Development of a Teacher’s Guide for a One-Semester Speech Course Suitable for All College Students

Deldee Myriok Herman

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DEVELOPMENT OF A TEACHER'S GUIDE FOR A ONE-SEMESTER SPEECH COURSE SUITABLE FOR ALL COLLEGE STUDENTS

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY OF THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS

By
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University of Michigan
February, 1952
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To Dr. Orin I. Frederick, advisor for this study, the writer owes a special acknowledgment. His encouragement and tireless assistance made this thesis possible.

Acknowledgment is also due those persons who filled out the questionnaires and thereby provided the data for the study.

To my husband, Charles H. Herman, for his constant encouragement and for the invaluable aid he gave in compiling the data from the questionnaires, the writer owes more than she can repay.

D. M. N.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE THESIS

This thesis is concerned with developing a teacher's guide for a one-semester basic course in speech suitable for all college students. The first chapter deals with the statement of the problem, the method of procedure, the scope of speech, the need for speech facility in life, and an overview of the thesis.

I. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is the purpose of this study to formulate a teacher's guide for a one-semester basic college speech course which will meet the needs of all college students regardless of curricula. Such a basic course should be designed to meet the interests and needs of all college students and should provide each student with an understanding of and skill in the essentials necessary to effective oral communication. This is imperative since for the majority of the students this basic speech course constitutes the only speech training which they will ever have.

Alma Johnson, following an experimental study of the teaching of Fundamentals of Speech, reported:

In most college classes in speech fundamentals, an estimated ninety per cent do not contemplate careers in which professional speech is a major
factor. They want speech training for the values it may give them in their vocations as housewives, business men, farmers, doctors, secretaries, etc. and in the development of their personalities.\textsuperscript{1}

Franklin H. Knowler states that there are more students who take a general or service course in speech education than there are students who take one or more of the many specialized types of speech courses. Knowler points out:

Courses in general education are organized to achieve practical values. Students elect these courses because they see these values.\textsuperscript{2}

It seems desirable, therefore, that this basic college speech course should be so organized as to be functional and utilitarian for all. It should play a vital and meaningful role in the individual's life, not only when he is a student but after graduation. The problem is then: What are the essentials? What are the techniques which all people need for effective oral communication? What are the best teaching procedures or devices for the development of these speech skills?


II. PROCEDURES USED

In order to develop a teacher's guide for a functional course in beginning college speech, a five-pronged attack was used. The first step was to examine related current literature on the beginning college speech course. The second step was to review research studies dealing with the basic course. The third step was the examination and analysis of course outlines for the basic college speech course from five universities nationally recognized for their excellent speech departments. The fourth step was the development, use and analysis of an opinion questionnaire to determine what, in the opinion of a cross section of students and alumni, the basic speech course should contain. The final step was the preparation of a teacher's guide which included a course outline and suggestions concerning content and teaching procedures to be emphasized.

III. SCOPE OF SPEECH

The term speech as used in this thesis refers to the immediate face-to-face direct medium by which people think and act together. The term is used in the generic sense referring to all forms of oral communication, original or imitative, direct or indirect. Thus, speech occurs not only in public speaking, but also in conversation, reading aloud,
acting and discussion.

Speech is the essential pattern of behavior common to all the forms of speaking. Even casual observation will reveal that conversation, discussion, addressing an audience, speaking to a microphone, reading aloud, acting, story telling, and other similar processes are essentially alike. Of course, there are real and important differences among these activities, but the more important fact is that the same essential pattern of action occurs in every one of them. This fundamental process is what we mean by speech.3

IV. NEED FOR SPEECH FACILITY IN LIFE

Speech is a basic social and intellectual process of mankind; it is the life-blood of a free democratic society. Contrast the totalitarian state where speech is suppressed and thought controlled with the free society where issues are aired, discussed, debated and then decided by majority vote.

Karl Mundt, Congressman from South Dakota, states the situation this way:

Even in the dictatorial countries with their state police, their opposition to free speech and free press, . . . it is impressive to note that the governing heads of those lands utilize speech devices and techniques on the platform and behind the microphones to sell their views to people too fettered to vote freely, but who must none-the-less be seduced into submission.4


Raphael Demos of Harvard University wrote in 1946:

There can be no doubt of the signal importance of the art of communication in a free and democratic society. A totalitarian ruler can obtain consent by using threats; but a democracy must persuade and persuasion is through speech. 5

John Dewey, noted educational leader and philosopher, points out that in the despotically governed state there is no free play back and forth among the members of a social group; that the stimulus and response are one-sided. 6

The general trend of thinking along these lines is summarized as follows:

If a democracy means anything, it must mean the active participation of the individual in the choices and policies of the group. ... Democracy by its very nature must place a premium on group intelligence, since its values are realized in the degree that the members of the group participate competently in the solution of group problems and the formulation of group policies. Democracy is thwarted in the degree that passivity and domination supplant such intelligent participation. 7

In the totalitarian state only one side is presented; the radio broadcasts and the newspapers print only that which is approved. If elections are held, only one slate is offered; there is no choice. Free speech and independent

---


thought are condemned in the totalitarian state.

Far different is the free society where independent thinking and free speech are the very backbone of life. In this free society in which we live, every individual is guaranteed the right to think for himself, to choose his beliefs, and to write or speak those opinions freely.

Once every four years the people of the United States exercise their privilege of citizenship by voting for a man to become president and leader. For months previous, the people have heard the leading presidential candidates discuss and debate the current issues facing the nation. The decisions of the people are registered finally by their ballots. The discussions, however, continue, for in a free country the opposition is articulate and will continue to discuss the problems and their solutions.

This situation exists not only in reference to domestic problems, but also in relation to international issues and policies. Our diplomatic effectiveness abroad depends on effective speech. The United Nations is an experiment that attempts to solve world problems through the use of speech rather than to resort to war. Our military effectiveness is conditioned largely by effective speech. In short, the soundness of our democracy and our very survival depend upon effective speech.

Not only is speech vital to the maintenance of our
democracy, but speech is the backbone of every area of our society -- in the professions, in business, in agriculture, in industry. All groups in our economy are organized and within these groups issues are presented, discussed and debated, and then decided by majority vote. The American Medical Association, American Dental Association, National Education Association are only a few of the organizations which make articulate the needs of their particular groups. Farmers as well as laborers in industry register their views through their organized groups. Within these groups, problems are discussed, grievances aired. Finally after much discussion and debate, both in and out of meetings, these issues are decided by vote. Management holds its annual stockholders meetings and its more frequent director's meetings. Questions are asked, criticisms are made and answered, and, eventually, policies are determined.

Not only is speech important in the determination of policies, within the group or in government, but effective expression of the particular interests, needs and contributions of the group is essential to harmony and understanding in today's complex society. The general public must be informed on the needs in Education, in Medicine, in Agriculture, in Coal Mining and in all other areas of our complex economic structure. It is the responsibility of each group to be articulate and to make its needs and contributions
known. When new schools or hospitals are needed, the public must be informed or they will not support such programs. When the general public is convinced of the community needs for more adequate facilities, then and only then will the financial support be provided. Thus, in a free society, speech is a basic tool in the maintenance of the democratic way of life.

Speech is vital to each individual as well as to groups. Each person in a free society has vocational, civic and social responsibilities and privileges. In order to make his own life rich and complete, he must be able to express himself effectively through speech. The success of the doctor or dentist rests not only upon his ability to diagnose the ailment, but also upon his ability to make the patient understand the nature of the disease, and what he, the patient, must do in order to get well. Architects and engineers have the same need for effective oral communication. The engineer must interpret the plans to the contractor or the laborers. Before the architect draws the preliminary sketch for a house, he has many consultations with the family to learn their habits and their mode of life so that he may design a house which is functional for that particular family. Even the research scientist in his laboratory needs effective speech for his communication with his fellow scientists and to report his findings. The protection of
the individual's civil liberties and the maintenance of law and order in a free society are insured primarily through the use of speech in the courtroom. As the individual widens his range of interests, he broadens his contacts with others and increases his need for the effective use of speech in a variety of situations. The very basis of friendship rests on sharing ideas, thoughts and experiences. The fact that clinical research has discovered that facility of expression and friendliness are in direct proportion and that socially maladjusted individuals lack this facility has deep implications. 8

In the complex world of today, therefore, effective speech becomes truly indispensable for all, in groups and individually. If, then, effective oral communication is a universal need, it seems apparent that training should be given in the acquisition of such skill. The question then arises as to the nature of this minimum speech training. Since effective speech is essential to all, a basic college speech course should be a part of each student's general education. Such a beginning speech course, then, should be primarily concerned with developing facility in the everyday uses of oral communication.

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CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In formulating a teacher's guide for a beginning speech course in college, one of the most valuable sources of information is pertinent research studies. Eight such studies directly related to this particular problem are reviewed in this chapter. The eight studies chosen for review were selected because they were concerned with the content and teaching procedures in the basic college speech course. Two of these studies deal with both content and teaching procedures, three are concerned with teaching procedures only, and three pertain specifically to listening (content). The final section of this chapter is devoted to a brief analysis of five course outlines for a basic college speech course.

I. CONTENT AND TEACHING PROCEDURES

Speech needs of college freshmen. Albert Cordray's doctoral dissertation presented scientific evidence as to the specific needs of a cross section of college freshmen at the University of Iowa. During the 1938-39 school year,

Cordray studied and observed one hundred freshmen enrolled in the Principles of Speech classes he was teaching.

This group was selected from approximately 900 graduates from Iowa high schools in 1936. Cordray attempted to get a representative group which would be roughly comparable to the freshmen group assembling in many colleges.

These students were next arranged at random into seven classes of seventeen members each. The withdrawal of seventeen of these students from the University during the school year and the elimination of two because of incomplete data brought the number to an even one hundred. Of this number, sixty-six were men and thirty-four were women.

This study was characterized by the vast amount of data collected and analyzed. A complete case history was made of each student in the study. Two main areas were covered by these case histories: first, the speech needs and abilities of the student and second, his equipment — physical, mental, emotional and psychological.

The first step was to determine speech needs and abilities on the basis of evaluations of speeches and selections read aloud. An evaluation of needs in speech making and reading aloud included estimates relative to adjustment to the speech situation, articulation and phonation, choice of subject, choice of thought, choice and organization of material, use of language, control of body activity, voice
control, and projection of emotion to the audience. The
itemized rating scales developed by Barnes' were used as a
criterion of evaluation. The initial diagnosis was made by
a panel of staff members using the Barnes' scales, but the
final judgments were based on regular class evaluations by
the author and scores were assigned (according to the
Barnes' scale) on three performances of each student.

The second step was to get a scientific evaluation of
the mental, emotional, psychological and physical equipment
of the student. This was obtained through a battery of
tests, such as the Otis Quick Scoring Mental Ability Test
and the Iowa Qualifying and Placement Examination. The stu-
dent's scholastic standing in his high school graduating
class and his university marks for the first semester were
also obtained for this study. The physical equipment of the
student was obtained through medical and dental examinations.
Medical and dental authorities made an examination of the
speech mechanism of each student and prepared a detailed re-
port on the condition of the speech mechanism. General
health as well as such items as height, weight and appear-
ance were recorded. In addition, information on each stu-
dent's background was obtained directly from him through
questionnaires, confidential letters, interviews and conver-
sations, as well as indirectly from applications for admis-
sion and personnel data records. Gordray was interested in
the size and type of the home community, the family (size, interests and activities), the high school career, the speech background, and, finally, the university environment. The university environment was studied with respect to social life, campus activities, and outside work of the students.

Attitudes were another area Cordray examined critically. The Bernreuter Personality Inventory Test was given and percentile scores assigned. Subjective impressions of personality were also made in the light of the student's responses to instruction and his educational and vocational objectives.

It was obvious that these case histories embodied the salient features of each student and thus clarified the instructional needs. From these case histories, summaries were prepared recommending instructional needs and procedures. The compiled data pointed out clearly defined areas of instructional needs and should, therefore, be helpful in the formulation of a beginning college speech course.

Cordray found in the measurement of speech ability that few were rated good or better in any of the basic techniques of speech making. Twenty-nine per cent were poor or low average in ability in speech making, 35 per cent were poorly adjusted to the speaking situation, 55 per cent were poor in articulation and phonation, and 50 per cent needed
to improve in projection to the audience.² Majorities (54 to 78 per cent) were deficient in the use of body, pronunciation, voice control, thought, and organization. Great weaknesses were found in the organizational area of speech making as well as in delivery. These findings indicated a severe need for basic training in speech-making.

This study revealed a startling fact, viz., that the majority of these students evidenced even less ability in reading aloud than in speech making. Gordray found that nearly half were poor or low average readers.³

Such case analyses provide evidence of the more common speech needs and abilities which should be considered when planning a beginning college speech course. The commonality of certain needs merit their inclusion in the content of a beginning speech course, but that content should always be adjusted specifically to the individual student.

The Gordray study concluded that one of the most effective and important teaching procedures for all of the students is personal conferences. Fifty-one per cent needed frequent personal conferences.⁴

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² Ibid., Vol. I, p. 100.
Cordray found that "all needed detailed, candid criticism of their performances." The manner in which the criticism was administered needed to be fitted to the individual. Fifty-seven per cent needed to have all criticism administered privately.

Opinions of speech graduates concerning speech training. A second research study in the area of student needs and the content of a beginning college speech course was made by Donald P. McKelvey at the University of Wisconsin in 1942. His investigation utilized another group, the alumni, who indicated what, in their opinion, the beginning speech course should include. This research was of the normative-survey type.

The sampling of alumni was composed of 157 speech majors (134 women and 23 men) who completed all of their speech training on the campus of the University of Wisconsin, and who were awarded B.A. or B.S. degrees between June 22, 1931 and June 22, 1940. Such a selection was made in order: (1) to have a homogenous group in terms of speech experiences, and (2) to have responses from individuals


somewhat removed in point of time from their training.

A specially designed inquiry-evaluation blank was used. It asked for reactions to their speech training in terms of What? and Why? The blanks were circulated through the mails and 87 per cent responded. These responses were meticulously coded, sorted, and weighted. The quantitative analyses of the responses were then tabulated into six tables, one for each question.

Only those findings in the McKelvey study dealing directly with the beginning course in speech will be reviewed. The McKelvey study revealed that individuals criticized frequently the weaknesses of their training in the first college speech course. The major criticisms fitted into three categories:

(1) Poor quality of instruction. Often graduate students taught the first course. Some instructors acted bored with the elementary work.

(2) Needless repetition of material, poorly organized and much of it superficial.

(3) Lack of integration toward a common end.

On the positive side, some of the alumni commented on the excellence of the teacher, the opportunities for participation and practical experience and the course's usefulness in occupational and social life.

The data substantiated these observations by McKelvey,
as paraphrased:

(1) These graduates were serious about the business of living. They wanted speech training that was functional and utilitarian. They wanted to know how to work more effectively with the society around them.

(2) The most important contribution that speech training could make was to further the development of individuals as well-adjusted social beings.

(3) Contact with the instructor as a personality was one of the most important aspects of the student's college experience. The respondents placed great emphasis on the personality of the instructor, his teaching procedures, his organization, his skill in delivery, and the leadership he exhibited.

II. TEACHING PROCEDURES

Evaluation of teaching procedures in public speaking courses.7 For fifteen months in 1938-39, five Michigan colleges (Albion College, Grand Rapids College of Applied Sciences, Wayne University, Jackson Junior College, Michigan State College) participated in a research investigation of teaching procedures. The study was financed by a federal

7 Donald Hayworth, Editor, A Research into the Teaching of Public Speaking (Detroit, Michigan: R. L. Cortwright, National Association of Teachers of Speech, Wayne University, 1939), 232 pp.
grant of $53,000; it was approved by the National Association of Teachers of Speech; it employed from 20-55 people; fifty-two types of data were collected. The outstanding characteristic of this research was that it went into the classroom and analyzed the effectiveness of teaching practices.

This research was undertaken in an effort to secure as objective an evaluation of the teaching of public speaking as possible. The general plan of the research was to:

"Step 1. Discover whether or not certain phenomena related to public speaking can be measured." These phenomena include such things as facial expressions, transitions, eye contact and fluency.

"Step 2. Secure a measure of effectiveness in public speaking." This was done by securing audience ratings of speakers, by measuring retention of information and by using Thurstone tests to discover changes of opinion.

"Step 3. Find out how the phenomena of Step One are related to public speaking effectiveness as measured in Step Two." The phenomena were counted in an effort to rate the speeches for general effectiveness.

"Step 4. Find out what techniques of teaching are most successful in developing those phenomena." Phenomena

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5 Ibid., preface.
were recorded for every speech throughout the term in each of 50 classes. Records were also made of classroom activities and of teaching procedures.

The data for Step 1 were gathered by instructors, by students and by classroom observers who sat in each of the classes throughout the term. The instructor estimated the amount of time spent on each of the following: grading papers, preparation for class and student conferences. Tests were given students in an attempt to measure such things as: interpretation, enunciation, facial expression, vocabulary, general ability, social adjustment. Students did not rate all speeches, but only a few rounds during the term. Immediately after delivering a speech, each student filled in a form which gave certain information, such as: the time spent in preparation, his interest in the subject, his estimate of the class attitude, his estimate of his own progress, the degree of stage-fright experienced before and during the speech.

Items collected by the classroom observers included: breaks in fluency, breaks in eye contact, meaningful and meaningless gestures, meaningful and meaningless transitions, facial expressions, forgetting, reference to notes, laughter in class. The observers also kept a log of all

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9 Ibid., pp. 19-32.
class activities; and, by means of a stop watch, kept a record of the amount of time devoted to each of the following: students' speeches, students' comments, instructor's comments, exercises, lecturing, making assignments, discussing text material, class work, tests.

The first problem in Step 2 was to attempt to determine whether certain phenomena, such as: breaks in eye contact, fluency, transitions, gestures and facial expressions were actually associated statistically with speech effectiveness. In attacking this problem, 450 classroom speeches were rated. In addition, complete records were made of the various types of phenomena such as number of breaks in fluency per minute and the percentage of eye contact lost. A stop watch was used to measure duration. A weighted standard deviation was used to show the relative importance of the various phenomena. Although fluency is usually regarded as indicative of speech effectiveness, this study found that 5.4 breaks in fluency per minute are as harmful to effectiveness as speaking with a 29 per cent loss of eye contact. This indicates statistically the importance of eye contact to effectiveness in speaking.

Since there is considerable difference of opinion in the speech profession as to the amount of time which should

10 Ibid., pp. 52-61.
be devoted to actual student speaking and the amount of time devoted to theory, techniques, drills and exercises, an experiment was conducted to attempt to find which method was the more effective.\textsuperscript{11}

One instructor taught two classes. One class (the control group) was taught with a course of study which required each student to give a total of sixteen speeches during the term. No time was devoted to the discussion of the selection and organization of the content or the theories of audience acceptance. All criticisms of speeches given in this class were confined to the various phases of delivery.

The experimental group made only six speeches — three at the beginning of the term and three at the end of the term. The first three were assigned to both sections at the beginning of the term and no instructions were given the students in either class. Thus pre-test and end-test measures were obtained for both groups.

Three kinds of measures of improvement were used. The first was the usual index of delivery improvement. The second measured the improvement in selection and organization of content. The third was a composite rating of the student's performance or general effectiveness. Each speaker was rated on a ten-point scale with one representing the

\textsuperscript{11} \textit{Ibid.}, pp. 113-16.
least effective performance and ten the most effective performance.

A telediphone recording was made of all speeches in the two sections. The students were not aware that records had been taken. These speeches were then typed from the recordings and analyzed for content and organization. Two speech instructors rated the content of three hundred twenty-one speeches on a ten-point scale. These ratings were then averaged to secure a single content index. A correlation for fifty random cases between the ratings of two instructors yielded a coefficient of .91 indicating that the raters were fairly reliable.

Drawing all the evidence together, the experiment showed:

(1) Both the control and experimental groups made appreciable gains in respect to improvement in content with a greater gain in the experimental group.

(2) In the control section, in which opportunity for maximum practice in speaking was given, the students showed markedly greater improvement in delivery.

Another phase of the study was to compare the effectiveness of the indirect and the direct teaching of
delivery. There are two schools of thought in the speech profession — those who favor the direct method and those who advocate the indirect approach. Those who use the direct method work directly with the techniques of eye contact, posture, gesturing, walking on the platform, facial expression and vocal variety. Their premise is that the student should know early what techniques constitute good speaking habits and work to put them into practice.

The other group maintains that continuous emphasis on techniques only makes the student more self-conscious and technique conscious, and contend that the student acquires these techniques if the emphasis is placed on interpretation instead of on the communication of ideas.

The procedure used in this investigation to test the validity of these theories was to have the same instructor teach two public speaking classes. With the control group he used the direct method, while with the experimental group he employed the indirect approach. The instructor taught the two classes as nearly alike as possible except for the methodology being tested. The same number and types of speeches were given simultaneously in both sections.

In the control group continuous emphasis was placed on the specific techniques of delivery. Speeches were

12 Ibid., pp. 119–27.
assigned with definite learning goals such as: walking, constant eye contact, gesturing, facial expression. Conversely, in the experimental class the instructor eliminated all reference to specific techniques of delivery. In textbook assignments, classroom discussions, and criticisms the instructor rigorously avoided mentioning these techniques.

As in the previous experiment, Telediphone recordings were made and typewritten copies of the students' speeches were made from them. Two speech instructors rated the content of three hundred twenty-one student speeches on a scale from one to ten, with ten representing the speeches with the best content and one the speeches with the poorest content. The name of the student and the section to which he belonged were concealed from the raters.

In this experiment both the control and the experimental sections made appreciable gains in improvement of content. The experimental group, in which content was emphasized, made a slightly greater gain.

An objective measurement of general effectiveness was made by having seven outside observers rank the students in both sections on general effectiveness on a scale from one to ten. The results indicated an advantage to the control group, in which delivery was emphasized.

Although further research is needed to establish conclusively that the direct method of teaching delivery is the
better, this study indicates that a student's mastery of such elements of delivery as posture, facial expression, gesturing, walking on the platform, fluency and his ability to overcome negative (undesirable) movements depends to a considerable extent upon a conscious learning process.

**Group discussion as a teaching procedure in speech.**

The use of group discussion as a teaching procedure has been advocated by many speech teachers, hence two studies on the effectiveness of group discussion as a teaching device have been evaluated. At Florida Southern College during the winter term of 1937-38, Alma Johnson conducted an experimental study on teaching the fundamentals of speech through group discussion. The experiment attempted to determine whether or not group discussion might be an effective method of teaching the beginning college speech course.

Two groups of college freshmen were used and factors conditioning the experiment were controlled as closely as possible. The sections were equated as to numbers, sex, age and intelligence. The time of meeting for the two classes was set at the same hour on alternate days.

In both the control and experimental groups, daily

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speaking opportunities were provided and students always
selected their own subjects. Both groups studied the tech-
niques of delivery with emphasis on voice and body action.
While basic problems of delivery were dealt with in both
groups, obviously the control group devoted more attention
to problems of body action.

A program of testing was carried out and records were
systematically kept. A battery of tests were given at the
beginning and at the end of the term, and were used to mea-
sure improvement. The Bernreuter Personality Inventory, the
Cooperative Contemporary Affairs Test for College Students,
the Foley Precis Tests, and the Roll's tests for scientific
thinking were used. In addition, voice recordings were made
and motion pictures were taken of the students in each sec-
tion.

Each student made four voice recordings: one of an
extemporaneous speech and one of a reading from literature
at the beginning of the term; and one of each at the end of
the term. These recordings were then analysed and each stu-
dent was rated in voice and diction according to a chart
adapted from a number of those in use at various colleges.

Motion pictures were made of each student in each
section, as they talked in groups and on the platform. From
a careful study of these pictures and observations, in the
classroom and on the campus, an analysis was made of each
student and he was rated on the basis of physical poise. Movies were made both at the beginning and at the end of the term.

An effort was made to have the only variable be the method of teaching. The teaching procedure in the control group was based on the traditional platform speaking approach — considerable drill on body action, voice and diction. The speaking assignments were original extemporaneous speeches and interpretative readings delivered as individual projects. The same texts were used in both the control and experimental classes; but in the experimental group these texts were supplemented with readings on group thinking and discussion, and talks were given by the instructor on discussion techniques. The group discussion method of teaching was used in the experimental group. This method was based on the concept that speech is a cooperative effort in every respect and that the group should be more dominant than the individual.

What were the measurable results?

(1) In three areas no significant changes or differences resulted. The gain was the same for both groups on the Foley Precis Tests, which purport to indicate the student's ability to discriminate between the essential and the unimportant. Most of the Bernreuter scales indicated no significant personality change. There was no actual
difference between the average ratings of the two groups on the textbook material.

(2) In the elimination of physical mannerisms deemed a hindrance to effective communication and in the general improvement of body action, the platform speaking group made a gain 35 per cent greater than that of the discussion group.

(3) In scholastic marks in all the courses taken by the students, the median gain of the experimental (discussion) group was ten times that of the control group.

(4) The experimental group's median score was slightly higher than that of the control group on the Contemporary Affairs test.

(5) The control group increased in participation in extracurricular activities nearly 50 per cent more than the experimental group did.

(6) In voice and diction, the gain in the median score of the experimental group was 56 per cent greater than that of the control group.

This experiment seems to indicate that especially important gains in scholarship and in voice and diction resulted through the use of group discussion as a teaching device. In the elimination of physical mannerisms which would hinder effective communication, in general improvement in the use of the body, and in participation in extracurricular activities, the platform-speaking group made noteworthy
gains. A conservative conclusion would be that discussion units might well be included in the beginning college speech course, but should complement, not exclude, the usual projects in platform speaking and reading.

**Individual versus group method of teaching speech.**

In a doctoral dissertation, William Ewing compared the individual with the group method of teaching the beginning college speech course. Specifically he attempted to discover which of the two teaching methods produced more of the desired changes in behavior.

In this experiment, Ewing attempted to measure only those changes in behavior which seemed important in a broad and varied educational program and for which adequate instruments of measurement were available. The primary objective of Ewing's study was to determine the degree and significance of behavior changes in the students which were measured with respect to: (1) speech attitudes, (2) thinking ability, (3) speaking ability and (4) other outcomes regarding student action and reaction.

Since this was a controlled experiment, two groups were used: the control and the experimental. The same

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instructors taught both sections and both groups met for a
two-hour period with a ten-minute intermission between the
hours. With the control group, the teaching procedure was
that of the individual speaking followed by criticism of the
performance. Many short speeches were given during the se-
semester. In any one class period, each student talked on a
subject of his own choosing independent of others in prepa-
ration and delivery. With the experimental group, the
group-speaking or discussion method was used. In this ex-
perimental group every student participated every class
period in some kind of group-speaking effort.

Certain factors were kept constant. In both groups
the students always selected their own subjects; in both
there was daily speech participation; and delivery was dealt
with in both.

This experiment indicates, as did that of Alma John-
son, that there are certain limitations in teaching delivery
when the group-speaking method is followed. The basic prob-
lems of delivery were dealt with in both groups, but,
through the very nature of the speaking experience, the con-
trol group could and did give more emphasis to the problems
of body action. This was not found to be true with voice
production. Both Ewing and Johnson concluded that there ap-
ppears to be approximately equal opportunity to deal with
voice production in both groups. Ewing's conclusion was:
Neither method showed marked superiority. 15

III. CONTENT (LISTENING)

Importance of listening and the abilities needed. 16

The Rankin Study made a major contribution to the field of listening. This research, which was experimental, followed three steps: (1) to determine the amount of time devoted to listening; (2) to determine the specific abilities possessed by a good listener; and (3) the construction and validation of a listening test for grades five - eight.

Rankin defined listening not only as hearing, but also as the ability to understand the spoken language. As to the importance of listening, Rankin’s investigation revealed that individuals listen three times as much as they read and four times as much as they write. He found that the average person spends forty-two per cent of his time listening. 17 The Rankin study pioneered in providing evidence that listening ability is important to everyone. It was found also that the emphasis on the four language arts (reading, writing, speaking and listening) in the schools,

15 Ibid., p. 99.


17 Ibid., pp. 86-37.
as measured by the relative time allotments, was inversely proportional to the frequency of their use in life.

Rankin found four factors affected listening ability: the listener, the speech stimulus, the conditions under which listening occurs and the process of interpretation. One of the most valuable contributions made by this study was the determination of the characteristics or abilities of a good listener. Since this list could be utilized as criteria for a study of listening and a scale for evaluating listening, it is quoted below.

Important abilities possessed by a good listener:

1. Ability to hear.

2. Strong purpose to listen much in a wide variety of listening situations.

3. Important abilities common to most listening situations:
   a. to recognize many words the moment they are heard.
   b. to acquire new words.
   c. to understand readily the meaning of sentences even though they are complex and involved.
   d. to understand and appreciate the thoughts, sentiments and ideals presented in relatively long units of oral expression. This would include the ability:
      (1) to concentrate attention on the material being presented.
      (2) to anticipate the sequence of ideas.

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18 Ibid., p. 34.
(3) to recall related experiences.
(4) to derive meaning from the context.

e. to recognize and interpret what may be called oral punctuation -- voice inflections and pauses.

f. to utilize in the process of building up meaning the vocal adjustments, facial and bodily expressions of the speaker.

4. Specific abilities appropriate to specific listening situations:

a. to analyze or select meanings:
   (1) to select important points.
   (2) to get the facts accurately.
   (3) to secure answers to questions.
   (4) to obtain materials on a given problem.
   (5) to determine the essential conditions of a problem.
   (6) to follow directions.

b. to associate and organize meanings:
   (1) to grasp the speaker's organization.
   (2) to associate what is heard with previous experience.
   (3) to prepare an outline or summary.

c. to evaluate meanings:
   (1) to appraise value or significance of statements.
   (2) to compare statements heard with items from other sources.
   (3) to weigh evidence presented.
   (4) to interpret critically.

d. to retain meanings:
   (1) to reproduce to others.

5. Ability to select in a given listening situation, the specific listening mode which is appropriate to the situation.19

19 Ibid., pp. 110-12.
Listening to seen and unseen speakers.\textsuperscript{20} Cortright's experimental study analyzed and compared listening comprehension of seen and unseen speakers. Cortright attempted to determine whether listening comprehension is greater in the direct face-to-face speaking situation or by radio (when the speaker is unseen).

Two preliminary tests were given: one in the summer of 1934 and the other during the winter of 1934-35. For the final experiment, Cortright used two sets of samples and equipment, one at Wayne University and the other at the University of Michigan. The University of Michigan broadcasting set-up was such that a speaker could broadcast from one studio in which part of the subjects were seated facing him; the remaining were in the other studio hearing his voice by way of the loud speaker. A similar arrangement was used at Wayne University where the large auditorium was equipped with a public address system and a portable microphone. Those who were to see as well as hear were separated by heavy curtains from those who weren't to see.

One hundred seventy-five subjects were used: one hundred twenty-five from Wayne University and fifty from the

University of Michigan. These subjects were divided at random into groups. At the University of Michigan, there was only one group (an experimental group). At Wayne University, there were two groups (an experimental group and a control group). The control group was divided into: (1) those who saw the speaker and (2) those who heard, but did not see the speaker. In the experimental group, the sections changed during the second part of the experiment. One group changed from seeing to not seeing the speaker; the other group changed from not seeing to seeing the speaker.

Oortright found that, under all circumstances, the auditor's perception is facilitated by the speaker's visible presence, but the absence of the visual element is a much greater handicap to correct hearing of disconnected words than it is for short, informational talks.

Factors in listening comprehension.21 Another important research study conducted in the area of listening was a doctoral dissertation done by Ralph G. Nichols. Studying the factors involved in listening comprehension, Nichols used two hundred college freshmen drawn from the Freshmen Communication courses at the University of Minnesota, St.

Paul campus. He attempted to obtain a typical cross section of freshmen students. The test materials used were ten-minute excerpts taken from full-period lectures normally given to freshmen classes at the University of Minnesota. Six ten-minute speeches by six different instructors were delivered during the course of the experiment. Six different subject areas were selected to neutralise whatever might occur because of the subject field. The students were tested for listening comprehension by means of a listening test of seventy-two items. The coefficient of reliability of the listening test was only fairly high.22

Coefficients of correlation were found between listening comprehension and ten different attributes and skills. The attributes and skills most related to listening comprehension were:

Intelligence (American Council of Education Examination) .54
Reading Comprehension (Iowa Silent Reading Examination) .46
Skill in English (English Cooperative Examination, Part Score) .39
Vocabulary (English Cooperative Examination, Part Score) .50

The Nichol's investigation utilized four sources of data: tests, a questionnaire, a factor rating sheet, and

22 Ibid., pp. 155-56.
23 Ibid., p. 158.
interviews. Evidence from these various sources indicated that the following factors influenced the listening comprehension of the students:

Intelligence
Reading comprehension
Recognition of correct English usage
Size of listener's vocabulary

Ability to make inferences
Ability to structuralize a speech (That is, to see the organizational plan and the connection of the main points.)
Listening for main ideas as opposed to specific facts
Use of special techniques while listening to improve concentration

Real interest in the subject discussed
Emotional adjustment to the speaker's thesis
Ability to see significance in the subject discussed

Curiosity about the subject discussed
Physical fatigue of the listener
Audibility of the speaker

The two most significant conclusions were: (1) that listening comprehension apparently involves a number of factors not operative in reading comprehension and (2) that many skills and motives operative in listening comprehension appear readily amenable to training and improvement.

Nichols believed that in a listening training program there should be three areas of concentration: (1) abundant practice, (2) training in outlining and note taking and (3) work

24 Ibid., pp. 161-62.
on listening readiness, promptness and budgeting of time.

The investigations by Rankin and Nichols both demonstrated the importance of critical, intelligent listening and that there are certain characteristic skills common to good listeners, which each contended indicated the need for an effective listening training program.

IV. ANALYSIS OF FIVE COURSE OUTLINES
FOR A BEGINNING COLLEGE SPEECH COURSE

Before formulating a teacher's guide for a beginning college speech course, syllabi were examined from five prominent institutions of higher learning. These five schools were selected on the basis of their leadership in the speech field and their geographical location. Michigan State College and the University of Michigan were selected


because of their excellent speech departments and also because both are within the state of Michigan. The speech departments in the other three universities (the University of Wisconsin, the University of Denver, and Purdue University) hold enviable positions in the speech field.

Regardless of the nomenclature, the syllabi examined were for the basic or beginning college speech course. In no instance was the course a combination English-Speech subject commonly referred to as Communication.

Basically the beginning speech course is much the same in all five institutions. Each attempts to familiarize the student with the basic principles and techniques of effective speaking and to provide many and varied speaking experiences. The beginning college speech course at the University of Denver is distinctive in that it is primarily psychological and attacks the techniques of delivery, speech content and language through their effect on social relationships. Actually the main difference between the beginning speech course at Denver University and the other four universities is that at Denver the approach to the speech techniques is indirect, while Michigan State College, the University of Michigan, Purdue University, and the University of Wisconsin attack each of the techniques directly. The common factor is that the beginning college speech course in all five of the colleges studied is a course designed to be
of practical value to all students regardless of the curricula in which they are enrolled.

At the University of Wisconsin, the beginning speech student is expected to "develop fundamental understanding and skills in the preparation, delivery, and evaluation of the common forms of address." Thus, during the first semester course in speech at the University of Wisconsin, the student participates in the common forms of speech activities — conversations, interviews, discussions, debates, interpretative reading, radio speaking and platform speeches. Proficiency is not the aim, but rather a fundamental understanding and skill in the common forms of speech. The University of Denver attempts too to give the student a broad experience with the common speech forms. The other three universities organize the speech experiences around individual speaking rather than the use of various forms of speech. They do, however, acquaint the student with the different speech activities or forms by requiring listening assignments. Michigan State College, Purdue University, University of Michigan and University of Wisconsin all require their students to attend and report on varied speech activities.

Speech outlines are required in three of the five courses examined. Purdue University, Michigan State College and the University of Michigan require speech outlines from the student before a speaking performance.
Moving pictures to reveal posture and body action and recordings to indicate vocal strengths and weaknesses are used at the University of Michigan and at the University of Wisconsin.

Thus, basically, the beginning speech course follows an almost identical pattern at four of the five universities.
CHAPTER III

OPINIONS OF COLLEGE STUDENTS AND ALUMNI CONCERNING VARIOUS ASPECTS OF A BEGINNING COLLEGE SPEECH COURSE

An opinion questionnaire concerning the beginning college speech course was formulated and was sent to a cross section of alumni and students of Western Michigan College of Education in April, 1949. The questionnaire was based on the premise that if the interests and needs of the students are the true center of education, then the opinions of students, past and present, should be systematically gathered and studied in an attempt to improve the educational experiences offered.

I. PURPOSE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire was an attempt to gauge: (1) what proportion took a speech course in college; (2) how many felt that all students should be required to take a basic college speech course; (3) what specific abilities the student should develop in the basic speech course; (4) the emphasis to be given certain techniques in the basic college speech course; (5) the importance of various forms of speech in the basic college speech course.
II. TO WHOM THE QUESTIONNAIRE WAS SENT

Five hundred copies of the questionnaire were mailed to students and alumni. Two hundred fifty questionnaires were sent to a random group of alumni graduated in 1946-49. Due to the incompleteness of the alumni files, it was impossible to get a truly representative sampling from the various curricula, although, in so far as possible, a distribution was effectcd. An equal number of questionnaires were sent to a representative sampling of students in the various curricula. In the two-year curricula, the questionnaires were mailed to second year students; for the four-year curricula, the questionnaires were sent principally to fourth year students, although a few third year students were included. Since students usually elect the beginning speech course during the freshman year, it was deemed advisable to consult the upperclassmen since they should be able to evaluate the course and their needs more objectively.

III. RESPONSES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

One hundred forty questionnaires (56 per cent) were returned by the alumni and one hundred twenty-five (50 per cent) of the students completed the questionnaire. The nearly identical opinions registered by both students and alumni, whether they had speech or not, led the writer to combine the results for the graphs.
IV. FINDINGS FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Eighty-three per cent of the students replying had taken a speech course, whereas 75 per cent of the alumni who replied had taken such a course.

Desirability of requiring a beginning speech course in college. Question II asked whether a basic college speech course should be required. Eighty-nine per cent of the students who replied believed that speech should be required, while 87 per cent of the alumni favored the requirement. Thus, 88 per cent of the respondents believed that a basic speech course should be required in college.

Among the 12 per cent who opposed making speech a required course, these were typical comments:

Advised, but not required. I object to too many required courses.

I do not like to have courses required. There are already enough required subjects. I believe that the speech course should be elective.

Unless the course is different than when I took it. I gained little from it. The teacher is no longer on campus.

It no doubt would be very helpful for everyone to have a little background in speech, but there are now so many required courses that it is already difficult to get the desired subjects in in four years.

It depends on the curriculum of the individual student. Pre-Law -- yes. Pre-engineering -- no.

Some need it more than others. If they have
had it in high school and were good in it, they shouldn't be forced to take speech in college.

I believe it should be required if they have had no previous academic work in speech.

The alumni comments which favored making basic speech a required course followed these trends:

I do not know the percentage, but the greater share of all communication is oral.

In any field of work, speech is very essential.

A knowledge of good speech is beneficial to everyone no matter what field he chooses.

It's so very important in everyday living and enhances one's job ability where even the minimum of public speaking is required.

Especially since there are so many teachers in training at W.M.C.

Every student who expects to go into teaching should very definitely be required to take a basic course in speech.

I did not take a speech course, but I believe it would have been helpful. So far I have needed this work in expressing my ideas clearly.

I believe speech is equally as important as Rhetoric judging from my experience this year.

No other course makes you so aware of your environment. What is even more important, it forces you to think.

I think this can be one of the most valuable courses for the average college student.

Many colleges require this and, I believe, most students feel they benefit from it.

All students entering college should have speech training as early as possible, I believe, as it will benefit them in all phases of college life to
follow. Individual needs should be discovered first, then a specific program could be prescribed.

Similar opinions were expressed by the students:

Since speech is the basis of communication, I believe definitely that a basic course in speech should be required.

No matter what field you're in, you must be able to communicate with others effectively.

It enables a student to do better college work. (This student had taken only one course in speech.)

It should be required in the first semester of college.

It should be given as a freshman subject to ensure understanding and logical thinking and class interest in the following college years and life.

This need is evidenced by the fact that most college freshmen have had no speech courses in high school and have difficulty in expressing themselves adequately.

Many students who would profit from basic speech shun the course because they lack confidence in themselves.

These two comments were typical of those who believed speech should be required, but who found certain deficiencies in the present course:

If properly taught it aids greatly in helping the student in presenting and expressing himself before others.

It should be more practical, consisting of less theory and more actual speaking for those students who do not intend to major in speech.

One student suggested a test to measure the student's ability in speech and then placing him with those of equal
ability for maximum improvement; other respondents favored simply excusing the student who demonstrates speaking proficiency.

**Relative importance of abilities to be developed in a beginning college speech course.** In Question III the respondent was asked to check the specific abilities which he felt a student should develop in the basic college speech course. The rank order given each is shown in Graph 1. On the 265 replies to the questionnaire, the specific ability which was checked the most frequently (217 times) was the ability to express his ideas clearly. Two hundred seven (207) people checked the ability to express his ideas effectively. The third highest rank (checked 193 times) was the ability to exchange ideas, recognizing differences without antagonism. In fourth place (checked 175 times) was the ability to be poised in any situation. One hundred fifty-four (154) people believed that the ability to use tact, diplomacy and understanding in expressing his ideas should be developed in the basic speech course in college. One hundred twenty-five (125) or 47 per cent of the alumni and students felt that the ability to work cooperatively with others should be developed in this beginning course.

The conclusion seems warranted that all six of these abilities should be developed in a basic speech course in
Ability to express his ideas clearly          217

Ability to express his ideas effectively    207

Ability to exchange ideas, recognizing differences without antagonism 193

Ability to be poised in any situation       175

Ability to use tact, diplomacy and understanding in expressing his ideas  154

Ability to work cooperatively with others   125

GRAPH 1

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE ABILITIES TO BE DEVELOPED IN A BASIC COLLEGE SPEECH COURSE AS INDICATED BY STUDENTS AND ALUMNI
college, with particular emphasis on developing ability to express ideas clearly and effectively.

**Type of basic speech course favored by alumni and students.** Question IV was designed to determine the type of course which, in the opinion of 265 students and alumni, would be desirable for the basic college speech course. Sixty-five per cent of the respondents to the questionnaire believed that the basic speech course should emphasize the problems and needs of individual students. Thirty-two per cent of them favored a survey course emphasizing speaking experiences in the entire speech area. Only 22 per cent of those replying recommended a basic speech course emphasizing the techniques of speech through study and drill.

**Opinions concerning the desirability of combining courses in rhetoric and speech.** The respondents were asked in Question V to state their preference for a combined course in oral and written communication or for the present division between Rhetoric and Fundamentals of Speech. Two hundred fifty (250) answered this question, of which 53 per cent preferred that each course be taught separately, while 47 per cent favored a combined course.

Some of the comments made by those favoring a combined course were:

Speaking and writing should go hand in hand,
because both are an expression of the individual.

It seems to me grammar and speech are almost synonymous. A combination would enable a complete study of language and how to use it.

The coordination of oral and written speech is very important. They are so closely allied that separating them is folly.

All students are required to take Rhetoric. Many miss the oral communication. Both would be more meaningful if combined.

Several recognized that one of the problems involved in such a course would be a proper balance and qualified personnel to teach it. Typical were these comments:

Yes, only if adequately integrated. No two Rhetoric courses teach the same thing. If it were to be a course purely in communication, fine! If you can only find people capable of teaching both effectively.

If two teachers could teach it. Too often, a speech teacher couldn't teach Rhetoric and an English teacher couldn't teach speech well.

Among those who opposed a combined course, the reasons most frequently expressed were concerned with the problems of adequately trained teaching personnel and the abundance of material to be covered. These were typical comments on the latter point:

The areas are too large to be covered completely and effectively in only one course.

Neither should be exclusive of the other, or, for that matter, cannot be. But enough emphasis is needed on each to maintain their present artificial division.

Inasmuch as 47 per cent of the respondents favored a
combined course in oral and written communication and 53 per cent preferred separate courses, it might be desirable to offer both combined and separate courses and to evaluate carefully their relative effectiveness.

**Relative importance of various speech techniques to be developed in a basic speech course in college.** Question VI asked each respondent to indicate the relative importance of the various speech techniques for inclusion in a beginning speech course in college. The results in rank order, under each major aspect of speech, are presented in Graph 2. The five major aspects of speech included in Graph 2 are body, voice, language, thought and listening.

In the judgment of the 265 students and alumni replying to the questionnaire, poise, eye contact and posture were considered the most important techniques to be developed under the major aspect of body. Seventy-two per cent of the respondents believed poise to be of great importance, 71 per cent rated eye contact as of great importance and 61 per cent considered posture of great importance. Movement and gestures were regarded by more than 60 per cent as of average importance and by nearly 25 per cent as of great importance.

Under the aspect of voice, articulation was regarded as the most significant factor. Eighty per cent of the
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Great Importance</th>
<th>Average Importance</th>
<th>Little Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Body Movement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eye Contact</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posture</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Movement</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gestures</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice Articulation</td>
<td></td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice Quality</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pitch</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Graph 2**

*Relative importance of various techniques under the major aspects of speech as indicated by students and alumni.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Great Importance</th>
<th>Average Importance</th>
<th>Little Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language Clarity</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>26% 2%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dictation</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>36% 1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thought Logical</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidence</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>52% 8%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Original</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>54% 9%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Evaluation</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>34% 1%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discrimination</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>46% 5%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Graph 2 (Continued)**

**Relative Importance of Various Techniques Under the Major Aspects of Speech as Indicated by Students and Alumni**
respondents considered articulation as of great importance. Slightly over half (52 per cent) thought quality and pitch were of great importance; 43 per cent rated quality as of average importance and 40 per cent believed pitch to be of average importance. Force and time were regarded as of average importance by 52 per cent and 53 per cent respectively. However, 44 per cent rated force as of great importance and 42 per cent thought time was of great importance.

Language, the primary medium whereby man communicates his thoughts to others, is frequently either ignored or treated incidentally in the beginning speech course. Yet the data collected from the questionnaire revealed that students and alumni regarded all of the techniques listed under language as very significant. Eighty-one per cent believed clarity of language to be of great importance. Seventy-eight per cent rated pronunciation as of great importance. Seventy-two per cent thought grammar was of great importance. Sixty-three per cent placed diction in the category of great importance.

Thought, which is the motivating aspect of speech, also frequently receives little consideration in the beginning speech course. The questionnaire replies revealed that, in the opinions of students and alumni, logical thought was of great importance -- over three fourths (78 per cent) of
the replies so rated it. Fifty-two per cent believed evidence was of average importance; 40 per cent regarded it as of great importance. Originality of thought was considered by 54 per cent of the respondents as of average importance in a basic speech course; 37 per cent felt it was of great importance.

The results from the questionnaire revealed that students and alumni regarded listening as a significant aspect of speech training. Sixty-five per cent rated listening evaluation as of great importance. Forty-nine per cent believed listening discrimination was of great importance.

In summary, clarity of thought, articulation, pronunciation, logical thought, poise, grammar and eye contact were rated as of great importance by more than 70 (61-71) per cent of the 265 students and alumni responding to the questionnaire. In rank order, from 65 per cent to 49 per cent of the respondents considered listening evaluation, diction, posture, quality, pitch and listening discrimination to be of great importance in a beginning speech course in college. In rank order, the following techniques were rated as of average importance or great importance by 96 per cent to 86 per cent of the respondents: force, time, evidence, original thought, movement and gestures.

It may be concluded from the preceding analysis of the findings from the questionnaire replies that all of the
above speech techniques should be given definite consideration in a beginning college speech course. The techniques rated highest by the 265 students and alumni probably should receive major emphasis.

Relative importance of various speech forms in a basic speech course in college. Question VII dealt with the importance of various forms of speech in a beginning course in speech. The data in the replies were summarized in Graph 3.

Sixty per cent of the respondents to the questionnaire rated informal talks as of great importance in a basic speech course. Fifty-four per cent regarded impromptu talks as of great importance. Fifty per cent thought interviews to be of major importance. Forty-five per cent considered conversations to be of great importance and 42 per cent believed they were of average importance in a basic speech course. For both panel discussions and round-table discussions, 49 per cent rated them of average importance and 40 per cent felt that they were of great importance.

Business meetings were regarded by 48 per cent as of average importance, and 33 per cent thought they were of great importance. Fifty-one per cent rated forums (audience participation following a lecture, discussion or a debate) as of average importance and 30 per cent believed forums were of great importance.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Great Importance</th>
<th>Average Importance</th>
<th>Little Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informal talks</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impromptu talks</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversations</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panel discussions</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Round-table discussions</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business meetings</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forums</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GRAPH 3**

**RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS FORMS OF SPEECH IN A BASIC COLLEGE SPEECH COURSE AS INDICATED BY STUDENTS AND ALUMNI**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Great Importance</th>
<th>Average Importance</th>
<th>Little Importance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sales talks</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symposium discussions</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Debates</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretative readings</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dramatizations</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio skits</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio programs</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Graph 3 (continued)**

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS FORMS OF SPEECH IN A BASIC COLLEGE SPEECH COURSE AS INDICATED BY STUDENTS AND ALUMNI
From 26 per cent to 45 per cent of the alumni and students considered sales talks, symposium discussions, debates, interpretative readings, dramatizations, radio skits and radio programs to be of little importance in a beginning speech course in college.

In conclusion, the responses of the 265 alumni and students to the questionnaire seem to indicate that emphasis should be placed in the beginning speech course on informal talks, impromptu talks, interviews, conversations, panel discussions and round-table discussions. Business meetings and forums apparently merit some consideration in a beginning speech course. Sales talks, symposium discussions, debates, interpretative readings, dramatizations, radio skits and radio programs probably should not be included in a one-semester beginning speech course except as listening experiences.
CHAPTER IV

OVERVIEW OF A SUGGESTED ONE-SEMESTER
BEGINNING SPEECH COURSE IN COLLEGE

The proposed content and procedures for the begin-
nung college speech course are founded on: (1) research in
the field of speech, (2) a survey of similar courses in rep-
resentative schools, (3) the findings from the opinion ques-
tionnaire, and (4) the writer's own convictions based upon
observation, training, and teaching experience.

I. GENERAL NATURE OF THE COURSE

Need for a speech course of practical value to all
college students. The need for speech facility in life was
emphasized in Chapter I. Research investigations relating
to speech needs of college freshmen and how these needs
could best be met were reviewed in Chapter II. Speech
course outlines from five universities were analyzed in the
latter part of Chapter II. In all five of the universities
the beginning speech course was designed to be of practical
value to all students regardless of the curricula in which
they were enrolled.

The results from 265 replies of alumni and students
to a questionnaire were presented in Chapter III. It was
found that 65 per cent of the respondents thought that the
basic speech course should emphasize the needs and problems of individual students. Also, the speech forms in most common use were considered of major importance by the students and alumni.

As reviewed in Chapter II, McKelvey found in his study of a group of alumni who were speech majors this same desire to have the beginning speech course of practical value for life.

Therefore, it seems evident that the beginning speech course in college should be of practical value to all students in everyday life.

Characteristics of a beginning speech course designed to be of practical value to all college students. The questionnaire results presented in Chapter III indicate that skill and understanding of the techniques of oral communication should be developed in the beginning speech course. This course should include many varied speech activities so that the student has ample opportunity to practice the fundamental techniques — to learn by doing. Studies reviewed in Chapter II indicate that maximum improvement comes from many and varied speech activities, candid criticism, student-teacher conferences and the use of recordings and films.

One of the fundamental problems in organizing this basic speech course is to provide the student with live,
meaningful speech experiences. The old adage that the student learns by doing is true only if the student is properly motivated — that is, if he understands why he is doing this particular assignment and can see a practical value in it, or if he feels acutely the need for such an experience. It has been the writer's observation that when the student himself is concerned with a problem he then is stimulated to learn the techniques of effective oral communication, to do research on a problem, to organize his findings and conclusions so that they are clear and meaningful to his listeners.

Hence, in this basic speech course, no topics for speeches or discussions will be assigned, but it shall be both the privilege and responsibility of the individual student to determine what topics he'll use. It shall be the aim of this basic course to arouse the student's curiosity about the world in which he is living and to concern him with one or more of the controversial issues of the day. The speech class can and should be the core of the student's life. His keen appreciation of a literary passage, his experiments in chemistry, his reports in other classes, his interest in soil or wild-life conservation, his hobby, his deep concern about some domestic or world problem — all furnish the material from which his speech activities should evolve. The entire world is the curriculum of the student in a speech class.
Each student will make several short talks (such as introductions and announcements), many impromptu talks, three or more major speeches; and will participate frequently in discussions of various types. Some consideration will be given to interviews, conversations, and business meetings. Twice during the semester, each student will read a selection of his own choice.

Each performance by a student will be candidly criticized by the instructor. Written critiques will be given each student at the end of the class period during which he is a major participant. Most oral evaluations, based upon the written critiques, will be made in private conferences. However, as the semester progresses, occasional oral criticisms will be made in class by both the instructor and students.

In addition, each student will attend four public speeches and four other speech activities, and will evaluate each in a listening report. Only one speech may be heard by radio; three of the speeches must be both heard and seen. One speech must be a sermon; the other three speeches should be of various types. Since many students are not familiar with the different types of speech activities, four should be observed: (1) debate, (2) forum, (3) play or interpretative reading, and (4) radio discussion-forum -- America's Town Meeting of the Air. The latter is required because of
its superior quality.

The use of films and recordings of the student speaking or reading have been found to be of value in indicating needs and demonstrating improvement. Moving pictures appear to be the most promising method of dealing with body action since the student sees himself as others see him. These motion pictures should be analyzed by the teacher in a private conference with the student. Movies should be made three times during the semester: at the beginning, in the middle and at the end of the semester. Recordings made of the student's voice provide the only means of letting the student hear himself as others hear him. Such recordings should be analyzed in private conferences with the student. At least three such recordings should be made: one at the beginning of the semester, one near the middle, and one at the end. It would be desirable to have a listening room where students might listen to play-backs of their voices whenever they so desired.

Another significant use of recordings is to acquaint the student with standards of excellence in the effective use of voice. Just as the music student specializing in voice or an instrument learns by listening to the outstanding artists in that field, so the speech student learns by listening to great actors, readers or speakers. Listening to recordings by such actors as Maesey, Barrymore, Rathbone,
Welles provides the student with examples of excellence in
diction and interpretation. Standards of effective original
speech can be gained by auditing such recordings as Edward
Murrow's albums "I CAN HEAR IT NOW" or Franklin Roosevelt's
speeches. Such recordings enable the student to hear the
efficient use of voice and to identify the various tech-
niques of communication.

The investigator is convinced by research studies of
others and by personal experience that one of the most im-
portant factors in speech is the social adjustment of the
individual. Therefore, throughout this course special ef-
fort will be made to establish and maintain a free atmos-
phere in the classroom; to have good rapport not only be-
tween the students and the instructor, but also between the
students themselves; and, insofar as possible, to relieve
the tensions of stage fright through knowledge and skill.
Conferences will be used to promote understanding between
the student and the instructor and to facilitate the im-
provement of the student's social adjustment and his speak-
ing skills.

The primary aim of this beginning college speech
course should be to develop fundamental understanding and
skill in effective oral communication. Five points of em-
phasis have been selected as a result of the reviewing of
the eight related research studies and an examination of the
findings of the opinion questionnaire. The five units in the course are: Orientation and Social Adjustment, Body Action, Participation in Various Forms of Speech, Critical Listening and Voice. Social adjustment is emphasized throughout the course, but particularly in unit one at the beginning of the semester.

II. ABILITIES TO BE DEVELOPED IN THE COURSE

The general purpose of this basic college speech course is to develop understanding of the principles and skill in the techniques of oral communication as used in everyday living. The findings from the questionnaire replies of 265 alumni and students, presented in Chapter III, indicate that six abilities need to be developed in order to attain the general purpose of the course. These six abilities are in rank order:

1. Ability to express ideas clearly.
2. Ability to express ideas effectively.
3. Ability to exchange ideas, recognizing differences without antagonism.
4. Ability to be poised in any situation.
5. Ability to use tact, diplomacy and understanding in expressing ideas.
6. Ability to work cooperatively with others.

The development of these six abilities will be the
primary objective throughout the course. Therefore, these
abilities will not be listed again for specific units in the
course.

III. SUGGESTED CLASSROOM PROCEDURES IN THE COURSE

1. All written and oral work must be completed at the spec-
ified time.

2. Time limits will be adhered to strictly. Time cards
will be used, different students keeping time for each
speaking assignment. When the allotted time is gone,
the speaker may just finish the sentence and then take
his seat.

3. Speech outlines will be handed in on the day the speech
is made. Outline forms will be furnished by the in-
structor.

4. Each speaking experience will be evaluated by means of
a written analysis, a speech performance scale or an
oral evaluation.

5. Student evaluations are particularly helpful to both the
speaker and the evaluator. Students should be prepared
after any speech or reading performance to evaluate it.
Such evaluation may be as valuable to the student as a
speaking experience.

6. Active participation as a speaker, as a listener and as
a discussant is the responsibility of each student.
7. Since this course is designed both to give knowledge of the basic principles and techniques of effective speech and to develop speaking skills, reading assignments in the text and speaking performances will be required. If the textual material is complex, or of great significance, then class time will be spent to clarify the principle and to demonstrate its application. There will be a maximum of student discussion and speaking on the textual material and a minimum of lectures by the instructor, because the essential aim of this course is to develop the student's understanding of the basic principles and techniques of speech.

8. Speaking order for individual speaking and reading performances will follow this plan:

a. The class membership will be divided alphabetically into groups of four.

b. A new group will initiate the speaking for each assignment. Each group will speak in alphabetical order.

c. As the semester progresses and each group has begun the speaking on one occasion, the same order is followed through again. The one change being that the second person alphabetically in each group initiates the speaking and the first one is the last to speak.
With such organization a fair and equitable distribution is possible and each person knows when he will speak and can plan accordingly.

IV. BOOKS FOR BASIC USE IN THE COURSE

It is suggested that each student choose one of the following two texts for basic use in the beginning speech course in college. However, an effort will be made to have approximately the same number of copies of each text used. This can be done because some students will have no particular preference as to which of the two books they buy for basic use.


CHAPTER V

FIVE SUGGESTED UNITS FOR A ONE-SEMESTER BEGINNING SPEECH COURSE IN COLLEGE

The data collected by means of the opinion questionnaire, as reported in Chapter III, indicated that the basic speech course in college should emphasize the problems and needs of individual students. With the information gathered from records concerning the individuals and during private conferences, it is possible to plan each unit in the basic speech course in terms of the interests and needs of the students.

I. UNIT ONE. ORIENTATION AND SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

Importance of orientation and social adjustment. It is particularly important that problems of social adjustment be attacked during the freshman year in college since improvement of social adaptation is closely related to academic and vocational success. It is the strategic point at which to place the beginning college speech course because it should provide the first year student with an understanding of himself and his relationships with his fellow men, it should orient him into college and college activities and, through developing speaking and listening skills, should make him a better student in his other classes.
Scope of the unit. Thus in this first unit the aim will be to make the student aware that speech is a matter of the whole man; that it is a revelation of personality; that the way he speaks and acts, the language he uses and the thoughts he expresses reveal him to others and furnish the basis for their evaluation of him as an individual. This unit should show the student that all people suffer from fear, but that through control it can be minimized.

Social adjustment through personal conferences. Another approach to the problem of stage fright will be through the use of individual conferences. The instructor will meet each student privately during the first three weeks of the semester. These conferences are to promote understanding between the student and the instructor. In these private talks, the student is encouraged to voice his fears as well as his particular interests and needs.

Social adjustment through class meetings. Especially during the first weeks of the semester, the instructor is concerned with establishing rapport with the individual students and with them as a group. It is particularly important for the speech instructor to create an atmosphere of mutual understanding, help and cooperation within the class. Good-will, friendliness and cooperation should be the attitude of the students for each other and for the instructor.
The very first class meeting is devoted to establishing the atmosphere of mutual help by getting better acquainted. To really like a person, one must know him — his interests, his hobbies, his experiences, his home town.

Another device, used frequently throughout the semester, is to encourage understanding and friendliness by dividing the class into small groups to discuss a common problem. During the latter part of the first class period the class is broken up into groups of four to discuss some mutual problem, such as the importance of speech in a free society. If time permits, these findings will be summarized in a meeting of the entire class near the end of the class period.

The second meeting will be devoted to orienting the student to the course through impromptu talks on selected topics in the textual material. The device of discussing in small groups will be utilized for the third class meeting when the problem attacked will be one that is common to all — stage fright. Most beginning students will more readily express these fears in small groups than before the entire class. The students soon discover in the discussion of this problem that everyone suffers to some extent from stage fright. Thus, understanding is promoted and a desire to mutually attack this common problem is established. The value lies not only in establishing understanding and good-will
between the students, but also in facing squarely a disturbing emotion. Suggestions on how to control these fears are made by the instructor. An analysis of the findings of research studies on fears and of the various theories of the psychologists Guthrie, Hollingworth, and Eisenson will be used to give the student a thorough understanding of the physiological and psychological aspects of fear.

In the latter part of the same class period the instructor directs the class in a discussion of Personality and the Speaker's Personality in particular. Students readily identify those personality traits which they find undesirable in others and those which they find desirable. The next step is to analyze what conveys impressions to the listener or observer. The conclusion will necessarily be that the individual's attitudes are revealed through behavior, language, ideas, and how he speaks. The instructor will point out the close relationship between effective oral communication and good human relationships. With this beginning, the foundation is laid for consistent work throughout the semester on factors which improve the social adjustments of the students.

**Outline of unit one (first four class meetings).**

**First Meeting**

1. Getting acquainted (approximately 20 minutes).
a. Instructor introduces himself and points out the necessity of getting acquainted so that each member of the class can help every other member and, thus, each can make maximum improvement during this semester's work in speech.

b. Students introduce themselves by stating their names, hometown, high school, hobbies, curricula and their plans for a career.

c. Instructor emphasizes that speech is fundamentally social and that our effectiveness in speech is measured by its effect upon others. Thus, only by having the frank and honest reactions of others to our speech habits as shown in our speech performances can we make maximum growth in speech.

2. Origin and development of speech in the race and in the individual as traced by the instructor (approximately 12 minutes).

3. Discussion of speech in a free society (about 15 minutes).

a. Instructor divides class into groups of four to discuss this topic. To conserve time, the instructor names the leader for each group.

b. Small groups under the leadership of the chairman discuss the topic for approximately 8 minutes, then all groups come back into the larger group to
hear the conclusions reached.

c. Acting as chairman, the instructor calls on each leader to report and discuss briefly (1 minute) one conclusion reached by his group. Following each of these, a few comments will be allowed. The summarization of the conclusions will be made by the instructor.

4. Assignment.

a. Read: Chapter 1. "Introduction to Speech"
Chapter 2. "Improving Speech Habits"
(Baird and Knower, General Speech).

or

Chapter 1. "Values in Speech Training"
Chapter 2. "Terms and Definitions"
(Weaver, Speech).

b. Be prepared to discuss this material as a member of a discussion group or in an impromptu talk.

c. During this first week, read:

Chapter 3. "Origin and Development of Speech"

(Weaver, Speech).

Second Meeting

1. Impromptu talks, each 2 minutes in length, on textbook material. Topic will be drawn by each person immediately
before speaking. Some typical topics are:

"Speech and Careers"
"Economic Values of Speech"
"The Role of Speech in Social Living"
"Speech and Personality"
"Social Success and Speech"
"Poise"
"Why Study Speech?"

2. Assignment.

a. Read: Chapter 11. "The Speaker's Personality"
Chapter 12. "The Development of Confidence"

(Baird and Knowler, General Speech).

or

"Stage Fright," pp. 27-31
"Attitudes," pp. 184-89

(Weaver, Speech).

b. Special reports assigned on "Personality" from
books by Gordon Allport, Elwood Murray, and
Thonssen and Gilkinson.

Third Meeting

1. Group discussion of stage fright (30 minutes).

   a. Small groups discuss "How I Feel before a Speech,"
      (approximately 8 minutes), then reassemble as a
large group.

b. Instructor, acting as chairman, asks how many individuals have never experienced stage fright.

c. Secretary of each group will report the emotional disturbance experienced by members of that group. In order to avoid duplication and repetition, each secretary eliminates what has already been covered.

d. Atmosphere of the classroom must be friendly and free so that if individual students feel impelled to discuss their problems they may do so.

e. Conclusions will be: (1) Everyone experiences some emotional disturbance before a speaking performance; (2) Each person needs to learn control so that physical evidences of fear do not weaken the audience's confidence in him and so that he can direct this excess tension into purposeful physical action.

2. Presentation of special reports on personality (15 minutes).

3. Assignment.

a. Prepare a 2-minute introduction of another member of the class. Consult that person for the information so that you may know him well enough to add a personal reaction to the factual information.

b. Plan for an interview with the instructor. Make
an analysis of your speech needs and problems. Be ready to indicate your particular interests so that plans may be made for meeting them during the semester's work. Make on a 3 x 5 inch card a copy of your class schedule and bring it with you to the conference. With this information, conferences will be scheduled throughout the semester for private help.

(For additional suggestions, refer to Project 1, page 28, Baird and Knower, General Speech.)

Fourth Meeting

1. Introductions (approximately 40 minutes). A written analysis will be given each student and a duplicate copy kept by the instructor.

2. Working with the class as a unit, the instructor demonstrates good posture, weight distribution, turning, and movement (7 minutes).

3. Assignment for unit two on body action.
   a. Read: Chapter 15. "Bodily Action and Visual Aids for Speech"
      (Baird and Knower, General Speech).
   or
   Chapter 4. "Visible Speech"
      (Weaver, Speech).
b. Be prepared to demonstrate good posture, eye contact, desirable weight distribution, turning and movement by walking to the front of the room and assuming a position and posture suitable for speaking, and, then, establishing contact with the audience through eye contact and turning. Remember that your walk, posture and the position you take all reveal your attitude toward your audience, yourself and your subject.

II. UNIT TWO. BODY ACTION (VISIBLE COMMUNICATION)

The primary purpose of speech is to stimulate a response in the listener. To this end the speaker uses language, voice and body as effectively as possible to express his thought. Speech is a total activity in which all four -- thought, language, voice and body -- are well-coordinated.

Importance of meaningful body action. The basic importance of meaningful body action to speech is commonly overlooked. However, observations of people engaged in earnest conversation or individuals in a tense situation, or a speaker gravely concerned about a problem provides convincing evidence of the importance of total body activity. That speakers communicate not only orally, but visibly to their listeners has been proven by research studies. Gortright conducted an experiment in which the importance to the
listener of seeing or not seeing the speaker was measured. 1
A group of Wayne University students listened to the same
speech, some seeing and hearing the speaker; others only
hearing. Even in the preliminary tests more than two thirds
of the students made better scores with the speaker seen
than with him unseen -- a markedly better performance.

Another experiment tested the importance of the vis-
able elements by having three boards of judges rank the same
speakers for effectiveness. 2 One set of judges was located
in a sound proof room facing the speakers, and about thirty
feet away, from which they could see the speakers but could
not hear them. Their judgments of the effectiveness of the
speakers were based solely upon seeing them enter the room,
speak into the microphone and walk out of the room. Another
set of judges was behind a screen where they could hear but
could not see the speakers. The third set of judges was
seated directly in front of the speaker in a normal speaker-
audience relation where they could both see and hear the
speakers. The ratings of the judges who could see but who

1 Rupert L. Sorgtight, "A Technique for Measuring
Perception Differences for Radio and Direct Audience Speak-
ing," (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, University of

2 Howard Gilkinson, "Indexes of Change in Attitudes
and Behavior Among Students Enrolled in General Speech
Classes," Speech Monographs, 8:22-33, Research Annual, 1941.
could not hear agreed fairly well with those who could both
see and hear. Marked disparities occurred between the
judges who had to rely on sight alone or hearing alone.
What these studies by Cortright and by Wilkinson actually
reveal is that listeners depend upon the sense of sight as
well as the sense of hearing.

Visible communication, then, is basic to effective
speech. Body action can aid the speaker in four ways: (1)
to vivify oral communication by adding visual communica-
tion, (2) to give the right emotional tone to the speaker, (3)
to aid the speaker to do better thinking and (4) to give the
basic physical conditions conducive to good tone production.
The implication for the basic speech course is that body
action deserves particular consideration. It is essential,
however, to bear in mind that speech is a total activity and
that, although attention for a time is focused on body ac-
tion, it is not to the exclusion of the other aspects —
voice, thought and language.

Before the speaker utters a word, his body is visibly
communicating with the audience. Extremes of stature and pe-
culiarity of features are definitely handicaps, but they
can be overcome by a sensitive, expressive body. The speaker
whose body exudes self-assurance and poise will win the con-
fidence and good-will of the audience at once.
Five visible elements require particular attention: (1) personal appearance, (2) posture, (3) eye contact and facial expressions, (4) movement of head and body, (5) gestures.

**Personal appearance.** It is the speaker's responsibility to make the best personal appearance possible. He should be suitably dressed for the occasion, neat, clean and well-groomed. His suit should be freshly pressed, his shoes shined and his hair neatly combed. Eccentric clothing should be avoided as it is a distraction from the thought of the speech.

**Posture.** The carriage or bearing or posture of the speaker is tremendously important both to the speaker and to the audience. The speaker's posture is symbolic of the speaker's attitude. Good posture contributes to the speaker for it helps him to do better thinking and to have better emotional tone. It provides better physical conditions for good voice production and, above all, it communicates the speaker's attitude to his listeners and helps project his message. Conversely, poor posture can nullify the speaker's message. Either too great relaxation or too great tension is undesirable. Too much comfort (relaxation) suggests to the audience carelessness, indolence, shoddiness in the speaker's mental processes. If, on the other hand, the
speaker maintains rigid posture, he suggests mental rigidity or an attitude of superiority which is invariably resented by the audience. The desirable posture is the one which expresses alertness, animation, and confidence and which stimulates alertness and confidence in both the speaker and the audience. Good posture, then, provides a good working base for body action, stimulates mental alertness and gives evidence of vitality and conviction.

**Eye contact.** The head is undoubtedly the most expressive part of the body; eye contact, facial expressions, and head movements are most important in effective speaking.

Since speech is communication, the speaker must always have contact with his listeners. The most effective means of establishing and maintaining contact with the audience and of observing the reactions of the listeners is eye contact. Whether it be an informal conversation or a speaker-audience situation, the effective speaker looks each listener directly in the eye and gives the listener the feeling that he, the speaker, is talking directly to him.

Eye contact is valuable to the speaker not only to hold the listener's attention, but as a device by which the speaker can gauge the audience's response to his speech. If the audience appears listless or bored, the speaker must adjust his thought, language, voice and body so as to stimulate
their interest. If the audience appears to be confused or doubtful, he may elaborate upon his explanations. If on the other hand, they appear to grasp the thought readily, he may well eliminate certain explanations. Eye contact is truly indispensable to effective oral communication.

To be effective, eye contact must be directly into the eyes of the listener. A common misconception is that if a speaker looks in the general direction of the listener that is enough and that the members of the audience can't distinguish whether the speaker is looking over their heads or directly into their eyes. Speech students should check the validity of this belief by observing closely at lectures, in conversations, in classes. In general, listeners either refuse to listen or are bored, resentful or disturbed when the speaker avoids looking them directly in the eyes.

When there is more than one listener, the speaker needs to distribute his eye contact — to look from one to the other and around the group. Care should be exercised to avoid skimming over people; the aim should be to look directly at one person for a few seconds, then another, and so on around the group. In an audience situation, the distribution of eye contact may well be from one side to the center, to the other side, as well as from the back to the front of the room. The middle portion of the group will doubtless receive a major proportion of the eye contact, but
the speaker must keep in contact with all parts of the group. Direct eye contact which reaches all parts of the audience is indispensable to effective speaking.

Facial expressions. Whether one likes it or not the expressions on one's face carry his thoughts to his listeners. Consciously or unconsciously, listeners observe the speaker's face, as well as listen to his voice, in order to comprehend better the speaker's attitude and feelings. If the speaker has an extremely immobile face, he confuses his audience for he hides his real feelings. While a dead pan expression may be an asset to a comedian, it is a definite handicap in conversation or public speaking. Similarly, if a speaker is trying to convince an audience and he has a smile on his face throughout the speech, he negates his purpose. If one has fallen into the habit of using few facial expressions, he should take a hand mirror and analyze the facial expressions he uses for anger, sorrow, joy, seriousness. Are they meaningful? If not meaningful, he should practice before a mirror regularly to limber up his facial muscles so that they will reflect his true feelings. Effective facial expressions are not mechanical, but a reflection of the speaker's inner feelings and attitudes.

Head movement. The head is used effectively in coordination with eye contact to reach all members of the
audience, to affirm or negate or to add emphasis. Everyone is familiar with the turning of the head in coordination with the rest of the body in order to reach all members of the audience. A shaking of the head conveys the speaker's dissent or antagonistic attitude on a particular matter just as a nod of the head portrays the speaker's assent or approval. A sharp downward movement of the head will convey certainty and give emphasis to the idea being expressed.

The head is surely the most expressive part of the body and beginners in speech would do well to concentrate on purposeful use of the head.

Movement of body. Movement of body refers to shifts in body position, such as turning, shifting of weight and walking. A certain amount of movement is desirable under all circumstances. It is a means of holding or attracting attention; it reveals vitality, alertness, interest, conviction. One has only to observe wildlife to see the importance of movement. If the deer or rabbit wants to go unnoticed, he freezes -- stands perfectly still. In this manner, he avoids communicating physical messages to his enemy. In like manner, if the speaker freezes or goes into a mold, the audience feels that he is uneasy, afraid, insecure, and consequently, the audience loses confidence in such a speaker and his message. The speaker who uses no body activity obscures his message as well as his own attitudes
and feelings. Actually, he is failing to communicate.

Since movement is muscular in nature, constant directed practice is essential to the acquirement of natural purposeful movement. Just as one practices under the direction of the golf professional to learn how to play golf well or under the skillful pianist to learn the techniques of playing the piano, so it is imperative that beginners in the field of speech practice under direction to improve and develop meaningful use of the body in speaking. The beginner in speech needs to practice shifting of weight, turning and walking until they become as natural for him to use before an audience as when he is alone.

The amount of movement depends upon the occasion, the size and type of audience and what the speaker is saying. If the occasion is more formal, there will be less movement; if the audience is large, there will be more movement; if the audience is sleepy or lethargic, movement is necessary; if the speaker is intensely earnest or excited about what he is saying, then there will be more movement. The type of audience to which one is speaking is a decisive factor in determining the amount of movement to use. Most speech authorities believe that less movement would be used when speaking to professional people (doctors, engineers, teachers) and to audiences composed of mature or elderly people. Youthful audiences prefer vigor and action, therefore, more
movement would be used in speaking to them. If the audience is composed of farmers, laborers, athletes or other physically active groups, considerable movement would be used.

Just to move is not enough; movement should be purposeful. The movement should mean exactly what the speaker wants it to mean. It should add emphasis and conviction to the ideas expressed vocally. Just as commas, semi-colons, and paragraphs serve to make the relation of written ideas clear to the reader, so movement in speech is a physical form of punctuation for the audience. Movement points up progress in thought and changes in the speaker's attitude. Movement does still more. It gives the audience the feeling that the speaker is alert and vitally concerned with the topic which he is discussing.

Of primary concern to every speaker is the attainment of a good basic position. Basic position is that standing position from which the speaker can easily turn from side to side or walk in any direction. Absolute laws on basic position can not be made since individuals differ so widely in physique, height and weight. In general, it is desirable to have one foot slightly in advance of the other and the two feet neither too close nor too far apart. The individual must experiment to find his basic position and then practice diligently until he assumes it automatically. One of the best tests of the effectiveness of one's basic position is
to practice turning and walking from that position. If one can turn easily as if on an axis from feet to head, thus sweeping the room with one's body and eyes, the basic position is a good one. Similarly, if one can move easily either backward or forward or to either side, it is doubtless a good basic position for that person.

**Distribution of weight on the feet.** The next consideration is the distribution of weight on the feet. Slightly more weight should be placed on one foot than on the other. Caution must be exercised so that the difference is not too great, or else the results will be slanting shoulders, protruding hips, bent knees and general muscle inertia. Neither should there be an even division of weight since that results in a stance which is not only awkward in appearance, but which provides a poor working base for body action.

There are three basic points of weight distribution: (1) on the heels, (2) on the arches of the feet, (3) on the balls of the feet. The shifting or placing of the weight on any one of these basic points conveys certain attitudes since it affects directly the body lines. When the weight is on the heels, the entire body is pulled backward — literally the speaker is withdrawing from the audience. This is a relaxed position and particularly suited to intervals of relaxation, such as the relating of a joke, or to indicate the speaker's attitude that a particular idea is
relatively unimportant. The effect of this position on the speaker is particularly important. He is likely to feel remote from the audience, to become too relaxed, lazy and lethargic in his thinking and feeling. Thus, the weight on the heels is an effective position, but must be used judiciously.

Placing the weight on the arches of the feet (straight down from the center axis of the body) is an effective way to begin a serious speech, or to demonstrate positiveness, confidence or defiance. This position personifies alertness and poise and can be used frequently. Since this is a position of alertness it has no negative effect on the speaker; it becomes actually a vitalizing factor.

The most aggressive of the three positions is assumed when the weight is on the balls of the feet — thus shifting the body forward. This is the position necessary for walking. Most speakers will want to use this position for the climax of their speeches. This position is stimulating to both the speaker and the audience.

It should be self-evident that no one position or weight distribution will suffice, but that there must be a shifting of weight and position as ideas and moods change.

Walking. Turning refers to the coordination of the head, eyes and body so that the speaker reaches all members of the audience. In short talks, turning may supplant
walking or other more abrupt body action.

Walking can contribute much to the effectiveness of a speech. It helps the audience to follow changes in thought and attitude, and to understand their importance. Walking is helpful to the speaker, since it reduces muscular and emotional tension. Not only is walking important during the speech, but the audience's first and last impressions of the speaker are based principally upon how he walks to and from the platform. Walking should be purposeful, natural and easy and appropriate to the thought being expressed.

Any speech has many moods; the walking should be in harmony with the mood. If the mood is that of calm reasoning, then the walking should be deliberate, meditative; whereas, if the speaker is making an emotional appeal, then the walking would be brisk and abrupt.

Changes in thought are given their relative importance by the direction of the walking. If the speaker wishes to give emphasis or to point up an idea, he may move forward. Such transitions as therefore, consequently, furthermore, above all indicate forward movement. On the other hand, if the speaker wishes to indicate a derogatory attitude or unimportance of the thought, he may step backward. Such words as still, yet, despite this, granting that, but indicate a backward movement. A speaker may walk to the side (either to the right or to the left) on such words as
however, nevertheless, in the meantime, as for that, to be sure. These words indicate that the idea following is of relatively the same importance as the preceding one and, therefore, the movement shows that relationship.

Awkward crossing of the feet (scissoring) may be avoided if the speaker will start walking on the foot in the direction in which he plans to move (i.e. left foot if he is to walk to the left).

Movement helps both the speaker and his audience when it is purposeful and appropriate. Since it is primarily a muscular activity, practice is necessary in order to develop skill and coordination.

**Gestures.** Although gestures are technically a type of body movement, they are so important as to merit separate consideration. The term gesture, as used in this thesis, refers to the visible activity of the body with the hand and arm movement as the most important part. No gesture is significant unless it is definite, vigorous, appropriate to the thought and is coordinated with the rest of the body. People engrossed in earnest conversation use many gestures. A truly successful gesture is so well coordinated with the rest of the body and so perfectly integrated and timed with the speech that the audience is unaware of the gesture.

Any gesture has actually three phases: (1) the approach, (2) the stroke, (3) the return. The extent, force
and timing of a gesture depends upon the speaker's attitude or message at that moment. The approach is simply the term used to refer to the act of getting the hand and arm in readiness for the stroke.

The sweep or movement of the hand and arm away from the body is known as the stroke of a gesture. Actually, the stroke is the main part of the gesture and comes at the very moment of greatest emphasis. The stroke should be timed so that it ends a split second before the important word or idea is expressed. Examples: "That is not true!" "The only answer is a blow!" The underlined words are obviously the key or important ones. The stroke of the gesture should end a split second before not or blow is vocalized. In order to be truly effective, the hand must be held firm for a few seconds just where the stroke ended, thus driving the meaning in deep.

The stroke should be appropriate to the speaker's message or attitude. If the message is one of love and gentleness, the stroke would be smooth, gentle; if the message expresses firm conviction, then the stroke would be emphatic; if the message expresses strong emotions, the stroke would be violent and powerful.

Obviously, the return refers to the movement of the hand and arm back to a position close to the body. The return is frequently the most difficult part for beginning
speech students. The return must be deliberate and unobtru-
sive. Swinging arms are particularly to be avoided.

The plane or area in which the gesture moves should
be appropriate to the speaker’s message and attitude. There
are three planes in which gestures move: (1) low, (2) mid-
dle and (3) high.

The low level is from the waist down and is used to
connote rejection, suppression, aversion, contempt or ha-
tred. Examples are: I detest that man! Get down, Rover!

The middle plane is used the most frequently and is
appropriate to simple exposition or calm reasoning. This
plane extends from the waist to the shoulders. Gestures
should be in the middle plane for such sentences as: These
are the facts. We welcome you.

The upper or high plane is used less often, but is
extremely effective when used appropriately. This plane is
above the shoulders. It connotes aspiration, reverence
and appeals for idealism or sacrifice. Examples are: Lift
up your hearts and minds to God! Let us lift our eyes to
the hills! We can, we must, we will! In order to be ef-
fective, a gesture must not obscure the speaker’s face nor
be hidden from the audience (neither below the waist nor too
close to the body).

Gestures may describe, point out, suggest or give em-
phasis. Descriptive gestures are used extensively in both
conversation and public speaking situations to help the listener visualize. The fisherman indicates with his hands the length of the fish he missed; the housewife shows the butcher how thick the steak should be cut. It is common for individuals to point out people, directions or facts.

While there are numerous variations, gestures may be classified into five categories: (1) hand index, (2) hand supine, (3) hand prone, (4) hand vertical, (5) clenched fist.

1. Hand index. In this gesture, the index finger dominates and it is, consequently, used to point out facts or people. There are many variations of this gesture from the accusation with a tense index finger and a taut forearm to the less forceful gesture pointing out the facts. In the latter there would be little tension in the index finger and forearm. The tense emotion of the accusation is revealed in the tense muscles of the hand and arm. In like manner the absence of emotion and the attitude of reasoning calmly is represented by a firm, positive gesture. Primarily, the hand index gesture is a logical gesture, but it is also emotional when it is used to accuse or to challenge.

2. Hand supine. The palm of the hand is held upward and is, therefore, indicative of offering something (as an idea), or asking for something. It is appropriate to express that which is lofty, beautiful, exalted. It is important that use of the hand supine gesture indicates that the
speaker himself accepts the idea which he is presenting. This gesture is utilized by the priest or minister to stimulate his congregation to lofty thoughts or acts. It may be used effectively to motivate people to give to a worthy cause. Illustrations are: Lift up your hearts and minds to God! Won't you give to the Red Cross? Won't you support the Cancer Drive?

3. Hand prone. In this gesture, the palm of the hand is held downward. The prone hand is used to express rejection, disgust or opposition. This gesture becomes more powerful when it moves through more than one plane, usually from the middle plane into the low plane. Examples include: Never! No! No! Away with them!

This gesture may also be used with the hands in front of the body and the palms cut toward the audience. This indicates strong emotions, and is used to warn, to stop or to caution a person or group. It may be used figuratively to repel or reject ideas or people whom the speaker abhors. Illustrations include: Wait! Stop! Stay away from me!

4. Hand vertical. The hand is held straight and open and usually is in a vertical position. This is used for two different purposes: one to indicate differences, to divide a topic into divisions; the other to describe. If this gesture is used for descriptive purposes, the hand will be shaped to portray the form of that which is being
described. Examples are: On the one hand, we have Russia and her satellites; on the other hand, we have the United States and the democracies. It was a circular staircase.
The football should be held firmly in the hands.

5. Clenched fist. This is the most powerful gesture, the most highly charged with emotion. Consequently, it requires a strong approach and a forceful stroke. Since this is such a powerful gesture, it should be used rarely and reserved for the climax of a speech. One should always be certain that it is appropriate. The clenched fist is a gesture that expresses strong personal approval or disapproval. In such sentences as these, the clenched fist gesture could be used effectively: Never! Never! I defy you! The speaker may end this gesture in any one of three ways: in the air, in his other hand or by hitting the lectern.

Gestures are extremely effective when they are appropriate and integrated with the rest of the body and the voice. The beginner in speech will find that practice before a full length mirror is valuable in perfecting gestures and in coordinating them with the whole body. Having developed the muscular skill of gesturing, the speaker should rely on his inner feelings as to when and how often he should gesture. The gesture to be meaningful must be perfectly integrated with the rest of the body and the voice.

In summary, meaningful body action is basic to
effective communication. The members of the audience get
their impressions not only from what they hear, but from
what they see. Consequently, if the body action is weak or
ineffectual, the audience may refuse to accept the speaker's
message. Through a responsive body, a speaker can stimulate
himself and the audience. Purposeful body action is indis-
pensable to effective speaking.

Outline of unit two (class meetings five through
twelve).

Fifth Meeting
1. Discussion of the text material on body action (20 min-
utes).
   a. Panel of five students under the leadership of the
      instructor will discuss the importance of body ac-
      tion to effective communication and will analyze
      the textual material on posture, eye contact,
      facial expressions, head and body movements and
      gesture.
   b. Panel will be composed of three students who use
      the text by Weaver and two students who use the
      text by Baird and Knower.
2. Demonstrations of effective use of body action by each
   student (27 minutes). Each student's demonstration will
   be analyzed and suggestions for improvement will be
given by the instructor.
3. Assignment.
   a. Prepare two original sentences conveying widely different meanings. Practice expressing them effectively using appropriate body action.
   b. Special reports on the following supplementary readings to be given the eighth meeting of the class (4 minutes each):
      Chapter IV, Public Speaking for College Students, by Crocker.
      Chapter III, Principles and Types of Speech, by Monroe.
      Chapters V - VII, Basic Principles of Speech, by Sarett and Foster.

Sixth Meeting

1. Analysis of effective use of body action (47 minutes).
   a. Each student speaks one of the sentences which he has prepared. An oral analysis will be given by the instructor immediately after each student speaks.
   b. Each student delivers the second sentence which he prepared.

2. Assignment.
   a. Prepare a one-minute announcement of a coming
event. Use body action, voice, and language to make what, when, and where stick in the listeners' minds and stimulate them to attend the event.

b. Observe body action in real life. Notice people conversing, speakers as they are delivering lectures and instructors as they are conducting classes.

Seventh Meeting

1. One-minute announcements of a coming event (47 minutes). On-the-spot criticism will be given by the instructor. The student will be stopped and corrected at the instant he makes an ineffective use of body action.

2. Assignment.
   a. Be ready for the special reports assigned at the fifth meeting.
   b. Read: Chapter 3. "Some Beginner's Problems in Speech Preparation"
       Chapter 4. "Ideas: Subjects for Speaking" (Baird and Knower, General Speech).

Eighth Meeting

1. Special reports on body action from other texts (40 minutes). Instructor by direct question or statement will point up the contribution of each writer.

2. Instructor demonstrates and explains gestures (7 minutes).
3. Assignment.
   a. Prepare two sentences whose meanings require clarification or emphasis through gestures. Be prepared to demonstrate with these sentences two different types of gestures. (May use sentences from Problem 6, page 73, Weaver text.)
   b. All read Chapter 11. "Conversation and Interview"

   (Weaver, Speech).

Ninth Meeting

1. Sentences given to demonstrate use of gestures (47 minutes).
   a. Each student delivers one sentence in which he demonstrates appropriate and effective use of gestures and other body actions.
   b. Following each sentence delivered, an oral analysis of gestures and other body actions will be made by the instructor.
   c. Each student delivers his second sentence demonstrating use of gestures.

2. Assignment.
   a. Analyze the best and poorest conversations you have heard in terms of Chapter 11, Speech, by Weaver.
   b. Be ready to participate in a conversation at the
next meeting. Remember the attributes of a good conversationalist.

Tenth Meeting

1. Conversations on hobbies, in groups of two (15 minutes). Instructor will attempt to pair students who are not well acquainted in order to give each experience in adapting through conversation to a new individual.

2. Conversation on any topic of interest, in other groups of two (15 minutes).

3. Students share with the entire class some good attributes of conversations experienced (15 minutes).

4. Assignment.

   a. Plan a four-minute speech explaining how to do something, preferably some physical activity such as: how to serve in tennis, how to pitch a curve, how to punt, how to tackle in football, how to wrap and tie a package, how to make decorations, how to bake a pie.

   b. Bring models, miniatures, diagrams, pictures or any other visual aid to help clarify your speech.

   c. Use gestures and other body action to clarify and make vivid your explanation in your four-minute speech.

Eleventh Meeting

1. Four-minute speeches on how to do something (48 minutes).
2. Written evaluations by instructor given each student at the end of the hour when he speaks. Each student does a written evaluation of the three other speakers in his group.

3. Assignment.
      Chapter 21. "Discussional Speaking"
      (Baird and Knower, General Speech).
      or
      Chapter 12. "Discussion and Debate,"
      pp. 233-48
      (Weaver, Speech).
   b. Be ready to compare discussion and debate as to purpose, form, language and delivery.

Twelfth Meeting

1. Continuation of 4-minute speeches on how to do something (36 minutes).

2. Written evaluations by instructor given each student speaking this period. Student evaluations of speeches made during previous class meeting are handed the students about whom they were written. (The writer's name is clipped by the instructor after he has checked the evaluation for accuracy.)

3. Instructor directs class in an analysis of discussion and debate with particular emphasis on discussion, lists
the responsibilities of the chairman and discussants and
discusses briefly the different types of discussions (12
minutes).

4. Assignment.

Read: Chapter 5. "Ideas: Sources of Materials"
Appendix C. "Suggestions for Library Re-
search"

(Baird and Knowler, General Speech).

or

Chapter 12. "Discussion and Debate,"
pp. 248-59

(Weaver, Speech).

III. UNIT THREE. PARTICIPATION IN VARIOUS FORMS OF SPEECH

The data gathered from the questionnaires, as present-
ed in Chapter III, indicated clearly the desire on the part
of both students and alumni for a basic speech course which
provided experience in the more commonly used speech forms.
Fifty per cent more wanted speaking experiences in the en-
tire speech area than favored a course emphasizing drills
and exercises.

Speech forms desirable for inclusion in a beginning
speech course. The consensus of opinion registered by the
questionnaire study was that informal talks and impromptu
talks were the most significant and deserved much emphasis
in the basic speech course. Sixty per cent and 54 per cent, respectively, felt that they were of great importance; 96 per cent and 92 per cent, respectively, thought that they were of average or great importance.

Since 50 per cent of the respondents believed interviews to be of great importance and 45 per cent regarded conversations as of great importance, these forms should be included in the basic speech course.

Panel discussions and round-table-discussions received identical ratings: 40 per cent felt that they were of great importance, 49 per cent thought that they were of average importance. Both types will be included in the course since 89 per cent regarded them as of average or great importance.

Business meetings and forums were each considered of average or great importance by 81 per cent of the alumni and students responding to the questionnaire. Several class periods in the course will be devoted, therefore, to business meetings and forums.

Since the six top-ranking speech forms were all informal in nature, it is only reasonable to infer that the basic speech course should be organized to give experience and training in speaking informally to small groups. In reality, informal or impromptu talks and panel discussions are only enlarged conversation. Use of the conversational manner and directness in language and delivery should be
emphasized in each of the speaking experiences. All students should develop and habitually use the conversational manner and direct delivery. Another point of emphasis should be on the social aspect of speech. There must be a listener and the speaker must want to communicate with him. No successful speech is planned or delivered in a social vacuum — it is in terms of human beings, their interests, their desires, their motives, their actions, that one speaks. Constantly throughout the course the emphasis should be that speech is a basic tool in the maintenance of the social, vocational and intellectual life of mankind.

**Informal talks.** The informal talk is the speech prepared for a non-formal situation before a small group. A travel talk for a fraternity or club meeting, demonstrations on how to perform some activity, a report on a committee's plans for the annual dinner are typical informal talks.

**Impromptu talks.** In contrast, only in so far as advance preparation is concerned, is the impromptu talk for which the speaker has no advance notice. This lack of advance knowledge that he will speak on a particular subject does not imply that the speaker is ignorant or unprepared on the subject. He may be an authority on the subject or he may have thought, read about, discussed and, perhaps, even spoken on the subject before. The term, impromptu talk,
simply refers to that talk which is given with no forewarning, but for which the speaker may have a great deal of information and experience. This is one of the most commonly used of all speech forms except conversation; however, when one analyzes conversation, he finds that the same distinguishing characteristic of adapting to the unknown or the unfamiliar is present. The student in the classroom who is asked a question which demands coordination of factual information and analysis is doing impromptu speaking. Likewise, the individual who voices his opinion when an issue arises in which he is vitally interested is doing impromptu speaking. These are typical situations which everyone meets frequently. The topics chosen for the impromptu talks will deal with textual material and those problems or issues about which the college student is informed and about which he is concerned.

As far as speech purposes, organization, language and delivery are concerned, the informal and impromptu talks are identical. A detailed explanation of each of the above is dealt with later in this unit in connection with preparing and organizing speeches and discussions.

Conversations. Conversation refers to the oral communication which occurs when two or more people congregate. Man probably indulges in most of his conversations for pleasure, to gratify his desire for companionship. Since
the primary objective of conversation is to improve social relationships, the best way to improve conversation is for the individual to enrich himself: to learn more about everything, to have a wealth of knowledge on a wide variety of subjects, to understand human nature and, above all, to like people.

The topic for a conversation depends upon the individuals concerned, their interests and experiences. A safe and appropriate topic to begin a conversation is one of mutual concern. The good conversationalist is the one who has diversified interests and a wide acquaintance with many fields so that he can adapt to varying interests of his fellowmen. Another attribute of the good conversationalist is his ability to be a good listener — one who has sympathetic concern as revealed by his facial expressions and judicious words.

Weaver contends that the qualities of a good conversation are bound up with the personalities of those conversing. If the person is sympathetic, frank and sincere, his conversations will reflect these qualities. If, however, he is selfish, suspicious, secretive, bitter, then his conversation is boring and tiresome — it repels as he does. It

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is fundamentally important to adjust to different people and different situations in order to be a good conversationalist. The old adage, "All the world loves a cheerful giver," may aptly be paraphrased to read, "All the world loves a good listener."

**Interviews.** The interview is simply specialized conversation, conversation directed to a definite purpose. There are three purposes for which interviews are held: (1) to give information, (2) to secure information and (3) to secure some action desired by the interviewer. The first two purposes may be used in a single interview.

When giving information is the primary purpose for the interview, the interviewer is the one who is giving the information. Industry and business utilize this form in informing key personnel on certain changes in equipment, procedure or policy. The interviewer must be certain that the interviewee wants to understand.

Newspaper reporters and some persons making research studies use interviews to secure information. For such interviews, certain procedures should be followed: an appointment should be made and kept punctually; the interviewee should understand how the material will be used and his consent obtained; and, finally, in order to be truly successful,

the interviewee must be motivated to want to give a full and accurate story.

The interview to secure action is common in the business world. The man who wants a job, to sell a product or to obtain a service, such as a contribution of money or of services, is participating in an action-getting interview. Obviously, the ultimate purpose of this type of interview is to make the interviewee want to do whatever the interviewer wants him to do. As Weaver points out:

In no other speech situation is the personal equation more vital than it is in the business interview; if the interviewer makes an unfavorable impression upon the one he interviews, there can be little hope of a successful outcome.5

Being neat and well-groomed is extremely important. Another good rule to follow is to be brief and to observe the ordinary rules of courtesy. Wait to sit down until you are invited to be seated. Finally, the interviewer should not high-pressure the interviewee. Most people resent being pushed or crowded into a decision, so the interviewer needs to avoid such tactics, although he does need to know just when to press for a commitment.

The preparation for the interview to give or to get information is best made by formulating a check list of items to be covered and thus making sure that nothing is

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5 Ibid., p. 226.
overlooked. The interviewer needs to make careful preparation for the business interview so that he obtains the information he wants. It is advisable for one applying for a position to prepare a typewritten statement of the essential facts about himself, which he may leave with the interviewer for later reference.

Thus, the interview is a formal type of conversation with a single purpose and, because of its nature, requires careful preparation.

Discussions. The role of discussion and conference in our society is limitless. Labor, management, government, religious, educational, social and professional groups all are utilising discussion as a means of: (1) training personnel, (2) disseminating information and strengthening morale and (3) solving problems of misunderstanding or divergence of viewpoint. Even the military forces, by reputation hidebound in their discipline, encourage informal discussions and have established the G.I.Round Table to strengthen morale and to offer an opportunity for orderly exchange and adjustment of individual opinions on public issues.

Discussion is all important in a free and interde- pendent society; it is essential to the successful maintenance of our democratic way of life. Issues are aired, discussed, debated, evaluated and, finally, acted upon by the
citizen at the ballot box.

Discussion is not to be confused with the dormitory bull session or gabfest, nor with aimless conversation, nor with debate. The characteristic of the bull session or the aimless conversation is that they are directionless. In direct contrast is debate which has as its specific purpose the acceptance or rejection of a given proposition. Discussion, on the other hand, is the cooperative investigation of a problem. It is a group activity which stresses reflective thinking in the analysis and solution of a problem. Whereas, in debate the proposition is a contention to be proved or disproved, discussion deals with problems that are yet to be solved. Thus, the topics for discussions are worded as questions and the discussants are seeking a rational answer. Typical discussion topics might be: What are the responsibilities of the federal government for the welfare of its citizens? How can civil liberties be guaranteed to all those living within the United States?

Discussions have certain characteristics: (1) they are group activities, (2) they are oral, (3) they aim to analyze and solve problems and (4) they follow the steps of reflective thinking rather than emotional appeal.

There are three forms or types of discussion: the panel, the round-table, and the symposium. The symposium type is most formal and consists of a series of short talks
on certain assigned topics which are phases of the discussion question. Since the results from the questionnaire, as presented in Chapter III, indicated that symposiums were regarded by alumni and students as of less importance in a basic speech course than the panel discussion or round-table discussion, only a small amount of attention will be devoted to the symposium.

Panel discussions and round-table discussions are very similar, the only difference is that there is no audience physically present for the round-table type, while there may be for the panel type of discussion. In both types the group is small (usually three to five) and the atmosphere is friendly and informal. There is no set order of speaking or time limits as in the symposium. Each contributes freely as he wishes with the exception that no one should monopolize nor should anyone fail to participate.

Careful preparation by each member of a discussion group and planning of the steps to be followed for this discussion (not a rehearsal) are the only sure ways of producing a truly worthwhile discussion. The failure of many so-called discussions has been because of inadequate preparation on the part of the individual members of the group.

Group planning is also essential to producing a worthwhile discussion. A preliminary meeting should be held to make a preliminary analysis of the problem and to indicate leanings
or opinions. At least one more meeting of the group should precede the actual presentation of the discussion. At this meeting the final outline to be followed in the discussion is agreed upon and the chairman again gets indications on opinions and evidence held by panel members.

There are certain responsibilities inherent in discussion leadership: (1) the steps of reflective thinking should be followed, (2) all panel members should have an opportunity to participate -- the monopolizer should be still-ed tactfully, the hesitant one should be encouraged; (3) the discussion should move along by elimination of the irrelevant or inconsequential items, (4) the atmosphere of the discussion should be friendly but business-like -- if conflicts arise, the leader should resolve them and (5) the discussion should be summarized by the leader. Frequently the success of a well-prepared panel discussion is ruined by a weak leader, likewise an exceptional leader may stimulate a mediocre group to present a superior discussion.

It is the responsibility of each discussant: (1) to be well prepared as far as information and evidence are concerned, (2) to have an attitude of cooperation and willingness to listen to divergent opinions, (3) to attack a common problem by thinking and acting with others to attempt to arrive at a rational solution. He should be ready and willing to participate both through actively listening and analyzing
and through oral contributions. At times the discussant must assume some of the responsibilities of the leader — that is, if the leader is incapable or is not fulfilling his job. If, for example, there is one member who succeeds in monopolizing the discussion and the leader has done nothing about it, a capable discussant would cut in at the slightest chance (as the talking member catches his breath or hesitates) and pass on either to the next point at issue or ask for another member's opinion.

The language of the discussion is tactful, considerate, diplomatic, as well as accurate and precise. The discussant learns to preface his remarks in such ways as:

"I agree essentially with what you say, Jack, but have you considered . . . ?"

"That's certainly a good point, Jane, but I'd like to hear what Tom thinks about it."

"Did you happen to read . . . ?"

The round-table type of discussion will be used throughout the semester for discussion of textual material and common problems. Small groups of four will discuss a problem for a specified number of minutes and then will reassemble as a class for discussion and summarization of their findings.

In addition to short panel discussions, each student will participate in one major panel discussion. Each panel
of five students will present a thirty minute discussion, followed by ten minutes of questions and comments. During the last ten minutes of the class period, the instructor will give a critical evaluation of the major panel discussion.

**Forums.** Forum is commonly used in two senses: (1) to refer to the entire discussion or study of a problem and (2) to refer to that period following a lecture, discussion or debate when the audience participates through questions or comments. The latter definition is the one given on the questionnaire and is, therefore, the one that is used throughout this thesis.

The chairman of the forum should be highly skilled for he plays a key role in the success or failure of the forum. The chairman should stimulate the audience to ask questions, to participate. He should encourage the phrasing of brief questions which are clear and on the point at issue. Probably the most difficult responsibility of the chairman is to keep the forum lively and stimulating. A skillful chairman ends a forum when the audience is still interested. The manner in which the forum ends is important. Either the chairman may give a summary or the lecturers or discussants or debaters may each make a final statement.

Those participating in a forum share the responsibilities for its success. The questioners should limit their
questions to vital, important issues and should avoid questions which bring up unrelated points or which attempt to develop a debate between the questioner and the speaker. The questioner as well as the one being questioned needs to be fair and considerate.

The person being questioned should be alert, adaptable, quick-witted and should sincerely desire to make the forum a period of frank discussion of a problem. It is the responsibility of the speaker to restate the question so that all members of the audience may hear it and then to answer it as directly and briefly as possible. Above all else, the questioner and the one being questioned should never become angry, sarcastic or bitter. The fundamental purpose of the forum period is not to show off the versatility of anyone, but to provide for a frank discussion of a controversial issue.

**Business meetings.** Business meetings, as used in the questionnaire and in this thesis, refer to those organizational gatherings where orderly procedure is based upon parliamentary law. Everyone participates more or less frequently in business meetings and should, therefore, have some knowledge of the fundamentals of parliamentary procedure and law. Since the purpose of the business meeting is for a group to accomplish some group action, it must follow an orderly procedure or a set body of rules. Such is
parliamentary law. The use of parliamentary procedure is a guarantee that the will of the majority and the minority may be expressed.

The objective of the brief consideration given to business meetings in the basic college speech course is to give each student an understanding of the basic rules of procedure and two experiences in using parliamentary procedure in actual meetings. Each student should not only understand the obligations and responsibilities of the chairman and secretary, but he should be capable of assuming such positions. Each student should demonstrate facility and skill in making, discussing and disposing of motions.

Importance of preparation for speaking. The findings from the opinion questionnaire, presented in Chapter III, reveal that only a small percentage wanted the basic college speech course to emphasize drills and techniques, but that the vast majority (three times as many) wanted it to be a course emphasizing the problems and needs of the individual students. Research studies reveal the importance of aiding the student in his social adjustment to the speaking situation (see Chapter II). Fear is one of the major disturbing factors in this adjustment to the speaking situation. Careful preparation is an effective means of reducing fear. Therefore, instruction in speech preparation should be provided early in the basic college speech course to allay
fear and to make the course of value to all.

村级 of topic about which to speak. "What shall I talk about?" many beginners in speech ask. The question can only be answered by the student himself. What are his hobbies? What experiences has he had? What are his convictions? Originality should be encouraged. The students need to realize that different interests, backgrounds and experiences make for originality in topic. One of the most interesting and stimulating features of a speech class is the heterogeneity of the experiences, interests and backgrounds of the students. For this reason, subjects for speaking will not be assigned, but forms of speech and purposes will. Each student needs to evaluate himself to determine the topics or subjects on which he can talk with conviction and sincerity. Next, he should consider the audience: are they concerned or should they be concerned with this problem? In most instances, an interested well-informed person who possesses speaking skill can stimulate interest in his topic. The speaker should want to communicate to others, to communicate his ideas, to influence his hearers. The final consideration is the occasion. Is this speech suitable to the occasion? Just as a serious speech is out of place at a pep rally so would a pep talk be out of place at a Commencement or formal dinner or commemorative assembly.
Selection of the purpose of the speech or discussion. Having decided upon the topic for the speech or discussion, the student next determines the general aim or purpose for which he wishes to speak. Ordinarily the selection of purpose does not pose a problem since the speaker undoubtedly chose this particular subject because of his attitude -- his desire to gain understanding, acceptance or some specific action. There are five general purposes for which speeches are given: (1) to inform or instruct, (2) to convince, (3) to actuate, (4) to impress or stimulate and (5) to entertain. The general purpose determines what the speaker says and how he says it. The speech purpose dominates the speech organization, the language used and the delivery of the speech or discussion. Anything which distracts or hinders the attainment of the purpose should be omitted.

Speaking to inform. Of the five speech purposes no other is used as frequently as that to inform. It is basic to the accomplishment of any of the other purposes. One is constantly giving directions, answering questions. What did you do? Where did you go? What did you see? How did it happen? How shall I do it? What do you think of . . . ? Why? are typical questions whose answers necessitate the dissemination of information or instruction.

The informative speech or discussion may be developed in many different ways: by description, by narration, by
showing causal relationship, by comparison or contrast or by any combination of these. Thus, when the purpose is to inform, the speaker analyzes to determine what steps he should use, in what order they should be arranged and what evidence and language will facilitate comprehension. Baird and Knowler point out that the same principles applicable to informative speeches are used in conversation, informal discussion and conference. Whenever possible visual aids should be used to facilitate understanding, to catch and hold attention. Moving pictures, photographs, rough sketches, diagrams and graphs, figures drawn on cardboard or on a blackboard, maps colored or shaded for contrast, cartoons, models and actual objects which can be handled catch the attention and maintain the interest of the audience as well as increase clarity.

One of the most common uses of the informative speech or discussion is to give directions, to explain how to do something, how to carry out some activity or process. How to drive a car, to change a tire, to ski, to lay concrete, to start a motorcycle, to repair a leaky faucet are typical subjects for the informative speech or discussion which

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7 Ibid., p. 335.
gives directions. Such speeches or discussions must follow
the steps in the order in which they are to be performed.
Demonstrating through bodily action while describing orally
facilitates understanding. If the speaker can coordinate
the use of graphic language, good visual aids and meaningful
body action his speaking will have clarity.

A second common use of the informative speech or dis-
cussion is the explanation of an organization or an event.
A speaker or group explaining the Federal Reserve Banking
System, Stalin's rise to power, the United Nations would be
trying to inform, to gain understanding. This, of course,
is the purpose of most classroom lectures. The use of il-
lustrations, analogies, comparisons and contrast adds mate-
rially to the interest as well as to the clarity of such a
speech or discussion.

Another use of the informative speech is the report.
This type is being used more and more frequently in all
areas of our society: business, industry, labor, schools,
churches, government, all are relying more and more on the
report. In the complex economic, political, and social
world of today, work must be delegated and distributed, and,
on the basis of the findings of this smaller group, a spe-
cific course of action is determined. Baird and Knowler
point out that an analysis of informal speaking reveals that
abbreviated reports occur frequently in conversations,
interviews and informal discussions as well as in formal speaking.  

Baird and Knower classify reports into three general groups: (1) the summary, (2) the fact-finding and (3) the critical report. The summary report is, as the name implies, a digest of events or a review of activities participated in or action taken. Both the fact-finding and the critical reports represent research into a problem and are of prime concern to the college student. The fact-finding report is based on observation or experience, on experimentation, on a survey, or on a study of references. The critical report analyzes and usually presents conclusions. The critical report may be made at three stages in the investigation: during the preliminary stage, as the work progresses and when the investigation has been finished. Clarity, precision and accuracy are essential attributes of all reports.

**Speaking to convince.** Speeches for the acceptance of a belief must go beyond the giving of information; they must set forth evidence and reasoning why the listener should accept the speaker’s proposition. More than half of all

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8 Ibid., p. 337.
9 Ibid., p. 338.
10 Weaver, op. cit., p. 263.
speaking is controversial declare Baird and Knower. In the free society in which we live, issues should be aired, discussed and debated before action is taken. In order to maintain this society, all should be capable of active participation in the making of such decisions, hence, the importance of the speech to convince.

It has long been known that if full and favorable attention can be secured for the ideas of the speaker or the conduct he wants adopted, he is well on the way to accomplishing his purpose. Thus, the speaker who is trying to change people's beliefs or actions must plan very carefully to catch and hold their attention. The speaker who wishes to influence the listeners must do more than aim for attention; his analysis, speech organization, evidence and reasoning must present logical reasons why his listeners should accept his proposition; to be truly effective, his argument must be "identified with the beliefs, hopes, desires of the auditors." 

Speaking to actuate. A third general purpose of speech is to actuate — to move the listeners to perform some action; only when this action is completed has the

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11 Baird and Knower, op. cit., p. 351.
12 Weaver, op. cit., p. 165.
speech purpose been accomplished. Speeches of action may ask for the listener to contribute money to a given cause, to vote at a certain election, to vote for a particular candidate, to join a certain organization or perform some action, as to sign a petition. This is without doubt the most complex of the speech purposes; to accomplish it, the speaker must plan carefully because it includes three of the other purposes — to inform, to convince and to stimulate.

**Speaking to stimulate or impress.** When the speaker's purpose is to stimulate or impress, he tries to arouse the listeners by making them feel deeply about some person, event or principle. 

For this speech purpose, the speaker does not indicate certain beliefs or actions to be followed, he depends upon the strength of the emotions he has stirred up within his hearers to accomplish that.

**Speaking to entertain.** Although humor is the primary way of entertaining, speeches with that purpose may be simply the narration of interesting, unusual or amusing incidents, experiences or characters. While the speech to entertain may provide certain information, yet the emphasis is not upon understanding, but upon the unusual, the amusing, the humorous, the ridiculous events, characters or experiences.

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14 Weaver, op. cit., p. 264.
Theme or purpose sentence. When the speaker has determined what the general purpose of the speech is, then he is ready to decide how he is going to accomplish that and express it in the theme or purpose sentence. The theme sentence simply states the speech topic and the specific response desired from the audience. For example:

Subject: United Nations and World Peace.

Topic: Can the United Nations Maintain World Peace?

Theme Sentence:

I shall show you that the United Nations is structurally incapable of maintaining world peace because of the loose structure and the presence of the communist groups within the organization.

The theme or purpose sentence is the essence of the speech; the whole thing in a nutshell. It may or may not be expressed to the audience, but it is extremely important to the speaker for it indicates the bounds within which he is speaking. Anything which distracts from accomplishing the end for which the speech is planned is to be avoided. The anecdote, the example, the analogy should be relevant to the speech purpose and further its attainment.

Determination of what is important. Having selected the topic for the speech or discussion, the student must analyze the entire subject, determining what is important,
what relevant and what irrelevant. Most subjects are too
general and need to be limited. It is well for the beginner
in speech to limit his subjects and to work for clarity.

Crocker advises students to "exhaust" themselves be-
fore they start reading. "Think yourself empty . . . .
Spin the speech out from your insides, like the spider. Sit
down with a pencil, gather all the ideas that your mind
brings up from the subconscious and organize them."

Only
after such a searching analysis is the potential speaker
ready to read. Now he has a topic and a central idea, which
will direct his reading and make it purposeful. Reading
should supplement, not control, one's speaking.

**Basis for organization of the speech or discussion.**
The four rhetorical principles of unity, coherence, emphasis
and climax furnish the basis for speech organization. Any
speech should leave the audience with a single unified im-
pression. There are several ways of developing unity in a
speech: using one and only one central idea; the repetition
of key words, phrases or sentences; restatement or develop-
ing the theme in a variety of ways. All too often well-in-
formed speakers are coherent to themselves, but incoherent
to their audiences. The speaker, because of his familiarity

15 Lionel Crocker, *Public Speaking for College Stu-
with the subject, may omit what to him are obvious connections or sequences and thus become incoherent to the less-informed audience. Transitional phrases contribute to coherence in a speech or discussion because they guide the audience along the path of the speaker's thinking. Such expressions as: There are three phases to this problem: need, cost, and practicality. We have seen that . . . . Moreover, however, if, therefore, are helpful since they act as guideposts to the audience and indicate the direction of the speaker's thinking.

An effective speaker keeps the main ideas uppermost in the minds of his audience by various devices. By devoting more time to an important idea or argument than to the less important ones, emphasis is attained. In his analysis of the topic, the speaker must weigh the points and decide which ones deserve the most attention because of their importance. Emphasis may be gained by an unusual order in the sentence.

Climax means ladder and refers to the arrangement of ideas or arguments in an order that leads from the less important to those of greatest importance. Patrick Henry came to the climax of his famous speech on the concluding line, "Give me Liberty, or give me death!" The accomplished speaker has a sense of the dramatic and builds for climaxes.

Order or sequence of the speech or discussion. The
order or sequence of the speech depends upon the type of speech that it is. In the argumentative or persuasive speech, the thoughts must be arranged so that they lead to a climax; in a narrative talk, the chronological order is essential; in descriptive talks, the place order must be followed. Regardless of the purpose for which the speech or discussion is given, the speech or discussion should be logical and clear to the listeners.

**Introduction of the speech or discussion.** Any speech or discussion, like any letter or written composition, has three divisions: the introduction, the body and the conclusion. The introduction should accomplish four things: (1) secure good will for the speaker and the subject, (2) secure attention for the speaker and the subject, (3) give any explanations or background material on the subject and (4) make clear the theme and purpose of the speech or discussion.

Sometimes good will is secured by finding a common bond, a common experience which both the speaker and the audience share. Winston Churchill speaking to the joint session of Congress on December 26, 1941 found a common ground by telling his listeners that but for a quirk of fate he might have been an American — that is, if his father had been an American instead of his mother. Then, with sly humor, he commented that it was probably just as well, that being the dissenter that he is, he might not be so popular.
At times, good will is attained by complimenting the city, the community or the college on some particular accomplishment or some outstanding leader. Occasionally the chairman secures good will for the speaker by stating the speaker's qualifications and his experience, thereby establishing his right to speak and to merit the audience's confidence. The speaker who is renowned has established himself and thus needs to give less consideration to creating good will in the introduction of his speech. He will, however, have to merit the audience's confidence by the quality of his speech and his delivery. No speaker can afford to overlook the necessity of cultivating good will.

Every speaker needs to remember that no speech or discussion can succeed unless it captures and holds the attention of the audience in the first few sentences. A good device to stimulate interest is to challenge their thinking, shock the listeners into a realization of the seriousness of the situation or give them a good laugh. Use any ethical device, but get the attention of the audience in the opening words of the speech or discussion and then keep it throughout.

To be effective, any speech must be clear so the audience can follow it easily. The first step in clarity is to define or explain the topic and any terms used in the speech or discussion. If the subject is broad, limit the
topic for clarity and completeness. The audience must understand from the beginning where the speaker is headed in the speech or discussion. If the speaker lists in the introduction of his speech the main divisions of the speech and keeps them in the audience's minds, then he will have clarity in his speech. The same is true in a discussion. Care should be exercised that these divisions are not too many nor too detailed. A few major arguments or points will be more effective than many. If the beginner in speech will list his main points in the introduction, develop them in the body of the speech or discussion and restate them in the conclusion, he will have clarity.

Every speaker should inform the audience of his speech theme and purpose. He may, if he chooses, state it in the opening sentence of his speech, or he may make it the last sentence of the introduction. It may be phrased as a question, it may be a statement of the problem or it may be a presentation of some shocking facts. Such an articulation of the speech theme and purpose contributes to clarity and holds the attention of the audience.

Body of the speech or discussion. The body of the speech or discussion develops and enlarges upon those points or arguments listed in the introduction. The body is the very heart of the speech or discussion. Here the speaker presents his major arguments or ideas and supports them
through the use of evidence and reasoning. The opinion-
questionnaire replies (Chapter III) indicated that seventy-
eight per cent of the alumni and students rated logical
thinking as of great importance, none thought it was insig-
nificant. Ninety-two per cent considered evidence as of
average or great importance, while 91 per cent believed
originality of thought to be of average or great importance.
Hence, emphasis should be given to analysis, to logical rea-
soning and to the use of valid evidence.

Each student should learn what is valid evidence and
how to use it in conversation, in discussion or in a speech
to support a contention. Through the study of a significant
public address, the students learn how evidence and reason-
ing are used. Each student will have experience in evalu-
ating (analyzing) evidence and reasoning in several class-
room speeches and in eight listening reports during the se-

mester. The aim is to develop the ability to analyze, to
reason logically and to use valid evidence.

Conclusion of the speech or discussion. The conclu-
sion is the speaker's final opportunity to make the audience
accept his beliefs. The conclusion is the speaker's final
chance to make his points clear through summary, restatement,
or application. It is his last opportunity to apply the
ideas specifically to the interests of the audience and to
show them ways and means of carrying out his suggestions.
The conclusion should be short, climactic, emphatic. It should be worthy of the rest of the speech or discussion. In orations or speeches of strong emotional appeal, the conclusion is the climax.

**Language.** In both oral and written communication, language has many facets of which diction, grammar, pronunciation and clarity are a few. The data from the questionnaires (Chapter III) indicated that strong majorities regarded diction, grammar, pronunciation and clarity as of great importance. Diction is the choice of words used; grammar refers to the use of the correct word and sentence forms; pronunciation is placing the accent on the proper syllable. The speaker needs to be skilled in each of these aspects of language as well as many others. The successful speaker has a wide command of language; he uses words which are vigorous and precise in expressing his ideas, he uses a wide variety of sentence forms and he uses the correct and acceptable forms in his pronunciation and sentence structure. The successful speaker realizes that he loses the confidence of the audience when he mispronounces words or makes grammatical errors.

**Pronunciation.** If the speaker repeatedly makes the same mistakes in pronunciation he will be in grave danger of losing his audience completely. The writer once observed
this happen to a very popular speaker. A local businessman was addressing a high school audience on the subject of credit; the audience liked him and were interested in his topic. The speaker was animated and direct in manner; he had the good-will and confidence of the audience. Then, suddenly, he mispronounced a very common word. The first time he used the word, there was a barely perceptible reaction — a lifting of a few heads, some sharp intaking of breath. The second time, more heads were lifted, more bodies stiffened and, here and there, a titter could be heard. A third time he repeated the word. It was too much for the audience's sense of humor — a nervous but distinctly audible titter ran through the audience. From that moment on, the audience was lost to that speaker; he had not merited their confidence. There is a very valuable lesson to be gained from this incident: correct pronunciation is indispensable for social acceptability whether it be in the platform situation or in our daily conversations. The proper or acceptable pronunciation is like wearing appropriate clothes and being well groomed, both are essential to social acceptability.

Pronunciation is concerned with habit formation. Whereas, articulation is primarily a physical skill, pronunciation is essentially an intellectual habit. The aim should be to develop the habit of consulting the authority
whenever in doubt. That authority is *Webster's Unabridged Dictionary*. The first pronunciation is preferred and, therefore, the one to use. A word list in Appendix B of Baird and Knower's *General Speech* provides an excellent test of accurate pronunciation of some commonly mispronounced words. Little class time will be devoted to pronunciation, but high standards of pronunciation should be maintained by the instructor by always using pronunciation as one of the criteria of each speech performance. The speech rating scale which will be used by the instructor to evaluate each major speech performance has a division under language for rating of pronunciation. Thus, throughout the course in basic speech, the student should develop an appreciation for and a skill in pronunciation.

**Differences between written and spoken language.** Consideration needs to be given to the fundamental differences which exist between written and spoken language. Rhetoric and English classes have given students an acquaintance with the written forms, but it is the responsibility of the speech class to provide the student with a knowledge of the basic differences which exist between written and spoken language.

Whereas written language may be reread and reread for meaning, the spoken words must be understood instantly or their meaning is lost completely. If the listener has to ponder the spoken words, his attention is distracted from
the sentences which follow. Hence, it is of the greatest importance for the speaker to use spoken language which is instantly understandable as well as illustrations and examples which are familiar to the hearer.

Other important differences between written and spoken language include the devices used to clarify meaning. The speaker uses body action, appropriate pauses and variation in voice to clarify and enhance meaning for the hearer. The writer uses capitalization, italics, punctuation and paragraphing to aid the reader in understanding what has been written.

Spoken language has one decided advantage, that of flexibility. The speaker adapts to the reactions of the listeners in a variety of ways: by adding descriptive words; by repeating for emphasis; by changing the order or amount of time spent on certain parts of the speech. The speaker utilizes the imperative and exclamatory forms much more than the writer because they are given in a direct situation and are aided by voice and body action. Effective speakers use the personal pronouns often throughout their speeches because it aids in establishing good-will between the speaker and the audience and is, therefore, conducive to success.

In summary, in the basic college speech course the student should acquire skill in speech preparation and organization, as well as in delivery. Successful completion
of this unit in the basic speech course involves the demonstrated ability to participate well in various forms of speech and to use good organization, sound reasoning, valid evidence, and clear language in speeches and discussions.

Outline of unit three (class meetings thirteen through twenty-seven).

Thirteenth Meeting

1. Panel discussion on sources of materials by four students using the Baird and Knowler text. Instructor acting as chairman of the panel discussion summarizes the conclusions. (12 minutes).

2. Class analyzes the panel discussion on the basis of purpose, thought, organization, language and the material covered. (8 minutes).

3. Symposium discussion on parliamentary procedure by four students using the Weaver text. Instructor acting as chairman directs the symposium discussion and summarizes the conclusions reached. (20 minutes).

4. Class analyzes the symposium discussion on the basis of purpose, organization, thought, language, participation and material covered. (7 minutes).

5. Assignment.
   a. Be prepared to participate in an organizational meeting of this class to form a speech club at the next class meeting. Be ready to nominate at least
two candidates for each office and to name such committees as would be necessary.

b. Instructor names one student to act as temporary chairman and to start the business meeting at the beginning of the class period.

c. Review the material carefully on parliamentary procedure either in the Weaver text or in the notes taken during the symposium discussion of the material presented in class today.

d. Each student will be provided desk charts on parliamentary procedure obtained from the Congress of Industrial Organizations.

e. Each student using the Weaver text will receive a mimeographed copy on source material prepared by the instructor.

Fourteenth Meeting

1. Business meeting to provide practice in the use of parliamentary procedure (45 minutes).
   a. Officers will be nominated and elected.
   b. Committees will be named to draft a constitution and by-laws and to plan some activities.
   c. The instructor will act as parliamentarian to facilitate action.

2. Assignment.
   a. Be ready for the business meeting scheduled for
the seventeenth class period. Committee chairmen are responsible for committee meetings and reports. The complete cooperation of each committee is essential for the success of the committee.

b. Be prepared to present an interview at the fifteenth class meeting. Students select a partner, one takes the role of the interviewer, one of the interviewee. The type of interview will be assigned each pair so that all varieties of interviews will be demonstrated.

**Fifteenth Meeting**

1. Five-minute demonstrations of various types of interviews (30 minutes).

2. Instructor gives a brief oral analysis following each demonstration (15 minutes).

3. No additional assignment for sixteenth meeting.

**Sixteenth Meeting**

1. Five-minute demonstrations of various types of interviews (30 minutes).

2. Instructor gives a brief oral analysis following each demonstration (15 minutes).

3. Assignment for eighteenth meeting.

Body, Conclusions

(Baird and Knowler, General Speech).

or

Chapter 13. "Public Address"

(Weaver, Speech).

b. Bring an example of an excellent introduction and an exceptionally good conclusion to class. Learn all you can about the situation in which the speech was delivered. Use copies of Vital Speeches or Baird's Representative American Speeches which will be found in the college library.

Seventeenth Meeting

1. Business meeting (45 minutes).
   a. Conducted by officers elected at fourteenth meeting.
   b. Reports made by committee chairmen named at fourteenth meeting.
   c. Action on the reports or other business.

2. Assignment.
   a. Select two controversial issues which you would like to discuss. Word each as a discussion question and as a debate proposition. These papers will be checked by the instructor and will form the basis for panel discussions to be presented. Leave the papers with the instructor at the
beginning of the nineteenth meeting.

Eighteenth Meeting

1. Impromptu talks on selected topics dealing with speech purposes, preparation and organization (30 minutes).
2. Analysis of introductions and conclusions (17 minutes).
3. Assignment.
   a. Plan a four minute speech relating a personal experience. The controlling purpose should be to entertain. Prepare carefully the introduction to stimulate interest, the body of the speech for clarity, and the conclusion for climactic effect. Possible subjects might be:
      My First Job
      Once in a Lifetime
      A Thrilling Experience
      A Narrow Escape
      My Most Embarrassing Moment.
   b. Students will analyze each other on the basis of effective organization and meaningful body action.

Nineteenth Meeting

1. Personal experience speeches (47 minutes).
2. Written analysis of each speaker's presentation by the instructor.
3. Assignment.
   a. Read: Chapter 8. "Outlining"
Chapter 9. "Supporting Details"  
(Baird and Knower, General Speech).

or

Chapter 9. "Attention"

Chapter 13. "Public Address"  
(Weaver, Speech).

b. Bring three examples of evidence on some subject or controversial issue on which you feel strongly. Be certain that you have the source for any statistics or quotations and that they are reliable. Test your evidence for validity.

Twentieth Meeting

1. Personal experience speeches continued (40 minutes).

2. Discussion and analysis of the various types of evidence and how to use each by the instructor (7 minutes).

3. Assignment.

   a. Prepare a two-minute speech for the next meeting to illustrate the use of a particular type of evidence. State your purpose or what you are proving. Give your evidence, stating the source and indicating its reliability. Then, conclude the point.

   b. Read: Chapter 21. "Discusssional Speaking"  
      (Baird and Knower, General Speech).

or
Chapter 12. "Discussion and Debate"

(Weaver, Speech).

c. Prepare, in groups of five, for a 30-minute panel discussion followed by a 10-minute forum, on controversial issues, to be presented during the twenty-third through the twenty-sixth meetings. Groups will be organized on the basis of interests indicated by reports assigned at the seventeenth meeting, turned in at the nineteenth meeting and returned by the instructor at this meeting.

Twenty-first Meeting

1. Speeches to demonstrate the use of evidence (45 minutes). Each is analyzed briefly by the instructor solely on organization of the argument and the use of evidence.

2. No additional assignment for the twenty-second meeting. Reading assignment made at the twentieth meeting.

Twenty-second Meeting

1. General class discussion of: importance of discussion and conference, comparison of discussion and debate, comparison of discussion and individual speaking, purpose of discussions, reflective thinking, and techniques of discussion (30 minutes).

2. Lecture on the responsibilities of discussants and those of the leader or chairman (8 minutes).

3. Instructor lectures briefly on forums and the techniques
4. Schedules are posted showing groups, topics they will discuss and the day they will hold their discussion.

5. Assignment.
   a. Continue preparing for a 30-minute panel discussion followed by a 10-minute forum to be presented during the next four meetings.

Twenty-third through Twenty-sixth Meetings

1. Thirty-minute panel discussions each followed by 10-minute forums (40 minutes per meeting).

2. Oral evaluations of each discussion-forum by students and instructor (7 minutes per meeting).

3. Assignment. Read or review:
   Chapter 17. "Adapting Speech to the Listeners"
   Chapter 19. "Argumentative Speaking"
   Chapter 20. "Persuasive Speaking"
   (Baird and Knowler, General Speech).
   or
   Chapter 9. "Attention"
   Chapter 10. "Motivation"
   Chapter 13. "Public Address"
   (Weaver, General Speech).

Twenty-seventh Meeting

1. General class discussion of means of adapting speech to
the listeners so as to gain and hold attention and motivate the audience to action. Consideration will be given to beliefs and prejudices. (35 minutes).

2. Instructor lectures on the importance of critical listening habits, the purposes for which we listen, the important factors or abilities to cultivate in order to become a discriminative listener. (10 minutes).

3. Assignment.
   a. Read: Chapter 16. "Critical Listening"
      (Beird and Knowler, General Speech).
      or
      Pages 221 and 332, "Listening"
      (Weaver, Speech).
   b. Listen by teams to a speaker or attend a speech activity. Plan a four-minute dialogue or conversation in which an analysis of the speaker or the speech activity is presented. (Instructor will plan so that various speakers and types of activities will be covered in the listening experiences.)
   c. Prepare for the written mid-semester examination which will be given on the twenty-ninth meeting day.
IV. UNIT FOUR. LISTENING

Amount of listening in life. During the past decade there has been a growing awareness of the importance of listening and a recognition that listening is, in reality, a major aspect present in every speech situation. The data, as reported in Chapter III, indicated that 65 per cent of the 265 alumni and students replying to the questionnaire thought listening evaluation to be of great importance in a beginning speech course in college. Forty-nine per cent of the respondents considered listening discrimination to be of great importance and another 46 per cent of them considered listening discrimination to be of average importance in a basic speech course. These findings are in keeping with the significance of the role of listening in everyone's life. Man speaks much more than he writes and listens much more than he reads. Today as never before in history, man's voice spans continents and oceans and the impact of his words may be felt throughout the world. Franklin Roosevelt's radio audiences for his "fireside chats" were estimated at fifty million. The international radio program "The Voice of America" reaches a daily audience of three hundred million, it is estimated. In 1949, letters from listeners averaged 10,000 a month; in 1950, the rate was 25,000 a month according to a news release of June 5, 1951. This radio program, sponsored by federal funds, is based on the
realization that through listening peoples' thoughts and
atitudes can be changed and, consequently, national poli-
cies are likely to be adopted that reflect the changed pub-
lic opinion.

The average citizen in 1951 is assailed on every side
with speech — at home, at work, even as he engages in re-
creation. Public address systems, the telephone and the
radio are an integral part of everyone's daily life. Con-
ferences, discussions, lectures, forums are being utilized
by labor unions, farm bureaus, management, government,
churches, schools and communities. Thus, regardless of his
vocation or his social class, modern man is literally bom-
barded with words (spoken ideas) and is spending an ever in-
creasing amount of his waking hours listening. Means of
mass communication have caused this growth in amount and
significance of listening.

Studies show that for young and old alike, radio lis-
tening claims many hours per week. Gruenberg reported in
1935 that "a very large proportion of children between the
ages of six and thirteen devote an imposing amount of hours
to the radio."16 As Luther Meyer points out:

Tyler's radio-interest study indicates that all
this talk about our movie-made child is really

16 Sidonie M. Gruenberg, "Radio and the Child,"
Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sci-
beside the point, that ours are really radio-made children with demonstrated listening averages running from fifteen to twenty-three and perhaps more hours a week. Often more than one hour out of every four waking hours of a child's time is spent at the loud speaker.\textsuperscript{17}

Recent studies reveal that people today spend an average of one hour a week at the movies, five hours a week reading newspapers and magazines, and twenty-five hours a week listening to the radio.\textsuperscript{18}

Need for training in listening. Despite the fact that listening is the most frequently used of the language skills, it is the one for which little training is given. Listening is important not only because it is used so frequently, but because in today's complex society we learn only a few things from experience. We must depend upon authorities for what we read and hear. Yet, the major channel for oral communication, the radio, is actually an instrument of propaganda. News dissemination and interpretation by radio offer constant opportunity for propaganda by means of either commission or omission. Emotional appeals to excite prejudice, hatred, or suspicion result when


incomplete or inaccurate reports are made. Thus, it becomes increasingly important for the listeners in today's world to be critical and discriminative in their listening. In a democracy freedom of speech necessarily means freedom to propagandize. This freedom imposes obligations upon all citizens to analyze propaganda. Basic to propaganda analysis is alert, critical listening and careful examination of controversial issues and problems.

Voice quality or inflections may be used to color statements and change meanings. When one analyzes the different impressions given a news item when it is broadcast by different news commentators, one becomes aware of the insidious nature of propaganda. The printed page may be read and reread and its meaning carefully analyzed, but not so with the spoken word. The listener has practically no opportunity for deliberation. In short, all people are subjected to a bombardment of words, many of which are intended to mislead, to confuse and to corrupt. Thus, it is evident that, in a democratic society, training must be provided which will develop critical, discriminative listeners. The members of a democracy must learn how to think independently, as well as how to think cooperatively and how to make up their minds rationally. To listen actively is the obligation of every group member.

It is recommended that the beginning speech course in
college be designed to provide training in critical listening because of: (1) the tremendous amount of time spent by all people in listening, (2) the terrific implications to a democratic society if the listeners are not critical, (3) the failure of the schools to provide adequate training in the development of listening skill and (4) the questionnaire results indicating that skill in critical listening is of great importance.

**Purposes of listening.** In order to plan an effective training program in listening, it is essential to analyze the purposes for which people listen. Violet Edwards states the following reasons for listening: (1) listening for enjoyment, (2) listening for information or inspiration, (3) listening to improve human relationships and (4) listening to understand the techniques of effective oral communication. It is evident that these purposes for listening overlap and that one often listens for two reasons, not just one alone. To illustrate, one may listen both for information and for pleasure (enjoyment) when he listens to a traveler relate his experiences; or a person may listen for the primary purpose of evaluating the speaker in terms of speech standards or principles and still have a secondary purpose of gaining

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information from the speech. In order, however, to listen critically, one must recognize his purpose or purposes for listening and the techniques for discriminative listening.

**Listening for enjoyment.** Listening for enjoyment is undoubtedly the most commonly used reason for listening. The significant amount of time devoted to movies, television and radio listening is probably for enjoyment, for recreation. Nearly all writers believe that the primary purpose of conversation is enjoyment.\(^2\)\(^o\)\(^v\) Clever repartee, an amusing anecdote, a thrilling story — each has as its primary purpose pleasure.

**Listening for information.** Quite obviously, the average college student spends a large proportion of his time in listening for information. Many college classes are entirely lecture courses, some only partially so, thus it behooves the student to develop skills in effective listening. By learning the skills which have been found to be essential to good listening, the student becomes more competent in his academic work as well as better qualified for intelligent citizenship.

**Listening to improve human relationships.** The third

purpose for listening is to foster good social relationships. Conversations, interviews and informal discussions — all of which the students and alumni replying to the questionnaire thought to be of great importance (Chapter III) — are dependent upon effective listening. In order to fully understand how and what our friends or opponents believe and think, one must first be a good listener. The interesting conversationalist has learned to listen attentively to others in order to create an atmosphere of friendliness through his sympathetic listening attitude, as well as to better understand those with whom he is conversing. Irvin Cobb wrote of his grandfather: "He was almost the silentest human being I have ever known . . . Without saying anything at all he added zest to a company and, by listening with a grave serenity, exalted the talkers."21

Listening to understand the techniques of effective oral communication. The speech class utilizes listening for the comprehension of the techniques of effective oral communication. Most teachers in the field of speech continuously use listening as a teaching tool. Through student and instructor evaluations, the student learns to recognize the principles of effective speech and to refine his skill in

using them. The effective speaker, discussant or debater must fully understand and evaluate what others have said in order to answer effectively the argument and thus gain conviction for his particular point of view. The effective debater, discussant or speaker answers what is asked or said and that necessitates discriminative listening.

Recordings are excellent media to use. Recordings of notable speakers or actors demonstrate to the student the effective use of speech. Through the use of recordings of his own voice, the student can hear himself as others hear him and recognize his speech faults. In fact, so important is this ability to hear and analyze one's own speech inadequacies that some speech teachers believe that it is essential to any development or refinement of speech skills.

**Listening training program suggested.** The suggested listening training program recommended for use in the beginning college speech course should be taught coincident with and related to the refinement of speaking skills. It is suggested that such a program provide: (1) direct and systematic instruction in the abilities possessed by a good listener and (2) ample experience in listening.

The areas selected for emphasis should be those abilities conducive to good listening as revealed by research (Chapter II). They are: (1) a definite purpose for listening; (2) regulation, if possible, of the physical conditions (noise, fatigue, room temperature) or the ability to
concentrate to combat adverse conditions; (3) the ability to select the important from the unimportant; (4) to see the organization of the speech and the relationship of the main points; (5) outlining and note-taking skill; (6) ability to detect fallacious reasoning and (7) the ability to make the necessary psychological adjustments for a fair evaluation of what is heard. Thus, the training provided in speech organization, evidence, reasoning, outlining and note-taking are also training in listening skills.

Ample listening experiences will be provided both in and out of the speech classroom. In order to familiarize the student with the most common speech areas, four speech activities will be attended by each student and an analysis of each written. The four areas will be: (1) a debate, (2) a play or an interpretative reading program, (3) a forum and (4) America's Town Meeting of the Air -- the most outstanding of the radio-discussion programs. Each student will be expected to understand the purposes and techniques involved in each activity before he attends it. Either of the books recommended for use as a text has specific material explaining the purpose and techniques of each of the forms assigned. Four listening reports will be made on speakers -- one on a radio speech, the other three speeches heard in face-to-face situations. One of the four speeches should be a sermon, the others may be for any purpose, but each should be different so that maximum experience is
obtained. No reports are to be made on classroom lectures or speeches given by college instructors either on or off campus. Simple listening evaluation forms should be provided for the written reports. These forms are designed to aid the student in his evaluation and the teacher in his evaluation of the student's listening abilities.

This outlined out-of-class listening does not obviate the listening and evaluation of student speeches and discussions in the speech classroom. The experienced speech teacher knows how much more effective is the criticism made by a fellow student. Each class period should provide constant opportunity for training in discriminative listening and mutual help. From the first meeting, the objective should be to provide a climate of cooperation and mutual confidence and help, not only between the instructor and the class but between the class members. Karl Robinson and Cordelia Brong report that:

A class whose members are discriminative listeners, who are encouraged to criticize each other with an attitude of mutual helpfulness, becomes a unified group working together with a single and significant purpose. 22

Outline of unit four (class meeting twenty-eight).

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Twenty-eighth Meeting

1. Conversations on listening experiences (47 minutes).
   a. Conversations, each between two people evaluating a common listening experience, presented before the entire class and limited to four minutes per conversation.
   b. Divergent opinions or other comments, from class members who also attended the speech, limited to one minute per conversation.

2. Assignment.
   a. During the remainder of the semester, make listening reports of four speakers whom you have heard. Three must be heard in a face-to-face situation, one by radio. One of the four speeches should be a sermon, the others should be different types to provide maximum experience. In no instance is the report to be made of an instructor either on or off campus. Reports should be given to the instructor within two days following the lecture.
   b. Make a listening report on each of the following four speech activities: a debate, a forum, a play or an interpretative reading program and America's Town Meeting of the Air (a radio discussion-forum program). Before attending or auditing these activities, read or review the chapters in the
text dealing in detail with that activity. Know the nature of the activity, its form and purpose. Reports should be given to the instructor within two days following the activity.

c. Be ready for the mid-semester examination at the next meeting.

V. UNIT FIVE. VOICE

Need for voice training. Appropriate use of voice is important in social and vocational relationships. People tend to avoid those whose voices are unpleasant because of a raucous quality, an extremely high pitch, too great or too little volume, faulty articulation, too rapid or too slow a rate of speaking. People often regard voice as an index of personality. The slow speaker is labeled as lazy or easy going, the person with unvarying pitch is considered dull and colorless.

Listening in voice training. Since speech has been acquired so gradually and incidentally, frequently individuals are not aware of their own vocal faults. As a matter of fact, many people have never heard their own voices as others hear them. One of the fundamental laws of learning is a felt need. No one can correct a defect or fault unless he first feels that he has such a defect or fault. For that reason, in this basic college speech course students should
be trained to listen critically to the voices of others as well as to their own voices. Recordings of accomplished speakers, readers and actors should be used to illustrate a pleasing and an efficient use of voice. It is recommended that recordings of each person be made early in the semester, in the middle of the semester and again at the end of the semester so that the student may have his voice problems analyzed and so that he can analyze his own vocal habits and determine whether he is improving them. These student recordings should be made and analyzed at private conferences with the student. If the student has a defect or a bad vocal habit, the instructor should call it to the student’s attention and should give him corrective exercises to practice. Frequent check-ups on the student’s progress should be made to be certain that the exercises are being done correctly. The ideal arrangement would be to have a room equipped and available at all times so that the students might come in at will and listen to their recordings.

*Physical process of voice production.* Basic to the study of the speaking voice is acquaintance with the vocal instrument and the physiological process of voice production. Each student needs to have a clear understanding of how voice is produced.

*A demonstration of composite or medial breathing should be made to illustrate how necessary it is in the*
production of a pleasing, flexible voice. The student should understand that medial breathing gives the speaker greater capacity for breath (air), which is the very basis of voice; that it relaxes the upper chest and throat tensions present in clavicular breathing and, therefore, results in a much more pleasing quality and pitch of voice; and, finally, that the diaphragm-abdominal muscles are valuable in applying force in speaking.

**Five major aspects of voice.** The primary objective of the study of voice in the basic college speech course is the development of a pleasing, expressive voice. Essential to the accomplishment of this aim is an understanding of five major aspects of voice: articulation, quality, force, time and pitch. The basic college speech course should provide the student with this knowledge and give him practice in developing skillful use of his voice. The data from the opinion questionnaire (Chapter III) indicated that an overwhelming majority wanted the basic college speech course organized around the problems and needs of the individual students. Hence, the student’s recordings and his speech performances in class will furnish the core of the work on voice. The emphasis in this unit will be for each student the improvement of his own voice.

It is significant to note that the data from the questionnaire clearly indicated that in the opinion of
students and alumni the major aspects of voice merit emphasis in the basic college speech course. Over 90 per cent rated articulation, quality, pitch, force and time as of average or great importance. Since the data further revealed how few wanted the basic speech course to emphasize drills, the implication is that students and alumni wanted the beginning speech student to develop facility in using the four aspects of voice appropriately in live situations — reading or speaking.

**Importance of clear articulation.** Articulation is the accurate formation of a speech sound; pronunciation is the act of using the correct sound or of placing the accent on the right syllable. A speaker may be said to have poor articulation when he either cannot or does not form certain sounds clearly. A word is said to be mispronounced when the accent is misplaced or the wrong sound is used.

Clarity in articulation and correct pronunciation were of great importance in the opinion of the students and alumni responding to the questionnaires (Chapter III). Eighty per cent rated articulation of great importance and 78 per cent believed pronunciation to be of great importance. Clarity of articulation and acceptable pronunciation are indispensable to intelligibility, social acceptability and to the development of a rich, resonant voice. Many words in our language differ only in a single sound. Hence, if the
speaker's or reader's articulation or pronunciation is faulty, he may be misunderstood by his listeners. Such words as: fuzzy and fuzzy, not and gnat, ant and aunt, ten and tin, watt and what are common examples of words which differ in meaning, but differ only in a single sound. Thus, to be intelligible, the speaker must be accurate in both articulation and pronunciation. Furthermore, careless articulation or pronunciation may undermine the confidence that the audience has in a speaker.

Only through clear, accurate articulation of the vowel sounds will a rich, resonant voice be developed. When articulated properly, the vowel sounds are full, resonant and musical and furnish the fundamental or pure tones in the voice. Thus, for intelligibility, social acceptability and a pleasing voice, clear articulation is essential.

Recent research substantiates the findings from the questionnaire and observation that articulation and pronunciation are significant techniques in speaking. Cordray found in his study, reviewed in Chapter II, that over one half were poor in articulation; that over three fourths were deficient in pronunciation; and that few could be rated good or better in articulation or pronunciation.

Causes of poor articulation. The common errors in articulation are due primarily to carelessness or improper habits, although physical abnormalities in the articulators
should be the only cause. Cordray not only measured the needs of the one hundred college freshmen (Chapter II), but through physical examination of the speech mechanism by dental and medical authorities analyzed the correlation between physical deficiencies and poor articulation. He found defects in the speech mechanism to be rare.

If the individual has a severe articulatory defect, then he should be referred to the speech clinic for specialized attention. However, since most articulatory problems are not severe, they can and should be dealt with in the basic college speech course.

For a large proportion of those who have poor articulation, probably the basic cause is the way in which people learn to speak. Although speech is a skill, it is acquired quite incidentally and accidentally. The child reflects his environment and his speech is an imitation of what he hears about him. If the models speak with a foreign or regional dialect, are careless in their speech or, as in a few instances, have definite speech defects, then the child's speech will have the same characteristics.

Suggestions for improving articulation. One of the first considerations in a basic speech course should be to provide the student with an understanding of how casually people learn to speak. The next step is to understand the physiological process of voice production, particularly how
sounds are formed (articulation). The third step is to find acceptable models of good articulation. Having an understanding of what constitutes good articulation, the student is ready to evaluate his own speech habits through the use of recordings. Following the analysis by the instructor in a private conference, individual exercises are assigned as needed. Since each individual problem is unique, frequent conferences are necessary with the student. The ultimate aim is to develop good speech habits so that the student automatically uses clear articulation.

One of the very early class meetings was devoted to a consideration of how speech is learned, how voice is produced and how sounds are formed; so that throughout the semester one of the criteria used in evaluating the student's achievement is the accuracy of his articulation and pronunciation.

There are three general classifications of speech sounds: vowels, diphthongs and consonants. These sounds are formed by the different positions and movements of the articulators: jaws, lips, tongue, teeth and the soft palate. The vowels and diphthongs are unobstructed resonant sounds without audible friction or stoppage; the diphthongs are a combination of two vowels blended together in the same syllable and made in transition as the articulators move from the position of the first vowel to that of the second; the
consonants are produced by friction or stoppage. Thus, the various positions, shape and movements of the articulators determine the speech sound; each sound is the result of the particular mold formed by the action and position of these articulators. Care must be exercised that the many and precise articulatory adjustments are made so that the articulation is clear, accurate and precise.

Since the three most common causes of poor articulation are lip laziness, tongue laziness or a rigid tight jaw, specific information and exercises will be given to overcome these habits. Common articulatory errors caused by laziness of the lips and tongue are substitutions of d for t or th, sh for s, w for wh, w for v, n for ng, w for r. The sounds of b, p, m, n are often sloppy because the lips are not tense. Vowel sounds will not be musical, clear and resonant unless the lips are shaped properly and thus shape the oral cavity. The various sounds of o provide an excellent example of the effect of the articulators on the shape of the resonating cavity and, therefore, on the sound. The students may be introduced to this idea in a class period by observing each other as they make the different sounds of ò, õ, òò and òò. Their attention should be directed to the different positions assumed by the lips for each of these sounds and the resultant effect on the shape of the resonator. Students should be encouraged to use mirrors to
observe themselves as they are speaking.

The rigid or tight jaw makes clear articulation im-
possible since it does not allow for the changing positions
of the articulators. As a result, the sounds are muffled
and mumbled. The individual with such a problem must learn
to hear, see and feel the difference between his speech
sounds and clearly articulated ones. Next, he must learn to
relax the tension in his jaw and to practice the correct po-

tion of the articulators for the formation of the various
speech sounds. Probably the best exercise to develop re-

laxation of the jaw is yawning. Another excellent one is to
drop the head forward, relaxing the muscles in the back of
the neck, then revolving the head in a circle, relax until
the head drops forward and the chin rests on the chest.
When the student makes either the \( \text{ö} \) or \( \text{ä} \) sounds while he is
doing this exercise, he discovers how much richer and more
resonant the tone becomes as the tension disappears from the
throat muscles and relaxation increases. Although the tight
or rigid jaw habit is a difficult one to eradicate, persis-
tent practice under skillful direction will bring rich re-
wards in clear articulation and a pleasing voice.

Accurate clear articulation can be obtained if the
individual recognizes his problem, is concerned about it and
will practice to eradicate the bad habit and to substitute
in its place the more desirable one. Karl Robinson and
Cordelia Brong found that:

Vocal and articulatory drills take on added value when they are accompanied by a determination to develop a more expressive voice and diction. . . . It is impossible to supplant any undesirable habit with a desirable one without first being conscious specifically and differentially of both. 23

The next step in the improvement of articulation is for the student to develop hearing acuity, so that he hears the sound made accurately. The student who can both hear his own faulty articulation and appreciate the clear articulation of such people as Basil Rathbone, Helen Hayes, Lionel Barrymore, Orson Welles, Winston Churchill, Franklin Roosevelt and Edward R. Murrow has made the first essential step toward improving his articulation.

Some class time will be allotted for the playing of recordings so that each student has the opportunity to hear examples of good speech. Recordings of each student's voice should be made at private conferences and analyzed privately. Such individual help will be available to the student with any vocal problems. Out-of-class time will be provided for group drills on articulation for those who have identical or similar problems.

In summary, standards of acceptable articulation

should be developed in the basic college speech course through analysis of good models, through the analysis of the individual student's articulation by the instructor, through exercises and drills and finally through the use of clear articulation in all speaking situations.

**Importance of voice quality.** When one speaks of the quality of cloth, he means the kind of material regardless of its color, size or shape. Similarly, quality of voice is the kind of voice regardless of the pitch, force or time used. Quality is the timbre or characteristic of voice by which we identify people we know even though we can not see them. Rightly or wrongly, people evaluate others on the basis of their vocal quality. The woman with a harsh, shrill, strident voice may not be nervous and nagging, but all too frequently that is what others will think she is. The man, regardless of his physique, whose voice qualities are thin and weak will be judged by his fellow men as lacking virility and courage. It is vitally important that each individual develop a full, rich, resonant voice.

**Factors involved in voice quality.** Vocal quality is dependent upon two factors: the physical mechanism and the attitudes and emotions of the individual. The growing awareness that voice quality is subject to psychological influences is expressed in both of the textbooks recommended for
Personality development for expression may do more to improve some faults in quality than mechanical drills. Shril, harsh and indistinct tones are often the result of personal factors. Moderate alertness, rather than marked tension or complete relaxation, is conducive to good quality. The speaker should concentrate on thoughts to be expressed. He must overcome inhibitions in responding to ideas and to his feelings. 24

Voice quality is an index of a speaker's emotional responses and habits; it reveals his fundamental attitudes toward himself, others and life in general. Frequently it is necessary to change unhappy moods and feelings before pleasant vocal quality can be established. 25

Since resonance is a prominent aspect of vocal quality, the physical structure of the resonators, the degree of muscular tension present and the resonating habits are important and deserve consideration in any program of improvement of vocal quality. Just as the size and shape of the resonating chamber of a musical instrument influences the quality of the music, so the slightest difference in size, shape and physical condition of the resonators directly affects the vocal quality. One of the best illustrations of this is the change in quality which occurs in growth toward maturity. The very young child has a light thin voice, one


that truly indicates his immaturity. However, that treble quality is deepened during adolescence until by maturity the voice has changed to a deep, rich quality. An extremely high hard palate (roof of the mouth) or a stoppage of the nasal or sinus cavities are examples of the influence of physical conditions of the resonators upon voice quality. As in the case of the stoppage of the nasal or sinus cavities, the physical condition should be corrected. If, however, as in the case of the high hard palate, no such correction can be effected, then the person must learn to compensate for the physical condition. It is encouraging to know that most individuals have normal vocal mechanisms but fail to use them properly.

**Common faults in vocal quality and their correction.**

The most common weaknesses or faults in vocal quality are nasality, huskiness or harshness and weak, thin voices (lack of resonance). Nasality refers to the overuse of nasal resonance. There is a related condition known as denasality which is the absence of sufficient nasal resonance. If one closes his lips and hums the sounds m-m-m-m-m and n-n-n-n, he should feel the vibrations (a tingling sensation) in the nose and lips. If the jaw is held rigid, there will be no tingling in the lips, thus indicating little oral resonance. This is an excellent exercise to determine the presence or absence of oral and nasal resonance.
Huskiness or harshness results from forcing too much air through the vocal cords or from tension in the throat; this is particularly true of harshness. Thus, both relaxation exercises and attention to the attitudes and social adjustment of the individual should be given. One of the best relaxation exercises is to allow the head to drop forward and to swing around as if in a circle. While vocalizing the sound 6-5-3 to open the throat, relax the throat muscles until the chin drops to the chest. Since huskiness may be the result of a diseased condition of the throat, it is well to have a physiological examination. If no abnormal condition is present, relaxation exercises should be used with attention also to the attitudes of the individual.

Thin, weak voices are not only difficult to hear, but they do not convey maturity of thought or experience. There are several possible causes: too high pitch, shallow breathing or the resonators are not being used. Exercises to develop medial breathing and breath control, relaxation exercises, as well as other exercises to improve resonance, are recommended for the development of a rich, resonant voice. Each student should aim to develop a voice which is pleasing to hear and is flexible enough to convey his inner feelings.

Eight different kinds of vocal quality and the emotions they express. Quality can be used to indicate not only the individuality of the person but also his attitudes
and emotions. Actually, the individual's ability to communicate feeling is dependent upon his skill in using the appropriate vocal quality. Eight different vocal qualities are: (1) normal, (2) oral, (3) orotund, (4) aspirate, (5) guttural, (6) nasal, (7) pectoral and (8) falsetto. All eight of these vocal qualities will be studied briefly and each student will understand what emotion each quality portrays, and will develop skill in using these voice qualities appropriately.

The normal quality is that quality which is peculiar to each individual and, hence, is the most important one for the average person to concentrate upon. The aim should be to improve each student's speech habits so that his normal voice quality is full and vibrant.

The oral quality is weak and thin and indicates weakness — physical, mental or emotional. This quality may be used to belittle an individual or his point of view or it may be used to indicate extreme youth, old age, physical exhaustion or feebleness of mind. Since a very poor impression is conveyed when the oral quality is an individual's normal quality of voice, great effort should be exerted to eradicate habitual use of the oral quality. It is, however, most effective to indicate the absurdity of an argument or an individual. The mouth is the primary resonator used in producing the oral quality; it lacks energy and power
because little force is applied.

The orotund quality with its full resonant tone is very desirable for either reading or speaking. The orotund quality is merely the normal quality made more vigorous and effective; greater force is applied and resonance is enhanced for audibility at a distance and to convey strong emotions. This quality reveals depth of emotion, reverence, dignity, power. Such selections as "The Recessional" by Kipling, "The Ocean" by Byron, "Warren's Address" by Pierpont, any selection from the Bible or an oration requires the rotund quality. Elimination of throat and postural tensions and the use of good breathing and resonating habits will result in production of the orotund quality. This is one of the most valuable of the eight qualities.

The aspirate quality is breathy and, in the extreme, is without phonation. Fear or awe are the most common emotions portrayed by the aspirate quality. Students benefit from learning to use the aspirate quality because they have to enhance projection and articulation. Such words as: Hush! Silence! Listen! require the use of the aspirate quality, yet they may be heard distinctly in a large room if properly projected. This quality provides a clear demonstration of the importance of clear articulation, proper breathing and good breath control when speaking.

The guttural quality is one of the most unpleasant of
the voice qualities and reveals some of the baser emotions such as anger or deep hatred. I hate you! Get out! I'll kill you! are typical thoughts which would require the guttural quality. The classic example of the guttural quality is Shylock's speech to Antonio when the latter asks to borrow money. The guttural quality is made deep in the throat and is a growl.

The nasal quality is the result of overuse of the nasal resonators. It may be used to convey sarcasm or satire. Not only is the nasal quality an unpleasant one to hear, but it has only limited usefulness. Denasality, too little nasal resonance, should be avoided. For a pleasing voice one needs all resonance in balance.

The pectoral quality is made by resonating the tone in the upper chest. It creates a hollow, sepulchral, ghostly effect. Typical of the selections requiring the pectoral quality are the speeches spoken by the ghost to Hamlet. The pectoral quality is of value to the actor, but not to the ordinary person.

The falsetto quality is high pitched and slides higher, often ending in a shriek or a scream. It reveals uncontrolled fear, acute panic or hysteria. Little consideration need be given to this quality in a beginning speech course because its use is limited to acting.

In summary, it is valuable for the student to under-
stand the physical process of voice production, particularly resonance and its resultant effect on vocal quality. The student should realize that thinking and feeling what he is saying is extremely valuable in producing a rich, resonant voice. Voices automatically register any emotion unless the individual has tried to hide his real attitudes and feelings from others. Such people need help in their social adjustments. The objective in the study of the various kinds of vocal quality is to learn to control the speech mechanism so that it responds naturally and easily to the inner feelings of the speaker or reader.

**Purposes of force in speech.** Force refers to the amount of energy used in speaking. Force is the power with which the air strikes the vocal folds or how it is expelled from the mouth. It contributes much to effective speaking. Force may be used for many purposes: to attain audibility, to emphasise or subordinate ideas, to indicate strong feeling and to vitalize the speech. A firm, vigorous voice is an essential for effective speaking.

One of the primary requirements of effective speech is audibility. It is the speaker's responsibility to gauge the amount of force which he must use in order to be heard. The size and shape of the room, its acoustical qualities and the size of the audience determine how much vocal force is necessary to be audible. If one were speaking in a large
auditorium or out of doors, he would have to use much more vocal force to be audible than he would in a classroom or a small room. If the audience is large, more force is required; if the listeners are few, the amount of force will be less. Too much force can be equally as damaging to effective speaking or reading as too little force. Students of speech need to develop the ability to use force effectively and to adjust the amount necessary for the particular situation.

**Degree as an attribute of force.** Force may be varied in degree, form or stress; consideration will be given to each. Degree refers to the varying amounts of vocal energy used in speaking. Force is varied in degree primarily for emphasis. For example, an idea may be emphasized by speaking with great volume or with great intensity; another means of emphasizing an idea would be to reduce the amount of force, to speak softly. Degrees of force range from one end of a continuum to the opposite extreme — from the subdued through the moderate and energetic to the impassioned.

What degree is used depends upon the speaker's attitude. If the speech is one of calm reasoning, then the moderate degree is used; if the speech is highly charged with emotions, then the impassioned degree is used. For awe, reverence, whimsy or intimacy the subdued degree is the most appropriate. Changes in degree aid the speaker in
avoiding monotony and thus in vitalizing the speech and stim-
ulating the audience’s interest. A speaker with little vari-
ation in force may lull an audience to sleep, whereas a
drowsy audience (be it one person or several hundred) can be
alerted by a skillful use of the varying degrees of force.

Some people have the preconceived notion that pitch
must be higher when the volume is great. This is basically
inaccurate. Pitch rises because of the tension (constric-
tion) of the throat muscles. Beginners need to practice to
keep the pitch down and still increase the volume. Only by
the use of medial breathing will one have both the breath
capacity and breath control for an effective use of force.

**Form as an attribute of force.** Form refers to the
manner in which force is applied — that is, abruptly or
gradually. When force is applied firmly and gradually, it
is called the effusive form. The effusive form has little
variety and is characterized by sustained force. The degree
or amount of force used may be either subdued or vigorous
or any other degree; but whatever the degree, it is sustain-
ed — does not vary. This form conveys dignity, reverence,
grandeur. Typical selections that require the effusive form
are "The Recessional" by Kipling, "The Ocean" by Byron,
"Petition to Time" by Proctor and Biblical selections. This
form is used primarily for reading, but it is valuable for
sermons, eulogies, dedicatory speeches or other speeches to
 impress.

The explosive form has greater variety; it is vigorous, free, earnest, decisive and is, therefore, essential for effective conversation or public speaking. Each word is uttered with a quick, vigorous attack.

The explosive form is sharper, more abrupt, more vigorous and reveals intense feeling. It conveys strong feelings such as fear, excitement, anger, fervor. When it is appropriately used, it is impressive. The explosive form is useful for either reading aloud or speaking.

Students should practice using these three forms (effusive, explosive, explosive) to develop an expressive voice. Emphasis should be placed upon the fact that the aim is to develop a flexible, expressive voice which will reflect the speaker's attitudes and feelings. The practice should be directed toward developing the skill to produce different types of force and thus a more expressive voice. Care should be exercised to avoid the artificial use of any of the techniques. When the speaker or reader is thinking and feeling as he speaks or reads, his voice will usually register and reflect his thoughts and feelings.

Stress as an attribute of force. Stress is the amount of force applied to the different sounds, syllables or words. Stress is one method of indicating degrees of importance. It is very valuable in securing and holding
attention. Rate and pitch are also used with stress to accent the stressed syllable. Pronunciation is a common example of the use of stress; the accented syllable receives the stress. Sometimes in order to emphasize an idea or thought, stress is placed in violation of the rules of pronunciation. Such a case would be: I ordered you to proceed not to precede.

Stress may be placed on a syllable, word or sentence. If stress is placed at the end of a sentence or word, it suggests deep purpose, hatred, anger. Such sentences as: Go and never return! and On, Stanley, on! would utilize final stress. Emphasis placed upon the beginning syllable or word indicates vigor and confidence. Sometimes stress is placed upon both the beginning and the end of the sound or sentence. When so placed, attitudes of irony, sarcasm and bitterness are conveyed. Oh, so that's the way you feel! I? Admire him? Stress placed in the middle of a word or sentence expresses sorrow, grief, a broken spirit. I have nothing to live for! If stress is spread evenly over the syllable, word or sentence, it reveals little emotion. Such would be used for calls or announcements. Train calls or announcements of names are common uses for this type of stress. Hello! Ship Ahoy! Katherine, Queen of Aragon, come into court! are other examples. The final type of stress is used to denote feebleness, great weakness of mind or body or
both. It frequently is used to reveal extreme old age, frailty or deep sorrow. I am a very foolish old woman! Pray do not laugh at me! The stress in such cases would be in waves across the whole length of the sentence. Effective use of stress is essential for vigorous, vital speech.

Thus, through the use of force, the speaker can not only vitalize his speech, but he can clarify his ideas. He can emphasize through the use of force the idea which he considers important or about which he feels strongly. Conversely, he can subordinate certain ideas by using less force -- either degree or stress. Through the use of form, the speaker creates the dominant mood of the speech or reading. Thus, control of force is valuable to effective communication.

The best way to gain skill in the use of force is through practice. One should be sure that when he practices he places himself imaginatively in the situation and then uses his voice and body to express the emotion or thought. Thinking and projecting oneself into the situation will prevent artificiality.

Factors involved in time. Time is the duration of utterance, the length of vocal sounds or syllables, the pauses which occur at intervals between them and the rate with which they are spoken. Frequently, speakers whom we call ineffective, tiresome or monotonous are so because they
do not understand or use the time elements of rate, pause and quantity. Actually the amount of time a speaker should use expressing a given idea is directly proportional to the importance he attaches to that idea. Consequently, if the speaker rushes along using the same rate for everything he says, then nothing is important to him or to his listeners. The speaker actually exhausts his listeners, in such a case, trying to keep up with him. The effective speaker will vary the rate at which he speaks, spending more time on those ideas which he considers most important and less on those which are subordinate. The listeners also need time to assimilate the speaker's ideas and, therefore, the good speaker provides pauses throughout his speech. Another way of improving one's speaking is to use quantity for emphasis on key words. Such words as dead, dull, black, silence and desperate fall flat unless the speaker can give to each its peculiar quantity suitable to its connotation. Each of the three time elements will be considered for its usefulness.

Rate as a factor in time. Rate in speaking is comparable to tempo in music. In general, one speaks more slowly before an audience than in conversation with a few; if the audience is a large one, the rate should be slower and more deliberate in order that all may hear. The individual with considerable energy or who thinks rapidly is prone to speak rapidly. He is not doing an effective job of
communicating because his listeners simply can't keep up with him. At the other extreme, there is the person who is consistently slow and deliberate; he, too, tires his listeners and fails to communicate his ideas. The effective speaker varies the rate at which he speaks according to the importance of the idea, slowing down for the important words or thoughts and speeding up for the less significant. One should avoid extremes: either too great deliberation or too great speed.

**Pauses as a factor in time.** Pauses are the punctuation marks of speech; they indicate transitions of thought or feeling and show the relationship of groups of words to the central idea. The spacing between words, phrases, clauses, and sentences is known as phrasing or grouping. The effective speaker or reader is skillful in phrasing for meaning; he helps his listener by grouping the words so that the meaning is clear. The following sentences illustrate how changing the phrasing and the placing of pauses can totally change the thought: Can you pull, Tim? Can you pull Tim? The use of phrasing and pauses is extremely important and necessary to make the ideas intelligible and provide the speaker with an opportunity to breathe.

There are two kinds of pauses, the grammatical and the dramatic pause. The grammatical pause is used to indicate relationships between parts of a sentence; the dramatic
pause before or following an important idea is designed to polarize the attention and emotions of the listeners on what has been said or will be said. Literally, the speaker is letting the idea sink in when he uses a pause following an important statement. Using the dramatic pause before he utters the important word or idea shocks the audience into listening. The sudden silence attracts attention as much as or sometimes even more than a shout. Most beginners in speech think that fluency (talking without hesitations or breaks) is the primary aim. A far better objective would be to make whatever they say meaningful. This can be accomplished by using proper timing and especially by using pauses for emphasis.

The full effect of the dramatic pause may be lost if the speaker himself does not exemplify his attitude. The speaker must concentrate on the idea; he must feel deeply that which he is expressing. Obviously, if during the pause his body evidences no more emotion than a wooden puppet, then he appears stiff, artificial, ridiculous, and his ideas hollow and meaningless. The audience can tell readily whether or not a speaker is thinking and feeling deeply.

Franklin Delano Roosevelt and Winston Churchill, the two great orators of the World War II era, used pauses most effectively. The novice who is afraid to use pauses would do well to listen to recordings of some of these men's
speeches and to note how pauses enhance the point and clarify it.

**Quantity as a factor in time.** Quantity is the time spent on the utterance of individual vowel sounds and syllables. A feeling for quantity is important to the speaker and reader for it gives them a knowledge of the value of sounds. There are two classes of sounds: the stopped sounds and the continuant sounds. The stopped sounds are those which can not be prolonged profitably: b, d, g, j, k, p, t. Although s and sh are stopped sounds, they may be prolonged when they are used in such effect-producing words as hush, silence or crash. Words containing stopped sounds such as back, bed, dent, gang and bomb need to have them sharp and short. Only by recognizing and stressing the stopped sounds in such words is their true meaning conveyed.

The continuant sounds are those which can be lengthened. Such sounds as a, e, i, o, u, l, m, n, r, v and ng can be lengthened. Words frequently contain both stopped and continuant sounds. The meaning of the word determines the quantity to be used.

Medium quantity is used when the mind is not agitated by any strong emotion. Introductions, descriptions and narratives are a few examples of when the medium quantity is appropriate. The long quantity is applied to express emotions of sorrow, love, pathos, sublimity, reverence, adora-
tion. Lengthening the vowel sounds is the primary method of attaining long quantity.

The effective speaker or reader realizes that the thought or emotion being expressed determines the quantity used. "Annabel Lee," Poe's immortal poem expressing his grief at the loss of his wife, is an example of a selection which would require the long quantity to convey the mood of the poem. In contrast would be Browning's poem, "How They Brought the Good News from Ghent to Aix." Such lines as,

I sprang to the stirrup, and Joris, and he;
I galloped, Direk galloped, we galloped all three;
or

The broad sun above laughed a pitiless laugh,
Neath our feet broke the brittle bright stubble
like chaff.

Such lines would require short, clipped quantity.

**Purposes of pitch in speech.** As used in speech, pitch refers to the key or tone of a person's speaking voice. Pitch is determined by the frequency of sound waves; the greater the number of vibrations per second, the higher the pitch. These vibrations are set in motion by the air striking the vocal bands. Pitch reveals the speaker's emotions, attitudes and particularly his thinking. Fine distinctions and shadings of meaning can be most effectively revealed through the use of changes in pitch. The same sentence voiced with different inflections or pitch changes carries
entirely different meanings.

I could never do that. (You might be able but not I.)
I could never do that. (No matter how long I tried, I could never do it.)
I could never do that. (Such an act I could never perform.)
I could never do that. (Other things I might do but that particular one is impossible.)

Factors which determine pitch. Pitch is the result of both physiological and psychological factors. The primary physical factors which determine the pitch of an individual's voice are: the size and length of the vocal folds, the size and shape of the resonators, and the tensions of the vocal folds. The difference in pitch between men and women is the result of the physical difference in the length and thickness of the vocal folds. In adolescence, the boy's vocal folds increase in length and thickness as the larynx increases markedly in size, and the pitch of his voice drops about one octave. The normal pitch for men is generally one octave lower than the normal pitch for women because the longer thicker vocal folds of the men have fewer vibrations per second.26

Body tensions are frequently the result of mental or emotional tensions. The close relationship between emotional tension and muscle tension is the reason why, as people become excited, the pitch of their voices rises. The highly excitable nervous individual has a high pitched voice because of the tension of throat muscles. The easy-going calm person usually has a low pitched voice. This close relationship between emotional adjustment and pitch level affects the teaching procedures in dealing with pitch. Andrew Weaver states:

Practically the only way of securing any permanent readjustment of average vocal pitch is through some form of mental hygiene that will change bodily tensions generally.  

Faults in pitch. The common pitch faults are, in reality, abuses: little or no variety, a regular melody pattern, too high or too low a pitch. Nothing is quite so tiresome, so monotonous as to listen to a speaker who uses little or no variety in pitch. The monotone uses only one key or pitch and is, therefore, monotonous to hear. Without pitch variety the speaker can not indicate changes in thought and attitude. Some people have a regular melody pattern. They vary the pitch of their voices, but they do it regularly regardless of the meaning. Some people use all

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27 Ibid., p. 112.
upward inflections (or rising slides) so that they always sound as if they were asking a question. Such habits are not only distracting and annoying, they are confusing to his hearers.

Pitch is not only valuable in conveying meaning, but it is important in conveying character. The pitch of an individual's voice is often the criterion used in judging character and abilities. If we hear a person with a high pitched voice, we are prone to think of him as nervous, high strung, insecure, excitable; if the speaker's voice is unvaried in pitch, we are likely to evaluate him as a dull, uninteresting individual; if the speaker continually uses rising inflections, his audience soon loses confidence in him and concludes that he is a weak, spineless individual with no self-assurance, little information and no convictions. Skill in the use of pitch not only reveals fine shadings of meaning but also the character of the speaker.

Range in pitch. Everyone has a normal pitch level from which his voice may either go up to a higher key or down to a lower key. The extent of that variation from high to low, or vice versa, is known as range. Normal pitch levels vary between individuals as well as between the sexes. The greater the speaker's range in pitch the more expressive his voice. Just as the range of the singing voice can be extended by practice and exercises, so the range of the
speaking voice can be increased through the use of exercises.

**Changes in pitch.** There are two ways in which pitch changes occur during speech: the slide and the step. The slide is the pitch change up or down during the utterance of a sound or a word. The step is the pitch variation between words or syllables. The more animated the speaker is in what he is saying the more pitch steps he will use. Hence, the best way to improve in the use of steps in pitch is to become more concerned with what one is saying. The most common forms of the slide are the upward and the downward slides, sometimes called the rising and falling slides. There are many combinations of these two. The upward slide gives variety and conveys attitudes of hopefulness, happiness, joy, optimism. However, when the upward slide is used at the end of a sentence or predominately throughout the sentence, it will convey doubt, insecurity, questioning. Consequently, the individual who uses only rising slides will have difficulty in gaining the confidence of the audience and of being convincing. The falling or downward slide gives emphasis and is forceful. Most sentences should end with falling slides, particularly sentences that command or are emphatic. The effective speaker uses a variety of steps and slides in pitch to express ideas. Beginners in speech should familiarize themselves with these techniques, practice to develop flexibility of voice and then concentrate on
thinking, feeling and communicating what they feel. The warning is: Avoid working pitch to death. Don't become artificial! Think, feel, communicate!

Teaching of pitch. The procedure followed in teaching pitch will be to make recordings of each student's voice at the beginning of the semester and then, in private conference with the individual student, to analyze his voice and assign exercises which will help him to correct his faults. Other recordings will be made in midsemester and at the end of the semester to measure improvement. Class work on pitch will be done by beginning with simple sentences and will work into reading of selections (both prose and poetry) and original speeches by the students.

In summary, an expressive voice is one of the most powerful assets a person can possess. To the rest of the world, one's voice is an indication of character and personality. It may reveal self-assurance or timidity, depth of emotion or absence of it, friendliness or enmity.

In the basic college speech course emphasis should be given to the study of voice since effective use of voice is so essential for everyone. The objective should be the development of a pleasing, expressive voice, one which expresses the speaker's thoughts and feelings. The student needs to understand the physiological and psychological basis of voice and how to use it for effective communication. The
first step in a program of voice improvement is the development of healthy social attitudes and good mental hygiene -- in short, the development of an interesting personality. Usually when fears and unsocial attitudes are eliminated, the voice reflects the improvement and becomes more pleasing and expressive. If, however, the problem has its origin in incorrect or poor habits of voice production (i.e. breathing, phonation, articulation or resonance) then the attack must be on the techniques. Each student should be provided ample opportunities to use his voice effectively in both speaking and reading experiences.

Outline of unit five (class meetings twenty-nine through forty-eight).

Twenty-ninth Meeting

1. Written mid-semester examination (45 minutes).
2. Assignment.
      Chapter 14. "Articulation and Pronunciation"
      (Beard and Know, General Speech)

   or

      Chapter 5. "Voice"
      (Weaver, Speech).

   b. Be prepared to discuss this material or to give an impromptu talk on any phase of it.
Thirtieth Meeting

1. General class discussion (10 minutes).
   a. Characteristics of an effective speaking voice.
   b. Breathing and breath control and their relationship to voice production.

2. Lecture on breathing and voice production (20 minutes). Large size drawings of the head, throat and chest should be used to clarify for the student the physiological aspects of voice production and to demonstrate the fundamental role of breathing and good breath control.

3. Practice in medial or composite breathing in unison (10 minutes). Practice such as this should be done by each student regularly.

4. Brief lecture on articulation and pronunciation, identifying each and pointing out the importance of each to effective oral communication (5 minutes).

5. Assignment.
   a. Using a hand mirror, analyze the various sounds and how they are formed. Notice the difference in the sound produced when the articulators are too tense or too relaxed (a tight jaw or lazy lips or tongue).
   b. Practice exercises involving sound combinations that are the most difficult sounds for you to articulate precisely. Make up your own tongue-
twisters or use those in project 3, pages 250-51, Baird and Knowler, *General Speech*.

c. Prepare a one-minute selection, either prose or poetry, to demonstrate clear articulation and accurate pronunciation.

d. Read: Chapter 6. "The Tone Code"

(Weaver, *Speech*).

Thirty-first Meeting

1. Class in unison practices some of the exercises for relaxing tension and toning up the articulators (8 minutes). Combine various consonant sounds with vowels. For example: ba--be--bi--bo--bu

za--ze--zi--zo--zu.

2. Each class member reads a selection and is evaluated for clarity of articulation and accuracy of pronunciation by the instructor (25 minutes).

3. Each class member does a tongue-twister involving sounds and sound combinations which are the most difficult for him to articulate clearly (15 minutes).

4. Assignment.

   a. Prepare six original sentences demonstrating the use of volume, intensity, stress and the various forms of force. Use appropriate body action.

   b. Be prepared to discuss the four aspects of voice and their importance to effective speech.
Thirty-second Meeting

1. Rapid review of breathing, breath control, voice production and the characteristics of an effective speaking voice (5 minutes).

2. Identification of the four aspects of voice: quality, force, time and pitch (5 minutes).

3. Each student speaks his original sentences which illustrate the use of volume or intensity (degree) (15 minutes).

4. Each student speaks his original sentence demonstrating the use of stress (10 minutes).

5. Each student demonstrates one of the forms of force. The instructor will assign the form so that there is demonstration of all three forms (10 minutes).

6. Assignment.

   a. Prepare a one-minute reading to exemplify effective use of the various kinds of force.

   b. Review the textual material on voice quality.

Thirty-third Meeting

1. One-minute readings (20 minutes).

2. Oral analysis made of each by students and instructor (20 minutes).

3. Rapid review of voice quality (5 minutes).

   Definition of quality; common faults such as harshness and nasality; causes of these faults; different types of
quality and their meaning.

4. Assignment.
   a. Compose five sentences to demonstrate five vocal qualities. Be prepared to deliver the sentences in class as a demonstration of your ability to produce these vocal qualities.
   b. Practice to improve resonance, using the mimeographed sheet of words and sentences which require a fully resonated tone.

Thirty-fourth Meeting

1. Listen to records by skilled speakers or readers to recognize high standards of articulation, pronunciation, vocal quality and force used (10 minutes).
   Suggested ones are: "A Christmas Carol" with either Lionel Barrymore or Basil Rathbone or some records from the Morrow albums "I Can Hear It Now," particularly those with recordings of Hitler, Roosevelt, Mussolini, Churchill.

2. Demonstrations of the appropriate use of vocal quality (40 minutes).
   Instructor will assign the various qualities so that all are demonstrated. Each student will give at least one sentence and will receive an oral analysis by the instructor.

3. Assignment.
a. Prepare a two-minute selection which exemplifies variety of mood. Be ready to read it for the class so that the emotional mood is clearly conveyed through the appropriate use of vocal quality.

b. Plan to use prose for one reading, poetry for the other, so that you gain experience in reading both.

c. Suggested selections would include: "The Ocean," by Byron; "Westminster Bridge," by Wordsworth; Shylock's speeches from "The Merchant of Venice"; Cassius's speeches to Brutus from "Julius Caesar."

Thirty-fifth Meeting

1. Reading of the two-minute selections to convey mood (45 minutes).

2. Written evaluations of each student made by the instructor.

3. Assignment.

   a. Review time and its contribution to effective oral communication.

   b. Prepare one of the exercises on time on the mimeographed sheet furnished by the instructor. Demonstrate effective use of rate, phrasing, pause and duration in this exercise.

Thirty-sixth Meeting

1. Rapid review of time (5 minutes).

2. Listen to records of speeches and readings which
exemplify excellent use of time (15 minutes).

Suggested ones: any by Franklin Roosevelt, Churchill, Orson Welles, Barrymore. General Douglas MacArthur's speech to the United States Congress on his return to the states is an excellent example of effective use of time.

3. Each student demonstrates effective use of phrasing, rate, pause and duration (25 minutes).

4. General conclusions are made as to the importance of the use of time for effective speaking or reading (2 minutes).

5. Assignment.

   a. Review pitch: register or key; steps and slides; and speech melody.

   b. Prepare exercises from mimeographed sheets to demonstrate effective and appropriate use of pitch to convey meaning.

   c. Read: Chapter 22. "Oral Reading" (Baird and Knowler, General Speech).

      or

      Chapter 5. "Meaning"

      Chapter 14. "Interpretative Speech"

      (Weaver, Speech).

37th Meeting

1. Lecture on pitch: register or key; steps and slides;
and speech melody (8 minutes).

2. Each student demonstrates effective use of pitch by using one of the exercises from the mimeographed sheet provided by the instructor (30 minutes).

3. General class discussion of interpretative reading, its purpose and the differences between it and original speech. Most of the emphasis will be on meaning and how a speaker or reader can communicate it to the listener (10 minutes).

4. Assignment.

   a. Prepare a two-minute oral reading of a selection which you particularly enjoy. Give title, author and any necessary explanations before you read. Make only the most essential explanations so that you have time to demonstrate your reading skill. If you used prose last time, use poetry this time or vice versa.

   b. Prepare a three-minute talk to entertain -- use humor. The humor may be satire. The events or characters may be ridiculous. Use language, voice, body action and speech organization to accomplish the purpose. These speeches are due for the thirty-ninth and fortieth meetings.

Thirty-eighth Meeting

1. Oral readings each two minutes in length (30 minutes).
2. Oral analysis and suggestions by instructor (15 minutes).

3. Assignment.
   a. Continue preparation of remaining oral readings.
   b. Be ready for the speech to entertain.

Thirty-ninth Meeting

1. Remaining two-minute oral readings (15 minutes).
2. Oral analysis and suggestions by instructor (10 minutes).
3. Three-minute speeches to entertain (23 minutes).
4. Written analyses will be made by the instructor of each speaker and given to him at the end of the hour when he speaks.

5. Assignment.
   a. Be ready to finish the speeches to entertain at the next meeting.
   b. Prepare a five-minute speech to stimulate or impress. This speech may be a eulogy of an individual or a group (mothers, fathers, scoutmasters, teachers, missionaries, doctors, nurses) or it may be a speech appropriate to some national, state or local anniversary (Armistice Day, Independence Day, Founder's Day, Homecoming). These talks will be made on the forty-first and forty-second meeting days.
   c. Examples of speeches of this type may be found on reserve in the library, in Baird's Representative
American Speeches or in copies of Vital Speeches. Reading of these speeches is encouraged but not required.

Fortieth Meeting

1. Three-minute speeches to entertain (42 minutes).

2. Assignment.
   a. Select the topic and begin preparation of the final speech which will be a five-minute speech to convince. The topic should deal with a current controversial issue of national or international significance. Some visual aid and several forms of evidence should be used. This speech will constitute the oral examination in the course. These speeches will begin on the forty-third meeting day.
   b. Following each of the final speeches, there will be a two-minute forum period when the speaker answers any questions or comments from the audience.
   c. Be ready for the speeches to impress or stimulate which begin next meeting and continue through the forty-second meeting.

Forty-first and Forty-second Meetings

1. Five-minute speeches to stimulate or impress (46 minutes per meeting).

2. Each student writes an evaluation of each member of his speaking group. These evaluations are given to the
instructor at the end of the hour. After the instructor has seen the evaluations, the writers' names are clipped and the evaluations are then handed to the speakers concerned.

Forty-third through Forty-fifth Meetings

1. Five-minute speeches to convince, followed by two-minute forums (48 minutes per period).

Forty-sixth through Forty-eighth Meetings

If time is available for more than forty-five meetings of the class before the week of semester examinations, additional experience in oral reading will be provided. In such a case, an oral reading assignment will be made at the forty-second meeting of the class.

Final Examination

1. Written final examination (2 hours).
BIBLIOGRAPHY
BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. BOOKS


B. PERIODICAL LITERATURE


C. PUBLICATIONS OF LEARNED ORGANIZATIONS


D. UNPUBLISHED STUDIES


E. SYLLABI


APPENDIX
QUESTIONNAIRE ON BEGINNING COLLEGE COURSE IN SPEECH

I. Did you take a speech course in college? Circle your answer: Yes No
If so, how many semester hours of speech did you take? __________
(List the courses if you prefer.)

II. Should all students be required to take a basic college course in speech? Circle your answer: Yes No
Comments:

III. What specific abilities should the student develop in the basic college speech course? Check (x) in the appropriate parentheses:

( ) 1. Ability to be poised in any situation.
( ) 2. Ability to express his ideas effectively.
( ) 3. Ability to express his ideas clearly.
( ) 4. Ability to use tact, diplomacy and understanding in expressing his ideas.
( ) 5. Ability to exchange ideas, recognizing differences without antagonism.
( ) 6. Ability to work cooperatively with others.
( ) 7. Others, please specify.

IV. What types of approach would you recommend for the basic college speech course? Check (x) in the appropriate parentheses:

( ) 1. A survey course emphasizing speaking experiences in the entire speech area.
( ) 2. A course emphasizing the techniques of speech through study and drill.
( ) 3. A course emphasizing the problems and needs of individual students.

V. Do you believe that one basic course in oral and written communication would be preferable to the present division of Rhetoric and Fundamentals of Speech? Circle your answer: Yes No
Comments:
VI. How important are the following in a basic college speech course? Check (x) in the appropriate parentheses.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Little Importance</th>
<th>Average Importance</th>
<th>Great Importance</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>A. Body</td>
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<td>B. Voice</td>
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<td>E. Listening</td>
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VII. How important are the following in a basic college speech course?

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<th>Little Importance</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Conversations</td>
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<td>5. Sales talks</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Forums</td>
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<td>7.</td>
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<td>Symposium discussions</td>
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<td>Dramatizations</td>
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Forums refer to audience participation. Forums may be preceded by a lecture, debate or discussion.

Panel and round-table discussions are free give-and-take discussions (round-table has no audience, panel may have).

Symposium discussions are characterized by formal speeches by each participant followed by freer discussion or a forum.