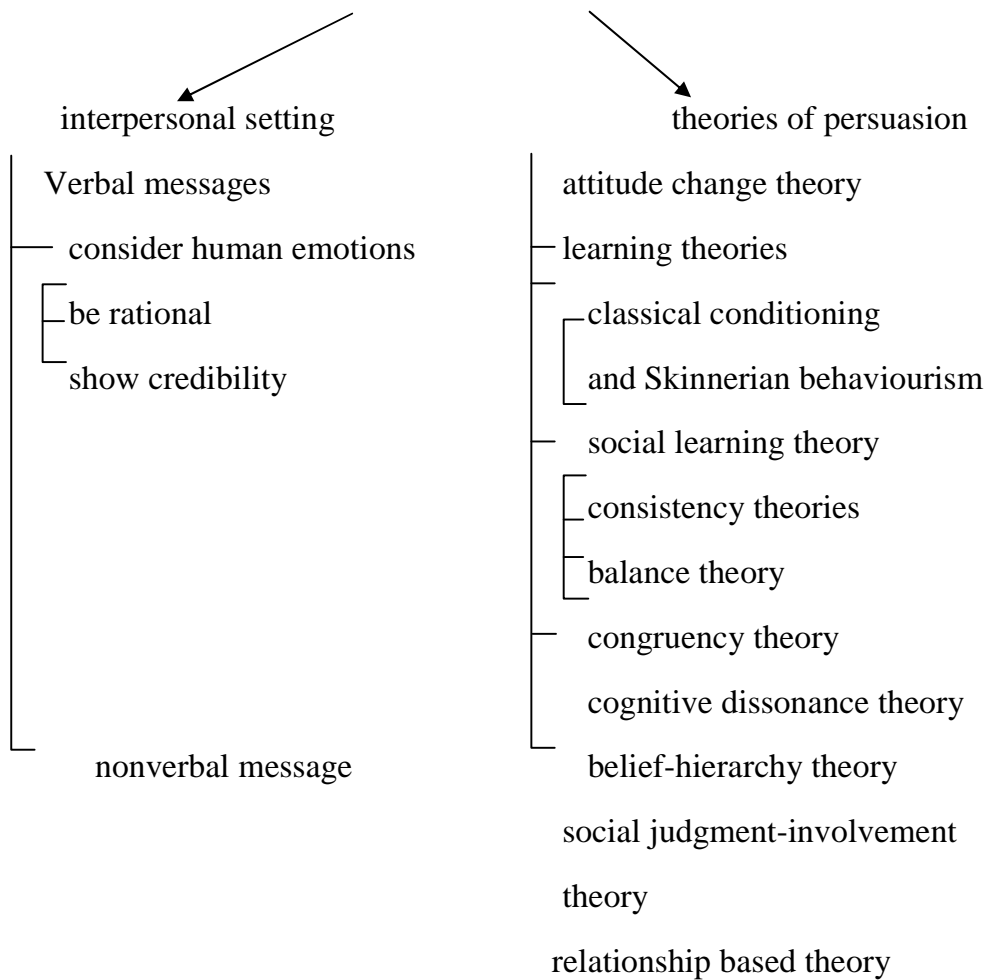
In this unit, you have been exposed to the different theories of persuasion. These theories form the bedrock of academic and philosophical postulations in the field of persuasion and their relevance have been carefully outlined in this unit.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have presented the summary in the form of a mind map, because we believe that a mind map often helps us to remember information?

MINDMAP

THEORIES OF PERSUASION (UNIT 2)



6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Discuss briefly, any two persuasion theories you know. Clearly outline the differences and similarities between the theories.
2. What do you understand by the term “Classical Conditioning”?

7-0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 3 INTRODUCTION TO PUBLIC SPEAKING

CONTENTS

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- 3.0 Main Content
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit, you studied various theories about how we persuade other people. In this unit, you will get to understand the techniques of persuasion, and you will be exposed to the issues that create the fear that most people have of speaking in public. The reason we do this at the outset is that we would like to assure you that it is perfectly normal to feel uneasy – even terrified – of standing up in public and addressing a crowd of people! During the course of this module we will give you as much advice as we can to help you to overcome your fears and stand up in front of a crowd of people with confidence.

2.0 Objectives

At the end of studying this unit, the students should be able to

1. explain the theoretical foundation of public speaking,
2. speak effectively in the public and
3. listen effectively to public speeches.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Oral Tradition

This section is a very brief overview of the oral tradition in Africa. Its purpose is draw your attention to the fact that public speaking is not a modern invention. It has been a part of the culture of many African countries for hundreds of years. We concentrate on the praise-poem as an example of African oral literature because we assume that you have heard about praise-singers or have seen them in action, either in real life or on the television.

However, As you may be able to tell, the study of communication was based in the oral tradition. The oral tradition refers to the vocal transmission of information between people from generation to generation. History, law, tradition, culture—all were passed along by orally for centuries prior to the creation of the written word. Even after the written word was invented, the “oral tradition” remained intact due to the prevalence of illiteracy. Even today there are still traces of the power of the “oral tradition.” For example, some nursery rhymes, such as *Humpty Dumpty*, date back

to 16th century England. Did you ever sing it as a child? Well, you many not know it refers to a cannon used in the English Civil War which fell from its perch atop a church wall when, in 1648, it was hit by enemy fire. It can be hard to believe, given that we live in a mass and computermediated society, that at one time the spoken word was the primary medium of communication, even over the written word.

The oral tradition of public speaking is most closely tied to the study of rhetoric. **Rhetoric** is generally known as the art of using discourse to persuade people. Most often, rhetoric is used to persuade individuals to take up or reject a belief, assign meaning to a person, event or object, or even perform an action. Rhetoric is actually one of the oldest disciplines studied in the Western world; its origins date about to around 476 B.C.! Murphy's (2001) work on rhetorical scholarship originally focused on both the creation of and analysis of public speaking since it has historically been the main vehicle of persuasion. Political assemblies and campaigns are still prototypical contexts of rhetorical, public speech. Ironically, rhetorical theory emerged from written classical texts from the ancient Western civilizations of Greece and Rome.

3.2 Importance of Public Speaking

As you study this section, please relate the points we make about the importance of acquiring public speaking skills to your own personal, social and work circumstances. Those of you who have not yet held a fulltime position could think about the following:

After graduating from University, Phuma obtained a good position in a large company. He worked on a project to increase the efficiency of the salaries department. After six months, his supervisor asked him to prepare a presentation for all the senior personnel in the organization. Phuma had to report on the progress he had made and his plans for implementing his recommendations.

The scenario we have sketched is not an unusual situation for a university graduate to find him – or herself in. If you were in Phuma’s position, would you feel confident about giving this presentation?

Please note the fact that, at the end of this section, we emphasise that successful public speaking involves more than just a good speaker.

3.3 The Public Speaking Process

For many people Public Speaking can be so daunting that they will do almost anything to avoid it. Yet once we have a taste for it and discover the real rewards that can result from giving a good speech, many of us wonder what all the fuss was about. Given some encouragement and some good public speaking training almost anyone can develop the ability to deliver a good speech in public. There is no magic wand. We cannot transform you instantly into someone with no fear of the auditorium. What we can do however is demystify the public speaking process for you. We can give you enough insight and understanding about the dynamic between you and your audience that you will start to feel in control of the event rather than run by it. This is a turning point for most people. They get to the point where they feel they know what they are doing, at which point what they have previously experienced as anxiety they now start to feel as exhilaration. Confidence is a key factor to develop as a public speaker.

The following processes of public speaking can help you prepare your talks.

They are **Assess, Analyse, Research, Organise, Deliver, and Discern.**

Assess Your Speechmaking Situation

Consider the occasion

How long will your talk last? Will you be the keynote speaker or one of many? Has your audience heard you before and what is their impression of you and your organization? Is this talk one of many or a single presentation?

Find a topic

Generally speaking, the topic of your talk is already apparent to you. You want to

Speak before a community group to change a policy. You have been asked to make a toast at your best friend's wedding. Your boss is retiring and you'd like to honour her. Or you are sharing your recommendations for improving a procedure to make your work more efficient. It is recommended that your topic be worthwhile, appropriate, culturally sensitive and limited in scope.

Clarify your speaking goal

What is the purpose of your speech? Have you been invited to share your expertise on a topic? Will you be celebrating a special occasion or presenting an award? Do you seek to motivate your audience to make a change? Or are you merely talking to entertain?

Develop your central idea

Can you get your point across in thirty seconds or less? Audience members expect that you will be able to give them the bottom line and to make it accurate, brief, and clear.

Analyze Your Audience

Determine demographic, psychographic and situational characteristics of your audience. Just as a gardener must tend to the individual needs of each plant, a speaker must know his/her audience well. Learn all that you can about your audience in order to meet the needs of your speaking occasion.

Consider cultural considerations

Ignoring cultural differences and expectations is considered rude and impolite.

Interact with your audience during your talk

All speakers seek to converse with their audience members in order to reach them. As you are delivering your talk, consider adopting a heightened conversational tone.

Get feedback following your talk

If you are enrolled in a public speaking course, you will receive expert feedback from your instructor who is trained to do just this. Much like a referee or judge sees a performance differently than do the fans, your instructor will be looking at elements of your presentation that many audience members may or may not notice.

Your audience members can give you some useful information as well, particularly about how well you adapted your talk to their particular needs.

Research Your Topic

Develop your expertise

You want to be perceived by your audience as an expert in your subject. Experience, knowledge, and integrity are keys to developing your expertise.

Work with other experts to boost your credibility

Even the most expert of us recognizes that there are many perspectives and ways to look at a topic. Good speakers ensure that they are up-to-date and aware of what other experts are doing in their field.

Assess the credibility of resources

As you know, there are many of people who pretend to be experts on subjects for which they know little. In addition, some misrepresent the facts or fabricate evidence.

Work with reference librarians

Reference librarians are experts in finding resources, particularly in accessing subscription databases and hard-to-find publications. They make research easy.

Find evidence to back up your claims

Evidence gives credence to your arguments. When making a claim, you can expect your audience to be thinking, "What evidence do you have to support that assertion?"

Organize and Write Your Speech

Choosing a pattern of organization

A well organized speech typically includes three clear parts: a beginning, a middle and an end.

Starting your talk

Be creative. In the introduction to your speech, gain your listeners' attention and then focus their attention on your central idea by making a clear statement of your thesis

and a preview of your main ideas. The introduction is also a time to develop rapport with your audience and establish your credibility.

Ending your talk

As you conclude the speech, provide a summary that recaps the main ideas of your speech. Then, end in a dramatic fashion to give your conclusion a sense of finality.

Developing visual aids

Visual aids provide support for your talk. Visuals can organize the entire presentation, providing a visual roadmap for the audience, and/or illustrate a point that you are trying to make. In some cases, a picture is worth 1,000 words.

Using Power Point

Many presenters enjoy using computer software to generate a slideshow presentation. If used well, this is a valuable addition to your talk. Used poorly, your audience will suffer from death by Power Point.

Deliver Your Presentation

Select a mode of delivery

Will your talk be delivered extemporaneously, as a manuscript, memorized or without preparation?

Demonstrate dynamism

How will you capture and maintain the attention and interest of your audience?

Manage your nervousness

Nervousness is both natural and normal. Once you expect and accept it, you will then be able to control and manage this apprehension.

Interact with your audience

How will you adapt your talk to your audience during the presentation? How will you handle questions and answers?

Use visual aids

For some, seeing is believing. How will you show your audience your main points? Will you use a computer-generated presentation like Power Point?

Dress for success

The key to a successful appearance is to dress in such a way that no one notices what you are wearing.

Discern other Talks

Analyze other talks

You will learn much by watching others' talks. Using your critical thinking skills to evaluate the efficacy of a talk is also valuable.

Give feedback to other speakers

As you become more proficient at watching and evaluating talks, you will likely be asked to offer feedback to speakers. While some speakers may prefer vague platitudes, it is likely that your colleagues will solicit constructive criticism and descriptive feedback.

Learn from expert speakers

Talk with expert speakers and learn from them! Watch great speakers and discover their secrets for planning, practicing and presenting excellent talks.

Work with public speaking support groups

There are a number of organizations available to assist you in developing your public speaking skills.

Volunteer to speak

There are countless opportunities for you to give talks in business, social, and personal contexts. Whether it is a retirement, a sports banquet, wedding, or toast at a special dinner, you can use your speaking skills to make the occasion more special.

Consider a career in public speaking

Many celebrities find themselves being expected to speak to community and professional groups. Indeed, many people who have encountered a significantly unusual experience find themselves thrust into the public limelight for more than 15

minutes. Whether you are an author, athlete, actor, or activist, you might find yourself turning your fame into your career.

3.4 Differences between Public Speaking and Other Forms of Communication

It is important for you to understand the differences between oral and written presentations, and the differences between speeches and ordinary conversation. You are probably already aware of some of these differences through your own experiences of written and spoken communication. We include them here simply to draw your attention to them. See (section 3.4.1 and 3.4.2).

Difference between private and public speaking

Public speaking is to a general audience. Private speaking is to certain individuals.

Differences between Conversation and Public Speaking

Despite their similarities, public speaking and daily conversation are not identical. As the size of your audience grows, the manner in which you present the story will change. You will find yourself adapting to three major differences between conversation and public speaking. First of all, public speaking is more highly structured. It usually imposes strict time limitations on the speaker. In most cases, the situation does not allow listeners to interrupt with questions or commentary.

Therefore, public speaking is very much a one way communication. The speaker must accomplish her or his purpose in the speech itself. In preparing the speech, the speaker must anticipate questions that might arise in the minds of listeners and answer them. Consequently, public speaking demands much more detailed planning and preparation than ordinary conversation. Secondly, public speaking requires more formal language. Slang, jargon, and bad grammar have little place in public speeches. Even though a principal is very angry about the vandalism in school, he does not say, "We should send those idiots who vandalize the school property to hell." Listeners react negatively to slang, jargon, or poor grammar, so speakers must polish their language and choose words for the greatest effect. Lastly, public speaking requires a different method of delivery. When conversing informally, most people talk quietly, interject stock phrases such as "you know," "it's like," and "really," adopt a casual posture, and use what are called vocalized pauses.

Effective public speakers, however, adjust their voices to be heard clearly throughout the audience. They assume a more erect posture. They avoid distracting mannerisms and verbal habits. In conclusion, with study and practice, you will be able to master these differences and expand your conversational skills into speechmaking. Public speaking is when you speak it out loud to the world. Private speaking is when you keep it to a group or a person you know.

The Difference between Oral Communication and Public Speaking

Public speaking is generally defined as speaking in front of a group, usually in an open setting. Oral communication is any form of speaking.

3.5 Ethics and Public Speaking

Have you ever thought about the implications of giving people inaccurate information on which to base important decisions, or of persuading people to do something that could have an influence on the rest of their lives, or of denying them the right to express a point of view that differs from yours. You hear people say things like: “You can’t believe what he says – he’s a car salesman”, or “she’s an estate agent – she’ll say anything to make a sale”, or “you can’t discuss anything with him – he won’t let you get a word in edgeways”. In fact, we consider such behaviour to be unethical. In the same way that there are guidelines for ethical behaviour in other areas of life, so are there guidelines for ethical behaviour in public speaking.

3.5.1 Speaker Ethics

Here, we have presented guidelines to evaluate the ethics of your behaviour as a public speaker. Make the questions relevant to you personally by putting yourself in the place of the listener in each case, and think about the possible consequences of a public speaker using unethical means to persuade you to make a decision that was not in your best interest.

Let us study these guidelines that can facilitate the ethics of your behaviour as a public speaker;

Have I investigated the subject fully before expressing opinions about it?

This question relates to giving and receiving inaccurate information or faulty advice. For example, think of a union official explaining a new contract to workers. If the official does not fully understand the contents of the new contract, and its benefits and limitations, the workers will not obtain the information and advice they need to make an informed choice that could influence their future in the organization.

3.5.2 Listener Ethics

You will probably find that it is easier to make listener ethics personally relevant to you because most of us are more in the audience than doing the speaking. Approach your study of listener ethics by, once again, providing concrete examples from your everyday experiences.

Please note that the guidelines for listener ethics can be summarized into two broad categories:

- the obligation to give the speaker a fair hearing
- the obligation to evaluate the speaker's message ethically.

3.6 Listening in the Public Speaking Context

This section focuses specifically on listening in the public speaking context, rather than on listening in the interpersonal context. Nevertheless, the knowledge you already have will make it easier to understand this section of the unit. For example, you may find that you can pay less attention to some subsection because you have studied them before but take note that most of the information is presented in a different way because of the emphasis on the public speaking context.

During the course of each day we are constantly called upon to listen in a variety of situations. We listen to the sounds of nature, to traffic noises, to music, to advertisements, to persuasive speeches from politicians, and to our family, friends and colleagues. In fact, studies show that we spend most of our communication time engaged in listening rather than in speaking. However, we do not always listen as efficiently as we should. Test this statement out. Have you ever been lost because you did not follow the directions someone gave you correctly? Have you missed an appointment because you got there at the wrong time? Have you ever given inappropriate feedback because you were not listening to what was being said? When was the last time you jumped to a wrong conclusion or felt that you were misunderstood? All these situations involve your ability to listen attentively.

“Critical” in this context does not mean finding fault for the sake of finding fault. It means that, to assess a message, you should listen to both the positive points in a message and to its limitations or shortcomings. Most advertisements, for example, only stress the positive qualities of a product. In order to make an informed decision about whether or not to buy the product – whether it is the right product for you – you have to listen for what is not explicitly stated in the advertisement. In other words, you have to “listen” for the shortcomings yourself in order to evaluate the product. “Evaluate” is about judgment – how you rate or assess the quality of something. For example: is the knowledge conveyed by the speaker useful to you? Will you support the proposals recommended by the speaker? Why and how? The ability to listen critically is linked to how well you can evaluate your own and other people’s messages. Research has shown that learning to listen critically to other people’s speeches is one of the most effective ways of becoming more critical of your own oral presentations. This ability will go a long way towards helping you to speak in public with greater confidence.

3.6.1 Hearing and Listening

The reference to “deaf” ears brings us to the difference between hearing and listening. Make sure that you understand the following two points:

- while hearing is described as a passive process, while listening is the active process of interpreting sounds, that is, converting sounds into meaning in the mind.
- while we listen or give meaning to both the verbal part of the message and to the nonverbal part of the message.

3.6.2 Types of Listening

There are many names for different types of listening. Here is a collection of types and the different names that get ascribed to them, along with a brief description of each.

Name	Description
<u>Active listening</u>	Listening in a way that demonstrates interest and encourages continued speaking.

<u>Appreciative listening</u>	Looking for ways to accept and appreciate the other person through what they say. Seeking opportunity to praise. Alternatively listening to something for pleasure, such as to music.
<u>Attentive listening</u>	Listening obviously and carefully, showing attention.
<u>Biased listening</u>	Listening through the filter of personal bias.
<u>Casual listening</u>	Listening without obviously showing attention. Actual attention may vary a lot.
<u>Comprehension listening</u>	Listening to understand. Seeking meaning (but little more).
<u>Content listening</u>	Listening to understand. Seeking meaning (but little more).
<u>Critical listening</u>	Listening in order to evaluate, criticize or otherwise pass judgment on what someone else says.
<u>Deep listening</u>	Seeking to understand the person, their personality and their real and unspoken meanings and motivators.
<u>Dialogic listening</u>	Finding meaning through conversational exchange, asking for clarity and testing understanding.
<u>Discriminative listening</u>	Listening for something specific but nothing else (eg. a baby crying).
<u>Empathetic listening</u>	Seeking to understand what the other person is feeling. Demonstrating this empathy.
<u>Evaluative listening</u>	Listening in order to evaluate, criticize or otherwise pass judgment on what someone else says.
<u>False listening</u>	Pretending to listen but actually spending more time thinking.
<u>Full listening</u>	Listening to understand. Seeking meaning.
<u>High-integrity listening</u>	Listening from a position of integrity and concern.
<u>Inactive listening</u>	Pretending to listen but actually spending more time thinking.
<u>Informative listening</u>	Listening to understand. Seeking meaning (but little more).

<u>Initial listening</u>	Listening at first then thinking about response and looking to interrupt.
<u>Judgmental listening</u>	Listening in order to evaluate, criticize or otherwise pass judgment on what someone else says.
<u>Partial listening</u>	Listening most of the time but also spending some time day-dreaming or thinking of a response.
<u>Reflective listening</u>	Listening, then reflecting back to the other person what they have said.
<u>Relationship listening</u>	Listening in order to support and develop a relationship with the other person.
<u>Sympathetic listening</u>	Listening with concern for the well-being of the other person.
<u>Therapeutic listening</u>	Seeking to understand what the other person is feeling. Demonstrating this empathy.
<u>Total listening</u>	Paying very close attention in active listening to what is said and the deeper meaning found through how it is said.
<u>Whole-person listening</u>	Seeking to understand the person, their personality and their real and unspoken meanings and motivators.

3.6.3 Causes of Inefficient Listening

Effective listening is arguably one of the most important skills to have nowadays. Personal relationships need effective listening skills to face complicated issues together. Business people and employees need effective listening skills to solve complex problems quickly and stay competitive. Students and professors need it to understand complex issues in their fields. Thus, it is beneficial if we can understand and eliminate listening barriers that blocks deep, harmonious and lasting relationships. For most people, we listen only to answer back or to have a reply, instead of listening to understand.

Effective listening, on the other hand, is not about the words hearing the words being delivered, and it certainly requires more than hearing the sounds transmitted.

Effective listening encourages us to understand what the other person talks about or feel. And we can do this by focusing on the other person, by thoughts and feelings and not only by words.

Barriers to Effective Listening

And to guide you on how to listen and communicate better, we have listed **five (5) barriers for effective listening** that you should consciously avoid or eliminate whenever you are engaged in a conversation with another person;

1. Environmental Distractions

Environmental distractions are factors that divide the attention of an individual or group from the chosen object of attention onto the source of distraction. It is the lack of ability to pay attention, lack of interest in the object of attention, or the great intensity, novelty or attractiveness of something other than the object of attention. Distractions can come from both external sources, and internal sources.

External distractions can include electronic gadgets like personal computers or laptops, cellular phones, music players, television, portable gaming consoles and etc. Internal distractions can be absent-mindedness, lack of interest, lack of attention, etc.

These external and internal distractions are the common barriers for effective listening. They are basic, but most of us often forget that these basic issues can happen at home, in school, at work or in the community.

To eliminate this type of listening barriers, when conversing with people, put yourself in a good environmental position without external and internal distractions.

Take time to stop and give your full attention to the person you are talking to. It will not only help you understand the other person better, but also create more meaningful and deeper relationship with them.

2. Pride

Another type of listening barrier is our pride or ego. Most often, we let our pride or ego to take over the conversation. We think that we are already smart enough to

even listen to other people. We think that we are better than other people and feel we have nothing more to learn from them. When we close ourselves and stop listening to other people, we are doomed because we stop learning. To eliminate this listening barrier, you have to be more open-minded to listen and learn from other people. You may learn more things if you open yourself and listen. But be mindful of selective listening. Remember that you do not have to agree with everything, but it is helpful if you at least, listen to what they have to say..

3. Assumptions

The human mind is mysterious and can process a lot of information, especially in between conversation, even while the other party is still talking. Which is why we have the tendency to interrupt, since we assume that we already know what the other is telling us. Such behaviour is caused by another listening barrier called assumptions.

Assumptions are statements that are assumed to be true and from which a conclusion can be drawn. Quite often, when we make assumptions, we already create conclusion in our mind without even considering the thoughts and feelings of the other person. And as such, you create more gap and unresolved problems.

To resolve and eliminate this listening barrier, practice keeping an open-mind and listen before you make any assumptions. You may try putting yourself in the shoe of another so you can fully understand and feel the sentiments of the other person.

4. Close-Mindedness

Another listening barrier to effective conversation is close-mindedness. Close-mindedness is intolerant of the beliefs and opinions of others; stubbornly unreceptive to new ideas. When we think that we have all the answers, and that the things we know are always the right answers, then our mind will close for new ideas.

In order to eliminate this listening barrier, strive to always keep an open mind for effective listening. You will learn and build deeper relationship if you stop being close-minded.

5. Defensiveness

This listening barrier refers to an attitude or position of defense. It is when we constantly protect ourselves from criticism, exposure of our shortcomings, or other real or perceived threats to the our ego.

Defensiveness is a primal response to feeling attacked, threatened, misunderstood or disrespected. This will normally lead to series of never ending arguments, protests, denials and blames. To eliminate this listening barrier, remember not to view comments and criticisms as personal attack. Instead use them as a tool for personal assessment, improvement and growth.

Most of the barriers listed above give us the tendency to interfere with the speaker. Interfering with the speaker also means that we do not value what they are saying.

3.6.4 Becoming a Better Listener

Any attempt to develop one's listening skills has to take into account the different types of listening and the external and internal barriers that can interfere with one's ability to listen efficiently. One way of dealing with some of these sources of interference is to concentrate on replacing poor listening habits and listening behaviours with effective skills and behaviours. Some of these listening behaviours are;

1. Show Respect

Respect that every human beings are different. Other peoples opinions and stories may be different from ours. Showing respect is essential for effective listening.

2. Be sensitive

Sometimes people just needs someone who can listen to their problems and stories so preaching and acting like a problem expert in this situation can cause deeper problems. There will be moments you need to be a little more sensitive on what other people think and feel, especially if you want to resolve the problem or save the relationship.

3. Pause

Learn to leave at least a couple of seconds pause after the speaker talks before giving your reply. On the other hand, before starting a conversation, set a rule or agreement that both sides will let the other person listen first before speaking or replying. This may feel awkward or weird at first but it's an effective way to create a good conversing environment. It will be uneasy at first, but it will be much easier when it becomes a habit.

4. Listen to Understand

Most of us are listening because we want to have a good reply. This kind of attitude often gives us a problem when it comes to communication. Keep in mind that the most effective conversations are the ones where we've used our ears more than our mouth.

Our main goal is to avoid those effective listening barriers listed above. We need to set aside our defenses, open our minds for new ideas and start listening not just with our ears but with our hearts. Because sometimes the most important message being delivered is not in the words we just heard. We need to hear the words not being said.

4.0 CONCLUSION

We have studied the human activity called "Public speaking", and found out that it is the process of speaking to a group of people in a structured, deliberate manner intended to inform, influence, or entertain the listeners. We also observed that in

public speaking, as a any form of communication, has some basic elements, often expressed as "*who* is saying *what* to *whom* using what *medium* with what *effects*?", while bearing in mind that the purpose of public speaking can range from simply transmitting information, to motivating people to act, to simply telling a story. Good orators should be able to change the emotions of their listeners, not just inform them. Public speaking can also be considered a discourse community. Interpersonal communication and public speaking have several components that embrace such things as motivational speaking, leadership/personal development, business, customer service, large group communication, and mass communication. Indeed,

Public speaking can be a powerful tool to use for purposes such as motivation, influence, persuasion, informing, translation, or simply entertaining. A confident speaker is more likely to use this as excitement and create effective speech thus increasing their overall impact.

5.0 SUMMARY

We have been able to show you, in this unit that fear of public speaking is often

due to lack of training and little or no experience in speaking in public, and an inability to evaluate or judge one's performance. However, thorough preparation and practicing the delivery of the speech can help you to overcome your speech apprehension and give an oral presentation that is a success.

While experience helps to build confidence and improves the delivery of speeches, even the most accomplished public speakers have openly admitted that they feel a certain amount of nervousness before taking the floor. They also claim that a certain amount of "nerves" is actually a good thing because it keeps them "on their toes".

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Fill in the blank spaces below by writing down the component of the public speaking process you think is being dealt with in each case.

You are attending an oral presentation where the manager of an office equipment company is demonstrating the advantages of a new Photostat machine which, he hopes, your company's financial director will buy. The financial director has invited all the employees in the organization to attend the presentation. The boardroom where the presentation takes place provides the (1) of communication. The manager of the office equipment company is the (2) and the employees of your organization are the (3) The purpose of the message is to (4)and (5) the audience. The speaker uses both verbal and (6) messages to achieve his purpose. Most people are paying attention because the speaker is demonstrating his (7) skills by presenting the rather dull technical details in an interesting way. At one stage, the audience's attention is distracted by the ringing of a cell phone (8) During question time, the financial director asks about the costs involved in servicing the machine (9) The speaker's knowledge about the topic and the confident way in which he makes the presentation help to build his (10) with

the audience. Two days after the talk, the financial manager does, in fact, buy the Photostat machine (11)

Questions 2 to 10 are multiple-choice questions. Please make sure that you do them because your examination paper consists largely of multiple-choice questions.

2. As you listen to a speech about safety precautions in your workplace, you relate the speaker's ideas to your recent experience of burning your hand in an exposed flame. You made the connection because of ...
 - (1) the purpose of the speech
 - (2) your frame of reference
 - (3) your attitude to the speaker.
 - (4) the cultural context of the speech.

3. Patrick is listening to his new Communication lecturer introducing her talk on public relations. He thinks to himself, "This lecture is going to be really boring". What is the cause of Patrick's poor listening here?
 - (1) being too critical
 - (2) jumping to conclusions
 - (3) giving in to distractions
 - (4) not listening comprehensively.

4. In an oral presentation, when you try to influence the attitudes, beliefs or values of the audience, the purpose of your speech is mainly ...
 - (1) informative.
 - (2) emotional.
 - (3) instructional.

- (4) persuasive.
5. During speech about earthquakes, the speaker notices puzzled expressions on the faces of his listeners. In response, he says, “Let me explain that point again to make sure it’s clear”. The speaker is ...
- (1) building his credibility
 - (2) adapting to the audience’s frame of reference
 - (3) adapting to feedback
 - (4) taking the context into account.
6. While on a visit to Brazil, the President of Nigerian University Students’ Union was invited to address a group of university students about campus unrest. When he suggested during his speech that all students should behave like those in Nigeria, the President was demonstrating ...
- (1) a sensitivity to cultural diversity.
 - (2) awareness of the audience’s frame of reference.
 - (3) a forceful personality.
 - (4) an ethnocentric point of view.
7. In public speaking, ethical decisions should be made according to ...
- (1) a set of moral standards
 - (2) the audience’s frame of reference
 - (3) the speaker’s purpose
 - (4) a code of legal rules.
8. How many of the following statements about the differences between public speaking and conversation are CORRECT?

(Here you need to start by picking out which statements you think are correct and writing down their numbers. Then count up how many statements are correct and ring the correct answer.

- (a) Because the listeners who attend your public lecture are interested in the topic, it is easier to hold their attention than when talking to someone in an ordinary conversation.
 - (b) Public speaking is easier than ordinary conversation because the speaker only has to respond to nonverbal feedback from the audience.
 - (c) Conversation is easier than public speaking because in a conversation the communicator can ignore the cultural context.
 - (d) Public speaking usually requires more formal language than ordinary conversation.
- (1) one
 - (2) two
 - (3) three
 - (4) four

Please read the following scenario carefully and then answer questions

(9) and (10). (This is an example of a multiple-choice question where you have to **apply** your knowledge to a real situation. By answering two questions on the same scenario, you also have to show that you understand or can explain why you chose your particular answer). Irene is president of the electrical workers' union at her workplace. For several months the committee has been asking the employer to grant a cost-of-living pay rise. The committee realises that the employer is not going to meet their request. Irene arranges a meeting at which she is going to ask the union members to go on strike. She also invites the employer to the meeting so that he can state his point of view.

9. What type of listening are the union members at the meeting **mainly** involved in?

- (1) empathic listening
 - (2) discriminative listening
 - (3) critical listening
 - (4) informative listening.
10. Why did you choose the response you selected in question 9? Because the union members...
- (1) want to understand and remember every detail discussed at the meeting.
 - (2) want to evaluate what each speaker is saying.
 - (3) have attended the meeting to give support to their leader.
 - (4) have attended the meeting to prevent the employer from speaking.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 4 ANALYSING THE AUDIENCE

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

The steps in the speechmaking process which you studied in unit 3 cannot be studied in isolation – they are all connected. What you learn in one unit is related to

everything you will learn in the other units. Having said that, the only way to learn about public speaking, however, is to tackle one step at a time. This means that we have to create some artificial divisions in the way we present the work. In this unit (and in the units that follow), we will sometimes have to refer to things that you have not yet learned about. For example, this unit deals with the audience. In order to explain why it is important to understand the audience, we have to refer, for example, to the topic of your speech, to ways of attracting your audience's attention, and to adapting your speech to the audience's needs and interests. But you will only study all this in later units. The main point, though, is that you should not start feeling depressed or anxious about the "gaps" in your knowledge. By the end of this module, you will in fact have learned everything you need to know. When you come to revise the module for the examination (and we suggest that you give yourself plenty of time for revision), you will find that everything fits into place – all the separate units forms a whole and you will understand how they are all linked to each other eventually.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

After studying this unit, you should be able to;

1. analyse the audience you will be speaking to in any given speech event,
2. apply the theoretical principles you have learnt, to a speech you will prepare, and
3. explain the methods for obtaining information as well as demonstrate the guidelines for adapting the speech to the audience.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Types of Audience

In public speaking, an audience is a group of listeners who listen to a talk or speech. Analyzing your audience type is essential in any public speaking engagement. You need to investigate exactly who will listen to what you are going to say. That way, you will know what format, style, vocabulary, or level of information is expected.

You can determine the characteristics of your target audience through a demographic profile, or by investigating information or assumptions about your particular audience.

.3.1.1 Homogeneous and Heterogeneous Audiences

Audiences vary in homogeneity—the degree to which they have similar characteristics, values, attitudes, knowledge, and so on. Homogeneous audiences consist of individuals who are very much alike; heterogeneous audiences consist of widely different individuals.

Obviously, it is easier to address a homogeneous group than a heterogeneous group. If your listeners are alike, your arguments will be as effective for one as for another. The language appropriate for one will be appropriate for another, and so on, through all the elements of the public speaking transaction.

With a heterogeneous group, however, this does not apply. The argument that works with one subgroup will not necessarily work with another. The language that is appropriate for the educated members will not be appropriate for the uneducated, so when you address a heterogeneous audience you will have to make some tough decisions.

Homogeneity—heterogeneity also relates to the four dimensions just considered. Thus, audience homogeneity-heterogeneity applies to their willingness to listen, their favourableness, their passivity, and their knowledge. For example, some audiences will be extremely similar (homogeneous) in their willingness to listen; others may contain members who differ widely in their willingness to listen.

3.1.2 Adapting to your Audience

Adapting to the Heterogeneous Audience. The most difficult audience to address is not the unwilling or the unfavorable or the unknowledgeable. It is the mixed audience: the audience consisting of some who care and some who do not, of some who know and some who do not. At times, addressing this type of audience will seem impossible. It is not, so do not despair. Teachers face this type of audience every day, as do politicians and advertisers. Here are some general principles (rather than specific adaptation guidelines) for dealing with the heterogeneous audience. These should help you in this difficult but not impossible task.

- **The greater the heterogeneity of the audience, the more difficult will be your analysis and adaptation.** A heterogeneous audience will require a much more complex audience analysis and a much more careful plan of adaptation than a homogeneous audience. Consider, for example, a PTA audience

composed of parents (differing widely in income, education, and cultural background) and teachers (differing widely in background, training, and age). Each of these groups will have different points of view, backgrounds, and expectations. As a speaker you will have to recognize these differences and take special care to appeal to all groups.

- **When the audience is too heterogeneous, it is sometimes helpful to subdivide it and appeal to each section separately.** A common example is the audience consisting of men and women. Say the topic is abortion on demand. To limit yourself to arguments that would appeal equally to men and women might seriously damage your case. Consider, therefore, concentrating first on arguments that women can relate to and then on those to which men can relate. You thus avoid using supporting materials that fall in between the groups and that are effective with neither.
- **Homogeneity does not equal attitudinal sameness.** The audience that is similar in age, sex, educational background, and so on, will probably also share similar attitudes and beliefs. However, this isn't always true. Heterogeneity increases with the size of the group. As any group expands in size, its characteristics become more diverse—keep this in mind when you're analyzing your audiences.

3.2 In depth audience analysis – your key to success

An experienced speaker knows the importance of properly preparing his/her material far enough in advance so he/she may have sufficient time to rehearse and "fine-tune" the speech. Unfortunately, this is not enough to assure that your speech or presentation is well received. Your speech preparation must also include gathering information about your audience and their needs. A well prepared speech given to the wrong audience can have the same effect as a poorly prepared speech given to the correct audience. They both can fail terribly.

It is critical that your preparation efforts include some amount of audience analysis. The more you know and understand about your audience and their

needs, the better you can prepare your speech to assure that you meet their needs. Speech preparation should use what I like to call the 9 P's.

Prior Proper Preparation

Prevents Poor Performance of the

Person Putting on the Presentation.

Nothing will relax you more than to know you have properly prepared. The stage fright or speech anxiety felt by many speakers is due to not knowing enough about the speaking environment or the audience. The more you know about your speaking environment and your audience, the more relaxed you will be when delivering your speech. Many speakers, however, often overlook the need to include any kind of audience analysis as part of their speech preparation. Proper audience analysis will assure that you give the right speech to the right audience. Most professional speakers send their clients a multi-page questionnaire in order to gather enough information about them and the speaking event to properly customize their speeches. Using the word "A-U-D-I-E-N-C-E" as an acronym, we have defined some general audience analysis categories that these surveys should include.

A nalysis - Who are they? How many will be there?

U nderstanding - What is their knowledge of the subject?

D emographics - What is their age, sex, educational background?

I nterest - Why are they there? Who asked them to be there?

E nvironment - Where will I stand? Can they all see & hear me?

N eeds - What are their needs? What are your needs as the speaker?

C ustomized - What specific needs do you need to address?

E xpectations - What do they expect to learn or hear from you?

Develop specific questions which fit into each of these eight categories and ask the client or audience to tell you what they want. Essentially, ask them what they need and give it to them.

Self Assessment Exercise

Say whether the follows statements are true or false.

- | | True | False |
|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Whatever the occasion, listeners will have fairly definite expectations about the kinds of speeches that are appropriate for the occasion | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Knowing how the physical setting might influence your listeners' response to your message is an important factor in audience analysis. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | True | False |
| 3. The fact that you know in advance that the room in which you will be speaking is too hot or too cold is not your problem. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. If your speech is interesting, you do | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

not have to keep within a strict time limit.

5. The larger the audience, the more visual aids you should use.
6. As a general rule, the larger your audience, the more formal your presentation should be.
7. Audience size is not important because it makes no difference whether the speech you have prepared is heard by 10 people or 100 people.

Answers

1. True 5. False
2. True 6. True
3. False 7. False.
4. False

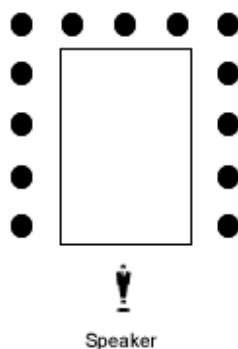
3.3 The Setting

Audience Size and Room Layout

Audience size will determine the nature of your presentation, especially in terms of your delivery style and subject matter. If the audience is large, you may need to consider a more animated presentation style, taking into account the size of the auditorium and the possibility of people getting sidetracked by conversations and other distractions. You may need to invigorate your presentation with larger exhibits, attention-grabbers, and a more forceful speaking tone. Since a large audience requires bigger rooms, you will need to use microphones, screen projectors, and larger chalkboards or whiteboards. If the audience is small, you can use a more intimate, informal presentation style. This will make it easier for you to stay focused on each individual in the room.

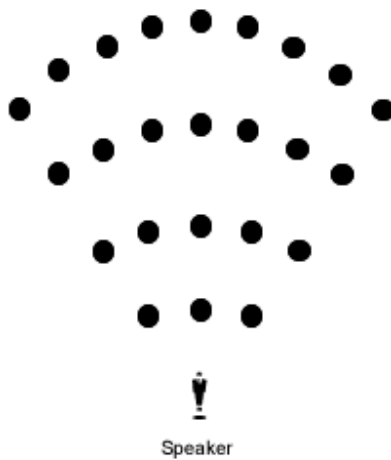
The type of room, the shape of your environment, the arrangement of the furniture, and the distance between you and your audience are all factors that will affect your presentation. Will the presentation be held in an office, a hotel, an auditorium, a park, or a classroom? Will the presentation have a formal seating arrangement? The following table illustrates five types of physical layouts for presentations: conference style, auditorium, classroom/laboratory, banquet, and circular. Each layout has advantages and disadvantages:

Conference



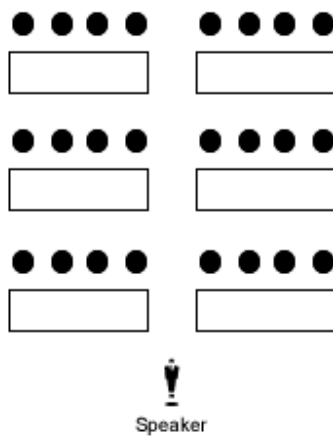
Conference seating is most frequently used for small business meetings and presentations. Whether you are situated at a conference table or simply using a U-shaped pattern of seating, this style offers intimacy and up-close demonstrations. It is also ideal for using exhibits and handouts, and for facilitating question/answer sessions and debates. This layout allows the audience to view your presentation from an intimate perspective. It encourages participation and interaction between presenter and audience. It also allows the audience members to interact with each other. This layout is also ideal for work groups because it affords tabletop space for models, note taking, and computer devices.

Auditorium



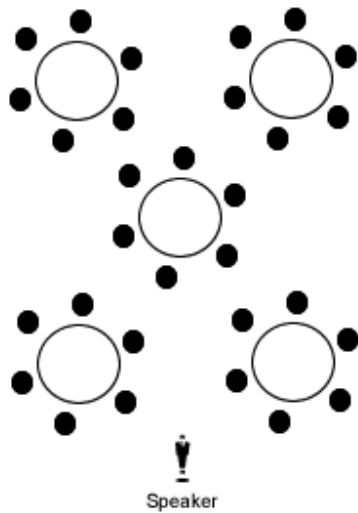
Auditorium seating is for large groups (over 60 people and even 2,000 or more). This layout is advantageous for lectures and formal presentations. You will need to rely on projector-style presentations and slide shows (i.e., PowerPoint). Your demonstrations and exhibits will have to be large enough to be seen from afar and you will more likely require a microphone and sound system to be heard. This layout provides less intimacy and a greater possibility of distractions (i.e., side conversations) due to group size. It is not useful for interaction between audience members either because of the unidirectional seating. Larger groups are also more difficult to manage.

Classroom/Laboratory



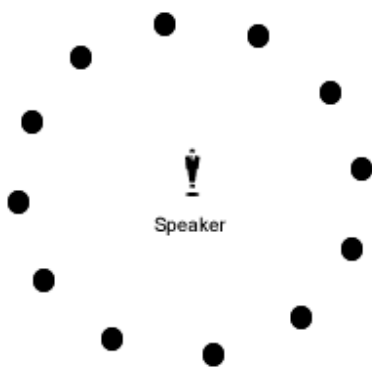
Classroom/laboratory seating is good for small and medium-sized groups (up to 60 people). In this layout, people can work individually or in small teams, utilizing the tabletop space in front of them. Technical presentations work very well in this environment because they allow both group and instructional dynamics. Each table can be equipped with educational materials: documents, models, computers, etc. Unlike conference style layouts, the speaker can work with individual teams separately. Thus, this layout provides both intimate and non-intimate features. It can be used for a formal lecture or an informal discussion among groups. It is also an ideal environment for facilitating team projects.

Banquet



The banquet layout is probably the least advantageous for the technical presenter. Banquets usually contain separate tables for the audience. Unlike the classroom/laboratory layout, tables are round and more likely to be used for eating and drinking, instead of for working. There is also the disadvantage of multi-directional seating: people are looking at each other and away from the speaker. This encourages talking and more distractions. People will have to reposition their chairs at the outset of your presentation and not everyone will be comfortable. Banquet presentations work better with an informal style. Because not everyone will be able to see you comfortably, you will have to rely more on an auditory, less visual presentation. Discussion will have to be very lively and filled with attention-grabbers, jokes, and asides that keep people focused.

Circular



Circular style layouts are not common in the professional world. However they have some advantages for certain audiences, children in particular. Circular presentations require that the speaker move around from person-to-person in an animated, informal style. These presentations offer intimacy, group interaction, and permit dynamic demonstrations that require shifting around in the space and mobile exhibits that rotate. In the professional world, the circular layout is refreshing and will encourage a relaxed environment of informality and interpersonal exchange. Spatially, there is nowhere for the audience to hide because everyone is equidistant from the speaker. Participation should be easy to solicit in this situation.

3.4 Gathering the Information

Note that there are two ways of obtaining the information you need for your speech: (1) your existing knowledge of the group and the setting; (2) questioning the person who invited you to speak. All audiences share certain general characteristics that will help you to understand them better. Let's look at the sort of information you would obtain about an audience you do not know by asking the relevant questions;

- **Why does the group exist? What goals does the group hope to fulfill?** These two questions should help you to decide on a topic for speech and which aspect of your topic you should focus on. If your talk is about gardening and the audience is a group of house owners, you would assume that their goal is to make their gardens look attractive. You could focus your talk on what to plant for a colourful garden, or something similar. However, if they were a group of professional gardeners, their goal might be to learn about the biology of drought-resistant plants, for example, or a new form of pest control. In other words, the focus of your speech would depend entirely on the audience.
- **What is the nature of the occasion at which I will be speaking?** The answer to this question should help you to decide how formal or informal your speech will be.
- **Can you share any insights about the make-up of the audience?** The answers should provide you with demographic information about your listeners.
- **What expectations do you believe audience members will have about the presentation?** This information should tell you something about what the group considers acceptable or unacceptable. A religious group, for instance, would probably consider it appropriate if you speak on a topic related to its beliefs or the beliefs of another religion, or perhaps a moral question or social issue. But a topic that focuses on changing their religious beliefs or promoting legal prostitution would not be appropriate.
- **Are you aware of any attitudes held by audience members that could have a positive or negative influence on your presentation?** By now, you

understand why it is important to find out whether your audience will agree with your views or strongly oppose them. If you know the audience is likely to disagree with your views, you will have to find ways of dealing with this.

3.5 How to use the Information: Adapting to your Audience

This section provides guidelines for ensuring that you do indeed prepare your speech for a specific audience. The guidelines are not difficult to understand – study them on your own. You should however note the information in the last paragraph of this section – that adapting your speech to the needs and interests of a specific audience requires a great deal of practice because it is one of the most important and difficult skills a public speaker has to learn.

Type of Audience and Occasion

Children

Technical presentations can be made to children of all ages (from 3 up) and in a variety of settings, including classrooms, school auditoriums, parks, community centres, Boy/Girl Scout meetings, and camps. Even television and the Internet are ideal places to educate and inspire young people. When presenting to children, age and education level are critical factors to consider. In the United States, each age and grade level corresponds to general curriculum requirements. By asking teachers or other leaders in advance, you can gather the necessary information about what they have previously learned and what they are currently learning, to ensure that the information in your presentation conforms to their education level and interests. Culture is also a major factor, as children from different geographical settings (i.e., urban and rural) will have varied experiences and come from different racial and ethnic communities. Listed below are various situations where you might be speaking to children.

Occasion	Types of Technical Presentations
Science Fairs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keynote presentations • Project award presentations • Subject overview (e.g., robotics, aeronautics, aerospace).
Curriculum & Unit Study Topics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject overview • Demonstration of a particular technology: hands-on (mechanical) or interactive (interpersonal) • Demonstration of how a particular technology is used in toys, games, or other products children use
Career Learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overview of your profession (e.g., “A Day in the Life of a Mechanical Engineer”) • Career track advice (counselling session)
Public Awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seminar on the advantages or hazards of a particular technology • How children can participate in a scientific cause • Mission statement for a non-profit organization or corporation using scientific technologies in the community (e.g., energy, environmental preservation, etc.)
Technical Scholarship Award Ceremonies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vision of future (e.g. the future of mechanical engineering) • Keynote presentations • Mission statement for scholarship sponsor organization

University Students

Both undergraduate and graduate students are typical audiences for technical presentations. Settings range from classrooms to laboratories, banquets, auditoriums, parks, student rallies, and seminar halls. These audiences include students studying both technical and non-technical disciplines. University students generally fall into a narrower age category, usually between 18 and 30. However they can also include adults of all ages. Unlike with children, age, culture and geographic origin are not as relevant as is their field of study. If you are communicating to students of mathematics, engineering, chemistry, or physics, you may take the liberty to be more technical in your approach. However, if you are communicating to students in the liberal arts, business, or any other area that is not directly technical, you will have to tailor your approach to their area of study. In addition, there are also wide ranges of student cultures at the university level - a culture often deeply affected by current events, popular trends, the media, and special interests (e.g., human rights, environmental concerns, etc.).

Occasion	Types of Technical Presentations
Student Project Grants	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meeting with students to award project grants for research or other endeavours
Science Fairs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keynote presentations • Project award presentations • Subject overview (e.g., robotics, aeronautics, aerospace).
Seminars & Academic Instruction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject overview • Demonstration of a particular technology: hands-on (mechanical) or interactive (interpersonal) exercises • Seminar or mini-course
Career Advancement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Overview of your profession and skills needed for interviewing, job requirements, and career advancement • Career track advice (counselling session)
Public Awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seminar on the advantages or hazards of a particular technology • How students can organize around or participate in a particular scientific cause • Mission statement for a non-profit organization or corporation using scientific technologies in community (e.g., energy, environmental preservation, etc.)
Technical Scholarship Award	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Future-vision (e.g., the future of mechanical engineering)

Ceremonies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Keynote presentations• Mission statement for scholarship sponsor organization
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Business and Professional

Business and professional groups will more likely be the audience you must communicate with most frequently. They involve a wide range of people: corporate executives and professionals from every field, including technology, finance, marketing, sales, product development, human resources, as well as non-work settings where people from a wide range of experiences may be present (such as at awards banquets). Settings range from small offices to conference rooms, hotels, auditoriums, laboratories, factories, universities, and corporate training facilities. With these audiences, you should point out the relevance of your subject matter to their professional field and industry, as well as a wide range of popular topics such as mass culture, trends, current events, economics, the media, and special interests.

Occasion	Types of Technical Presentations
Business Conferences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keynote presentations • Speech on a particular subject topic relating to a professional field or industry • Honour an individual's achievements
Seminars & Corporate Training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject overview for a particular industry • Demonstration of a technology: hands-on (mechanical) or interactive (interpersonal) exercises • Seminar or mini-course • Technical sales training
Corporate Policy & Public Awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seminar on the advantages or hazards of a particular technology • How businesses can organize around and participate in a particular scientific cause • Mission statement for your corporation and the role it plays, using scientific technologies in community (e.g. energy, environmental preservation, etc.)
Sales Presentations & Meetings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selling your product or technological innovation to potential clients, retailers or distributors • Product demonstrations: applications, functionality, and markets
Charitable Events	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keynote speeches • Corporate or organizational mission statement

	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Public awareness speech
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Government and Institutions

Government and institutional audiences include federal and state organizations, governing bodies, and commissions, hospitals, schools, associations, universities, military, and other public and non-profit organizations. Settings range from small offices to conference rooms, hotels, auditoriums, laboratories, public halls, and government training facilities. With these audiences, you should aim to describe the relevance to their field (e.g., healthcare), organizational mission, and professional specialization (e.g., military), as well as a wide range of popular topics such as current events, economics, politics, and special interests. If you are testifying or advocating your cause before a government body, such as the National Assembly, expectations will be that you are an expert in your field. Your communications should take on a more authoritative, scientific tone. You should be prepared to back your ideas with data, case studies, and solid research.

Occasion	Types of Technical Presentations
Government Hearings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Testifying on behalf of your company or organization • Testifying to advocate your product or technology • Testifying as an expert witness in a court of law
Presentations to Lobby Groups	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Advocating your product or technology to a special interest group • Soliciting funding and support
Sales Presentations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Selling your product or technological innovation to potential clients such as hospitals, schools, associations, and public organizations • Product demonstrations: applications, functionality, and markets
Seminars & Training Events	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Subject overview for a particular industry • Demonstration of a technology: hands-on (mechanical) or interactive (interpersonal) exercises • Teach a seminar or mini-course • Technical sales training
Solicitation for Funding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Future-vision (e.g., the future of mechanical engineering) • Mission statement for your organization and purpose of funding or grant
Charitable Events	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keynote speeches • Corporate or organizational mission statement • Public awareness speech

Community Groups and the General Public

Community groups and general public audiences include civic organizations, neighbourhood groups, public advocacy groups, and public seminars. Settings range from civic centres to hotels, auditoriums, public halls, and churches. With these audiences, you should refer to their regional geographic interests, as well as a wide range of topics, such as current events, the media, popular culture, and your awareness of their particular concerns and interests in your subject matter.

Occasion	Types of Technical Presentations
Municipal and Public Hearings	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Testifying on behalf of your company or organization and its role in the community• Testifying to advocate your product or technology and its role in the community
Community Seminars & Training Events	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Subject overview for a particular industry• Demonstration of a technology: hands-on (mechanical) or interactive (interpersonal) exercises• Seminar or mini-course• Subject overview for a particular community group, and information exchange
Charitable Events	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Keynote speeches• Corporate or organizational mission statement• Public awareness speech

4.0 CONCLUSION

The occasion and place in which you deliver your presentation may be one that enhances or interferes with the effectiveness of your presentation. It is very important to determine ahead of time the audience and what the facilities are like before you speak. It is also important to familiarize yourself with the occasion. This way you can properly plan your delivery or make adjustments, if necessary

5.0 SUMMARY

For most public speakers, audience analysis is the most important step in planning a target presentation. In this unit, we have emphasized the fact that for a speaker's final product to be fully successful, the speech must be aimed toward the intended audience--its knowledge, its opinions, its needs, and its wants. We then discussed how to determine the knowledge, opinions, needs, and wants of your target audience.

Endeavour to look at any speaking engagement as an opportunity to practice your speaking skills.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. How would you use your information to adapt to your audience in an end of year speech you intend to give to your colleagues?

1. What is an audience-centred speech? (one sentence)
2. Write down two topics you think your fellow students would be interested in and which they would find relevant.
3. When planning your speech, in which two areas is the information obtained from a psychographic analysis particularly useful?
4. The Vice Chancellor of the university has to explain to students why there is going to be a 15 percent increase in fees this year. What sort of attitude can the Vice Chancellor expect his audience to have to this new?

5. You are preparing a speech on the topic of sport to deliver to two different audiences. One audience consists primarily of young people (below the age of 25). The second audience is composed of elderly people. Which aspect of sport would you focus on for each audience?

Questions 6-12 are multiple-choice questions. Please make sure that you do them because your examination paper contains a large number of multiple-choice questions. You should study the guidelines for answering multiple-choice questions. Write down the number of the most correct answer to each question on a separate piece of paper. This way, when you revise for the examination, you will have to think, about the correct answer again. We provide the correct answers to the multiple-choice questions, but only discuss the answers in cases where the options are “difficult”.

6. Your primary purpose in delivering a speech is to ...
- (1) gain a desired response from the audience.
 - (2) gain experience as a speaker.
 - (3) try out new ideas on the audience.
 - (4) display your knowledge of the topic.
7. Which of the following is a demographic characteristic of an audience?
- (1) knowledge?
 - (2) size
 - (3) age
 - (4) attitude.

8. Which of the following is a psychographic characteristic of an audience?
- (1) cultural background
 - (2) attitude towards the topic
 - (3) group membership
 - (4) gender.
9. If you were giving a speech to an audience on the subject of compulsory retirement, the most important factor to consider in audience analysis would be theof the audience.
- (1) income bracket
 - (2) group membership
 - (3) gender
 - (4) age.
10. If you were giving a speech to an audience on how computers work, the most important factor to consider in audience analysis would be theof the audience.
- (1) occupation
 - (2) knowledge
 - (3) gender
 - (4) age.
11. Thewill usually indicate how long a speech should be.
- (1) audience size

- (2) occasion
 - (3) physical setting
 - (4) topic.
12. The group membership of an audience can provide useful information about its.....
- (1) interests
 - (2) gender
 - (3) ethnicity
 - (4) age.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 5 SELECTING A TOPIC AND PURPOSE

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Choosing a Topic
 - 3.2 Determining the General Purpose
 - 3.3 Determining the Specific Purpose
 - 3.4 Phrasing the Central Idea
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

For many people, the thought of giving a speech in front of a group can be terrifying. Even if you are comfortable with public speaking, it can be difficult at times to determine what to speak about. In this unit, we shall expose you to some important tips that will help you select a speech topic that will impress your audience every time.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. choose an appropriate topic for a speech you have to give

2. decide on the general and specific purposes of this speech, and
3. arrive at the central idea of your speech and the main points you will be talking about in any given speech event.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Choosing a Topic

The most important point in this section is that, whether you choose a topic from subjects you know a lot about, or from subjects that you would like to know more about, your choice will be guided by your analysis of the audience, the occasion, and the setting. For the purposes of this study unit, let's assume that your listeners are your fellow students. They have come to hear your first speech (the occasion) in a lecture hall in your university or college (the setting). By the end of this study unit, you should be able to see a clear connection between the material you studied in unit 4 and this unit (unit 5). Now, study the following steps to choosing a topic;

Steps to choosing a topic

Think about your audience. Who are you speaking to? What do they care about? The first thing you should always do is put yourself in your audience's shoes and consider what they would like to hear and why.

Connect. If you have an idea for a topic, look for a way to relate it to your audience. Does not just talk about a topic in general - try to help your audience understand and care about it.

Consider your own knowledge and background. What do you care about? The easiest speeches to deliver are ones on a topic that you know inside and out. Your own passion and knowledge about a subject will come through in your presentation with very little effort.

Look for timely topics. Pick up a newspaper or check the headlines on the Internet. Sometimes an interesting story can spark your creativity. Plus, it gives you a great way to open your speech.

Consider what actions you would like your audience to take when you finish speaking. How should they feel after hearing you? What would you like them to do? Instead of just speaking about a topic, think instead about trying to persuade your audience to take a certain action or change a belief or behaviour.

(<http://www.wikihow.com/Select-a-Topic-for-a-Speech>)

3.2 Determining the General Purpose

What is the Purpose of a speech?

Before one begins to think about delivering a speech, one must determine why he or she is giving the speech. Speeches serve a variety of purposes. The immediate audience helps determine the purposes of a speech. People assemble for a speech because they expect to hear or learn something they did not already know. A speaker must satisfy these expectations. Establishing one's purpose in giving a speech demands explicit attention. It is not enough to believe that the speech is expected or that speaking is somehow a routine act. Such assumptions will quickly be discerned by an audience; and if the audience suspects that the speaker is there unwillingly or unenthusiastically, such an audience will be far less receptive. If a speaker does not have a clear reason to give the speech, then the speech should not be given.

The Central Purpose of a Speech

There is really only one purpose of a speech: a speaker must wish to engage his or her audience with a central idea or proposition. The act of engagement is crucial. A speech is a dynamic relationship between a speaker and the audience. A speaker who views an audience as nothing more than the passive receptacles of his or her insights will lose that audience. It is important to remind ourselves that every speech has objectives, and these objectives include: conveying information or insight, persuading the audience and motivating the listeners.

Determining the General Purpose of your Speech.

Most speeches have one of the following general purposes: to inform, to persuade, to entertain, and to pay tribute.

Some speeches may have other purposes such as: to introduce, to present, to accept, to inspire, to eulogize. Before you begin to plan and prepare your speech, decide its purpose.

To Inform

In an informative speech, you are concerned about giving new information to your listeners. You want your audience to understand and remember new information.

To Persuade

In a persuasive speech, you want your listeners to change their opinions, attitude or actions.

To Entertain

An entertaining speech is light, fun and enjoyable

To Introduce

A speech of introduction is designed for one speaker to introduce another to the audience.

To Present

A speech of presentation is formally designed to formally present an award or honour to another person in front of an audience.

To Accept

A speech of acceptance is made by a person who has received an award or honour in front of an audience.

To Pay Tribute

A speech of tribute praises or celebrates a person, group, institution or event. It generally conveys love, gratitude, respect or admiration.

To Inspire

The inspirational speech is given to move listeners to a higher level of feeling or activity. You want your listeners to feel uplifted or encouraged.

To Eulogize

The eulogy is a speech made in honour of someone who has died.

3.3 Determining the Specific Purpose

Formulating a specific purpose is the most important early step in developing a successful speech. Once you have chosen a topic and a general purpose, you narrow your choices to determine the specific purpose of your speech. The specific purpose should focus on ONE aspect of a topic.

The specific purpose limits the topic to one that can be covered adequately in a speech that has a predetermined, reasonable time limit.

A specific purpose statement is a single phrase that states precisely what a speaker hopes to accomplish in his or her speech.

Begin the specific purpose statement with an infinitive. What is an infinitive?

An infinitive is a verb with the word “to” in front of it. Examples of infinitives that might be used to start a specific purpose statement are: *to explain, to tell, to show, to demonstrate, to persuade, to entertain, to prove, to convince, to inform, to inspire, to introduce, to present, to accept, to pay tribute*. Next, include a reference to your audience. For example, *to explain to my audience, to persuade my listeners*.

Always remember to limit the specific purpose statement to one major idea, and make your statement as precise as possible. Make sure you can achieve your purpose in the time allotted for your speech.

Finally, keep your statement simple. Don't be too technical, and always bear these requirements for writing a good specific purpose in mind when writing your speech;

- it should contain one main idea
- it should be a complete sentence
- it should be clear and concise
- it should be worded as a statement, not as a question

- it should be worded in terms of the audience response you want at the end of the speech.

3.4 Paraphrasing the Central Idea

Paraphrasing is the process of restating information in different words. When we paraphrase, we maintain the original meaning, but we say it in our own words. Paraphrasing is an active learning strategy which helps us place information into long-term memory as we move from an understanding level to an active comprehension level. Good paraphrasing skills are necessary to create effective speeches, prepare for tests, answer essay test questions, and avoid plagiarism when researching reports. Paraphrasing includes:

- Replacing difficult vocabulary words or phrases with words the student understands
- Rewriting lengthy or complex sentences into simpler sentences, or combining simple sentences into more interesting, complex sentences
- Explaining concepts and abstract ideas from sentences or passages using more clear and concise wording
- Translating ideas and information into students' own words

Problems with underlying language-processing skills make paraphrasing especially difficult for students with language-based learning disabilities. Weaknesses, particularly at the semantic (word), syntactic (sentence), and discourse (paragraph) levels, minimize the ability to “play” with words. Limited vocabulary and ability to construct complex sentences make it difficult for students to come up with a “different way of saying things” in their own words.

Tips for Successful Paraphrasing

1. ***Understand the context of what you are paraphrasing:*** Read the whole sentence or several sentences of the speech to have at least a general understanding of the context in which words are being used. Make sure that the synonyms you use in your paraphrased version do not change the meaning of the passage.
2. ***Use “semantic” paraphrasing:*** Use a thesaurus and/or your own knowledge to replace words in the passage with accurate synonyms. Be sure to check the part of speech of the word you are replacing. How a synonym is used can change the meaning of the word or sentence.

4. Use “*syntactic*” *paraphrasing*: In addition to replacing key words, change the structure of the original sentences by either inverting the order of sentence parts, breaking them into shorter sentences, or combining simple sentences into compound and complex sentences.

5. *Rewrite the paraphrased version*: Combine the various changes noted above and rewrite the passage in your own words.

The most important thing for you to learn in this section is how to arrive at the main points for your speech. Once again, it is only by practising that you will learn this technique

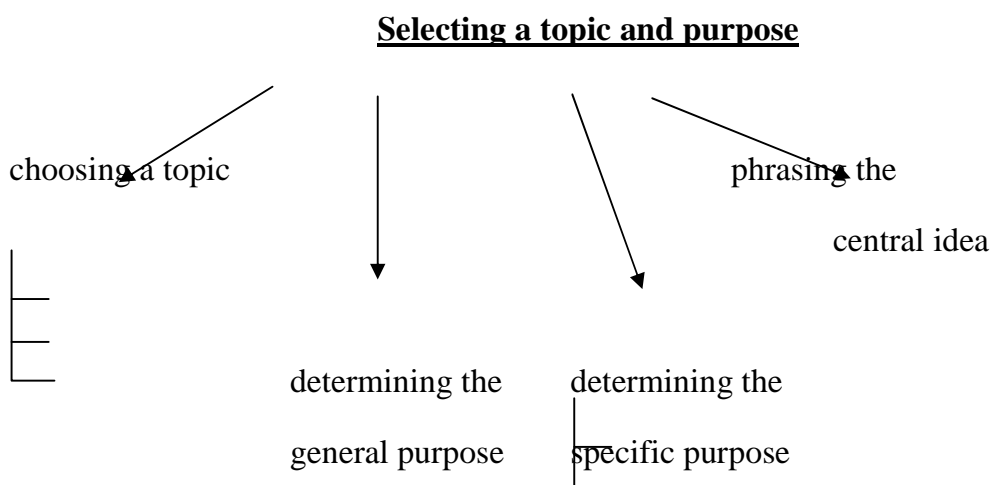
4.0 CONCLUSION

This unit has exposed you to the necessary techniques of selecting a topic and purpose for your speech. It is very important for you to attempt the exercises and assignments, as they will help to improve your speech writing skills tremendously.

5.0 SUMMARY

We shall use the mindmap to summarise what you have learnt in this unit.

MINDMAP



6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Write down the general purpose of the following speech situations/topics:
 - (a) A lecture on public speaking
 - (b) An advertisement for a soft drink
 - (c) A music programme on the radio
 - (d) A request to donate blood to the Red Cross
 - (e) A plea for drunk driving to carry stricter penalties
 - (f) A wedding toast.

2. Select one of the topics you wrote down in 1. Above, and then answer the following questions:
 - (a) What is the subject of your speech?
 - (b) Is your general purpose to inform/instruct? If so, what information do you have to provide, or what action, technique, procedure or process do you have to explain?

- (c) Is your general purpose to persuade? If so, what attitudes, beliefs, values or behaviour do you want to reinforce or change?
- (d) Is your general purpose to entertain? If so, do you have any personal talents (such as a sense of humour) that you could effectively use in your presentation?
- (e) Is your general purpose a combination of two or three of the purposes listed above? If so, arrange them in order of importance.

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MODULE 2 TECHNIQUES OF PERSUASION

- Unit 1 Supporting your Ideas
- Unit 2 Organising your Material
- Unit 3 Preparing the Delivery
- Unit 4 Persuasive Speeches

UNIT 1 SUPPORTING YOUR IDEAS

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Forms of Support
 - 3.2 General and Specific Guidelines for Supporting Material
 - 3.3 Recording your Information and citing your sources
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Readings

1.0 INTRODUCTION

You now know the main points you have to make in your speech. But you cannot stand up and say to the audience, “These are the main points I want to make.” Their

answer would probably be “So what?” You need to explain or enlarge on these main ideas. You need to give your listeners additional information about each main point so that they understand what you mean and will believe what you say. That additional information is your supporting material. In other words, you have the skeleton or outline of a speech and now you have to add meat to the skeleton to make your ideas credible, interesting, and memorable. In this unit we will discuss how to support your ideas – the sort of material you need to look for, and where to find it.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

1. identify how to source for relevant materials to support the main ideas of your speech,
2. state why supporting material are an important part of your speech, and
3. discuss the types of supporting materials that you can use to give substance to your speech.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Forms of Support

The term supporting materials refers to the information a person provides to develop and/or justify an idea that is offered for a listener's consideration. Supporting materials serve a variety of functions in oral presentations: to clarify the speaker's point, to emphasize the point, to make the point more interesting, and to furnish a basis that enables others to believe the speaker's point. Without supporting materials, an oral presentation is little more than a string of assertions (claims without backing).

We have already noted that Support Material illustrates your assertions so the audience will understand the concepts and conclusions you are presenting. These are various forms of supporting materials:

Examples: Concrete instances. Visual is better. Make sure the audience understands or can relate to what the example is illustrating (3rd step)

Testimony (authority): direct quotations or paraphrases – using someone else’s knowledge/information and, thus, their credibility. Requires acknowledgement (oral citation).

Surveys: compilations of many people's views, public opinion, quantitative. Be sure you understand what group the survey represents and who is the source of the survey.

Definition: clarification of unfamiliar terms and concepts [by example, by synonym, by classification].

Analogy: illustrating a concept by relating the unfamiliar to the familiar. Be sure the audience understands the points of similarity

Statistics: quantitative information. Good for establishing significance. Use round numbers if possible. "Humanize" large abstract numbers by linking them to something familiar.

Narration: stories. They are visual, personal and chronological. Highly concrete and memorable. Good for illustration; weak for proof.

Explanation (description/detail): describing an idea or concept in your own words. Most effective when highly visual (use lots of adjectives). Often overused.

Proof – getting the audience to accept your ideas, believe you, and be persuaded. There are three traditional types of proof:

1. **Pathos** – using emotions to get support
2. **Ethos** -- using credibility to get support (either your own credibility or that of your sources)
3. **Logos** – using logic and evidence (support material) to prove you are correct and gain support.

Self Assessment Exercise

State at least, five supporting material you will use for a speech titled *Examination is not a true test of knowledge*

3.2 General and Specific Guidelines for Supporting Material

General Guidelines for Supporting Materials

1. *Pertinence* -- Each piece of support should be clearly relevant to the point it is used to support.
2. *Variety* -- The presentation should not rely excessively on one type of support (such as examples) but should instead use a number of different forms of support.
3. *Amount* -- The presentation should include a sufficient amount of support (enough to make the ideas presented both clear and compelling to the audience).
4. *Detail* -- Each piece of support needs to be developed to the point that audience members can both understand the item of support AND can see how the item backs up the point it is used to support.
5. *Appropriateness* -- Each piece of supporting material should meet the demands that the audience and the occasion place on the kind of material that is likely to be received favorably. A "scholarly" audience, for example, will probably place higher demands on the speaker's sources of information than a "general" audience would. A "graphic" description of a particular topic, while entirely fitting in some occasions, might be out of place in another.

Specific Guidelines for Supporting Materials

Supporting materials are usually offered in recurring forms. Depending upon the form of support provided, you should ask yourself some questions to determine if you are making the best possible use of that kind of material:

For Examples/Narratives:

- * Is the example/narrative representative?
- * Is the example/narrative sufficiently detailed and vivid?
- * Is the example/narrative personalized?
- * If necessary, was the source cited in the speech?

For Statistics:

- * Is the source of the statistics reliable?

- * Has the source of the statistics been cited in the speech?
- * Has the statistics been used correctly?
- * Have you rounded-off complicated statistics?
- * Have you interpreted the statistics (explained it in another way)?
- * Have you done something to emphasize the statistic?
- * Have you used statistics sparingly?

For testimony

- * Is the source qualified to make the statement you're quoting?
- * Is the quotation accurate?
- * Have you attributed the testimony prior to the quote?
- * Have you made it clear whether you are paraphrasing or quoting directly?
- * If you are quoting, is the quotation brief?
- * Have you clearly signalled where the testimony begins and ends?
- * Are the source's conclusions reasonably free from bias?

For comparison/contrast

- * Is comparison appropriate and justified?
- * Is the comparison meaningful -- does it tell your audience something valuable?
- * Have you avoided overdoing the comparison?

locating the information

- personal experiences and observations
- interviews
- library materials

3.3 Recording your Information and citing Sources.

A *source* is the place where you got your information, such as a book, newspaper clipping, vital record certificate or e-mail exchange. A *citation* is how you record that source for future reference and connect it to your data. It is important to cite your sources, but also important to cite them correctly. These are the proper formats for recording your genealogy research findings. Please remember that it is very important to properly document and cite your sources when preparing for a public

speech event. There are so many possible sources that you may come across which makes it vital that you keep proper track of where each piece of information came from.

There are many ways to record a citation, and they vary for the different kinds of sources. How you record a book is different from how you would record a newspaper clipping. While I would not expect an undergraduate student to learn a dozen different citation formats, you should still try to be as complete and consistent as possible. Whether you use the usual punctuation and style (brackets, etc) is really up to you. Remember that it is never ethical to pass on someone else's ideas as if they were your own. Always give credit to the people whose ideas you have used by naming your sources.

It is important to cite your sources, but also important to cite them correctly. Study the formats for citing sources;

Books: Author, *book title*, (publisher, publication date), page numbers, location of source.

John Smith, *Our Family History in Wales*, (Family Tree Books, 1973), p. 45-55, found at the Huntsville Public Library.

Newspaper Clippings: "Title of piece", *name of newspaper*, city, date of publication, page numbers, location of source.

"Old Courthouse Demolished", *Huntsville Daily Press*, Huntsville Ontario, March 16, 1962, p. 13,

4.0 CONCLUSION

The point we have emphasized in this unit is that, in order to be a credible speaker, you have to provide the audience with evidence to convince them that what you are saying is believable. Stating an opinion, or giving some information in a general way, is usually not sufficient to convince an audience of the credibility of your statements. You need to support your ideas in a way that makes them clear, interesting, and trustworthy.

5.0 SUMMARY

Always give credit to the people whose ideas you have used by naming your sources. It is equally important that you know where to find the appropriate material you intend to use in your speech. If you find information from someone who has a recorded citation, you should **not** simply add that citation to your records until you have verified it for yourself. You should still record the source info, but make sure you also note where you got the actual information from. You should also make notes if you are getting your information from the actual document or a transcription

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. With good examples, differentiate between general and specific guidelines for supporting material.
2. Discuss any four specific guidelines you will use to select supporting materials for a speech on ‘The National Youth Service Corp programme should be scrapped’.

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

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UNIT 2 ORGANISING YOUR MATERIAL

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Structure of the Speech
 - 3.2 Preparing the Introduction
 - 3.3 Organising the body of the Speech
 - 3.2.1 Time or Chronological Order
 - 3.2.2 Space or Spatial Order
 - 3.2.3 Topical Order
 - 3.2.4 Causal Order
 - 3.2.5 Problem-Solution Order
 - 3.2.6 Adding Supporting Materials
 - 3.2.7 Guidelines for Outlining
 - 3.2.8 Transitions
 - 3.4 Preparing the Conclusion
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

As far as the organisation of a speech is concerned, you need to organise your speech in a logical way. Indeed, another way of thinking about organisation is that it is the logical order in which things are done. If you want your speech to go well, it is vital

that you organise it logically. A well-organised speech, that is, a speech that has its main ideas arranged in a logical sequence, has advantages for both the speaker and the audience. It makes it easier for your listeners to follow your ideas and remember them, and it reduces the risk that you will forget what you want to say.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to;

1. arrange the main points and supporting material of a speech into an appropriate organizational pattern, and
2. discuss the theoretical principles that guide the choice and structure (layout) of a particular organizational pattern (cognitive outcome).

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Structure of the Speech

A speech (or presentation) generally falls into three parts, the introduction, the main body and the conclusion (beginning, middle and end). Each of these serves an integral and essential role with it's own unique function. The body of the speech is the biggest and is where the majority of information is transferred. Consequently, it requires careful thought and consideration as well as some imagination to organize the body of a speech effectively.

To aid in planning the body of your speech, it can be helpful to make use of concepts and themes which run through the body of your speech, providing structure and tying thoughts together in unified manner. This is not to say that your delivery must be uniform throughout. For example, a speaker might use several characters from a popular movie, television series or play to illustrate how a proposal might impact people in various roles within an organization. The characters and the attitudes they portray may differ significantly but their common source provides a unifying factor that the audience will pick up and appreciate.

The time to consider the way to organize the body of your speech is after you have selected and ordered the points you want to make. The best "organizers" act as a mechanism for the audience to grasp and remember what you say. Organizers make

it easier to provide continuity between opening, body and ending. They help you connect with the audience quickly and are an aid to remembering the points you wish to make, allowing you to deliver the speech with minimum use of notes.

Organization Ideas

Here are a few ideas for organizing a speech. Each has its own strengths and weaknesses and some may work better than others for a given topic or setting. They can be used individually or in combination. The list is far from complete and you should feel free to get creative and come up with your own ideas.

Acronyms: Organize your speech around an acronym, with the individual letters representing a keyword, which summarizes a component of your presentation. If at all possible, choose a word which is related in some way to your topic.

Colour: Colour can be used to organize a presentation and then be coordinated with props, visual aids and handouts. As an added bonus, many topics have associations with a particular colour (environment - green) or have colour as an important component (fine art, interior decoration). In such cases, using colour as an organizational aid is quick and easy as well as being intuitively clear to your audience.

Issues: Issues can be financial, aesthetic, philosophical or political among others and can serve to simplify complex topics defuse areas where the audience has strong opinions or high emotions.

Opinions: Many topics have distinct vantage points, depending upon a number of factors including, but not limited to, factors such as age, gender, political affiliation, faith, job function, etc. Exploring different view points can be excellent for political topics or topics related to changes in the workplace.

People: People can be actual, mythical, historical, political, or stereotypical. As with the illustration above, don't overlook well-known characters from literature, movies or television shows. You may also consider using characters based on stereotypical group behaviours. Examples of each of these include politicians, police detectives, teenagers and their concerned parents. Using characters can make for great entertaining speeches, which derive humour from human frailties.

Places: People have a strong sense of place and often make generic associations with specific types of geography or with specific locations. Many topics, such as travel or history, are place-specific.

Problems and solutions: This is a good all-purpose organisation and an excellent choice for emerging topics. It is flexible in that you do not necessarily need the same number of solutions as you have problems.

Shapes and patterns: Use shapes such as circles, squares, or triangles for identification and to illustrate relationships and how things work.

Storylines: Use a universal plot from literature, mythology, classic movies, popular novels or nursery rhymes. Alternatively, real stories and life experiences can make for powerful narratives.

Time: Try using themes from the past, present and future for topics that change over time. Create a project time line and compare it to significant calendar units such as the fiscal year.

For a clearer analysis, we present the Basic Structure of a Speech thus;

All speeches contain at least three parts:

An Introduction

A Body

A conclusion

In the **Introduction**, you state the topic of your speech. You tell the audience the main points of your speech. In other words, you say what you are going to speak about.

In the **Body**, you speak about each point in detail. For each point you must give the audience some evidence or information that will help explain and support each point. The Body is the longest of the three parts.

In the **Conclusion**, you should summarise the main points of your speech, and emphasise what you want the audience to remember.

Making a Simple Outline

An outline is a way to organise your ideas logically and clearly. Without making an outline, your speech will probably lack structure, and so be difficult to understand. By using a presentation outline, you can "see" the structure of your speech. In addition, it can also serve as your speaking script.

The following presentation outline is a very simple way to organise your material into a speech format. If you have time, you should look at the detailed speech outline. When making an outline, you should not write full sentences, but just **key words and phrases**.

1. Introduction

What is the topic of your speech?

Why should the audience listen to your speech ?

What will your main points be?

2. The body

What are your main points and ideas (sub-topics)?

What is your supporting evidence and information (sub-sub-topics)?

3. The conclusion

What were the main points of your speech, and what do you want the audience to remember?

Note that the presentation outline is not a word-for-word script for the speech but an outline of ideas to serve as an organisational and presentation tool for the speaker.

3.2 Preparing the Introduction

A good introduction should capture the audience's attention, bring them together as a group and motivate them to listen attentively to the speaker. Here are some tips to help you do just that.

Expressions that can signal introductions;

Shall we start? May I have your attention, please? Let's get started!

Before we start, let me remind you of our schedule.

Let me first introduce myself briefly.

It is a great pleasure for me to be here with you today.

The title of my talk is...I will be proposing some solutions...

We can cover those points in about 20 minutes.

This will leave us 10 minutes for questions before the coffee break, if there is any

Let me start with an anecdote that will illustrate my topic.

Who has not experienced/been affected by...?

Have you ever wondered how much time we waste when doing....?

Did you know that...? You will be surprised to hear that...

Let me report the words of our chairman.

3.2 Organising the Body of your Speech

The body of your speech contains the detailed information that you intend to convey to your audience. You can begin by Formulating an Organizing Question (**Inherent questions**). You then go on to assess the information you have gathered, and identify the ideas and information needed to develop your topic.

Always endeavour to divide the Speech into Key Ideas such as these;

- Topical
- Chronological
- Spatial
- Causal
- Pro-con
- Mnemonic or gimmick
- Problem-solution

The above mentioned organisational patterns are explained thus;

• **Topical** – topic divides itself into subdivisions. In topical order, your speech topic can also be divided into subsections, but talking about them in a logical way does not depend on time order or space order. If you were explaining about bias in the work place, for example, your main points could be the following:

- (1) Racial bias
- (2) Gender bias
- (3) Age bias
- (4) Physical disability bias

It does not matter which of the four main points you discuss first – they are all equally important. They do not depend on a time order or a space order to make sense. They are all subsections of the speech topic

• **Chronological patterns** – follows a time sequence (periods of time or processes) When you discuss your main points in the time order in which they occurred, you are using a chronological pattern.

• **Spatial** – divides into geography or physical proximity. Space or spatial order is used for describing things such as objects, organisations, or places

• **Causal** – explores the causes and effects of the topic or vice versa; you need to use causal order especially when you are trying to convince your audience that “this” was caused by “that”, or that “this” was the result of “that”. You use this pattern all the time in your everyday conversations:

Pro-con – presents both sides of controversial issues

• **Mnemonic or gimmick** – organizes a speech according to a memory device

• **Problem-Solution: This organisational pattern is also one that you use regularly in your everyday conversations. “I see a problem. This is what we should do to solve it?”**

Problem: Township children who start school in urban areas are at a disadvantage because their English language skills are not well developed.

Solution: Providing these children with extra English lessons would alleviate this problem.

You also need to be careful about the words you select to express the information contained in the body of your speech. You may need to ask yourself these questions:

Does your audience need a dictionary to decipher your speeches?

Do you write your speeches with encyclopaedic diction?

Do you draw your speechwriting inspiration from legal documents?

Technical writing, essays, financial reports, and legal writings all have their place — but **none of them belong in your speechwriting**.

Speeches which use **simple, conversational language** are more enjoyable to listen to, easier to follow, and more likely to be remembered.

When involved in public speaking, you usually think about getting content from your expertise and experiences. However, to add the human touch to any presentation, consider including conversation. For example, a little boy went to his mother with a question. Since the mother was busy on the computer, she replied, "Why don't you go ask your dad?" The boy's response: "I don't really care to know that much about it." Although this is a joke, my guess is that the conversation is based on an actual dialogue between mother and child

With this objective of looking for real conversation for your next keynote presentation, have paper and pen always available to record key sentences. Listen to other people's conversation. Write down clever sentences of people you talk to. People will be flattered if you say, "Do you mind if I take a moment to jot that down? That was so clever!" You might find just the right place for it in your next speech. Effective presentation skills come from a variety of sources as well as presentation skills delivery. Telling about a conversation you were involved with or overheard will also help you to deal with stage fright since it is a story that's comfortable for you to tell.

Conversation is not just an important part of interpersonal skills; conversation can become an integral part of your presentation.

3.4 Preparing the Conclusion

Audiences tend to put a lot of emphasis on their first and final impressions of a speaker (technically known as the primacy/recency effect). Because of this, it is

very important to finish your speech with something great. If you have ever seen a stand-up comedian perform, you will find that they save their best jokes for the end of their set, for this very reason.

To end your speech with impact, you can use a lot of the devices such as: quotations, jokes, anecdotes, audience involvement, questions, etc.

One of the best ways to conclude a speech is to tie the conclusion into the introduction. For example, you might have begun your speech by telling a suspenseful story that relates to your topic, but save the end of the story for the very end of your speech. Or refer back to the same quotation. Or refer to the joke that you told. Any of these strategies will give your speech a sense of connection and closure, and will leave the audience with a great final impression.

If you are delivering a persuasive speech, you might try a slightly different ending because your goal is not just to be remembered, it's to inspire people to take action. One way to do this is to issue a call-to-action. This means that you specifically tell your audience what actions you expect them to take related to your speech. Another way to inspire action with the conclusion of your speech is to appeal to their emotions. If you create a desired emotion within your audience, and then leave them with that emotion, they will take that emotion with them. For example: If you leave them feeling guilty about not-recycling by painting a bleak picture about the state of the Earth that their grandchildren will live in, then they might recall that emotion the next time they choose not to recycle and alter their behaviour.

Leaving a strong final impression is the most important aspect of the conclusion, but there are some other necessary steps as well:

1. Making a smooth transition from the body of the speech to the conclusion is crucial. To do this, use a signpost known as a concluding statement. The most common concluding statements include: "in conclusion", "I leave you with", "finally today", and other similarly obvious endings.

2. Just as it is important to preview a speech in the introduction, it is important to summarize the speech in the conclusion. The more the audience hears your main points, the more likely they are to remember them. By previewing, discussing, and summarizing your main points, your audience will be exposed to them at least three times during your speech.

A good conclusion should be about 5-10% of the total speech length. Anything

shorter than 5% means that the ending has come too abruptly. Anything more than 10%, and the audience may become restless. This brings up another point: If it sounds like a conclusion, you need to finish your speech in a reasonable amount of time. The conclusion is not the place to add new material.

The point being made here is that the beginning and conclusion of your talk are actually the most important parts. This is where you catch the attention and leave them with one final thought. Your closing moment is the main influential factor to persuade your listeners to do what you want them to do.

Here are some more suggestions for writing the conclusion of your speech;

3. An effective way to conclude a speech is to review your points and connect all to your introduction text. Restate the most important point of your speech. Connect it with the central idea in the introduction lines. For example state it in other words or use the rhetorical technique of repetition by repeating a few important key phrases or words.

4. In a speech conclusion you could briefly recap the main speech topics. Summarize the major supporting points or paragraphs. It helps your audience to absorb and retain all information, your central message and you make it easy for them to follow the logical steps you have informed them about.

5. Conclusion writing can also be explained as offering the so-called *moral of the story*:

- Restate the problem and provide your solution in two sentences
- Show a benefit or valuable application
- Give the ultimate answer on some big question or issue you proposed earlier or at the opening of your speech presentation
- Offer them 'how to do it' steps; visualize a course, sequence or time path of action

6. Reaffirm the connection between the needs and interests of the listeners and your speech topics.

7. Close with a dramatic but appropriate statement based on emotional appeals. Examples of this kind of a speech conclusion could be:

- Finish with a heart-felt human interest story or personal experience anecdote

- Connect the public speaking topics with the everyday feelings and lives of your public speaking audience
- Recite a couple of lines from a nostalgic song, poem or quotation from a historical speech and refer to its similarities
- State a slogan - transform your central motto, idea or principle into an easy one to remember.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Persuasive speech in public speaking is the art of using words to influence an audience. It involves directing, guiding or appealing to the thinking, logic or emotions of an individual or an audience. Since the goal of persuasion is to help the listeners to accept the idea, attitude or action being presented by the speaker, the intelligent organization of the structure of the speech cannot be overemphasized. This organizational structure is often accomplished by the speaker's use of argumentation, rationalization, symbolism's, and how the speaker presents supportive information.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, you have learnt what organizing your speech is all about, and the important techniques of developing a good organizational structure for your speech. You also learnt that a persuasive public speech needs to **convince, to change the minds of your audience with logical thought and sound reasoning**. You were also informed that if you are going to change the mind of your audience through persuading them, you need to know how to implement the techniques of organizing your persuasive material intelligently.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

(1) Say whether the following statements are true or false.

- | | True | False |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| (a) Clear organization is usually less important in speaking than in writing. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- (b) Speakers who present well-organised speeches are more credible than speakers whose speeches are poorly organized.
- (c) Chronological organization is used primarily for informative speeches.
- (d) Speeches arranged in time order follow a spatial sequence.
- (e) Transitions are one of the forms of supporting materials used in a speech.
- (f) “We’ve dealt with the problem. Now let’s consider the solution” is an example of a transition.
- (g) It is seldom appropriate to discuss the importance of your topic in the introduction to your speech.
- (h) Establishing goodwill is more important in the introduction to a persuasive speech than it is in the introduction to an informative speech.
- (i) In the conclusion to a speech, it is

inappropriate to refer back to the ideas mentioned in the introduction.

- (j) In the outline of your speech, you
identify the main points by Roman numerals and sub points by capital letters.

Questions 2 to 10 are multiple-choice questions. Please make sure that you do them because your examination paper also consists of multiple-choice questions.

2. What is the most important reason for limiting the main points in a speech?
- (1) There is no time to include supporting materials if there are too many main points.
 - (2) It is difficult to balance the time given to each point if there are too many main points.
 - (3) It is difficult for the audience to keep track of more than five main points.
 - (4) There is usually not enough time to develop more than three to five main points.
3. Deciding on an organizational pattern for your main points depends on
- (1) your topic, your purpose, and your audience
 - (2) your topic and your credibility
 - (3) your topic and your audience
 - (4) your topic, your audience, and your support materials
4. Which organizational pattern would be the most effective for arranging the main points in a speech with the specific purpose: "To inform my audience about the steps involved in a successful job interview"?

- (1) causal
 - (2) topical
 - (3) spatial
 - (4) chronological.
5. When main ideas follow a directional sequence, they are organized in
- (1) causal order.
 - (2) topical order
 - (3) spatial order
 - (4) geographical order.
6. Which organizational pattern would be the most effective for attaining the main points of a speech with the specific purpose: “To inform my audience about the three major types of television programmes”?
- (1) analytical
 - (2) topical
 - (3) spatial
 - (4) problem-solution.
7. Here are the main points for a persuasive speech about the depletion of the ozone layer.
- (1) The depletion of the ozone layer has reached crisis proportions in Nigeria.
 - (2) Solving the problem requires that the government immediately ban all aerosol sprays.

These main points are arranged inorder

- (1) chronological order

- (2) topical
 - (3) spatial
 - (4) problem-solution.
8. All the following are purposes of a speech introduction except.....
- (1) gaining the audience's attention
 - (2) providing examples to support the main point
 - (3) introducing the topic of the speech
 - (4) enhancing the speaker's credibility.
9. Which of the following would you most likely find in a speech introduction?
- (1) a transition
 - (2) a call to action
 - (3) a startling statement
 - (4) a lengthy quotation.
10. In his persuasive speech, Jerry concluded with the following statement: So the next time you receive an e-mail message announcing a blood donation week on campus, decide that this will be the time for you to get involved – to do something that could save a life.

What method of concluding his speech did Jerry use?

- (1) an appeal to action
- (2) a hypothetical example
- (3) a summary
- (4) reference to the introduction.

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UNIT 3 PREPARING THE DELIVERY

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Verbal Behaviour.
 - 3.2 Vocal Behaviour
 - 3.3 Visual Behaviour
 - 3.4 Overcoming Speech Apprehension
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

No one is born possessing public speaking skills. Even the most noted speakers in history had to learn how to deliver an effective speech. People become good public speakers by learning the skills of effective speech delivery. What's more, these skills are not reserved for the select few. They are skills that anyone can learn.

Conversational quality (in public speaking) refers to a manner of utterance that resembles the spontaneity and informality of relaxed personal conversation, or conversational tone in the delivery. Do not confuse a conversational quality with a conversation. They are not the same thing. A speech is more formal than a conversation. Nevertheless, a public speaker should try to make the listeners feel that he or she is talking **with** them, as in a conversation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit, you should be able to

1. creatively choose and use language appropriately in speech delivery
2. overcome speech apprehension and
3. use the various methods of delivering your speech.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Verbal Behaviour

Verbal behaviour refers to the words we speak. It is very important, in public speaking, to pay attention to the words you speak. Think carefully about the words before you speak them. Ask yourself “Is there a better way of saying this?” Listen to words others use that explain an idea better than you could have. Study the following explanations of the figures of speech that can make you “Speak vividly”.

Alliteration is repeating the first letter or sound of words that are close together. “John is cool, calm and collected”.

Antithesis is putting contrasting ideas together. See these examples:

“Man proposes, God disposes”, “Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice”,

“Many are called, but few are chosen”.

Hyperbole is a deliberate exaggeration used for effect, as in the example in the prescribed book – nobody is really bigger than a house!

Personification is to give something non-human characteristics. The constitution is not alive, but saying that it will “live forever” vividly conveys the speaker’s idea of permanence.

A **rhetorical question** is one to which no answer is required. It is used for effect – for example, to attract the audience’s attention in the introduction to a speech.

3.2 Vocal Behaviour

This refers to how you sound when you deliver your speech – rather than with the words you use. It explains how and why volume, rate, pauses, pitch, articulation and pronunciation are important factors in the way your speech comes across to your listeners.

3.3 Visual Behaviour

This section is concerned with nonverbal communication – what the audience sees (rather than what they hear) from the time you get up to make your speech until you sit down again. Remember that all nonverbal behaviour must complement rather than contradict your verbal message. Note the following nonverbal elements of public speaking:

1. personal appearance
2. posture
3. gestures
4. body movements
5. facial expression
6. eye contact.

3.4 Overcoming Speech Apprehension

Communication or Speech apprehension is the fear associated with communicating with another person. According to research, 31 percent of school students experience some level of communication apprehension. A feeling of fear or nervousness experienced before a speech can actually give a competitive edge when

the speaker comes to understand this and tackle the fears associated with public speaking. It is important not to try to eliminate fears associated with speaking - rather, it is helpful to take action to manage and control the anxiety.

These factors influence whether or not communication anxiety is present, and to what degree: the degree of evaluation, that is, what the subject perceives to be at stake, whether or not the subject feels subordinate to their audience, how conspicuous the subject feels, the degree of unpredictability in the situation, the degree of dissimilarity between the speaker and the audience; memories of prior failures or successes, and the presence or lack of communication skills are all factors impacting the degree of communication anxiety suffered in a given situation; also known as "stage fright."

Dealing with Presentation Fears

Typically, fears of public speaking fall into two categories: fears about the audience (i.e. what if they don't like me, they'll have heard all this before, they'll walk out, etc.) and fears about ourselves (i.e. I'll forget what I have to say; I'll freeze; I'll make a mistake, etc.). It is helpful to develop strategies to be psychologically prepared for making a speech.

Planning the Design

Two vital aspects of successful public speaking are to define your purpose and to learn as much as you can about the audience.

Defining Purpose

Generally, work-related presentations fall into four different categories. When the purpose is to:

- stimulate the audience, the presentation is geared toward reinforcing and intensifying feelings already present in the listener;
- inform the audience, the presentation provides data or information;
- persuade the audience, the speaker expresses a viewpoint and works to prove it;

- activate the audience, the presentation is geared towards asking the audience to take action.

Audience Analysis

The more you know about your audience, the more you can target your presentation to the specific group of people to whom you will be speaking. Try to find out about the audience before the presentation.

Remember that every good speech has an opening, a body, and a close. Some authorities on presentation skill suggest that for every one minute of speaking, one hour be spent preparing. And of course, part of preparation is the actual construction of the speech.

The Opening

Your opening should be designed to grab the listeners' attention, give your audience a reason for listening to the remainder of your speech, and smoothly lead into the body of your presentation. It is advisable to practise your opening until you have committed it to memory.

The Body

Research indicates that organized information is easier to understand and remember than unorganized information. Therefore, in constructing the body of a speech, it is important to identify the main points and organize them. There are different ways to organize information, including chronologically, categorically, by cause and effect, and by problem and solution. Main points must be stated, supported, and restated.

The Close

The closing must be the logical conclusion of your opening and overall purpose. It should be stimulating, memorable, and well planned. Memorization of the closing is very important to bring together the contents of the speech in a compelling way.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Most people are nervous about public speaking. When delivering a presentation, it may help to remember that your audience wants you to succeed. Many people would rather listen to a confident, dynamic speaker than one who is boring or unprepared. This is why the way you deliver a speech or presentation is as important as the

research and preparation you put into it. Even interesting speeches will not hold people's attention if they are delivered without expression or enthusiasm from the speaker. Almost everyone is capable of giving an interesting speech or presentation with some practice and a few basic techniques.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have discussed the three elements of delivery which are your style or use of language, the way you sound, and the way you look. We also presented guidelines for overcoming speech apprehension, as well as some methods of delivering a speech. Interestingly, everyone is capable of giving a good speech or presentation with some practice and a few basic techniques.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the difference between vocal behaviour and visual behaviour.
2. Mention and discuss any three figures of speech that can make you speak vividly.
3. Discuss any three ways a speaker can overcome presentation fears.

Questions 4 to 10 are multiple-choice questions. Please, make sure you do them because your examination paper contains a large number of multiple-choice questions.

4. Changing your pitch to draw attention to a particular word is called

 - (1) inflection.
 - (2) spontaneity.
 - (3) volume.
 - (4) variety.

5. In how many of the following situations will the personal appearance of the speaker influence the audience?
- (a) A politician presenting a report-back speech to voters.
 - (b) A chairperson giving a financial report to the board of directors.
 - (c) A professor giving a lecture to students.
 - (d) A student welcoming exchange students from Australia.
- (1) one
 - (2) two
 - (3) three
 - (4) four.
6. In which of the following situations would a speaker **most** likely read from a manuscript?
- (1) A farewell speech to an employee who is retiring from the company.
 - (2) A speech delivered at the graduation ceremony of a university.
 - (3) A welcoming speech to new members of staff.
 - (4) A speech on the activities of the local soccer club.
7. Which **two** of the following statements about extemporaneous delivery are NOT correct?
- Speaking extemporaneously.....
- (a) allows for more control over language than speaking from memory.
 - (b) encourages a more conversational quality than speaking from a manuscript.
 - (c) requires less preparation than speaking from memory.

(d) allows the speaker to better adapt the speech to meet audience's needs.

(1) (c) and (d)

(2) (a) and (b)

(3) (b) and (d)

(4) (a) and (c).

8. In a speech to encourage matriculants to register for a course in Communication Studies, the speaker used, but did not explain, the words **semiotics** and **rhetoric**.

The speaker's language was not appropriate to the

(1) occasion

(2) topic

(3) audience

(4) setting.

9. As a speaker, you would probably choose words such as **liberation** and **freedom fighter** if you wanted to.....

(1) arouse the audience's emotions.

(2) come across as impartial.

(3) enhance your credibility

(4) explain a constitutional right.

10. “We must put an end to war, or war will put an end to us” is an example of
- (1) metaphor
 - (2) antithesis
 - (3) alliteration
 - (4) exaggeration.

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UNIT 4 PERSUASIVE SPEECHES

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Attitudes, Beliefs, Values and Behaviour
 - 3.2 Developing your Persuasive Speech
 - 3.2.1 Choosing a topic
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 - 3.3.1 Logos: Reasoning
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 - 3.4 Organising your Persuasive Speech
 - 3.4.1 Monroe's Motivated Sequence
 - 3.5 Evaluating Speeches
 - 3.5.1 Principles of Speech Evaluation
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding units, we have attempted to expose you to the new knowledge and skills you require in order to persuade rather than inform people. For example, how to develop convincing arguments and evidence, how to ensure your credibility, and how to appeal to emotions and reason. In this unit, we shall be studying the techniques of writing persuasive speeches.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. prepare and deliver your own persuasive speeches, and
2. state the underlying theoretical principles involved in writing persuasive speeches.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Attitudes, Beliefs, Values and Behaviour

Attitudes, values and beliefs are related in the sense that your values (your concept of good and bad, right and wrong) and your beliefs (your acceptance of something as true or false) will determine your response or attitude (like or dislike) towards it. Suppose you believe that the following statement is true: It is good for an adult to have a job he or she does for a living (belief), and one of your values in life is that everyone should earn enough money to live comfortably. You would then have a favourable attitude towards a public speaker whose purpose it is to persuade the audience to take a course in public speaking as a veritable source of income.

Very often, your motivation to act on an issue is prompted by your values, beliefs and attitudes towards it. If you believe strongly that women have the right to limit the size of their family, then you are more likely to be persuaded to sign a petition that asks local social services to provide contraceptives on demand. Or, if you value freedom, you may be persuaded to join a protest march because journalists have been arrested for stating their opinion in print. But, then it may interest you to know that in many instances, a call to action does not always work. A persuasive speaker may change someone's attitude towards a topic, but that does not necessarily mean that they will change their behaviour. In Nigeria, for example, many people have adopted

a positive attitude toward working in culturally diverse organizations, but they still prefer to socialize with people from their own group. So, we would be right to say that, while their attitude has changed, their behaviour has not.

3.2 Developing your Persuasive Speech

3.2.1 Choosing a topic

It is important to emphasize the selection of a topic about which you feel strongly and about which you have a reasonable amount of information. If you do not choose such a topic, it will be difficult for you to sound convincing. Note the fact that you can obtain interesting and appropriate support material in the media on most issues that are being debated. A word of caution about support material from the media: it too can be biased, so make sure that you think critically about it before you use it.

3.2.2 Arriving at a Purpose

In persuasive speeches, writing down a proposition as well as a specific purpose helps to keep you focused on exactly what it is you are trying to persuade people to think about or do. Your proposition is similar to your specific purpose in that it narrows down your topic. It is different from your specific purpose in that it only states what it is that you want your audience to agree with. It does not state the conditions for agreeing. For example: **It is safer to travel by air than by car** is the basic statement (proposition) you want your listeners to agree with. But, in your specific purpose, you would add the conditions: **At the end of my speech the audience should be able to state three reasons why it is safer to travel by air than by car.** While you are preparing your speech, you should constantly keep your proposition in mind. Your most important task in this section is to distinguish between propositions of fact, propositions of value, and propositions of policy. These are defined as follows;

Proposition of fact – the statement is either true or false.

Proposition of policy – the statement suggests a specific action.

Proposition of value – the statement asks for a judgment about something.

3.3 Persuasive Strategies

Whenever you read an argument, you must ask yourself, "is this persuasive? And if so, to whom?" There are several ways to appeal to an audience. Among them are appealing to logos, ethos and pathos. These appeals are prevalent in almost all arguments.

3.3.1 Logos: Reasoning

The Greek word logos is the basis for the English word logic. Logos is a broader idea than formal logic--the highly symbolic and mathematical logic that you might study in a philosophy course. Logos refers to any attempt to appeal to the intellect, the general meaning of "logical argument." Everyday arguments rely heavily on ethos and pathos, but academic arguments rely more on logos. Yes, these arguments will call upon the writers' credibility and try to touch the audience's emotions, but there will more often than not be logical chains of reasoning supporting all claims.

3.3.2 Pathos: Feeling

Pathos is related to the words pathetic, sympathy, and empathy. Whenever you accept a claim based on how it makes you feel without fully analyzing the rationale behind the claim, you are acting on pathos. They may be any emotions: love, fear, patriotism, guilt, hate or joy. Majority of arguments in the popular press are heavily dependent on pathetic appeals. The more people react without full consideration for the WHY, the more effective an argument can be. Although the pathetic appeal can be manipulative, it is the cornerstone of moving people to action. Many arguments are able to persuade people logically, but the apathetic audience may not follow through on the call to action. Appeals to pathos touch a nerve and compel people to not only listen, but to also take the next step and act in the world.

3.3.3 Ethos: Source Credibility

Ethos is related to the English word ethics and refers to the credibility or trustworthiness of the speaker/writer. Ethos is an effective persuasive strategy because when we believe that the speaker does not intend to do us harm, we are more willing to listen to what s/he has to say. For example, when a trusted doctor gives you advice, you may not understand all of the medical reasoning behind the advice, but you nonetheless follow the directions because you believe that the doctor knows what s/he is talking about. Likewise, when a judge comments on legal precedents, audiences tend to listen because it is the job of a judge to know the nature of past legal cases.

These strategies are further illustrated graphically as follows:

To Appeal to Logic (logos)	To Develop Ethos	To Appeal to Emotion (pathos)
Theoretical, abstract language Literal and historical analogies Definitions Factual data and statistics Quotations Citations from experts and authorities Informed opinions	Language appropriate to audience and subject Restrained, sincere, fair minded presentation Appropriate level of vocabulary Correct grammar	Vivid, concrete language Emotionally loaded language Connotative meanings Emotional examples Vivid descriptions Narratives of emotional events Emotional tone Figurative language
	Effect	
Evokes a cognitive, rational response	Demonstrates author's reliability, competence, and respect for the audience's ideas and values through reliable and appropriate use of support and general accuracy	Evokes an emotional response

3.4 Organising your Persuasive Speech

3.4.1 Monroe's Motivated Sequence

One of the best ways to organize a persuasive speech is with a method called **Monroe's Motivated Sequence**. It is utilized in many television commercials and is probably the most effective way to get people to take action. Well, it's probably not as effective as forcing someone to do something at gunpoint, but the motivated sequence is much more ethical, and shouldn't get you arrested. If you need to give a persuasive speech for school, using Monroe's Motivated Sequence, you should first consider a couple of things when choosing your topic in order to be as persuasive as possible. First, choose a topic that your audience members will be able to do in the near future. For example, "wear your seat belt on the way home from class today" or "give blood at the blood drive this Friday". The sooner your audience can do what you ask, the more likely they will be to actually do it. The second thing to consider when choosing a topic is make it as relevant to the audience's lives as possible. It is meaningless to persuade your audience to quit smoking if only a few of your audience members actually smoke.

Monroe's Motivated Sequence has 5 steps that must be presented in this order:

1. **The Attention Step:** This is the equivalent to the introduction section of an informative speech or five-paragraph essay. You open with a question (preferably rhetorical), a quote from someone famous or respected, a story (preferably true), or startling statistics. You would then give your audience a reason to listen, and then preview your speech.
2. **The Need Step:** You need to clearly show that the problem exists in the lives of your audience members. Consequently, you need to know your audience as well as possible. The problem also needs to be stated in negative terms and credible evidence used to demonstrate that this is a real problem. Students frequently skimp on this step because they mistakenly believe the audience members already see the problem as they do. Don't make this mistake. Your audience is probably much less aware of the problem than you are.
3. **The Satisfaction Step:** So, now that you have established that there is a problem, the next thing you do is provide a workable, reasonable plan that allows your audience to solve the problem. Remember, the easier the solution, the more likely your audience will do it. The whole point of your speech is to get your audience to take action, so if your solution is too hard or time consuming, there is less chance they will do it. In this step, you also need to address any objections your audience will have to do what you propose. Anticipate these objections and address them now. For instance, if you are

- trying to persuade your audience to wear their seat belts, one objection they might have is that they do not feel they need to belt-up if they are not going very far. Bring it up and provide statistics on traffic fatalities that occur close to home.
4. **The Visualization Step:** In this step, you need to create a visual image of your audience taking action. There are two ways to do this: show your audience members how great the world would be if they do what you ask, or show them how terrible the world will be if they do not, or both. You have appealed to your audience's logical side by using statistics and number in the previous steps, now you can appeal to their emotions and desires.
 5. **The Action Step:** This would be similar to the conclusion portion of an informative speech. You signal the end of your speech, you recap the need, the satisfaction, and the visualization steps, and then you ask them to take action. It may feel weird, but tell them exactly what you want them to do now.

Remember, in order to be persuasive, make sure to accomplish these five steps in order. Also, be sure your topic is as relevant to your audience as possible, and use sound research to show the need for your audience to do as you ask

3.5 Evaluating Speeches

We work hard at preparing for the effective delivery of a speech, but preparation and delivery are not the end of the speechmaking process. We also have to evaluate our own and other people's speeches so that we can constantly learn from our mistakes (and from the "good things" we did) and improve our speeches in the future.

3.5.1 Principles of Speech Evaluation

Studying other speakers is a critical skill. The ability to analyse a speech will accelerate the growth of any speaker.

The principles of speech evaluation examines different aspects of speech presentation analysis. Here, you will learn how to study a speech and how to deliver an effective speech evaluation.

The Most Important Thing to Analyse: The Speech Objectives

Knowing the speaker's objective is critical to analysing the speech, and should certainly influence how you study it.

- What is the speaker's goal? Is it to **educate**, to **motivate**, to **persuade**, or to **entertain**?
- What is the primary message being delivered?
- Why is **this person** delivering **this speech**? Are they the right person?
- **Was the objective achieved?**

The Audience and Context for the Speech

A speaker will need to use different techniques to connect with an audience of 1500 than they would with an audience of 15. Similarly, different techniques will be applied when communicating with teenagers as opposed to communicating with corporate leaders.

- **Where** and **when** is the speech being delivered?
- What are the **key demographic features of the audience**? Technical? Students? Elderly? Athletes? Business leaders?
- How large is the audience?
- In addition to the live audience, is there an **external target audience**? (e.g. on the Internet or mass media)

Speech Content and Structure

The content of the speech should be selected and organized to achieve the primary speech objective. Focus is important — extraneous information can weaken an otherwise effective argument.

Before the Speech

- Were there **other speakers before this one**? Were their messages similar, opposed, or unrelated?
- How was the speaker **introduced**? Was it appropriate?
- Did the introduction establish why the audience should listen to **this speaker with this topic at this time**?
- What body language was demonstrated by the speaker as they approached the speaking area? Body language at this moment will often indicate their **level of confidence**.

The Speech Opening

Due to the primacy effect, words, body language, and visuals in the speech opening are all critical to speaking success.

- Was a hook used effectively to draw the audience into the speech? Or did the speaker open with a dry “*It’s great to be here today.*”
- Did the speech open with a **story**? A **joke**? A startling **statistic**? A **controversial statement**? A **powerful visual**?
- Did the speech opening clearly establish the intent of the presentation?
- **Was the opening memorable?**

The Speech Body

- Was the presentation **focused**? i.e. Did all arguments, stories, anecdotes relate back to the primary objective?
- Were examples or statistics provided to **support the arguments**?
- Were **metaphors and symbolism** use to improve understanding?
- Was the speech **organized logically**? Was it easy to follow?
- Did the speaker **bridge** smoothly from one part of the presentation to the next?

The Speech Conclusion

Like the opening, the words, body language, and visuals in the speech conclusion are all critical to speaking success. This is due to the **recency effect**.

- Was the conclusion **concise**?
- Was the conclusion **memorable**?
- If appropriate, was there a **call-to-action**?

Delivery Skills and Techniques

Delivery skills are like a gigantic toolbox — the best speakers know precisely when to use every tool and for what purpose.

Enthusiasm and Connection to the Audience

- Was the speaker **enthusiastic**? How can you tell?
- Was there **audience interaction**? Was it effective?
- Was the message *you-* and *we-focused*, or was it *I-* and *me-focused*?

Humour

- Was humour used?
- Was it **safe and appropriate** given the audience?
- Were **appropriate pauses** used before and after the punch lines, phrases, or words?
- Was it **relevant to the speech**?

Visual Aids

- Were they designed effectively?
- Did they **complement speech arguments**?
- Was the use of visual aids **timed well** with the speaker's words?
- Did they **add energy** to the presentation or remove it?
- Were they **simple and easy to understand**?
- Were they **easy to see**? e.g. large enough
- Would an **additional visual aid** help to convey the message?

Use of Stage Area

- Did the speaker make appropriate use of the speaking area?

Physical – Gestures and Eye Contact

- Did the speaker's **posture** display confidence and poise?
- Were gestures **natural, timely, and complementary**?
- Were gestures **easy to see**?
- Does the speaker have any **distracting mannerisms**?
- Was **eye contact** effective in connecting the speaker to the whole audience?

Vocal Variety

- Was the speaker **easy to hear**?
- Were **loud and soft** variations used appropriately?
- Was the **pace** varied? Was it slow enough overall to be understandable?
- Were **pauses** used to aid understandability, heighten excitement, or provide drama?

Language

- Was the language **appropriate** for the audience?
- Did the speaker **articulate** clearly?
- Were **sentences short** and easy to understand?
- Was **technical jargon** or unnecessarily complex language used?
- What **rhetorical devices** were used? e.g. repetition, alliteration, the rule of three, etc.

Intangibles

Sometimes, a technically sound speech can still miss the mark. Likewise, technical deficiencies can sometimes be overcome to produce a must-see presentation. The intangibles are impossible to list, but here are a few questions to consider:

- How did the speech make you **feel**?
- Were you **convinced**?
- Would you want to listen to this speaker again?
- Were there any **original ideas** or techniques?

Evaluating speeches takes time and practice. Do not be put off by the fact that you will probably find that, the first few times, you cannot answer all the questions. Like all the other skills we learn in life, constant practice makes the process easier and easier. So try it – not once, but many times. You will be surprised at how quickly you learn to spot the good and poor elements of the speeches you listen to – whether they are sermons in church, presentations given by your colleagues at work, or the speeches of politicians or other professionals.

Self Assessment Exercise

Discuss the steps you will use to prepare a speech on “The NYSC programme should be scrapped”.

4.0 CONCLUSION

There are lots of things to consider and understand prior to writing a persuasive speech. In order to influence others, you have to understand the subject, and understand the audience's perception of the subject. Moving around also helps because it enables all of the audience to get an emotional response. Indeed, persuasive speeches require that you develop a written piece of work that includes the basic introduction of your topic, the arguments for your topic, and the arguments against your topic. You should always have supportive evidence developed from sources, and even be prepared to discuss your topic with the audience after the persuasive speech.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we discussed the way of changing or reinforcing attitudes, beliefs, values and behaviour. We also examined the development of a persuasive speech as regards choosing a topic and choosing a purpose. Meanwhile, three persuasive strategies were postulated: logos, pathos, and ethos. Finally, we studied Monroe's motivated sequence, and how to evaluate a speech.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. Explain the terms **attitudes**, **values** and **beliefs** and give your own example of each.

Questions 2 to 10 are multiple-choice questions. Please make sure that you do them because your examination paper consists largely of multiple-choice questions.

2. Which one of the following is an example of persuasive speaking?
 - (1) Reporting the results of a recent investigation into the film industry.

- (2) Trying to change the audience's attitude to generic medicines.
 - (3) Introducing a speaker who is to give a speech on a controversial topic.
 - (4) Demonstrating how to fill in an election ballot.
3. The three types of proposition in persuasive speeches are.....
- (1) propositions of opinion, fact and policy.
 - (2) propositions of opinion, belief and policy.
 - (3) propositions of fact, value and policy
 - (4) propositions of opinion, attitude and value.
4. "To persuade my audience that the army should be used to help combat crime in urban areas" is a specific purpose statement on a question of...
- (1) fact
 - (2) attitude.
 - (3) value.
 - (4) policy.
5. A persuasive speech on a question ofargues for or against a particular course of action
- (1) fact.
 - (2) need.
 - (3) value.
 - (4) policy.

6. Using vivid language to help listeners see the benefits of the action your are recommending is important in thestep in Monroe's motivate sequence.
- (1) attention.
 - (2) motivation.
 - (3) satisfaction.
 - (4) visualization.
7. The Greek word, logos is the basis for the English word
- (1) legion
 - (2) logics
 - (3) pathos
 - (4) ethics
8. Which of the following is a way to enhance your credibility in a persuasive speech?
- (1) establishing common ground with your audience
 - (2) deliberately not mentioning your personal knowledge of the topic.
 - (3) relating the topic to your audience in the introduction
 - (4) insisting that your views are right because you are an expert.
9. What kind of reasoning is used in the following statement?
- Our soccer team lost the League because we have an incompetent coach.***

- (1) reasoning by comparison
- (2) emotional reasoning
- (3) causal reasoning
- (4) criteria-to-application reasoning.

10. What kind of reasoning is used in the following statement?

These new electronic tools are just like the tools you have been using before. The only difference is that they are quicker and will make the job easier to complete.

- (1) reasoning by comparison
- (2) emotional reasoning
- (3) causal reasoning
- (4) inductive reasoning.

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MODULE 3; Listening in the Public Speaking Context

- Unit 1 Hearing and Listening
- Unit 2 Types of Listening
- Unit 3 Hindrances to Effective Listening
- Unit 4 Techniques of Becoming a Better Listener
- Unit 5 Listening in Persuasive Situations.

UNIT 1 Hearing and Listening

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Definition of Hearing
 - 3.2 What is listening?
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

When people speak, we may hear the words coming out of their mouths but we may not really be listening to what is being said. You may think your acting skills are great but people can tell quickly that your ears are working but your mind is not

engaged. Listening skills are an important part of public speaking. Listening is an important part of communication. Indeed, the art of listening is a skill. How good is your listening skill? There is no doubt that much of what we learn everyday is a result of listening. You can see why this is an essential skill for public speaking success.

Listening thus involves...

Hearing

Understanding

Judging

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of studying this unit, you should be able to:

1. distinguish clearly between hearing and listening
2. identify the likely obstacles to effective listening and
3. practise the skills for effective listening

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Definition of Hearing

There is a world of difference between hearing and listening. A hearing specialist may, through therapy and devices, enable sounds to become more audible to the human ear. But these kinds of actions have no influence on a person's listening ability. Hearing is a physical process. Listening is a cognitive and emotional engagement.

Hearing is simply the act of perceiving sounds with the ear. If you are not hearing-impaired, hearing simply happens. You can hear someone speak without listening to the words. Hearing defines only the physical measurement of the sound waves that are transmitted to the ear and into the brain where they are processed into audible information. Hearing occurs with or without your consent. Indeed, hearing is such a

passive quality that it occurs even while you sleep. When you merely hear someone's words but are not listening to what is being said, it can lead to misunderstandings, missed opportunities and resentment.

3.2 What is Listening?

Listening goes far beyond your natural hearing process. It means paying attention to the words that are being spoken with the intention of understanding the other person. Your personal perceptions and prejudices can affect the quality of your listening skills. For example, if you feel you are better off (financially, intellectually, socially) than the person you are listening to, you may dismiss much of what s/he is saying because of your perceived superiority. Everyone wants to be heard and understood, but at one time or another, most people don't listen and fail to understand the meaning of another person's words. It's a fundamental human need to have your feelings acknowledged, whether or not someone agrees with you. 'Honest to goodness' listening creates an intimate connection and makes you feel cared about.

In any speech event, it has been observed that there are generally four basic levels of hearing and listening, according to Toast Masters.org. Check the category you often fall into when involved in different conversations. A **non-listener** is totally preoccupied with his personal thoughts and though s/he hears words, s/he is not listening to what is being said. **Passive listeners** hear the words but do not fully absorb or understand them. **Listeners** pay attention to the speaker but grasp only some part of the intended message. **Active listeners** are completely focused on the speaker and understand the meaning of the words without distortion. Listening is the most frequently used communication skill, but many of us are poor listeners. We lose interest, we concentrate on the speaker's appearance instead of his/her words and our thoughts tend to drift simply because we can think faster than people speak. However, discipline and active engagement in the conversation can significantly improve your listening skills. Sharpen your listening skill by doing the following:

Focus

Pay attention to your speaker. Make eye contact with him/her and let him/her know you are listening by nodding or agreeing. However, even if you are making eye contact and nodding, it is still quite easy for your mind to wander. Concentrate on the speaker's words and anticipate his/her next statement. Ask yourself why s/he would

say that or why s/he did not say what you were expecting. Watch his/her body language for a better clue of his/her true feelings.

Remove Distractions

Close any books and remove any work from your desk when listening to a lecture. Do not use your computer to take notes during a lecture or meeting, as it is too easy to distract yourself with email or other work. Ask others around you to cease conversation, or ask your speaker to move to a quieter environment if possible.

Summarize

When listening at a lecture or group meeting, summarize what the speaker has just said. This will not only strengthen your understanding of the subject, but will also improve your memory of the lecture and keep you from getting distracted by outside stimuli.

Take Notes

If you have questions or comments that need to be addressed, simply make a note of them and bring them up when appropriate. Taking notes will also improve your listening skills as it physically forces you to listen.

Respond When Appropriate

Save your questions or comments for when the speaker is done talking. The speaker may inadvertently address any concerns you may have had or answer your question later in the lecture. Interrupting is not only rude, but also proves that you are not willing to listen fully. Avoid forming any opinion of the speaker until you have listened to his/her entire statement. Jumping to conclusions will only distract you from the speaker's message. Responding once the speaker has finished talking allows you to ask better questions or make stronger comments without wasting the speaker's time.

Ask Questions

It is important that you do respond. This lets the speaker know that you listened to what s/he had to say and you either understand or want to know more. Asking questions shows the speaker that you are interested in what s/he has to say and are all ears.

Self Assessment Exercise

How would you distinguish between Hearing and Listening?

Relationship Listening Skills

In order to be a good friend, spouse or employee, you must have effective listening skills. One of the most important communication skills you can learn is active listening. Therapists and counsellors spend large quantities of time learning and improving this skill in order to develop positive relationships with their clients because of its importance. Listening skills can improve your relationships and increase your success at work.

Paying Attention

If you want to be an active listener, you must pay attention to what the other person is saying. Check in with yourself periodically; if you find that you are nodding off or distracted, refocus your attention. If you are already planning what you are going to say in response, you are not listening or paying attention. Let the person finish speaking before you make judgments or respond. Listen to the other person as you would want to be listened to. If you are talking to your friend about something upsetting, you expect for him/her to care and listen to your concerns. You might want her/him to offer some advice or just hear what you have to say. When other people interrupt you, you probably feel as if they aren't listening or paying attention. Watch how others respond to you and mimic the behaviours that you like.

Nonverbal Communication

People can show that they are listening or that they are distracted through nonverbal communication, according to Helpguide.org. If you are talking to your spouse about an argument that she had with her friend, you want to show her that you care. She can tell you are not listening if you do not make eye contact, fidget or look at your

watch. If you want to improve your nonverbal communication, occasionally nod, sit up straight and smile to encourage the speaker.

Feedback

People want to be heard, and part of listening in a relationship is giving the other person feedback. This doesn't mean you have to provide advice or give your opinion. Repeat what the person has said in your own words. For instance, if your friend tells you he/she is not getting along with a co-worker, has to work long hours every day and feels drained when he gets home, you could respond by saying, "It sounds as though you're stressed and overwhelmed." With that one short statement, your friend will understand that you listened and care. If s/he asks for advice, give it, but just let him/her vent before telling him/her how to fix his situation. Many times, that is all it takes to make the other person feel better.

4.0 CONCLUSION

When a person responds to your words by saying "I hear you," do you sometimes wonder if he was truly listening to you? Perhaps you find your mind wandering off when someone is sharing her thoughts with you. You may have heard the words being spoken, but were you really listening to their meaning? Hearing and listening have different meanings. Hearing is a passive occurrence that requires no effort. Listening, on the other hand, is a conscious choice that demands your attention and concentration.

5.0 SUMMARY

Listening and hearing, as you have studied in this unit, may be both sensed through our ears but beyond that listening is very different from hearing. Hearing is just the perception of several sounds going through your ear while listening is absorbing every part of the sound and understanding what is meant. Therefore, listening entails understanding while hearing does not. Aside from this, listening requires attentiveness and concentration which requires your brain to work. On the other hand, hearing is more like the perception of sound waves in the ears. So when somebody gives you an oral instruction, it is always a wise decision to listen and not only hear. If you want to understand and acquire knowledge, always use your ears to listen and not just to hear words.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What listening techniques will you use when listening to a public lecture on “Globalisation and its implication for Nigerian education?”

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UNIT 2 Types of Listening

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- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Audience Listening Interpretation Techniques
 - 3.2 Types of Listening.
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
- 6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

As discussed in the previous unit, listening requires conscious effort to choose to do. Listening requires a measure of mental concentration so that your brain processes meaning from words and sentences. It is important to remember that with communication, it is not necessary always to say something back. It is rather important to develop into a great listener.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of studying this unit, you should be able to;

1. explain the different types of listening skills, and
2. understand the different communication situations where each skill should be applied.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Audience Listening Interpretation Techniques.

The audience mind can be turned on by a good speech, like turning on a light, and the public speaking audience consists of the people who share in or participate in the experience or encounter of the presentation put on by a presenter. Your public speaking audience can better be served if you know a few basic things about them and how they can interpret the information they hear. Listening is more than the sum of its parts, and there are various kinds of listening techniques that the audience may employ at any given time they are listening. They could be engaged in the following way:

Listening for information

Information could include facts, figures, details, knowledge, instruction, advice, guidance, direction, counsel, enlightenment, news words, thought content or knowledge. Informational Listening can be to understand or to learn.

Listening for Emotional Content

Emotional content is the underlying feelings that are based on emotion rather than reason. It can also include things like the tone of voice, gestures, body language and micro-expressions. Is the person happy and satisfied or dispirited or dejected? Is there anger or pleasantness noted in the effect? Or does the speaker manifest proud or humble emotions?

Listening for the Unspoken

Listening for what is unsaid, what is implied but not stated, inhibited from being said or what may really be meant.

Listening for Entertainment

Sometimes we like to listen to music, poetry readings and other forms of entertainment.

Critical or Evaluative Listening

Here, we listen to some pieces of information, and then use what we have heard to make personal decisions in our lives.

3.1.2 Listening Styles

Speech mastery in public speaking requires understanding the **Listening Style** of the audience. In addition to the various types of listening public speakers concern themselves with, of greater interest should be the way the audience listens.

Listening style can be categorized into four different classifications. The 1984 book *Whole Brain Thinking* reported on a 20 year research project by Dr. David Merrill and Dr. Roger Reid on how the mind works. Their findings demonstrated that an effective speaker must be aware of at least 4 different styles of listeners. To reach each different type of listening requires speaking to meet the unique personality or psychological needs of an audience. This is a very basic look of the makeup of an audience that would be listening to public speaking. When we speak, to feel as though you are connected and to be able to say the audience is listening is an understatement. More importantly, how are they listening? What is the style of listening used by each individual in the audience? What is the psychology of listening?

Listening Style: Four Types

Analytical

Analytical listeners will have puzzled looks while listening. They will be questioning, thoughtful and sceptical during the talk. Body language will include rubbing chin and or brow. They will be evaluating and critiquing the information and delivery.

If you are new to public speaking, these are the listeners to get your critique from. You also need to give them things to analyse without boring everyone else.

Driver

'Driver' listeners are the result - oriented men and women of action. They are also impatient. They will be the ones usually sitting at the front of the audience. They ask, "How can I use this information now." "How is this practical?" They do not need to know when or why if these are self evident. To them, the information application is self evident. Their need is for what, and how that is new. Their listening style is, "Get to the point." Great public speaking requires meeting their need while not leaving everyone else behind.

Amiable

These are the audiences that care for you as the speaker. They also care for the audience. Those new to public speaking will enjoy the kudos they receive from this group. They usually will not give the critical assessment that will help you attain Speech mastery.

Consider an example of public speaking to this group and really connecting to them.

Imagine a speaker stopping, shuffling his notes as though he lost something he wanted to say. He then looks down at the floor as if it may have fell. How do you feel? What thoughts would go through your mind? When seeing this happen to a speaker, my heart sunk. Then the speaker reaching into his pocket pulled out a piece of paper with this ah-ha look on his face. He proceeded to explain he was demonstrating the quality of empathy. It was an exceptional illustration. Unfortunately, he was only speaking to part of the audience.

He was speaking to those who would be concerned with his plight. Others may have been thinking he should have been better prepared. The amiable listener may look concerned and even worried if someone is ignored, or smile to encourage you, the speaker, or even others.

Expressive

This group of listeners like to be involved and be a part of what is going on. The expressive like involvement. This listener will become easily bored with technical

data. They will become fidgety or a class clown. The research found they will often be intuitive.

Those with this listening style will really appreciate audience participation. The most basic way to involve an audience in public speaking is to ask for a show of hands with a question you know will have many responses. If you can and do, this will enable you to connect to those with this listening style.

Reach All In Your Audience

To reach all four audiences and hold their attention, when public speaking requires balancing many elements of speaking, they need enough data to please the analytical listener without boring the expressive. The programme needs to move along for the goal oriented driver. Openness, comfort and empathy are needed to satisfy the amiable personality. Many public speaking books will say all audiences are basically the same. You will find in your experience and based on this science, on at least a few levels, this is not true. Learn to reach out to each of the several types of listening styles when you are engaged in public speaking. Learn to meet the demands of each individual listening style. If you master putting all four listening styles together to best serve your audience, you will not only attain speech mastery, you will gain power over your audience.

3.2 Types of Listening

Here are six types of listening, starting with basic discrimination of sounds and ending in deep communication.

Discriminative listening

Discriminative listening is the most basic type of listening, whereby the difference between different sounds is identified. If you cannot hear differences, then you cannot make sense of the meaning that is expressed by such differences.

We learn to discriminate between sounds within our own language early, and later are unable to discriminate between the phonemes of other languages. This is one

reason why a person from one country finds it difficult to speak another language perfectly, as they are unable to distinguish the subtle sounds that are required in that language.

Likewise, a person who cannot hear the subtleties of emotional variation in another person's voice will be less likely to be able to discern the emotions the other person is experiencing.

Listening is a visual as well as auditory act, as we communicate much through body language. We thus also need to be able to discriminate between muscle and skeletal movements that signify different meanings.

Comprehension listening

The next step beyond discriminating between different sounds and sights is to make sense of them. To comprehend the meaning requires first having a lexicon of words at our fingertips and also all rules of grammar and syntax by which we can understand what others are saying.

The same is true, of course, for the visual components of communication, and an understanding of body language helps us understand what the other person really means.

In communication, some words are more important and some less so, and comprehension often benefits from extraction of key facts and items from a long spiel.

Comprehension listening is also known as *content listening*, *informative listening* and *full listening*.

Critical listening

Critical listening is listening in order to evaluate and judge, forming opinion about what is being said. Judgment includes assessing strengths and weaknesses, agreement and approval.

This form of listening requires significant real-time cognitive effort as the listener analyzes what is being said, relating it to existing knowledge and rules, whilst simultaneously listening to the ongoing words from the speaker.

Biased listening

Biased listening happens when the person hears only what they want to hear, typically misinterpreting what the other person says based on the stereotypes and other biases that they have. Such biased listening is often very evaluative in nature.

Evaluative listening

In evaluative listening, or *critical listening*, we make judgments about what the other person is saying. We seek to assess the truth of what is being said. We also judge what they say against our values, assessing them as good or bad, worthy or unworthy.

Evaluative listening is particularly pertinent when the other person is trying to persuade us, perhaps to change our behaviour and, maybe, even to change our beliefs. Within this, we also discriminate between subtleties of language and comprehend the inner meaning of what is said. Typically also we weigh up the pros and cons of an argument, determining whether it makes sense logically as well as whether it is helpful to us.

Evaluative listening is also called critical, judgmental or interpretive listening.

Appreciative listening

In appreciative listening, we seek certain information which we will appreciate. For example, that which helps meet our needs and goals. We use appreciative listening when we are listening to good music, poetry or maybe even the stirring words of a great leader.

Sympathetic listening

In sympathetic listening we care about the other person and show this concern in the way we pay close attention and express our sorrow for their ills and happiness at their joy.

Empathetic listening

When we listen empathetically, we go beyond sympathy to seek a truer understanding of how others are feeling. This requires excellent discrimination and close attention to the nuances of emotional signals. When we are being truly empathetic, we actually feel what they are feeling.

In order to get others to expose these deep parts of themselves to us, we also need to demonstrate our empathy in our demeanor towards them, asking sensitively and in a way that encourages self-disclosure.

Therapeutic listening

In therapeutic listening, the listener has a purpose of not only empathizing with the speaker but also to use this deep connection in order to help the speaker understand, change or develop in some way.

This not only happens when you go to see a therapist but also in many social situations, where friends and family seek to both diagnose problems from listening and also to help the speaker cure themselves, perhaps by some cathartic process. This also happens in work situations, where managers, Human Resource people, trainers and coaches seek to help employees learn and develop.

Dialogic listening

The word 'dialogue' stems from the Greek words 'dia', meaning 'through' and 'logos' meaning 'words'. Thus dialogic listening means learning through conversation and an engaged interchange of ideas and information in which we actively seek to learn more about the person and how they think.

Dialogic listening is sometimes known as 'relational listening'.

Relationship listening

Sometimes, the most important factor in listening is in order to develop or sustain a relationship. This is why lovers talk for hours and attend closely to what each other has to say when the same words from someone else would seem to be rather boring.

Relationship listening is also important in areas such as negotiation and sales, where it is helpful if the other person likes you and trusts you.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Listening skills allow one to make sense of and understand what another person is saying. In other words, listening skills allow you to understand what someone is "talking about".

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we studied the types of listening and have been able to prove that good listening skills can be deliberately cultivated and developed. We stressed that the ability to listen carefully will allow you to

- better understand assignments and what is expected of you;
- build rapport with your colleagues and other members of the public;
- show support;
- work better in a team-based environment;
- resolve problems with people;
- answer questions; and
- find underlying meanings in what others say.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Mention and discuss any four types of listening skills you have studied, and which you think you require most as a student in the National Open University of Nigeria.

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UNIT 3 Hindrances to Effective Listening

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- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 What are Listening Hindrances?
 - 3.2 How to Overcome Listening Hindrances.
- 4.0 Conclusion
- 5.0 Summary
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- 7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

As a public speaker, the art of listening is vital. To be a great speaker, you need to be a great listener. For your message to reach the ears of those you speak to, you need to know what they want to hear. Everyone has a job to be done. You can only find out what that is by listening to what your audience is saying prior to preparing your speech. When you learn how to be a truly supportive listener, you may find yourself surrounded by others who are able to do the same, thereby reducing or even eradicating any hindrance to effective communication. In listening we therefore have problems of attention and accuracy, but difficulties also arise from the different frames of reference held by the speaker and the listener. Our knowledge, concepts, vocabulary and way of thinking derive from the past - our own, individual past education and experience. If we do not allow for the fact that the other person has his/her own, perhaps very different, frame of reference, it is all too easy to get our wires crossed, or to assume a level of understanding which is not real. We continually run the danger of over-complicating or over-simplifying what we hear. We have all had the experience of talking to someone and then hear them say, "I

know just what you mean" and then go on to describe something unrelated to your conversation.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of studying this unit, you should be able to

1. identify the various listening hindrances that can come up during communication, and
2. discuss how to overcome these hindrances.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 What are Listening Hindrances?

Physiological Hindrances to Effective Listening

Hunger

Communication and active listening involve higher-order brain functions that cannot be supported without proper nourishment. If you skip lunch before meeting with a friend, chances are that you will not be able to really listen to what he/she is saying.

Needing to Use the Restroom

Always use the restroom before entering a situation in which you may need to use active listening skills. Otherwise, you will have difficulty focusing. It is better to interrupt the interaction for a quick bathroom break than to continue without the ability to really listen.

Pain

A headache, stomach upset or injury can inhibit your ability to process information and listen to someone when they speak. Find a way to control your pain as much as possible if you cannot postpone a conversation or meeting that requires your full attention.

Illness

When you are sick, it is a bad idea to become involved in a conversation that requires you to actively listen. You will not be able to concentrate and you will be too focused on how you feel to care about what the other person is saying.

Fatigue

Fatigue undermines your ability to concentrate and make important communication judgments. Even though you may do your best to actively listen, chances are you'll find yourself dozing off while the other person is speaking.

Emotional Distress

Extreme grief, anger, anxiety or fear can alter the chemical balance of your brain, making it physiologically impossible to engage in rational, intentional communication. Active listening shouldn't be attempted until after you've calmed down.

Poor Hearing

Hearing loss or partial deafness can severely impede a person's ability to actively listen. Poor hearing can cause you to incorrectly perceive what someone is saying, making communication difficult. Age-related hearing loss, an ear infection or even a plugged ear canal can all interfere with active listening. If you find it difficult to hear what people are saying to you, visit your doctor to test for hearing problems.

Psychological Hindrances to Listening

Concentration

Listening barriers can also be created by internally generated noise, such as monologues. People often miss what others are saying because they are distracted by their own thoughts or daydreams. Sometimes they fail to concentrate because they are too self-absorbed.

Attitudes

The way people feel about themselves and about others can be a major listening barrier. When a person thinks that he or she knows best, either in general or when

discussing a particular topic, this attitude can prevent him or her from effectively receiving information from another person. People also have a tendency to erect listening barriers when they feel threatened by what they are hearing. This can happen when individuals believe that they are being personally attacked, accused or insulted. Being defensive can also result in listening barriers if one person is accustomed to the poor communication skills of another person. For example, if a husband and wife constantly argue, the anticipation of an argument may prevent them from listening to each other even when they try to interact more civilly.

Reactions

Certain words can trigger reactions that create listening barriers. Being politically correct and using emotionally charged vocabulary has this effect. Words denoting ethnic or racial identity can also have this effect if they conjure thoughts of negative stereotypes. This type of language grabs attention but also tends to create a situation that prevents people from listening effectively to the overall message.

Self Assessment Exercise

List and discuss any five factors that can hinder you from listening effectively to a tutorial class in your programme.

3.2 How to Overcome Listening Hindrances.

Effective communication is both simple and complicated. On the one hand, effective communication is simply a matter of listening respectfully, in the way we would like others to listen to us. On the other hand, we each have our own agenda, which inhibits our ability to fully listen to someone with conflicting objectives. Overcoming hindrances to effective listening involves finding common ground on which to communicate and then learning to express opinions and needs calmly and clearly. Study the following suggested ways of overcoming listening hindrances:

- Treat the person you are attempting to communicate with respectfully. If you do not put him/her on the defensive, s/he will be better able to hear what you have to say and respond by truly addressing the issues rather than reacting to perceived insults. Speak without making overt or implied accusations and listen carefully to his point of view. The more fully you understand what he or she has to say, the easier it will be to reconcile your differences.
- Find common ground on which to communicate. Despite the fact that issues and antagonism can create hindrances to effective communication, there is

almost always some point of agreement between two people from which they can start building a bridge. For example, if one neighbour wants to plant a tree while the other objects to the shade that tree will create in his garden, they can begin a dialogue based on their common interest in keeping their neighbourhood attractive.

- Identify any other existing barriers to effective communication, such as physical barriers of space or time, or cultural differences that cause one party to speak or act in a way that the other party finds offensive or threatening. Whenever possible, discuss these barriers when you begin your dialogue. If you cannot openly discuss the variables creating barriers to effective communication, keep them in mind nonetheless in order to maintain as much perspective as possible.

Self Assessment Exercise

You found yourself in a situation where your inadequate knowledge of the subject matter of a lecture was hindering your understanding. What steps will you take to overcome this problem?

4.0 CONCLUSION

One impulse of the will which is only too quick to awaken is the urge towards power and conflict, to impose our own will and resist the other person's. Resistance at the level of intention is often rationalized into arguments which can never be resolved, because the basic will to reach agreement is not present. If we allow these conflicting forces to arise in us whilst listening, we create an immediate barrier to a creative future work relationship. To sense the real intentions of another person, what they want, why they are telling you this or that, can be one of the hardest aspects of the art of listening. Often, speakers are themselves only dimly aware of what they actually want in a situation. Skilful listening can help to discover, "behind" the thoughts and "below" the feelings involved.

5.0 SUMMARY

Active listening promotes healthy conflict resolution, meaningful relationships and good interpersonal skills. However, there are a number of barriers that can hinder good active listening. We have outlined some of these barriers here and also suggested the steps you can take to overcome such barriers. What we have emphasised in this unit is that the goal of good listening is simply to listen - nothing more and nothing less.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Discuss the hindrances you have often encountered while listening to a sermon in your place of worship, and what you do to overcome them.

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UNIT 4 Techniques of Becoming a Better Listener

CONTENTS

- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 The Stages of Listening
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

According to the International Listening Association, we only retain about half of what we hear immediately after we hear it, and only about 20% beyond that. Pretty bad, isn't it? Despite the disappointing statistics, though, listening is one of the most important parts of successful communication. Many times, I think we get caught up in the sound of our own voices and we forget to be quiet and hear what others are saying. Imagine if we were all able to boost our ability to listen so we retained 75% of what we heard immediately after hearing it and 50% long term? The implications of this more effective listening would be phenomenal:

- We would spend less time trying to recall what we can not remember and become more productive.
- The quality of our work would improve because we would make less mistakes.

- We would likely get into fewer arguments.
- Our relationships would be stronger.
- We would have more empathy and compassion for others.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to explain the techniques of becoming a better listener in any communication endeavour you are involved in, and

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Stages of Listening

Effective listening involves knowing the difference between what is said, what you hear, and what is meant. Indeed, effective listening involves these four stages which you should acquaint yourself with.

The Four Stages of Listening

Sensing: The sense of hearing being employed to take in the message. Our minds have the ability to listen four times faster than a person can talk. One challenge to effective listening would be focusing our minds on hearing what is said rather than the several other things going on in our lives at any given moment.

To improve the skill, look directly at the person talking. As you hear the words said, also start reading the body language. Listen for tone and intonation. With advancement in the art, you will be able to notice even more subtle body language such as pupil movement.

On the flip side, if you are taking part in public speaking, your audience will face the same challenge you do with the art of listening. Understanding this will be an aid to developing and improving your public speaking skills.

Understanding: The processing and interpreting of the message. Rather than thinking about what you are going to say next, try to think of what is being said from the standpoint of the communicator. Think of yourself as their

advocate and your purpose is to help everyone understand what the speaker is trying to communicate.

Evaluating: Appraising the message. Tap into the filing cabinet of your little gray box on conveniently mounted on the top of your body. First sort and classify what you are hearing. What are the implications, the applications, benefit or damage of the information? You will have plenty of time to draw a conclusion. You will only have a few seconds to quickly make a fool of yourself however. So put prejudices aside. Stifle any desire to respond emotionally. For future public speaking jobs, it is vital you not only learn about your audience, you need to practise the art of listening on them. Find out what floats their boats. Find out how best to reach them.

Responding: Acting on the message.

You will benefit little if you do not act on the direction or advice. A simple credo in this regard, there are three things a true professional does not do when being given counsel or advice. Justify, minimize or shift the blame.

Reasonableness in the art of listening dictates that there is always more to learn on a subject. If your public speaking is reasonable, it will be easy for the audience to be reasonable in listening to you.

3.2 Becoming a Better Listener

Listening to people is a fine art that needs to be practised. If you are like most people, then chances are you often interrupt others while they are still talking. In your defence, you could say that a long-winded, one-sided conversation is the quickest turn off ever, and while this might be true, it just shows basic respect for the other person when we are prepared to listen to them without consistently interrupting their speech. As it stands though, none of us ever likes to be interrupted anyway. If it does happen, we tend to feel ignored, overlooked and unappreciated. So how can we still get our message across while becoming a better listener in the process?

Stop talking: Put yourself in the speaker's shoes so you get a deeper understanding of where he or she is coming from and what is driving him or her to say what he or she is saying. Sometimes, saying nothing says so much more. The messages you tell when you are silent can be read in your body language. By being silent and observing what the other person has to say, we learn to pick up on their energies and the

messages they DO NOT speak. This is a great tool if you work with people, because you can gain a deeper insight into their personalities by being a better observer.

Focus on using inviting body language, such as making eye contact, uncrossing your arms, and turning your shoulders so you are facing the person speaking. Avoid thinking about what you are going to say next. Instead, create memory triggers to assist your recall.

Be open-minded and avoid passing judgment on the speaker. How often do we shut off to another person's message just because we do not agree with them? We do it all the time. Since we are human, we all have our own opinion on things. That is perfectly fine. But you know as well as I do that everything has two sides.

Remove your prejudice. By removing our prejudice to actually listen to what the other person has to say we remove self-imposed brain blockages and open ourselves up for proper communication with the other party. You should try it, because you might be surprised at what you learn during the process.

Stop doing other things — all other things — while someone is speaking to you. A discussion without eye contact is like a body without a soul. Something lacks - a personal touch. If you are guilty of shutting off to other people's talk, could it be because you don't make eye contact with them while talking to one another? Granted, this is hard to do when speaking on the phone, but the next tip might help you in those situations. Practice eye contact when you speak with someone the next time. Initially, it might be hard because many people are actually uncomfortable looking into each other's eyes. However, it will be worth your while because in doing so you establish a new intimacy between the people involved and I'm almost willing to guarantee that this will help to form a better bond between you.

Participate in active listening by encouraging the speaker with nods and affirmative words. Take what is being said at face value and avoid focusing on the “hidden” meaning. Ask for clarification to get a better understanding of what was said.

Do not interrupt. When it is time to ask your questions, summarize and repeat what you heard before asking the question.

When it gets down to it, and when you take the busy nature of life into consideration, listening is hard. But we all have the same struggles and the same opportunity for improvement.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Listening is defined as applying oneself to hearing something. In verbal communication, listening is to hear while giving attention to what is being said. It is an ability that can be cultivated and practised into a skill. From this standpoint, it can be viewed as an art. As a public speaker, it is an art to be mastered. To listen, really listen, we have to hush our internal monologue and put effort into hearing what the other person is saying. It takes real effort and energy to listen like this - actively listening, listening with engagement. It is far more than sitting passively while someone else talks.

5.0 SUMMARY

Becoming a better listener involves being genuinely interested in what the other person has to say. Listening is not only about just keeping quiet when the other person is talking, or being nice and courteous. It is about understanding and remembering what the other person says. That is the only way to understand the other person, build a relationship, resolve any conflict, and offer a solution. Indeed, listening is really the best way to sell your ideas when engaged in any public speaking event.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

Explain clearly the stages you need to better listen to a lecture in this course (Public Speaking).

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

<http://www.dumblittleman.com/2009/08/how-to-become-better-listener.html>

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Unit 5 Listening in Persuasive Situations

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- 1.0 Introduction
- 2.0 Objectives
- 3.0 Main Content
 - 3.1 Depth of Listening
 - 3.2 How to Listen in Persuasive situations
 - 3.3 Mastering the Art of Listening
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Listening effectively to others can be your most fundamental and powerful communication tool. When someone is willing to stop talking or thinking and truly listen to others, all interactions become easier. Listening well is as powerful a means of communication and influence as to talk well.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to explain the techniques of listening in persuasive situations.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Depth of listening

How can you improve your listening? First, by admitting even the *slightest* possibility that you might not *always* listen with absolute effectiveness. So there is some room for improvement, however small. Always *commit to improving*. There are different depths of listening, based on how deeply you are listening to the other person. If you can identify these, then you can choose which you want to use. They are:

False listening

False listening occurs where a person is pretending to listen but is not hearing anything that is being said. They may nod, smile and grunt in all the right places, but do not actually take in anything that is said.

This is a skill that may be finely honed by people who do a lot of inconsequential listening, such as politicians and royalty. Their goal with their audience is to make a good impression in very short space of time before they move on, never to talk to that person again. It is also something practised by couples, particularly, where one side does most of the talking. However, the need for relationship here can lead to this being spotted ('you're not listening again!') and consequent conflict.

Initial listening

Sometimes when we listen we hear the first few words and then start to think about what we want to say in return. We then look for a point at which we can interrupt. We are also not listening then as we are spending more time rehearsing what we are going to say about their initial point.

Selective listening

Selective listening involves listening for particular things and ignoring others. We thus hear what we want to hear and pay little attention to 'extraneous' detail.

Partial listening

Partial listening is what most of us do most of the time. We listen to the other person with the best of intent and then become distracted, either by stray thoughts or by something that the other person has said.

This can be problematic when the other person has moved on and we are unable to pick up the threads of what is being said. We thus easily can fall into false listening, at least for a short while. This can be embarrassing, of course, if they suddenly ask your opinion. A tip here: own up, admitting that you had lost the thread of the conversation and asking them to repeat what was said.

Full listening

Full listening happens where the listener pays close and careful attention to what is being said, seeking carefully to understand the full content that the speaker is seeking to put across.

This may be a very active form of listening, with pauses for summaries and testing that understanding is complete. By the end of the conversation, the listener and the speaker will probably agree that the listener has fully understood what was said.

Full listening takes much more effort than partial listening, as it requires close concentration, possibly for a protracted period. It also requires skills of understanding and summary.

Deep listening

Beyond the intensity of full listening, you can also reach into a form of listening that not only hears what is said but also seeks to understand the whole person behind the words.

In deep listening, you listen between the lines of what is said, hearing the emotion, watching the body language, detecting needs and goals, identifying preferences and biases, perceiving beliefs and values, and so on.

To listen deeply, you need a strong understanding of human psychology and to pay attention not just to the words but the whole person.

Deep listening is actually known as 'Whole person' listening.

3.2 How to Listen in Persuasive Situations

As a speaker, you spend a lot of time thinking about the listener. But, how much time do you spend thinking about *listening*? How good a listener are you?

What is "Persuasive Listening"?

It is easy to assume that when you go to listen to a persuasive speech, you have already accepted that you are going to be persuaded. The speaker will try to persuade you. And you will listen to whatever he or she has to say. You are not going to argue or supplement. However, persuasive listeners are the kinds of persons who would naturally and routinely listen. This calls for altruistic love, an inner care for others, a curiosity about others and putting others above themselves.

Here is a great drill for becoming a persuasive listener:

Pay attention to others

Be connected to yourself—your feelings and thoughts about others

When you are serious about listening to someone, first be sure you turn to them and *look at them*. And look into the windows of their soul - their eyes. Remembering (and working) to look a speaker in the eyes requires you to focus your attention on the speaker.

Next is that little voice in your head that can take you to where the speaker is heading or it can take you in a thousand divergent directions. Do not quash the little voice, the thoughts in your head, but focus them as you have focused your gaze - on the speaker. Get that little voice to work towards effective listening. Use it to remember your questions and organize the speaker's words for you.

Listening is persuasive when it:

- makes the other person feel respected and understood
- helps the listener understand the feelings and perceptions of the other party
- enables the listener to ask better questions
- enables the listener to understand how to relate to the other party

3.3 Mastering the Art of Listening

Listening begins by learning how to read people by the energy they are emitting. Do they come across as excited and enthusiastic or do they sound lifeless and ready to go to sleep? Are they aggressive from the first words out of their mouth? Are you able to sense their negative or sceptical body language?

Effective listening provides valuable information and assists the listener in building relationships with the speaker. People love to feel listened to! Listening makes people feel special! Have you ever been in the middle of a conversation and the person you are talking to continually interrupts you? Does this annoy you? This usually stems from someone proving they have to be right or get the final word in. Are you guilty of this? Great listeners who become great speakers learn that the "less they talk, the more intelligent they sound", and they also learn "how to say less to more people."

Listening is attention, a stroke, a hug, a kind word. When you listen non-judgmentally and non-critically, you sell yourself as worthy of respect and affection. A level of trust begins more easily when you are listening. Listening not only allows you to receive valuable information, but is crucial to establishing a close and personal friendship. Think how valuable you will become with the person speaking if you are the only person in their lives who listens! Listening is the art of getting meaning from any situation. "Really listening" builds self-esteem in the speaker, It builds trust. It makes the speaker feel heard, understood, liked, respected, appreciated, and assisted.

Listening can be safely called the better half of conversation. When we use the term "conversation", speaking is usually what comes to mind first. However, speaking is only part of a conversation and usually not the biggest part. In the end, what makes the difference is what is heard, accepted, and internalized, not just what is spoken. It is important to let you know that persuasive listening is a whole new awareness, distinction and insight, and is very useful in the process of becoming a master listener. This is a process of creatively and actively absorbing what people say. It also involves learning to manage your listening, and really hearing what people are telling you, which also allows you to unleash your own speaking abilities. Persuasive listening can be interpreted thus: when you treat listening with the same care and concern you put into speaking, then your conversations will have the influence and effect you desire.

Your motivation comes from wanting to be the best you can be at your job and succeed in your business. Once motivated, here are some tips to help you master the art of listening.

Maintain eye contact. Looking people in the eye shows respect, and helps maintain focus on what is being said.

Ask questions. Asking questions forces you to concentrate on listening. Get in the habit of asking speakers to clarify or elaborate things you do not fully understand. This not only helps you to listen, it also will help you to learn things.

Take notes. Even if you never refer to these notes, the act of writing things down on paper forces you to concentrate on what the other person is saying. It also helps lock the information in your mind. The notes don't have to be detailed – just jot down key words, phrases and numbers. People speak much faster than anyone can write. If you try to write down every word that is said, you will lose track of the conversation and miss some of the speaker's main points.

Get rid of distractions. Avoid the temptation to multi-task by doing paperwork, checking e-mail, etc., while someone is talking to you. Do not try to answer another incoming call on a different line. This really is aggravating to the other party. Leave it to the phone receptionist or voicemail to take a call back message.

Interject. From time to time during a long conversation, make brief comments such as: "I understand ... I see what you're saying." It helps you to stay alert, and also shows the speaker that you are paying attention.

Do not interject your own thoughts. Make sure the other party has finished talking before you venture an opinion or explanation. Some people have trouble getting to the point. Give them time to tell you what they want to say in their own way, although it is OK to move the conversation along by asking questions.

Do not rehearse a response. Listen to the full message. Only respond after the other person has finished talking. There may be key information not revealed until near the end.

Pause. After the other party finishes talking, pause for a few seconds before responding. The other person might be pausing just to catch a breath or formulate other remarks. Pausing also allows you a chance to soak up and retain what's been said, as well as collect your thoughts.

Sit at the end of your chair. Being too comfortable promotes daydreaming. When speaking on the phone, try to assume the same businesslike posture you would if you were meeting the person face-to-face. This will help make you more attentive.

Tune in to unspoken messages. A famous study has shown that only 7 per cent of communication gets conveyed by spoken words. Facial expressions and body language account for 55 per cent, with the other 38 per cent coming through in one's tone of voice. Over the phone, you will not have access to the visual information, but you will to the 38 per cent of information conveyed by tone of voice. This means that it is not enough to listen only to what people say. It is important to pick up on how they say it. They may be trying to tell you something, but do not know how, or are uncomfortable saying it. For example, a person may not want to get someone in trouble by criticizing performance. Yet, the person's tone of voice often will reveal this information as the root of a problem.

Listening is truly an internal process. It is an art that takes its own attention to detail. You have to pay particular attention to what is being said, not what you think you hear. Persuasive listening is often overlooked in leadership training, even though it may be the most important leadership skill. Mastering the art of persuasive listening will make a big difference in your life.

As an exercise, try and spend one whole day focusing on what you hear and what new information you have learned that you may have taken for granted. Teach yourself to pause after someone finishes speaking a sentence and wait two or three seconds before responding. This may challenge you. Average people jump in right away at the back end of someone else's sentence because they feel they have to be heard. They end up missing half of the spoken sentence because they are consumed with thinking about what to say instead of listening.

Start to catch yourself interrupting people or your speakers. Be humble enough to apologize and to let the person finish. You will know you are improving when you start to catch yourself and you start making improvements.

Self Assessment Exercise

Asking questions can help you concentrate on listening. What other listening tips can you use to help you focus on a speech event like a public lecture?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Listening is essential to human connection and communication. Asking all the right questions will get you nowhere unless you develop careful listening skills. Listening is more than just keeping quiet. Listening requires you to train your brain to focus on the speaker instead of on yourself or your surroundings.

It may sound easy, but listening is hard work. You may be working in an area bombarded with jobsite sounds or from people talking on a phone. There may be noise from radios, traffic, construction or office equipment and extraneous conversations. We have learned to tune out most of it as background noise. Our aural processing systems do not always work to perfection, unfortunately. Distractions sometimes cause us to tune out stuff that matters.

5.0 SUMMARY

Different situations require different types of listening. We may listen to obtain information, improve a relationship, gain appreciation for something, make discriminations, or engage in a critical evaluation. While certain skills are basic and necessary for all types of listening (receiving, attending, and understanding), each type requires some special skills. In this unit, you have been exposed to the techniques you need to listen effectively in persuasive situations. We have discussed those special skills and presented guidelines to help you improve your listening behaviour in all persuasive situations.

6.0 TUTOR MARKED ASSIGNMENT

- 1 How will you know that your listening activity is persuasive during any given facilitation programme in your course?
- 2 With relevant examples define Persuasive listening.

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