# SPEAKING WITH A FURPOSE A Textbook for High Schools

#### A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF

EDUCATION AND THE GRADUATE COUNCIL OF THE KANSAS STATE

TEACHERS COLLEGE OF EMPORIA IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF

THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF SCIENCE

BY

JOHN W. BREWER

MAY 4, 1935

Emporta Karbas

Approved for the major department:

Approved for the graduate council:

KELLOGG LIBBARY K.S.T.C. EMPORIA KAMBAS

75724

#### PREFACE

This text has been designed for the purpose of assisting high school students to acquire a knowledge of the fundamentals of constructive speech and to provide practical situations which will call for the application of these fundamentals. It is built up in three parts: discussion, tests, and exercises. To cover the text in a semester, it will be necessary that not more than an average of two weeks be devoted to each chapter.

This study should be conducted in cycles. The first cycle is that of studying the text material in Chapter I at the conclusion of which the test over chapter one should be administered. (It is not advised that the scores made on these tests become a part of the grade for the course, but that they be used as a means of stimulating study of the material. It is desirable, however, that they be graphically illustrated and placed where the students may observe their progress from time to time) The second phase of the cycle is concerned with the working out of the exercises at the end of the chapter. Each of the following chapters should provide the beginning place for a new cycle.

Along with the study of Chapters III, IV, V, VI, and VII, it will be well to introduce a third phase into the cycle. This phase should follow the study of the chapter and should be concerned with the study of speech models to observe the application (or violation) of the opinion set up in the chapter.

A fitting climax for the course will be the holding of

the last meeting of the class around the banquet table. A lively central theme and the realistic touch of the occasion should inspire the highest quality speaking of which the students are capable.

The writer does not hold the claim that the methods set forth in this text represent finality, but that they have been used successfully by him in teaching high school public speaking classes. It is without question that the methods of teaching the art and science of public speaking will be improved in the future. The writer sees this as one method of introducing the beginning study of constructive speaking, with the full realization that it, in no respect, exhausts the field of possible methods.

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

It is with a sincere feeling of appreciation that the writer endorses a debt of gratitude to those men whose influence and guidance have made the writing of this thesis possible. To Professor F. L. Gilson is due the credit for having stimulated his interest in good speech; to Professor George R. R. Pflaum is due the credit for many helpful suggestions and comments; and to Dr. Edwin J. Brown is due the highest of respectful recognition for his valuable assistance as director of this study.

J. W. B.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAP TER		14									PAGI
I,	TAHW	IS SPEECH	?		* *	.)* <b>9                                    </b>	* * 4		*	* *	1
•		The Spoke	n Word.			 K. 🛊 i	N 35 H		*	* *	2
		Inflectio	n	* *	* * •	k % (	k # #	* * *	*	华 剪	4
		The Gestu	re	* *		 * * .	* * *	· • • •	*	* *	6
		Definitio	n of Sp	eech		* *		. • *		• •	8
		Questions	on Cha	pter	One .	· ·	s # 4		*	<b>*</b> 4	9
		Exercises	on Cha	pter	One .	er de i	h # #	k •" •	<b>Ý</b>	* *	10
II.	THE	MECHANICS	OF VOIC	E PRO	DUCT:	LON	i e s		,		11
		The Human			* * 1		* * *	i <b>ja</b> j <b>y</b> a	*	* *	11
		Mech	anical	Equir	ment	for	Bres	thin	A.	* *	12
			The Ac	#100	of th	A R	the .			 	13
			The Di							-	14
						* * .	. W %		Ħ	* *	, <del>,</del>
		The Laryn	<del>ingit</del>								16
				. <b>3</b> . 4	海 ト	e e	* * *	* *	#	* *	
		The	Ring Ca	TEITE	ge.	* *	<b>ĕ</b> # #	· 🕳 . 🛎	*	* *	17
		The	Shield	Carti	llage	* * :	# # \$			* *	17
			Epiglot							v. 3	18
								* *	•	解 章	
		The	Pyramid	B.	* *	, i	6 N N	· * *	*	# 4	18
		Conclusio	n		<b>*</b> * 4	· • *				* .	21
		Questions	on Che	pter	Two	* *	¥: # 4	r # ' %	*		. 22
		Exercises							*		23
III.	usere:	PURPOSES C							_		25
A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A A	ally distributed	Definition			- Diimi	* *	~ ~ ~			** **	26
				-	,	7		. <b>.</b> *	•	* 4	
		General P	<del>-</del>	,	•		<b>3</b>	\$ # #	*	<b>伸</b> 啪	. 28
		An Arbitr								* *	. 29
		Cles	rness s	is si I	ograv	80 .			ø	<i>b</i> 4	, 30
			e es to								31
			on as s						- <del></del>		31
										0 6	
		Tubi	essiver	1688 8		rurp	050	n # 4	#	* 1	31
		Inter-rel	.atednes	s of	Spee	oh P	urpoi	BO	#	* •	. 32
		Summary	* * 4 4	* * *	* *	<b>#</b> #	* * .	* * *	. •	# 18	. 32
		Exercises	for Ch	ap te:	r Thr	e <b>e</b> ,	• •	* * '	* *	* /	34
		Questions	on Cha	pter	Thre	0.	<b>4</b> .6 ·	ė. <b>ж</b> . ч	. # <del>*</del>	* *	. 35

# TABLE OF CONTENTS (CONTINUED)

IAH(	PTER				PAG
	IV.	THE	DEVELOPMENT OF THE PURPOS	E OF CLEARNESS	36
			The Development of Clear		36
			Attributes of Clear		
			Effective Orga	mization	37
			Unblased Press	ntation	* * 39
			Contrast and C	omparison	39
			Relation to Ex	perience	* * 40
			Analysis and S	ynthesis tration	42
			Conorsto Illus	tration	45
			Exercises for Chapter Fo	ur , , , , , , , ,	45
	-		Questions for Chapter Fo		47
	٧.	THE	DEVELOPMENT OF THE PURPOS	E OF BELIEF	49
			Factors of the Speech Si	turn to 4 mm	49
				* * * * * * * * *	
			The Speaker		
			The Speech	* * * * * * * * * *	38
			The Occasion.		53
			स्था तथा । ज्या । तथा तथा तथा तथा स्थाप स्थाप स्थाप स्थाप स्थाप स्थाप स्थाप स्थाप । ज्या । तथा । तथा । तथा ।	* * * * * * * * * * *	9 R WW
			Persussive Devices		54
			Restatement	* * * * * * * * * *	54
	•		Restatement	ation	* * 55
			Evidence	* * * * * * * * *	* * 56
			The Consistent Phys	ileal Aspect	* * 57
			Conclusion		58
			Questions on Chapter Fiv		* * 59
			Exercises on Chapter Fiv	**	61
	VI.	THE	DEVELOPMENT OF THE PURPOS	E OF ACTION	63
			Classification of Motive		64
			Basio Human Desires Gove	rn All Acts	* * 66
			Classification of Basic		67
			The Desire for Secu	rity	67
			Nocessities fo	r Life	• • 67
			Safety	* * * * * * * * * * *	67
			Prince I and the second		فند ور
			The Desire for Infl	nauce * * * * * * *	67
			Wealth	*****	* * 67
			neputation * *		67
			The Desire for Ples	isure	67

# TABLE OF CONTENTS (CONTINUED)

CHAP TER		Motivation Through A	.ppeal t	to D	9 <b>91</b> 2	?es	₩.	4. <b>4</b>	Q.	PAGE 67
		Elements of Motivati	on Illy	astra	ate	i .	₩		m	68
		Conclusion	* * *		, <b>4</b> +	· *		* *	*	73
		Questions for Chapte	r Six			<del>y</del>	•		*	74
		Exercises for Chapte	r Six		• 1			* *	•	76
VII.	THE	DEVELOPMENT OF THE PU	RPOSE (	of I	IPRI	ISS.	[AR	NES	8.	78
		Diction and Impressi	veness	* *	* 4	; *	*	* *	 	80
		The Speaker and Impr	essiver	1055	. <b>¥</b> :	ŧ. •		- <b>4</b> ₩	•	81
		The Veice and Impres	sivene	38 .			*	7 4		82
		Conclusion		* #		ı i				83
		Questions on Chapter		•						85
		Exercises on Chapter	Seven				*			87
VIII.	THE	PREPARATION OF THE SP								88
		Gathering Material . Conversion . Observation . Investigation .	* * *	作 県 非 が		F *			* * *	88 89 90
		The Divisions of the The Introduction Length The Introd	M	n +	* *	* *	*	* * *	\$ # #	91 91 92 93
7. •			al	* * *			* *	# .9 * * * * * *	*	95 95 96 96
·		The Conclusion Applicatio Summary of			_	ght	*	* * * * * *	*	98 98
•		Methods and Proceedu	res in	Spe	ech	Pla	anr	ning		100
		Practice as Preparat	ion .		<b>4</b> :	<b>*</b> •	÷	* *	*	103
		Questions on Chapter	Eight	ù q	• .	<b>,</b> .	*	* •	ģ.	104
		Evennises on Chanter	Richt				* 1	٠		106

## TABLE OF FIGURES

FIOU!	RECORD TO THE STATE OF THE STAT	PAGI
1.	PRONT VIEW OF THE CHEST	13
2.	SIDE VIEW OF THE CHEST AND DIAPHRAM	13
3.	LAHYNX SHOWING LEFT BALF OF THE SHIELD SEEN	
	FROM THE INSIDE	14
4.	SECTION OF THE LARYNX SELN FROM ABOVE	17
5.	LARYNX SHOWING RIGHT HALF OF THE SHIELD SHEN	
	FROM THE OUTSIDE	18

#### CHAPTER I

#### WHAT IS SPEECH?

In consideration of the question "What is speech" there are a number of definitions that might be used, any one of which might be quite satisfactory so far as definition goes. But in undertaking a complete study of some of the fundamental aspects of good speaking it will be necessary to assume a much broader viewpoint of speech than that involved in accepting the dictionary-type of definition.

Speech might be defined 'the use of language to express thought', or by saying it is 'oral communication', or the 'use of words to express ideas'; and any one of the definitions would be essentially correct. The errors of such definitions are not in what they include, but rather in what they omit.

Language is concerned with the use of words as symbols of ideas, but to say that speech is primarily concerned with the use of language would be to limit speaking to the spoken word. Again, the idea that speech is 'oral communication' involves no more than the language element. To say it is the 'use of words to express ideas' goes but little farther in giving speech a real, practical meaning.

If it is agreed that the purpose of speech is to express thought, then it is only logical to conclude that speech is the sum of all activities used in expressing the thought. It appears evident that there are at least three types of activities commonly used in conveying ideas or expressing thought. The three means which man possesses for expressing his thoughts

are by:

- 1. The spoken word
- 2. Inflection
- 3. Gesture or body action
- 1. The Spoken Word. Men seldom, if ever, over-emphasize the contribution of the spoken word to one's ability to express himself well. Yet to say that a person could not express himself in a limited way without the use of the spoken word would be to mis-represent its function ignorantly. This is the language element in speech; and it is well to remember that language has had a slow and evolutionary growth through the ages preceding the present generation, and that, even today, language is in a constant state of change. New words are coming into good usage; other words are being discarded as no longer suitable.

sity at no later date in human history than the time when men began to recognize the advantage of living together in large groups. They were thus thrown into contact with individuals other than members of their own families, and the sign language which had served very well the purpose of conveying thought within the small, intimate, family group was no longer effective as a means of communication in this new and larger group. Characteristic grunts and sounds, each symbolic of its own meaning, developed in answer to the needs of primitive man for a more adequate and a more accurate means of expressing himself. From this humble beginning language has grown and is continuing to grow as it will probably continue to grow so

long as civilization shall exist.

It is well to ask a question by way of showing the effect of the use of words as signs of ideas. "Do you remember your second birthday?" The answer is perhaps obvious. Likely one does not remember his first two or three birthdays, and yet they were events upon which considerable attention was centered at the time. The fact that one does not remember them evidences that one thinks in terms of words, that events connect with ideas made up of words. As two year old children, the lack of vocabulary prevents accurate recollection of events, and so it is that ideas are made up of words as symbols of the ideas. If words are lacking then one's ability to possess ideas will be limited accordingly.

Going a step further the importance of the spoken word may be estimated by indicating that all speech is preceded by thought, and that speech, being the expression of thought is thus limited by the lack of words. Just as:

"For the want of a nail
The shoe was lost;
For the want of a shoe
The horse was lost;
For the want of a horse
The rider was lost;
And for want of a rider
The battle was lost;

And all for the want of A horse shoe nail.

So are many ideas lost through inability to express them clearly, accurately, and concisely. It should be the purpose of every student to try to acquire wide vocabulary in order that thoughts may be recorded accurately and that speech may be dressed appropriately.

2. Inflection. A few comments on the importance of inflection as it concerns this topic of speech should not be disregarded. Inflection relates to the change in pitch of the voice, and is as important an element in vocal communication as the change of notes in the playing of a musical instrument. denotes the feelings of the speaker, the speaker's attitude toward what he is saying, and can be depended upon to denote the height of his interest in his subject. Certainly one would not utter the word "Oh" in the same way if he were told it is raining, that he would if he were told that his family had been in a serious motorcar accident. The difference would be due to the difference in feeling toward the two situations. The accurate use of inflection can portray feelings in no less accurate manner than the words convey the idea. Moreover, as a sequel to the response, a speaker would not convey news of an accident in the same matter-of-fact manner that he would comment on the weather conditions.

Inflection might be regarded in much the same manner as many regard the wrapping on Christmas packages. Most certainly the wrapping cannot make any essential difference in the gift. A fine leather football would still be a football, an excellent watch would still be a fine timepiece, or a simple little imitation leather purse would not be changed. They could be handed out on Christmas morning with a great deal less trouble and expense, but it just isn't done. To the general way of thinking, that little wrapping means a great deal. It conveys a little touch of feeling, a little bit of sentiment, and the gift becomes just a little more personal. A simple, inexpensive gift, pridefully and affectionately wrapped, may contribute a great

deal more personal sentiment than the most expensive one to which that bit of personal attention has not been paid.

To complete the comparison, words might be thrown from the lips of a speaker to fall bluntly wherever they chance to land, but such speaking, while prevalent, is not recognized as good speaking. It does not carry with it the feelings of the speaker. Inflection, then, gives richness, feeling, quality and intensity to the thought expressed by the spoken word. It is an important factor in revealing the personality of the speaker.

As has already been indicated, there were probably three fundamental sounds uttered by primitive man. By the use of inflection he was able to indicate the intensity of pain, the extent of joy, or the heartiness of approval. In this way three simple sounds were made to convey a multitude of ideas. In like manner, our modern sounds, which we call words, can be made to convey as many ideas as there are words multiplied by the number of inflections. Certainly no student who earnestly wishes to become preficient in speaking should suffer from the lack of means of expressing his ideas.

In general, inflections fall into three main classifications: Upward, downward, and circumflex. The upward inflection, in the commonest sense, denotes question, doubt, or indecision. In it the pitch of the voice changes from a lower tone to a higher tone during the utterance. The change may take place abruptly and include a relatively limited change of pitch, or it may take place gradually and include a wide range of pitch. The first is usually referred to as the short upward slide while the latter is denoted by the long upward slide.

The downward inflection, on the other hand, dismisses any

feeling of doubt; it is positive, certain, emphatic. Again, the pitch of the voice is changed during the utterance, but this time from a higher to a lower pitch. As in the case of the upward inflection, the change may take place abruptly, and to this change we attach the name of short downward slide. If it takes place over a considerable time and involves a considerably greater ange of pitch, it is called the long downward slide.

The third type of inflection is known as the circumflex. There are a number of variations which will appear evident, and to which it is well to refer, for the sake of discussion, as the upward and the downward circumflex. It is simply a combination of the two types previously mentioned. The vocal pitch may rise during the utterance and fall again to that of beginning; or it may first fall and then rise again to the beginning pitch. The rising and falling, as in the former cases, may take place abruptly or deliberately; however, the long circumflex, whether it be upward or downward, is the one commonly used. The circumflex inflection has as its commonest use the expression of frivolity. It must be remembered that inflections apply both to words and to sentences.

Inflection provides the musical element in speech, Without it the spoken word is dull, monotonous, and lifeless. If you have ever listened to a deaf person speak, you have probably observed that his inability to inflect his tones results in the lack of a pleasing voice. The reason is that, being unable to hear the sound of his voice, he has no means of adapting it to the listener.

3. Gesture. Man speaks two languages: the language that impresses the ear, and the language that makes its impression

upon the eye. Equally true is the observation that man understands two languages. Man has many senses through which he may
receive impressions. And the strength, the permanence, and the
enduring qualities of these impressions depend largely upon the
number of senses through which he has gained his impressions.

A coccanut is exhibited to a little child for the first time. Immediately he puts out his little hands and says, "Let me see it". It is given to him, he looks at it, rubs his tiny, sensitive fingers over its rough surface, bites it, smells it, pinches it, and probably tries to make it rattle by shaking it. He said "Let me see it", but what he really meant was, "I want to get an impression of that queer looking thing through as many senses as I can". So it may be said of gestures that they are for the purpose of supplementing the spoken word, in order that the listener may receive impressions from the speaker through more than one of his senses. In that way the impression becomes more permanent.

From what has been said it may be assumed that the gesture is expressive action, and may be used independently or in connection with the spoken word to express an idea, feeling, attitude or emotion. Two beautiful and artistic dramatic forms that use the gesture as the sole means of expression are the pantomine and the interpretive dance. However, in connection with the subject of speech training, gesture will be considered as a means of modifying the spoken word.

Gestures are of practically unlimited variety. They range all the way from a sweeping motion of the entire physical body to the nod of the head, the wrinkling of the brow, or the quick glance of the eye. The gesture, of course, will be governed by

the thought presented, and it becomes the problem of the young speaker to harmonize his expressive body actions with his words.

To summarize the content of the foregoing discussion very briefly, it can be said that there are three expressional activities included in the term 'speech', the spoken word, the inflection, and the gesture. Each in itself may convey ideas, but the effective combination of the three affords the greatest means of conveying ideas clearly, accurately, and concisely.

Speech is the sum of all activities used in expressing thought.

#### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER ONE

Instructions: Number papers from 1 to 20. As the instructor reads the number of the statement, write "true" or "false" according to which you believe is correct.

- ( ) 1. Speech is the use of words to express thought.
- ( ) 2. Words are symbols of ideas.
- ( ) 3. Language has reached the limit of growth.
- ( ) 4. The use of words became necessary when man began to live in large groups.
- ( ) 5. Earliest communication was probably carried on by signs.
- ( ) 6. Language probably originated from five fundamental sounds.
- ( ) 7. Man's ability to think may be limited by lack of words.
- ( ) 8. Speech is preceded by thought.
- ( ) 9. Inflection indicates the speaker's enthusiasm.
- ( ) 10. Inflection refers to the loudness of the voice.
- ( ) 11. Inflections may be compared to Christmas gifts.
- ( ) 12. A downward slide denotes doubt, uncertainty, and indecision.
- () 13. The long inflection usually involves a wider range of pitch than the short inflection.
- ( ) 14. The short upward inflection usually is used to denote a frivolous attitude.
- ( ) 15. Inflection provides the musical element in speech.
- () 16. A deaf person is more likely to have a pleasing voice than a hearing person.
- ( ) 17. A gesture is an expressive body activity.
- ( ) 18. Facial expressions cannot be considered gestures.
- ( ) 19. Impressions are more permanent if received through several senses.
- ( ) 20. Speech is the sum of all activities used in expressing thought.

#### SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES

#### FOR CLASS ROOM EXERCISES

- 1. Try to repeat the following sentence without changing the pitch of the voice: I will never forget the good times we had in the seventh grade,
- 2. Repeat the same sentence as though you were really trying to make the class believe those were your happiest days.
- 3. Speak the words "Go away" in such a way as to convey the following meanings:

  - a. I'm tired of seeing you here b. You have been here long snough
  - c. Why should I leave?
  - d. Who are you to be telling me what to do?
  - e. Stay here
  - f. I'm sorry, I hated to tell you.
  - g. Get out right now
- 4. What inflections were used in each of the above situationsi
- 5. By the use of gesture alone, give your enswer to the question. "Which direction is east?"
- 6. Convey the idea "Hush, don't make a sound" to one other person located near you, by use of gesture.
- 7. Convey the same idea by the use of gesture, to a large audience seated before you.
- 8. Suppose you are ready to go to a party when your pet dog jumps up and puts his muddy paws on your clethes. Show the natural gesture:
  - a. Of removing his paws from your clothing b. In evading his second attempt to jump up.
- 9. Suppose you are talking with a friend. At first you do not exactly understand what he means; then it dawns on you. Let your facial expression reveal this situation.
- 10. Tell the class of the most exciting event in your life. Remember that if the class is to enjoy hearing about it they must share the experience with you.

#### CHAPTER II

#### THE MECHANICS OF VOICE PRODUCTION

If the human voice were to be compared to a musical instrument, that instrument would probably be none other than the pipe organ. So close is the comparison that each mechanical function in one has a distinct counterpart in the other. The bellows of the organ are matched by the lungs in the human body. The reed in the organ pipe functions as the vocal cords or ligaments in the larynx, and the varying lengths and sizes of pipes on the organ are matched by mans; ability to change the size and shape of the oral cavity in order to give the proper support to the tenes produced in the larynx. Finally, the keybeard that controls sounding of the notes within the organ completes the comparison in so far as its function is quite the same as the function of the nervous system in controlling the voice of man.

l. The Human Bellows. At the outset, it will be well to bear in mind that while the lungs are composed of semi-muscular tissue, they are incapable of any action on their own part.

Whatever activity goes on within the tissue of the lungs themselves will be due to the activity of some of the other muscles of the thoracic cavity that encloses them. They are composed of thousands of tiny air sacks, each of which has the appearance of a tiny bulb attached to the sprangling branches of the windpipe. The windpipe and the sprangling branches known as the bronchial tubes provide the passage through which air is introduced to the lungs and through which it is expelled. The air sacks which

compose the lungs are very clastic, as can be demonstrated by an experiment with the lungs of a chicken. If the removal is made carefully and without damaging the tender tissues it is possible to inflate the lungs to seven or eight times the normal size by forcing air into the traches or windpipe.

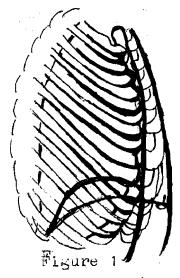
The lungs are relatively full of air at all times. The notion that the lungs are completely filled and emptied of all the air they contain during the process of breathing is a false one. In reality, only a small portion, or approximately a hundred cubic inches, is changed during the process of normal inhalation and exhalation. The diffusion circulation of air and its constant agitation prevents the same air remaining in the lungs for any considerable length of time, but the truth is that the lungs are never entirely deflated. That quantity of air which is contained in the lungs when they are described as being empty is known as residual breath; while the air that is taken in by ordinary respiration is called the tidal breath.

A. Mechanical Equipment for Breathing. Since the lungs are merely elastic and not capable of what is ordinarily thought of as muscular activity, they form only a part of the human bellows. The muscular and skeletal structure enclosing the lungs afford the means of operation. If a rubber bulb is held in the hand and compressed the air rushed out. When the pressure is released, the air rushes into it again as it slowly regains its original shape. The acitivity which caused the movement of the air in and out of the bulb was largely due to the change in the shape of the air space. By changing the shape of the air space the capacity of the bulb was also changed and the air was accordingly

expelled or admitted.

In a like manner the body is provided with a flexible framework and a system of muscles that enable breathing to be carried on by changing the shape and the capacity of the chest cavity in which the lungs are located.

The Action of the Ribs. Observation of the following figures will be of assistance in learning how the movement of the ribs result in changing the capacity of the lungs. The ribs, being hinged to consecutive vertebra of the back bone are capable of two types of motion. The first type of motion is that



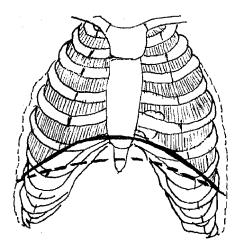


Figure 2

View of chest (right)

View of chest (front)

which would occur if the breastbone were lifted. From Figure 1 it will be seen that a motion of this kind would cause an increase in the chest cavity as indicated by the dotted lines.

The second kind of motion of which the ribs are capable is that motion which would take place if the mid points of the ribs were lifted. It will be noted in Figure 2 that this motion increases the width of the chest cavity shown by the dotted lines. The flexible cartilege by which the ribs are attached to the breastbone and to the spinal column permit the motion of the ribs.

The Diaphram. The disphram is a sheet-like muscle which forms the division between the lower, or abdominal, cavity, and the upper cavity known as the chest or thoracic cavity. It attaches to the body wall approximately underneath the outline of the lowest true rib. In its normal position it compares favorable to the shape of a tilted dome, this position being due to the upward pressure of the viscers ( the contents of the abdominal cavity). Being a true muscle, it is capable of the action of all muscles - that of contraction.

When the disphram contracts it tends to become more nearly flat, the dome shape is reduced to a slight upward curve, and the vertical dimension of the chest cavity is increased. As

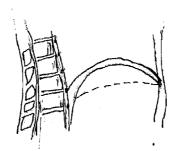


Figure 3

Showing section of the body with diaphram in relaxed position. Dotted line indicates the position of the diaphram on inhalation.

the diaphram becomes tense the pressure thus exerted on the viscera is compensated by the relaxation of the muscles enclosing the abdominal cavity. The difficulty one often experiences in breathing after eating a heavy meal is due to the increase in the content of the abdominal cavity. The abdominal muscles are not elastic enough to compensate entirely for the pressure applied upon the upper-viscera region by the contraction of the diaphram. In addition, the body needs considerably more exygen

to carry on the process of digestion, and through eating is rendered less able to obtain an adequate supply. It is for this reason that physicians recommend a short period of rest after a meal. Such advice has an even more significant meaning for the public speaker.

The above discussion on "The Human Bellows" has considered breathing in general. Indeed, not all of the breathing activities mentioned above go on at all times and under the same conditions. Therefore three methods of breathing are frequently considered and are classified according to the breathing activity that predominates. The first method is disphramatic breathing, and implies that breathing in which the action of the diaphram and the consequent action of the abdominal muscles predominates. In speaking of this method of breathing, J. Hugh Williams says:

... we must admit quite readily that diaphramatic breathing appears to be nature's method, but we must qualify the admission by adding that it seems to be her method for the quiescent state or condition chiefly, and adequate only for the needs of that particular state.

The second method of breathing is known as the costal (rib) method. It involves chiefly the action of the ribs described and illustrated above (page 13).

The third method, and the one which has particular application to the student of public speaking, is a combination of both the disphramatic and costal methods. It has been pointed out that disphramatic breathing is that which goes on in the condition of rest or repose, thus it is the costal method that supplements disphramatic breathing in the state of activity.

<sup>1.</sup> J. Hugh Williams, Voice Production and Breathing, Sir Isaac Putman and Sons, Ltd., Kingsway, 1923, p. 23.

Speech is an activity that draws upon both the physical and mental energies of the body, thus the element of proper breathing will be shown to be a powerful factor in the production of a good speaking voice.

The concept of efficiency in the construction of mechanical devices is not (as many would have us believe) the product of the modern mind. The efficiency of this human mechanism exceeds the wildest claims for modern man-made machines. A couple of pounds of food fuel will operate the human mechanism for twenty-four hours; a quart of gasoline having an approximate caloric equivalent might operate a quarter-horsepower motor for an hour. Yet man antidates machines by years numbered in thousands. So it is in man that the same lungs that supply the oxygen for human metabolism supplies the air for operating the organ of voice production. The same breath which on its inward travel carries oxygen to the blood, on its outward travel carries the waste products of combustion, and may be used at will for setting into vibration the vocal ligaments.

2. The Larynx. At its lower end the windpipe branches into two smaller tubes, which in turn branches off into others, and so on into myriads of very small tubes, like the roots of a tree, in order that the air supply may reach the farthest section of the lungs.

At its top the windpips merges into a structure of the same cartilaginous nature, but so vastly different as to suggest at once another separate part of the apparatus. This is the larynx, the source of vocal sound.

Roughly, the larynx (voice box) has the appearance of a triangular funnel-like structure composed of cartilage. There are five main features that compose this organ of voice production: (1) the ring cartilage, (2) the shield cartilage, (3) the epiglottis, (4 and 5) the two pyramids.

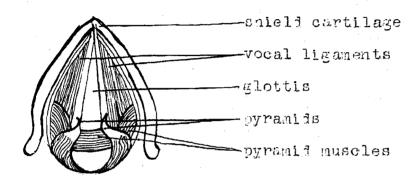


Figure 4, viewing larynx from above.

The Ring Cartilage: (Cricoid cartilage) There exists a slight doubt as to whether the ring cartilage is a part of the laryax or rather the upper portion of the windpipe. The fact remains, however, that its purpose seems to be that of providing a base for the vocal process. It appears to be a specialized development of the top ring of the windpipe, and is narrow in front, but extends to considerable width in the back like the seal of a signet ring from which the name is derived.

The Shield Cartilage. Next we come to the shield cartilage, which, as its name implies, has as its chief purpose the support and protection of the interior delicate parts. It is composed of two flats which meet only at the front forming a vertical ridge commonly known as the "Adam's apple".

Another of its purposes is to support the fixed front ends and the fixed sides of the vocal ligaments, and still another

function is, by its upward and downward metion, to assist in the stretching and relaxing of the vocal ligaments. This movement of the shield cartilage occurs on the back of the ring-cartilage where it is loosely attached by the lower horns. The upper end is attached to a process closely resembling a horse-shoe which is known as the tongue-bone.

The Epiglottis. The epiglottis, or lid, is simply an elastic cartilage capable of being raised during speaking and lowered for the protection of the larynx and air passage against invasion by foreign matter. It is hinged to the front of the shield cartilage.

The Pyramids. Rising from the back of the ring cartilage are two tapering bits of cartilage having the back portions of

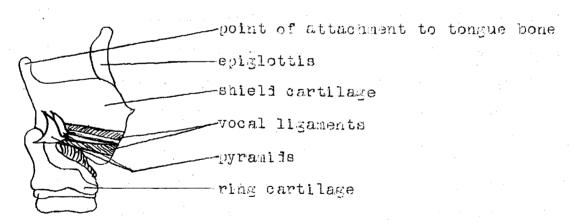


Figure 5, viewing larynx from the right side.

their bases attached to the ring cartilage by tendons, and the movable front sections of their bases are attached together by muscle fibers. The function of these pyramids is to provide a place for the attachment of the vocal ligaments. As can be seen in figure 4, the normal tension of the vocal ligaments will cause the tips of the pyramids to remain some little distance apart. The pyramid muscle attaching them together regulates

the space (glottis) between the vosci ligaments, enabling one to bring them together for vocalization, or, by relaxing, to permit their separation for ordinary breathing.

The whole of the larynx seems to exist for the purpose of providing the setting for the vocal ligaments. Indeed every activity of which any part is capable has to do either with the protection or manipulation of the vocal ligaments. See Fig. 4. The sounds made by the voice depend upon the air from the lungs being driven through the opening between these tightly stretched ligaments and setting them into a state of vibration. Of course the pitch of the sound thus produced depends upon the frequency of these vibrations. And the frequency, in turn, depends upon the tension or tightness of the ligaments.

Either in singing or speaking, much stress is, and rightly should be, placed upon the proper production of voice. One should ever be conscious that voice is natural to man, and that any attempt to produce tone artificially or unnaturally will surely end disasterously. Such conditions as tensemess of the muscles, distortion of the windpipe, attempts to speak out of the natural range of the voice, and many others, interfere with the normal production of tone, and so much attention must be focused upon voice that the real purpose of the singing or speaking becomes secondary.

The greatest admonition that can be offered in this connection is that a free, open, unrestrained tone passage is the first and most desirable prerequisite of a good speaking voice.

But that is not all. A string may be stretched across a cigar box, and when it is plucked with the fingers it will be set into vibration and produce a sound. The sound thus produced,

however, is shallow. It lacks resonance, timbre, or tone color. On the other hand, the same string may be stretched across the top of a violin and a bow drawn across it. The sound is rich, colorful, and vibrant; yet the violin is just another wooden box of a somewhat different shape than a cigar bos. The mystery is solved when it is understood that the vibrations of the strings of the instrument or of the vocal ligaments do not themselves produce the sound, but that the sound is due to the air set into vibration by them.

Thus the violin was constructed in such a way as to have exactly the right shape and amount of air capacity to support the tones it is capable of producing. The cigar box did not. The different length of tubes or pipes on the organ have as their purposes the maintaining of the proper column of air to support the tone produced by the reed underneath.

The oral (mouth) and nazal (nose) cavities have a similar purpose with regard to the human voice. By the action of the tongue, by the raising and lowering of the soft palate, and by the admission of tones into the nazal chamber the shape and size of the air column is changed to provide the proper support for the tone produced. Again, freedom, openness, and relaxation are the keys to the production of rich vibrant tones. It should be realized that these processes go on automatically, and without constitues attention under ordinary conditions. It is only when conscious control is exerted to displace this automatic function that the voice looses its inherent goodness. The practice which attends the development of good voice production is not the practice which is aimed at gaining control over the muscles of voice production, but rather, the practice which aims at

eliminating any form of restraint of the free and automatic functioning of the muscles. Good voice is natural voice. Voice training should be such as to preserve the natural qualities, and eliminate all elements of unnaturalness.

3. Conclusion. The foregoing discussion has attempted to present something of a bird's-eye view of man's equipment for It will be recalled that the lungs were compared to the bellows of an organ, that when the capacity of the lungs is increased the air rushes in, and that when the capacity of the lungs is reduced the air flows out. It will also be remembered that the downward movement of the diaphram upon the viscera is compensated by the relaxation of the abdominal cavity. infers an actual truth in connection with speaking: it is through the pressure applied by the abdominal muscles that air may actually be forced out of the lungs. In the case of all other muscles, their action has only to do with inhaling, and exhalation is produced simply by allowing them to relax and return normally to their original position. This normal expelling of air would not produce adequate air pressure for operating the vocal ligaments except over a limited range of low pitched notes. The higher notes are produced, of course, by drawing the vocal ligaments close together and stretching them very tight, and then sending the air against them with considerable pressure. It is by the action of the abdominal or stomach muscle that one can exert a pressure upon the viscera which in turn creates an upward pressure upon the diaphram and forces the breath through the vocal ligaments with sufficient force to operate them at the higher pitched tone levels.

The costal muscles which sperate to distend the ribs, the disphram, the abdominal muscle, the multitude of muscles that control the action of the larynx, and the even greater labrynth of muscles that control the eral chamber are all operating when man speaks. How fortunate he is then, that he has been endowed with an autonomic nervous system which is prepared to exercise control over these speech activities without his conscious effort. If it were not so he probably would find himself in much the same position as the man "who couldn't see the forest for the trees": he couldn't say anything for being too busy co-ordinating the proper muscular activity for speaking. The student who would become a good speaker would practice being natural.

#### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER II

Instructions: Number papers from 1 to 20. As the instructor reads the number of the statement, write "true" or "false" according to which you believe is correct.

- ( ) I. The lungs may be compared to the reed of the organ.
- ( ) 2. The windpipe is also known as the bronchial tube.
- ( ) 5. When the air space in the chest is increased the air rushes in.
- ( ) 4. The lungs are able to contract to expel the air.
- ( ) 5. The lungs are completely filled and emptied at each breath.
- ( ) 6. The ribs are distended by the action of the diaphram.
- ( ) 7. In its relaxed position the diaphram is nearly flat.
- ( ) 8. Tidal breath remains in the lungs several minutes.
- ( ) 9. It is a good plan to rest for a time after eating.
- ( ) 10. That breathing which occurs while speaking is a combination of both costal and disphramatic methods.
- ( ) 11. Compared to most mechanical devices, the human body is relatively inefficient.
- ( ) 12. There are five main features composing the larynx.
- ( ) 13. The ring cartilage is sometimes called the "Adam's Apple".
- ( ) 14. The lower horns of the shield cartilage attach to the tongue bone.
- ( ) 15. The epiglettis prevents foreign matter invading the air passage.
- ( ) 16. The pyramids do not move, but are fastened solidly.
- ( ) 17. Effort to exert conscious control over the throat muscles is apt to cause the tone to be distorted.
- ( ) 18. Practice should be not to gain control over vocal organs, but rather to forget about control.
- ( ) 19. Full, wibrant tone depends upon relaxed tone passage.
- ( ) 20. Relaxation of tone passage permits the automatic formation of the proper air columns for supporting the tone produced.

#### EXERCISES FOR CHAPTER II

- Note: Students should be asked to demonstrate several of these exercises before the class, as it tends to invoke the free use of gesture.
  - l. Place the palms of the hands on the lower rib section directly underneath the shoulders in such a way that the fingers are pointing downward. Breathe deeply several times noting the movement of the elbows. What type of breathing is represented? Explain the muscular activity producing it.
  - 2. Place the tips of the fingers on the stomach immediately below the breast bone. Take several breaths. Try to describe the action of the diaphram. New place the other hand on the abdomen and note the coordination between the action of the diaphram and abdominal muscles.
  - 5. Take several breaths being careful not to move the ribs. Observe the limited supply of air that can be inhaled.
  - 4. Now take several breaths without moving the diaphram or abdominal muscles. To what extent is the breath supply limit-ed in this case?
  - 5. Assume you are trying to blow out a candle flame six feet away. What type of breathing preeded the attempt? Did the abdominal muscles play a part in the attempt? Can you preform the act without tensing the abdominal muscle?
  - 6. Place a finger in the V-shape grove above the "Adam's apple". Sing the musical scale several times. Describe the action taking place in the larynx. What is the position of the shield cartilage on high notes. on low notes?
  - 7. Place the hand on the abdomen and speak the word "boat" repeatedly until a sharp movement of the abdominal muscle accompanies the utterance. Does a briskness occur which was not present at first?
  - 8. Utter the sound of the letter "a" as in "can", "ate", "arm", and "all". What changes take place in the size and shape of the oral cavity in the formation of the various sounds?
  - 9. What is the result when you try to utter the various "a" Sounds without permitting the changes in the oral cavity.
- 10. Forumlate your thoughts and prepare to present to the class your views on the following topic: "The Relationship Between Breathing and Speaking".

#### CHAPTER III

#### THE PURPOSES OF SPEAKING

All speaking must have a purpose; it must go somewhere,
There must be a real reason for speaking or else the speaker
will be unable to justify himself in consuming the time of any
group of listeners, large or small. The indiscreet speaker frequently applogizes to an audience for his lack of preparation by
saying, "There are two reasons for speaking - first, because a
man has something to say; and second, because he has to say something. I feel that my appearance here on this occasion automatically places me in the second group", What he is doing is
admitting that he has no definite purpose in mind - no goal which
he is seeking to accomplish. His audience will go away asking
themselves, "What was it all about?" "What was the point?"
Their time has been wasted.

The pilot who wishes to fly his plane to a distant airport does so because of a reason. He must have a purpose. He must have a motive for going, whatever that motive may be. It may be for testing the ship. It may be merely for pleasure, for business, or for any one of a number of reasons; but there is always present that element of a goal to be reached - a destination. After locating the destination on the map, he considers next, the best route to follow. He will probably consult the weather map to find out if the weather conditions along the way are favorable for flying. If any part of the trip is to be made in the dark, he will consider among possible routes only those that are marked by some sort of beacons. He will consider the cruising range of his ship in view of avoiding any route on

which intermediate landing fields are farther apart than a tank of gas will drive his ship. And finally, after arriving at a satisfactory conclusion, he noses his ship into the wind, zooms it into the air, and disappears into the distance along the route he has elected to fellow.

The same careful planning that characterizes the preparation for an airplane trip must also be present in speaking if the speech is to have real worth. The hunter who fires his gun at nothing is sure to hit it. So is speech that has no purpose certain to accomplish nothing worth while.

1. Definitions of Speech Purposes. The study of the art of speech from a psychological point of approach is of comparatively recent origon. Like any other new field of study the terminology connected with it has not reached the stage of general acceptance. As a study grows older the terminology tends to become standardized. In the field of science the term "gravity" has come to be accepted universally to explain the falling motion.

"Matter" has come to mean substance, and "heredity" is used by all to indicate inheritance.

The modern study of speech is, at the present time, going through the same formative stage that practically every other scientific study must have gone through before becoming standard-ized. To be more exact, writers of text books on speech training are in somewhat general agreement on the fundamental purposes of speaking, but have not come to the place where they can agree upon the exact means of stating those purposes.

For a statement of the 'general ends' of speech, writers frequently go back to the teachings of Aristotle, who held that

"to convince, to move, and to praise or blame" are the three purposes of speech. In his <u>Institutes of Oratory</u> (Book III, Chapter 4) Quintilian embraces the opinion of Aristotle regarding the classification of speech purposes, but interprets them as being "to move, to inform or to please". Phillips, in <u>Effective Speaking</u>, arrives at his statement of the general ends of speech by revising those of Quintilian mentioned above. He says:

... as investigation fails to reveal a purpose or end putside these, we may conclude that the General Ends of Speech are five. The speaker wishes his audience to see - Clearness, or to feel - Impressiveness, or to accept - Belief, or to do - Action, or to enjoy - Entertainment. Whatever may be the topic, the end in view will be found under one or a combination of these heads.

By comparing the five general ends given by Phillips with the three given by Quintilian, it will be seen that the end of entertainment comes directly from Quintilian's purpose of "to please", impressiveness and action from the purpose of "to move", and clearness and belief from the purpose of "to inform".

Brigance insists that there is but one specific purpose of all speech, that being to cause an audience to respond. Thus he speaks of response being the one, and only, underlying purpose of speaking. However, he recognizes the general purposes to be very similar to those already considered. Brigance maintains that:

Some kinds of response are easier to get than others; some harder. So, graded according to increasing stiffness, we may say that there are four general kinds of response which a speaker may seek. An after-dinner speaker carries his audience along in a gale of laughter; his purpose is to interest us. An orator arouses his hearers concerning the present-day significance concerning The Fourth of July; his purpose is to stimulate us. An historial lectures upon the

<sup>1.</sup> Arthur Edward Phillips, Effective Speaking, The Newton Co., Chicago, 1916, p. 17.

<sup>2.</sup> James Norwood Brigance, The Spoken Word, S. F. Crofts and Co., New York, 1927, p. 55.

causes of the late war; his purpose is to inform us. A candidate expounds political issues to doubtful voters; his object is to convince us. There are four general purposes of speech - (1) to interest an audience, (2) to stimulate an audience, (3) to inform an audience, and (4) to convince an audience. I repeat the word "audience" after each purpose since no response can be separated from the particular audience facing the speaker. Merely 'to interest' is a formless purpose. But 'to interest the audience sitting before you' is a definite, tangible purpose.

Commenting upon the 'ends' outlined by Phillips, Brigance defends his point of view and allies his views with those of his friend and colleague, Dr. Welbert:

After using A. E. Phillips' five general ends of speaking for years, I have been led to accept these purposes given above as superior to Phillips' ends. They are psychologically sounder since they spring from a common demominator of response. They are nearer to mutual exclusiveness. They do not lead to a quibble over 'belief' and 'action' which two processes are to my belief, identic. The credit for this classification belongs to Dr. C. H. Wool University of Towa.

2. The General Purposes Compared. Again, by comparison of the general purposes of speech given by Brigance with the classifications of Aristotle and Quintilian, it is noted that the two bear a striking similarity. 'To inform' appears to have been taken completely from Quintilian's classification.
'To convince' and 'to stimulate' seem to have come from the end of 'to move' from the same classification, while the fourth general end in Brigance's classification is identical to that of Aristotle - 'to convince'.

Furthermore, the similarity between Phillips' classification and that of the great rhetorician has also been shown. If the mathematical principle - quantities equal to the same or equal quantities are themselves equal - is applied to the situa-

<sup>3.</sup> James Norwool Brigance, loc. cit.

tion concerning general purposes of speech it will be clearly understood that the underlying purposes are the same. The disagreement exists only in the manner in which various writers choose to state them.

5. An Arbritary Selection of Purposes. Having indicated that the disagreement in classification of speech purposes is somewhat more fanciful than factual, the choice of purposes to be used in this text is more or less arbritrary in nature. the sake of simplicity the following chapters will be concerned with four general purposes identical with four outlined by Phillips. The consideration of 'Entertainment' as a general purpose will be emitted for the very good reason that to include it implies that none of the others need be entertaining. In reality, any speach should, and must embrace the idea of entertainment, for entertainment is defined as the securing and holding of attention. Without the attention of the listeners no speech can be successful, and with it any speech may rightly be considered entertaining. Psychologically, any condition is either satisfying or annoying. Beneath all else, the speech which is satisfying is fundamentally entertaining. It may not cause the audience to break into upregrious laughter, it may not cause even a smile or a chuckle. On the other hand, it may cause a tear, but the tear is aroused by an inward feeling or emotion, and weeping is a satisfying type of behavior aroused by the inner feeling.

Conversely, the speech may never be an annoyer. If so it never achieves its purpose, and consequently is not a good speech. By this is not meant that the nature of a speech must necessarily be enjoyable. Most certainly there are many topics

which are not. But if the speech is to succeed it may never disregard the element of maintaining attention.

A further reason for emitting consideration of entertainment as a general speech purpose is the doubt that seldom, if
ever, is there an occasion where entertainment is the primary
aim. A great many speeches may be intelsely entertaining, but
there will commonly be another motive for speaking. Entertainment is but a means of achieving the real purpose. A speech for
entertainment and without any other purpose suggests a series of
oral gymnastics known as "gabbing".

The four general purposes to be considered are:

- 1. For Clearness
- 2. For Belief
- 3. For Action
- 4. Por Impressiveness

Bearing in mind that the element of entertainment includes such gactors as interest and attention, and that these factors cannot be separated from the four types indicated above it is evident that this classification effectually covers all possible speech motives.

A. Clearness as a Purpose. The speech having clarity as a purpose sims at giving information not already known to the hearer, or at organizing information already known in such a manner that it may be understood. Any speech which grows out of a question or deliberately answers a question has as its purpose the element of clearness. Essentially, the speech for clarity is concerned with explanation. The speeches embracing this general purpose are known as Expository Speeches.

- B. Belief as a Purpose. In a speech for belief, the speaker aims to convince the listeners of the truth of his ideas. He wishes them to accept his point of view to believe as he believes. He uses argument to persuade his listeners that what he says is true. It employes elements of conviction, but need not make any attempt at motivation. In this respect the end of action and belief are not one and the same. The audience may believe; they may accept; but unless they are especially motivated or given a reason for action, they will not act. Thus the purpose of belief stands out from others as a distinct speech purpose.
- C. Action as a Purpose. The speech for action always has behind it the desire on the part of the speaker to cause his listeners to do something. It may be that he wishes them to vote, to buy, to join an organization, to grant permission, or to donate to a cause; but whatever the immediate or specific purpose is, the general purpose it that of action.
- D. Impressiveness as a Furpose. Finally, the type of speech with has impressiveness as its purpose differs widely from any of the other types. It does not seek to explain, it does not endeavor to prove or convince, it contemplates no predetermined action on the part of the hearers. But rather, it seeks to create feeling. It appeals to the tastes, sentiments, to the emotions, and to the associations of time, places, or events in order to build up feeling. It must touch at the innermost life and experiences of the listener in order to achieve its purpose. It may be truly said that the speech for impression must take a tug at the heart-strings of the hearer, which is no more than saying that it seeks emotional response rather than reasoned response.

- 4. The Inter-relatedness of Speech Purpose. It is obvious that many, indeed most, speeches will not be strictly confined to the development of a single purpose. The very nature of the purposes partray certain interdependence of purpose. reasonable that a person could be induced to perform a reasoned act without understanding the reason for doing it, and believing that the act merits the action. Neither may a listener be impressed with an idea that is foreign to his own experience. element of impression comes through the interpretation of the experiences known to him, thus the element of clearness is also present. And so it is that the elements of purpose cannot be considered as isolated from one another, but must be considered in the light of their relationship with one another. They are separated for the purpose of analysis in order that a clear distinction may be made as to how each may be called upon to function in speech making.
- 5. Summary. The present chapter has attempted to indicate the necessity that speech shall and must have a goal. It must have a predetermined purpose in mind, and be constructed so as to achieve that purpose efficiently and effectively. After all, there are but two criteria for evaluating a speech, those being:

  (1) Was the purpose worthy? and (2) Did it achieve that purpose?

Considerable emphasis has also been placed on the similarity of classifications of speech purpose in attempt to indicate a common ground for speech training. The thought is that attention given to (1) clearness, (2) belief, (3) action, and (4) impressiveness effectively includes all possible speech motives.

The general purposes bear an interrelationship and an inter-

dependence that prevents them being isolated elements, but they have been segregated for the purpose of determining how each may be developed and incorporated with the speech as a whole.

Speaking is the oral means by which the will of one may be imposed upon others.

### EXERCISES FOR CHAPTER III

Be prepared to present your solutions or comments on the following exercises orally to the class.

- 1. Prepare five speech subjects which might be developed with each of the four purposes in mind.
- 2. Recall some speech you have heard. Tell the class what purpose the speaker attempted to develop. How did he do it?
- 5. What purpose is sought in a lawyer's plea to the jury? If you have attended a jury trial, tell the class the following particulars: (1) the place, (2) the nature of the charge, (3) the defendant's name, age, height, appearance, (4) the defendant's apparent attitude, (5) description, name and attitude of the plaintiff, (6) activities of the attorney's court proceedure, (8) the verdict. Would you have given the same verdict? Why?
- 4. What is the general purpose of court testimony? Is there a difference of purpose between the testimonial speeches and the lawyers' pleas?
- 5. What is most likely to be the general purpose of a speech given in commemoration of an important event? A sulogy? A political campaign speech? A sales talk?
- 6. Recall some speech you have heard in which the speaker sought action. Were any other purposes also present? If so what were they, and why were they necessary?
- 7. Present to the class clippings from newspapers or magazines each of which illustrates each of the speech purposes.
- 8. Discuss the relationship between clearness and belief.
- 9. To what extent does action depend upon clearness and belief?
- 10. What purpose is dominant in each of the following speeches?

  - 1. The Gettysburg Address 20 Lincoln's Ferewell Speech
  - 3. Linceln-Douglas Debates
  - 4. The president's last message to Congress
  - 5. A nomination speech
  - 6. A speech of welcome
  - 7. A sermon
  - 8. An advertising speech.

### QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER III

Instructions: Number papers from 1 to 20. As the instructor reads the number of the statement, write "true" of "false" according to which you believe is correct.

- ( ) 1. All speaking must have a purpose.
- ( ) 2. Wost writers agree on present classifications of speech purposes.
- ( ) 3. Speech study is going through the process of being standardized.
- ( ) 4. Aristotle recognized five speech purposes.
- ( ) 5. There is no evidence to show that the classifications given by Phillips and Brigance aprung originally from a common source.
- ( ) 6. Brigance would say that "response" is the specific purpose of all speech.
- ( ) 7. Phillips indicates his \*general ends\* as degrees of response graded according to stiffness.
- ( ) 8. Disagreement upon speech purposes among those writing in the field is real rather than funcied.
- ( ) 9. Selection of speech purposes from the many classifications is, to a great extent, arbritrary.
- ( )10. The classification used in this text agrees closely with that of Phillips.
- ( )11. Entertainment is not considered a worthy purpose in itself.
- ( )12. There are five criteria by which the quality of a speech should be evaluated.
- ( )13. Any condition is either satisfying or annoying.
- ( )14. In any speech there may never be an overlapping of purposes.
- ( )15. The nature of a speech never condemns it as a poor speech even though other elements are good.
- ( )16. A speech for impressiveness seeks reasoned response.
- ( )17. A speech for belief seeks to arouse the emotions.
- ( )18. Speeches for action are expository speeches.
- ( )19. A speech seeking to prove or convince is for belief.
- ( ) 20. A speech for clearness, or belief, or action, or for impressiveness, is so called because that purpose predominates.

### CHAPTER IV

# THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PURPOSE OF CLEARNESS

Logically enough, there would be no necessity for the classification of speech purposes were it not for the fact that a somewhat different technique must be employed in the development of each of the different purposes in the building of a Those elements which might serve well the development speech. of impressiveness would fall weefully short of their goal if used in an attempt to develop clearness. Likewise, the same approach would not serve equally well the purposes of action and belief. Action is produced by motivating belief, thus a person may be thoroughly convinced of the truth and the desirability of a certain act, but will not actually go out and preform that act without the necessary motivation. The attack for each of the general purposes is different, and it is the purpose of this chapter to throw a bit of light upon the method that may be employed in the development of the purpose of clearness.

- 1. The Development of Clearness. As has already been indicated, the expository speech preforms the function of explaining. Man's thinking is clear only on those things which he is able to understand, and he understands only those things he knows or which he is able to associate with known elements. As a result, the speech for clearness should employ those means which create understanding. It will employ those means by which man becomes most able to adapt his thinking to new situations.
  - A. Attributes of Clearness. As previously mentioned, the

elements which effectively assist man to adapt his thinking to new situations are true attributes of clearness. The following paragraphs will attempt to summarize these elements and to indicate the nature and illustrate the application of these elements or principles. Those elements which may properly be considered as the general attributes of clearness are:

- 1. Effective organization
- 2. Unbiased presentation
- 5. Contrast and comparison
- 4. Relation to experience
- 5. Analysis and synthesis
- 6. Concrete illustration

1. Effective Organization. As the first and outstanding requisite of the expository speech it must be organized effectively. It must indicate proper relationships, subordinate minor details, and must not be contrary to the normal method of thinking. The simple ideas should preceed and form a basis for the more complex ideas to be presented later. A description of a new type of automobile would very likely start with a description of the outside appearance. Then the discussion might proceed to the motor, then to the gearing, axles, steering mechanism, and wheels. Why? Because that is probably the order in which one interested in automobiles would follow in gaining the information first hand. The game of football would hardly be understood if the discussion were to begin with the description of punts, pivots, and runs. The first, and most obvious information needed by the hearer will concern the place where the game is played, the type of field, the object of the game, and

the method of sooring.

It must be remembered that the listener does not understand. He must be made to understand each element in its right relationship to all of the other elements composing the situation. Each new element should have a logical connection with the discussion preceeding it and should aim further the related development of the subject.

In his speech on the "History of Communications" note how clarence H. Mackey attempted to make his idea clear by organizing his material in such a way as to carry his listeners step by step through the gradual development of the means of modern communication.

America made an outstanding and romantic contribution to the development of communications before the real expansion of the telegraph had begun. It was the Pony Express, established in 1859 at the suggestion of Senator Gwin . . Letters had to be written on tissue paper and the postage at first was five dollars for the first one-half ounce.

Against this background of hindered growth, of unconquered obstacles, there suddenly dawned, in the Mineteenth Century, the era of electrical communication. It was as if the genius of mankind for communications, pent up for all the centuries before, had swiftly burst its bonds, resolved to atome for all past backwardness.

It was in 1844 that Samuel F. B. Morse revealed to the world the invention of the telegraph; 1850 is the first big date in the history of submarine cables. In that year a thirty-mile cable was leid from Dover, England across the English Channel, the culmination of many years of theorising and experiment. It was the first of many ventures and preceded the spanning of the Atlantic by submarine cable by eight years.

Man has a tendency to visualize those things which he hears. Thus he hears visual images, and the images he hears are deeply rooted in his own realm of personal experiences. Thus the

<sup>1.</sup> Clarence H. Mackay, "History of Communications". Modern
Speeches, comp. Homer D. Lindgren, S. F. Crofts Co., 1926,
p. 264.

elements composing the mental picture must be presented in the order they can best be perceived by the observer.

- 2. Unbiased Presentation. The speaker's personal feelings have no place in the expository speech. "I believe", "It gave me the feeling", and similar expressions immediately disqualify the speech for clearness. Such statements automatically indicate that the spoaker is not only giving the actual conditions, facts or situations, but that he is also lending to them his own interpretation. Exposition is impersonal. "Here are the facts", "This is the situation", and similar expressions denote exposi-"I observed" may not often be questioned while even in that case, knowing that observation is always interpreted in the light of personal experience, it may be delicately tinged with prejudice. When prejudice, bias, or personal feelings enter into a speech, the purpose of speaking becomes outside the realm of clearness. It becomes a speech for belief in which the speaker sacks to induce the audience to believe as he believes, or it becomes a speech for impressiveness in which the speaker would have his audience to feel as he feels,
- 5. Contrast and Comparison. The hearer's knowledge of a strange house becomes more real when he learns in what way it is similar to or differs from some house that he knows. Contrast and comparison are valuable attributes of the purpose of clarity. Note how effectively comparison is used by Andre Morize to make the occasion of his speech clear to his listeners.

It is fitting that there should be, in the life of nations just as in the life of men, hours of reflection and meditation. We pause a moment, we interrupt the routing

<sup>2.</sup> Andre Morize, "1918 - 1925" Modern Speeches, comp, Homer D. Lindgren, S. F. Crofts and Co., 1926, p. 317.

of work and days to consider, in the peace of an hour's thought, the way which has been traversed and the perspectives open before us. When an entire nation takes upon itself this discipline of meditation, its significance becomes far more forecaful and more profound.

Speaking on The Supreme Jig Saw Puzzle of Life , Razelle Klopper carried through the entire speech a comparison of the complexity of life to the complexity of the popular puzzle.

Yet have we ever stopped to think how closely analogous is the jig saw puzzle to the life of every one of us. How each of our experiences, our beliefs, our prejudices is but a tiny piece which, when fitted with the others, may portray a complete picture of any personality represented her today. We may think of the jig saw as merely a puzzle, a pastime to amuse people and never see that within it is exemplified the life of man, and little dream that in the solution of it lies the satisfaction of the hidden urge of man to piece together the various parts of his life.

A mechanic, in an effort to explain the operation of a gasoline motor to one who is familiar with a steam engine, mig go about his explanation by showing in what respects it is the same or differs from a steam engine. In doing so he is using contrast and comparison for the purpose of clarity.

The motive energy for the steam plant is supplied by a beiler where steam is generated and is confined under high pressures. For the gasoline power plant, the energy which operates it is supplied by the combustion of a mixture of gasoline vapor and air within the cylinder of the motor. The electric spark which ignites the mixture is so governed by the timing mechanism that the explosion occurs at a time when the piston, which is similar to that of the steam engine, is at the top of its stroke, driving the piston downward and rotating the flywheel.

4. Relation to Experience. In an artist, the sight of a giant tree may inspire the thought of its beauty and a desire to paint it into a picture. To the vacationist, its shade may suggest a delightful place for a pionic dinner. A forrester

<sup>3.</sup> Razella Klopper, "The Supreme Jig Saw Puzzle of Life", The Yearbook of College Oratory, vol. V, comp. Evan E. Ander. 809, Noble and Noble, 1933, p. 253.

taken to the mill; while the naturalist would perceive the tree in the light of its age, species, and surrounding environment. Interpretation and understanding within the individual is largely in terms of the experience of that individual. Clearness of thinking on a relatively new situation depends upon the realization of the relationships existing between the new situation and a situation already familiar.

The question naturally arises: "How may a speaker know that his references are based in the experience of all of his audience?" The answer is that there are certain experiences common to all. It is to these common experiences that a speaker will necessarily need to refer. Indeed there may, and perhaps, frequently will be, speaking situations in which the speaker is aware of certain, definite bits of experience common to all present, but which would not be common in another group of listeners.

Speaking on "The Progress of Science" to a group of high school or college people a speaker might make use of an experience common to that particular group.

In the corridor just outside the entrance to this auditorium hangs a picture of Benjamin Franklin. As you, or at least many of you, have passed daily under the kind countenance of that national and international figure, I wonder if you have ever paused to think of his contribution to the nation's welfare.

Reference to specific experience has a tendency to make the speech more personal. A point of mutual interest is established between the speaker and his hearers. Good will is bestowed by an audience upon a speaker who has their interests at heart to the extent that he selects their own, individual

experiences as a means of helping them to understand. By so doing the speaker is not only better understood by his listeners, but he also better understands them for having delved into their personal experience for better common understanding. The feeling of good will becomes mutual.

But there will be many instances in which the speaker will be unable to select experiences of a specific nature for his particular group. In those cases his references will be to experiences of a general nature. Love, pain, anxiety, ambition, humor, suspense, hope, desire and similar experiences are common to the race; thus in a general way, may be considered solid foundations for reference to experience. All have had those experiences.

The speaker appearing before an audience havinggno specific experiences in common will make use of the relation to general experience. All have felt the sting of winter's blast or at least can conceive of its unpleasantness. William J. Hull makes use of this bit of general experience to introduce his speech on "Philosophy Reenthroned".

Why has philosophy fallen from grace? Why have her children, the sciences, divided their heritage and turned her out of doors - like another Lear, with ingratitude unkinder than the winter's wind?

5. Analysis and Synthesis. Little comment upon analysis and synthesis will be necessary to indicate their effectiveness as attributes to clearness. Since clearness depends upon understanding, it may be developed in the same way that man ordin-

<sup>4.</sup> William J. Hull, "Philosophy Reenthroned" Yearbook of Gollege Oratory. op. cit. p. 165.

arily gains understanding. He learns best by taking things apart and putting them back together again. That is exactly what is meant by analyzing and synthesizing.

The jeweler learns to repair watches by dismantling and assembling many different kinds. The mechanic learns the function and repair of the parts of a motor car by taking them apart and repairing them repeatedly. In the speech for clearness while it is dealing largely with ideas rather than pieces of machinery, the same principle applies. A relatively complex idea may appear quite simple when separated into its component minor ideas and put together again. Thereby the simple parts are brought into the realm of experience of the listeners and reassembled with new meaning.

6. Concrete Illustration. Finally, and by no means the least important attribute of clearness, is the concrete illustration. The anecdote, a demonstration, a drawing, or a bit of experience involving the principle he wishes to explain, may be drawn upon by the speaker in achieving the purpose of clearness.

Calhoun, speaking on "The Force Bill" before the Senate in 1883 demonstrates clearly the use of an example in achievement of his purpose.

Let us, then, suppose a small community of five persons, separated from the rest of the world; and, to make the example strong, let us suppose them all to be engaged in the same pursuit and to be of equal wealth. Let us further assume they determined to govern the community by the will of a majority; and, to make the case as strong as poselble, let us suppose that the majority, in order to meet the expense of the government, lay an equal tax, say of one hundred dellars on each individual in this little community. Their treasury would contain five hundred dellars. Three

<sup>5.</sup> John C. Calhoun, "The Force Bill", A Collection of Arguments and Speeches, comp. William R. Snyder, Baker Voorhis, and Company, New York, 1892, p. 651.

are a majority; and they, by supposition, have contributed three hundred dollars as their portion, and the others (the minority), two hundred. The three have the right to make the appropriations as they see fit. The question is, how would the principle of the absolute and unchecked majority operate, under these circumstances, in this little community?

His purpose - to illustrate the functioning of the principle of majority rule - was, without doubt, made simpler to his listeners and the task of explaining made less difficult for himself.

#### EXERCISES FOR CHAPTER IV

- 1. From newspapers or magazines make three clippings in which the general purpose is clearness. Present these to the class and point out the attributes used in developing it.
- 2. Explain what your interpretation is of the statement, "Man hears pictures".
- 3. Select one of the following or a similar topic for the subject of a speech.
  - 1. Wild Flowers in Our Community
  - 2. Slogans in Advertising
  - 3. How Contests are used in Advertising
  - 4. The Gold Standard
  - 5. The Extent of Crime
  - 6. Successful Failures
  - 7. My Vacation
  - 8. How to Play \_\_\_\_\_ (a game)
  - 9. The (most exciting, most embarrassing) moment of my life,
  - 10. Day Dreaming.

Announce your topic to the class. Let them tell what they already know about the subject and ask questions they would like to know. Copy these questions and be sure that they are answered in your speech. Introduce at least three devices or attributes of clearness into the speech.

- 4. Illustrate the traffic regulations of your city. How may accidents be prevented by their strict observance? Use the blackboard, drawings, or toy cars to illustrate your discussion.
- 5. In your own words, tell the class why biases or prejudices affect the attainment of clearness.
- 6. Use contrast and comparison in presenting a one-minute discussion on the subject - Courthouses I Have Seen.
- 7. Locate the attribute of clearness in each of the quotations from speeched in Chapter IV.
- 8. Present some complex idea that might be made clear through analysis and synthesis.

# EXERCISES FOR CHAPTER IV (CONTINUED)

- 9. Make up a speaking program around the general theme: "How Our Community Amuses Itself". Let the Class organize to suit the occasion and call upon members of the Class for prepared speeches on the various phases of local amusement.
- 10. Select for the topic of general discussion: "How People Try to Evade the Law". Ask each individual to prepare as many examples as possible of practices used in evasion of the law, and present them in an open forum discussion.

# QUESTIONS OVER CHAPTER IV (true-false)

( ) 1. Different purposes employ separate technique of development. ( ) 2. There are four general speech purposes. ( ) 3. The speech for clearness is called the expository speech. ( ) 4. There are four general attributes of clearness. ( ) 5. Proper organization depends largely upon the subordinstion of minor details. ( ) 6. Ideas should be presented in a speech in the same order they would be observed. ( ) 7. The speaker must assume that the listeners understand. ( ) 8. Biases and prejudices are not permitted in speeches for clarity. ( ) 9. The senses provide means of understanding, 10. New ideas need have no connection with the listeners! experience. ( ) 11. Understanding is best obtained through likening the known to the unknown. 12. Men interpret situations in terms of their experience. ( ) 13. Certain experiences are common to all the members of a race. ( ) 14. Reference to specific experiences tend to make a speech more personal. ( ) 15. The concrete illustration should seldom be used in a spesch having clearness as its purpose. 15. The general illustration is preferable for clearness. ( ) 17. Analysis means "putting together". 18. The expository lecture aims to convince. ( ) 19. Clearness must be sought before attempting to develop

( ) 20. The speech for clearness seeks an emotional response.

any other speech purpose.

### CHAPTER V

## THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GENERAL PURPOSE OF BELIEF

The problem of developing a speech for belief is materially simplified by the recognition that it is no more than that of developing a speech for clarity to which has been added the common elements of persuasion. Before an audience, whether large or small, can accept or believe, they must understand, thus the necessity of including the common attributes of clearness is not diminished.

The speech for belief always deals with a proposition - a controversial question. Obviously there could be no merit in a speech which attempted to prove something already generally accepted. The subject for consideration must be capable of entertaining two or more different opinions. The speaker who seeks to encourage the acceptance of his opinion faces the problem of dispelling doubt, question, or indecision relative to that opinion which may exist in the minds of the audience.

- l. Factors of the Speech Situation. The factors which apply in general to all speaking situations, but which apply particularly to the present situation are four in number. These factors are: (A) the sudience, (B) the speaker, (C) the occasion, and (D) the subject. A short discussion will reveal the importance of considering these factors before planning a speech.
- A. The Audience. If the speech is to succeed it is to the interest of the speaker to know as much as possible about his audience. Among other questions, the speaker will ask himself "What people will compose my audience? Why will they be there?

What are their ages, interests, and occupations? Will my audience consist mostly of men, or of women, or will it consist of both men and women? What is their attitude toward the topic of my speech?

By arriving at a satisfactory conclusion in answer to these questions the speaker is better able to adapt the speach to the best interests of those who are to listen. He sees more clearly the problem confronting him, and becomes more able to overcome the obstacles that arise. Only after a careful study of these factors can a speaker answer the vital question of: What response can I reasonably expect to get from this audience?

In general, the speaker who seeks to convince, will find that his audience will be characterized by one of three prevailing attitudes toward the subject for discussion. The first. and, naturally, the most trying situation is one in which the audience is antagonistic toward the speaker and his purpose. An excellent example of how one speaker was able to secure favorable consideration from an heatile audience is exhibited in a speech by Henry Ward Beecher, delivered in Liverpool, England. It will be remembered that during the early years of the Civil War England was in sympathy with the Confederate cause. probably as a result of the effective blockade maintained by the Union forces which prevented raw cotton from reaching the Beacher sought to present the Union cause in British Mills. a series of speeches throughout England, and was confronted on every hand with almost insulting antagonism. But by his pationce, his appeal to the English sense of sportsmanship, and

<sup>1.</sup> Henry Ward Beecher, Presentation of the Union Cause, A Collection of Arguments and Speeches, comp. William L. Snyder, Voorhis and Co., New York, p. 331.

by his tolerant sense of humor he was able to win their attention.

It is a matter of very little consequence to me whether I speak here tonight or not. (Laughter and cheers. The riot that broke out when he appeared upon the platform began to become quiet) But one thing is very certain, if you do permit me to speak here tonight, you will hear plain talking. (Applause and hisses) You will not find me a man who dared to speak about Great Britain three thousand miles off, and then is afraid to speak to Great Britain when he stands on her shores. (Immense applause and hisses) And if I do not mistake the tone and temper of Englishmen they had rather have a man who opposes them in a manly way than a sneak who (applause from all parts of the hall) . . . . who agrees with them in an unmanly way. (Applause and "Bravo") Now, if I can carry you with me by sound convictions, I shall be immensely glad (applause); but if I cannot carry you with me by facts and sound arguments, I do not wish you to go with me at all; all I ask is fair play. (Applause and a voice "You shall have it, too")

Those of you who are kind enough to wish to favor my speaking - and you will observe that my voice is slightly husky, from having spoken almost every night in succession for some time past - those who wish to hear me will do me the kindness simply to sit still and to keep still; and I and my friends the Secessionists will make the noise. (Laughter)

The second characteristic attitude that may confront the speaker who seeks to convince an audience is that of mild opposition. While the problem is certainly less trying than the one previously mentioned and illustrated, it is none the less important that it be handles skillfully and tactfully. That the speaker must be sympathetic toward the attitude of the listeners and that he must see their problem at the same time he is trying to cause them to see his problem is an evident fact.

Good speakers avoid challenging statements such as, "I am going to prove to you . . . " because immediately the audience meets such a statement with the "Let's see you try it" attitude, and the efforts of the speaker are lost. Again, many speeches have failed wherein the margin of failure was the difference between the words "you" and "wo". To say to an audience, "You

do not vote intelligently" or "You should read good literature to be cultured" condemns or accuses the listeners; while "We do not vote intelligently" or "We should read good literature to be cultured" effectively conveys the same idea without risk of needlessly arousing antagonism. One should avoid arousing antagonism through thoughtless criticism of social "taboos", but wherever possible should strengthen his argument by attaching it to them.

The third, and by far the most frequent, attitude encountered by a speaker seeking to convince an audience is that of indifference or neutrality. The listeners are not averse to agreeing with the truth of the speech purpose, but lack the necessary intensity of conviction to take issue, either for or against. Sound reasoning, sincerity, and vividness tend to supply the elements for converting indifference into acceptance.

In this consideration of the audience as one of the important elements in the speaking situation, it must be remembered that wherever disagreement exists, and wherever disagreement is to be evercome there must be a reason for such disagreement.

Contrary to popular opinion, there is generally but a single reason rather than a number of reasons. The speaker must know and meet the real objection. He cannot "skim the surface" by meeting a dozen imagined or fancied objections and expect to realize satisfactory results.

A speaker who seeks to convince the patrons of a school that there is a need for a new building must first know where the objection lies before attempting to overcome it. A thousand brilliant prations on "The Value of Education" would not schieve

the desired purpose if the real objection happens to be in the increase of taxes necessary to provide funds for the erection of the proposed building. He might, however, convince them in few words by indicating how really little it would cost each individual each year when the amount would be extended over a period of twenty years.

B. The Speaker. The second pactor influencing the speech situation is the speaker. He should ask himself, Why am I to speak? What qualifications do I have? How does the audience feel toward me? What do they expect of me? To what extent am I am authority on the subject of my speech?

These questions answered frankly and homestly should give the speaker a clear perspective of his proper place in the speaking situation under consideration, and it is only through a clear understanding that he becomes able to adjust himself to the situation. He should take note of any qualities he may have, or any experiences he may have had, or what position he holds that would cause him to receive the invitation to speak. He should try to determine what part, if any, the audience had in choosing the speaker, or if he was chosen by a small group or committee. And, finally, he should consider whether or not his audience will be composed of local people or strangers, bearing in mind that acquaintances and strangers may interpret his speech in extremely different ways. Speaking to a group of local persons, a man may criticise severely, whereas the stranger would insult.

C. The Occasion. The same audience, composed of the same individuals, will not always present the same problem under varying conditions. The minister, speaking to his congregation on

Sunday morning, might be asked to deliver the same speech to a Chamber of Commerce convention on Thursday night. Essentially the audience in both cases will be made up of local men and women, but the occasion is radically different. He must make the speech suit the occasion. If the speech is made after a dinner, there is still another situation presented. Men do not care for heavy thoughts following a heavy meal. The after-dinner speaker will purposely avoid lengthy dissertations, and will regard brevity as an absolute necessity.

Again the occasion will condition a speech on George Washington given on his birthday anniversary or on Independence Day.
No definite rule may be established regarding how the speaker
is to adapt the speech to the occasion. It is a personal problem. In general, however, it may be said that a thorough knowledge of each phase of the entire speech situation is essential
in fitting the speech to the occasion.

D. The Speech. The fourth element of any speech situation concerns the speech itself. In many cases the speaker will be asked to speak on a certain specified subject; in other cases he may be asked to speak on a subject of his own choosing. In either case the problem is much the same. The speaker must consider what the audience already knows of his subject; he must consider further what would be of interest and value, and must also consider the length of time he is to consume in determining the amount of material to be introduced into the speech.

In the second place, he must consider what response is desirable and what response he can reasonably expect from this particular audience upon this particular subject. Having de-

cided upon the desired response the speech should then be organized according to the means by which that purpose may best be achieved. The exact title of the speech should suggest the purpose in the mind of the speaker, for it is an established fact that the successful outcome of the speech depends upon the listeners' knowledge of the desired response.

- 2. Persussive Devices. It has been indicated that the purpose of the speech for belief is the removal of doubt, question, or indecision. It involves the problem of causing the audience to accept the belief held by the speaker to agree with the speaker's views. The four means most effective in swaying opinion are discussed as persuasive devices. Those devices are:

  (A) restatement, (B) general illustration, (C) evidence, and (D) the consistent physical aspect.
- A. Restatement. Exactly the same idea expressed in different ways may have widely different effects upon the same individual. Stated in one way, an idea may be thoroughly appreciated by one person and may be entirely meaningless to another. The thought behind this condition and which has been expressed in a previous chapter is that past experience governs interpretation. The experience of one may be adequate to interpret the truth of a statement made in one way; while it would be entirely inadequate if the same truth were expressed differently. It is for this reason that restatement is a desirable device of persuesion, for it permits interpretation of meaning to be accurate in spite of varied experience.

Arguing against the destruction of forests a speaker might say, "Growing trees are things of beauty". Thus he appeals to

those who are artistically inclined. He may seek to impress
those who are inclined to appreciate economy with a statement
that, "Trees are more valuable growing than sawed into lumber
because they prevent crosion of soil and control rainfall."
Seeking further to impress his listeners with the folly of
destroying forests he may touch a reverent chord by saying, "It
is not becoming of Man to destroy the works of God". In each
case the idea was to prevent the destruction of forests. Stated
differently the idea was made to come within the experience of
every listener.

B. The General Illustration. The general illustration as opposed to the specific illustration is essentially a device of persuasion. The general illustration includes broad principles which are valuable in that through their use the speaker becomes able to direct the thinking of his listeners in a desirable direction. Having once directed the thinking by the use of the general illustration, the specific or concrete illustration may be introduced to further concentrate the thinking along a previously determined path. The specific illustration, essentially an attribute of clearness, may become a persuasive device as well when coordinated with the general illustration.

In an attempt to persuade the people of Zion City, Illinois that the earth is round instead of flat, the speaker would do well to indicate that all rotating bodies tend to conform to a spherical shape. That is the statement of a general principle which might be illustrated generally by the whirling of a lasso noose. It might be illustrated by the formation of a drop of water on the end of a glass tube, or in any one of a number of different ways. That is a general illustration.

HIMBORIA KANBAR

of the general principle, will probably introduce the specific illustration by showing a picture of the earth's shadow on the moon during a lunar eclipse. The universal knowledge that shadows conform to the physical outlines of the light obstruction should lead the audience further toward the acceptance of the belief that the world is round, not flat.

C. Evidence. Evidence is defined as that means by which fact is established. In court the testimony of a witness or of a person qualified to express an opinion is accepted as evidence to prove the guilt or innocence of the one accused. The testimony of satisfied customers is used to establish faith of prospective customers. Testimony, then, is a persuasive device.

One person's faith or belief is called upon to establish the faith or belief of another.

The tire salesman would have his customer believe in the safety of puncture proof inner tubes. He deliberately drives a nail into the tire and pulls it out to prove that the tire will not lose its air pressure. His evidence is in the form of demonstration. His prospective customer actually sees the nail driven into the tire, and he actually sees the hole it made, yet no air hissed out. He is convinced of the convenience of puncture proof tubes.

The speaker seeking to convince an audience will find his task simplified only to the extent that he is able to build his argument upon a sound basis of logically related bits of evidence. The winning of a case in court depends upon the ability of the attorney to make the jury believe; the success of a speech in which the element of belief predominates depends upon the ex-

tent to which the audience is made to believe.

D. The Consistent Physical Aspect. The physical aspect of the speaker, the appearance of the gathering place, the seating arrangement, the decorations or lack of decorations, and, in general, the entire immediate environment, are factors that play a significant part in the outcome of any speech, and more particularly the speech for belief. The setting must be right. It must be in keeping with the purpose to be sought.

Close contact between the speaker and the audience is desirable. The speaker who expects to address a small audience will frequently rope off all seats except a sufficient number in the middle of the room near the speaker's platform. The speaker's dress will be standard and in good taste, but will not be such that will attract the attention to himself rather than his speech. He will maintain a free, easy, upright, relaxed standing position, knowing that any other tends to distract the attention of the audience. For the same reason he will avoid stereotyped gestures, and monotonous inflections. The attention of the audience must not be diverted from the speech.

Every effort should be expended to be sure the audience is comfortable. They cannot respond favorably when they are not interested in the speech, and cannot be interested when irritated by external forces. A good way to lose the interest and attention of a group is to speak so low that they have to strain in order to hear what is said.

The proper room temperature and humidity should be maintained. Distracting noises and activities nearby should be controlled in order that the speech shall be, for the time, the sole source of attention.

3. Conclusion. In the speech for belief, the speaker must select the response he wishes. That response must be legical. It must be known by the listeners, and the speaker must call for that response in no uncertain terms.

The nature and degree of response must be determined by a thoughtful study of allof the elements making up the speech situation. The attitude of the audience toward the speech and the speaker should govern the method of attack, and the burden of convincing lies in discovering the overcoming the real objection.

Belief depends upon the acceptance of fact. Facts presented in the light of the listeners' experiences are more apt to be interpreted according to the speaker's purpose. Four devices essential in gaining acceptance are (1) restatement, (2) general illustration, (3) evidence, and (4) consistent physical aspect.

# QUESTIONS ON CHAPTER V

ted at the	each of the following statements a word has been omit- place indicated by the blank space. You are to write high best completes the statement on the line pre- le statement.
1.	The speech for is no more than a speech for clearness to which has been added the common elements of persuasion.
2.	Before an audience can accept the truth of a statement they must
3.	There are (how many?) factors in a speech situa- tion.
4.	The should endeavor to learn as much about his audience as possible.
Š.	Speaking before an unsympathetic audience, the speaker must know and meet the real
6.	Antagonism is one of (how many) characteristic attitudes an audience may hold toward any controversial issue.
7.	A speaker should & the use of challenging statements
8.	Past experience governs the listeners
9.	Repetition of the same idea in different terms is known as
10.	Use of the general illustration should preceed the use of theillustration.
The state of the s	The means by which fact is established is defined as
12,	A statement by a person well qualified to express an opinion is called
13.	Demonstration is one form of
	The speech should be the sole object of the of the audience.
15.	The speaker should avoid those things which attract attention torather than to the speech.
	Surrounding physical conditions may affect the accomplishment of the speech
17,	The burden of lies in the recognition and over- coming of the real objection.

18.	The nature and degree of mined by a careful study situation.	desired must be de of all elements of the	speech
19.	The prime purpose of the	speech for belief is to	ð
<b>.</b> 08	The same audience present speaker when assembled of	ts different problems to different	the

### EXERCISES FOR CHAPTER V

- L. Prepare a list of ten subjects for speeches which suggest clarity as a purpose.
- 2. Revise the ten speech subjects prepared for question I to suggest belief as the predominating purpose.
- 3. Suggest the occasion on which the following speech topics would demand belief as the general purpose. How might each topic be phrased to suggest the desired purpose?
  - a. Liberty
  - b. Hunger
  - c. The Description of a Quarrel
  - d. National Defense
  - e. World Peace
- 4. Prepare a four minute speech on one of the following speech topics. Present this speech under each of the following conditions:
  - I. Assume the class is antagonistic toward the ideas to be presented.
  - II. Assume the class to be only mildly apposed.
  - III. Assume the class to be indifferent or neutral.
  - a. The Evil of Capital Punishment
  - b. The Desirability of a Sales Tex
  - c. A College Education for Everyone
  - d. The Benefits of Athletics
  - e. A Proposal to Reduce the Minimum Age Limit of The Unites States President to Thirty Years.
  - f, A Defense of Modern Youth
  - g. Can Crime Succeed?
  - h. Private Control, & Menace to Industry.
  - 1. Can Man Earn a Million Dollars?
  - j. Peace Time Patrictism
  - 5. Prepare an introductory statement for each of the speech topics under question 4 by the use of a general illustration or by the application of a general principle.

6. Present to the class your opinion on the following problem and defend your view as to the responsibility of each of the parties concerned.

Richard Roe, who lived in a fraternity house while attending college, owned a dilapidated Ford touring car. At the close of the school year he went to his home leaving the car in the back yard of the fraternity. He made no disposal of the machine, but merely abandoned it there. When school opened the following fall, Roe did not return to school. The boys at the house put the car in running condition and were known to have been driving it.

One evening between seven and eight o'clock the Ford collided with a parked motorcar nearby. The owner of the demaged motorcar, Mr. Doe, brought suit against the fraternity for damages. The fraternity was having a meeting at the time the accident happened, and the roll call indicated all members were present or otherwise accounted for.

WHO is to blame?

7. In the following problem, who has the right to claim the bear?

A hunter has permission to hunt for bear on the land belonging to Mr. A, but does not have permission to hunt on the land belonging to Mr. B, whose land lies adjacent to the land of Mr. A.

The hunter wounds a bear fatally on Mr. A's premises, but, before the bear drops, he crosses the boundry of Mr. B's land where he dies. Mr. B appeared on the scene and claimed the bear. The hunter claimed the bear. The question is: Whose bear was it?

- 8. Suppose you are the hunter in problem seven. Prepare a speech you would use in trying to convince Mr. B. of your right to claim the bear.
- 9. If you were the president of the fraternity what argument would you present to Mr. Doe in defense of the fraternity against his accusations? Deliver the speech to the class.
- 10. Read to the class three newspaper clippings in which belief is the predominating purpose.

### CHAPTER VI

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GENERAL PURPOSE OF ACTION

Action is probably the most common of all speech purposes. Whether the speech is made to a friend, to the members of one's family, or to a gathering of people in a formal speech situation, the most common purpose of all is to cause the listener or listeners to preform a specific, definite act. The measure of success is, then, whether or not the audience preforms the desired act.

By inference it will be seen that the desired action must be reasonable; it must come within the ability of the audience to execute. Speaking with this thought in mind, C. H. Woolbert says:

To get tacit acceptance, let him (the speaker) have in mind that; to induce another man to change his mode of living, he must make that solely the aim of his speech; to make him pay money, vote, to be diligent in business, to serve his church or party, he has to keep his eye to that chosen purpose only. It is a waste of time to ask men to do what is impossible or what is out of the question or already done or not worth doing. At a political rally, men cannot put their votes into the ballot box; but they can be lined up with the party and made to favor the party's candidate. Elderly pew-holders are not likely to be induced to go to the foreign field; but their interest in missions can be awakened, and they can be induced to subscribe or give money. A middle-classed congregation cannot be harangued Sunday after Sunday on the subject of sin and repentance, but it can be enlightened as to ethical values. Invariably it pays a speaker to inquire, Just what can I reasonably ask this audience to do? What response can I look for as they sit in their seats? Being wise, he will select the precise action he believes possible for that specific gathering. An action fitly chosen is a start toward success; an action unwisely chosen makes failure certain.

The purpose of action is the climax of speech difficulty. It is the most difficult purpose to attain. The speech which would induce the listeners to preform a specific act requires

<sup>1.</sup> C. H. Woolbert, "Persussion; Principles and Method", Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, March, 1919, p. 103.

that the audience shall understand the proposed action; it requires that they be convinced of its desirability; and it demands that they be motivated to the actual preformance of the act.

Thus it will be seen that the purpose of action is really the incorporation of clearness and belief to which has been added the recognized elements of motivation. It is for this reason that belief and action are spoken of as dominant rather than individual speech purposes. The purpose of belief is dependent also upon clearness, but is so called because the purpose of belief is the dominant purpose. The speech for action is likewise dependent upon both belief and clarity; but, because of the nature of the predominant purpose, it is denoted as a speech for action.

Since the preformance of a specific act, on the part of the audience, is the ultimate aim of the speech for action, it behaves the student of public speaking to discover the fundamental bases of human response - those conditions or impulses that cause man to behave as he does. They are the psychological motives of response.

1. Classification of Motives. Many of mans actions are purely the result of reason. He thinks, ponders over, weight, and considers many possible acts before deciding upon the one which is best suited to his need. In this case, action is stimulated by the intellectual motive.

Yet, in many other instances, the motives are not derived from an intellectual source, but are derived from a system of attitudes, feelings, or ideals inherent in human nature. The motives which stimulate action of this nature will be considered as emotional motives.

In the following paragraph taken from a speech by Remet A. Pedley, a student of the Western Reserve University, is seen an excellent example of a call for action through an appeal to the intellectual motive.

There is only one thing that will stay "The Hand of Living Death", That is to ratify the Geneva Convention, to out off at its source the flood of dope that is blasting the hopes of youth, stimulating the degenerate, and quickening the criminal in crime . . . We know the facts, now let us see to it that others know.

Again, the intellectual motive is relied upon to stimulate action. The speaker was Thomas Younnman, a student at Dubuque University, speaking in the Iowa Intercollegiate Oratorical Contest at Sioux Falls on the subject "A Plea For India".

India is in a desperate condition today, and her case calls for sympathetic thought and understanding. And I plead before you in the name of justice, and in the name of humanity . . . that you, seeing the appalling conditions wrought by the British rule, may give her your sympathetic understanding in helping India to reach her frustrated desire for self-rule and self-determination.

Putting his plea in the form of a question, he continues:

Once again I appeal to your reason; should a nation so noble, so spiritual, and so gifted, suffer under foreign bondage? And why should we allow India to be buried alive to satisfy the British navalistic, militaristic, and imperialistic greediness and her parasite policies?

In a speech by Henry W. Grady is seen an outstanding example of an appeal for action through the emotional motive. As he speaks upon the topic "The Race Problem" his purpose is to create a more sympathetic regard for the negro people.

<sup>2.</sup> Evan E. Anderson, comp., The Year Book of College Oratory, Vol. 4. Noble and Noble, New York, p. 113.

<sup>5.</sup> Evan E. Anderson, comp., Op. Cit., p. 364-5.

<sup>4.</sup> Warren G. Shaw, History of American Oratory, "The Race Problem' by Henry W. Grady, Bobbs-Merrill Co, 1929, p. 527.

The love we feel for that race you cannot measure nor comprehend . . . I see night coming down with its dangers and its apprehensions, and in a big homely room I feel on my tired head the touch of loving hands, now worn and wrinkled, but fairer to me than the hands of mostal man - as they lay a mother's blessing there wile at her knees, the truest altar I have yet found, I thank God she is safe in her sanctuary, because her slaves, sentinel in the silent cabin or guard at her chamber door, put a black man's loyalty between her and danger.

He deals directly with the feelings, and sentiments of the listeners rather than through an appeal to their intellects.

A valiant attempt by Clarence Darrow to save his clients, Nathan Leopold and Richard Loeb, from the electric chair for the murder of Bobby Franks, was successful as a result of a strong emotional appeal to the Judge, a part of which follows:

We might as well be honest with ourselves, your Honor. Before I would tie a nose around the neck of a boy, I would try to call back into my mind some of the emotions of youth. I would try to remember what the world looked like to me when I was a child. I would try to remember how weak and inefficient was youth in the presence of surging, controlling feelings of the child. One that honestly remembers and asks himself the question and tries to unlock the door that he thinks is closed, and calls back the boy, can understand the boy.

2. Basic Human Desires Govern All Acts. The stream of life that passes daily in grand panorama finds everybody doing something. Some are doing one thing - some another, and the variety of activity is no less great than the number of individuals participating. If it were possible for an individual to stand apart and watch this spectacle of human affairs, he would probably ask himself the question "What is it all about; What are they doing, and why"?

<sup>5.</sup> Clarence Darrow, From the Defense Plea before Judge John R. Caverly in the Cook County (Illinois) Circuit Court in defense of Nathan Leopold and Richard Loeb, The New York Times, August 23, 1924. p. 5.

The answer is that the efforts expended and activities pursued by men, even in the commonest, every-day walks of life, are in the interests of satisfying certain fundamental human wants. The desire to satisfy such wants must be considered as the motivating forces controlling action.

- 3. Classification of Basic Human Desires. In general, the wants of man may be conceived of as falling roughly in three main groups, the first which is concerned with the necessities of life, the second with those things which enable him to prevail over others, and the third, which concerns his desire for pleasure. The following brief summarizes the basic human wants in relation to the three general groups.
  - I. The desire for security of self and others
    - A. Necessities for life
      - 1. food
      - 2. clothing
      - 3. shelter
    - B. Safety
  - II. The desire for influence
    - A. Wealth
    - B. Reputation
  - III. The desire for pleasure
- 4. Motivation Through Appeal to Desires. In the foregoing discussion it has been shown that the execution of an act may be stimulated or motivated by either an intellectual appeal, or by an emotional appeal. Human desires forming the basis of approach it will thus be seen that three attacks are possible in connection with any one of the basic human wants. The approach may be emotional, intellectual, or it may combine both.

The problem of the speaker who would stimulate his listeners to do something is confronted by a three-fold problem. He must, first, know exactly what response he seeks. Secondly, he must determine accurately what fundamental human desires underlie that response; and, third, he must decide which of the three attacks is to be utilized in motivating the response.

- 5. Elements of Motivation Illustrated. It should be borne in mind that rarely does a speaker confine his appeal for action to a single one of the elements of motivation. Instead he will attempt to introduce all of the elements which may be made to contribute to his purpose. The following paragraps will illustrate each separately.
- I. Desire For Security. The desire for security may be broken up into two parts. First is the desire for the common necessities, and second is the desire for safety and avoidance of danger.
- A. The Desire for the Necessities of Life. Suppose a group of workmen are preparing to go out on a strike. The purpose of the speaker is to prevent the strike from occurring, and he used mans, desire for the necessities of life as a basis of his appeal when he says:

Men, you don't realize what you are doing. Are you going to let foolish animosities stand between you and your jobs? Are you going to let them destroy your judgment. Are you going to let silly prejudices tear away the roofs from over your heads, and the very food from your tables? No! In Heaven's name, No! Forget these imaginary troubles and go back to your jobs!

He might strive to attain the mame purpose through an emotional appeal:

You, see the thing you are about to do as a gesture of

bravery; I see it as an act of cowardice. You who have been well fed have never heard the pit iful cries of a hungry child; You who have always been warm have never seen the palid faces in a home that is freezing cold. Are you going to inflict this misery on those helpless ones at home who trust you, and whose very existance depends upon your duty and loyalty to them? Are you going to ignore the welfare of those that love you? If you treasure the smile on those happy faces; if you honor the trust that abides in their hearts, you can't walk out. For their sakes go back to your jobs.

B. The desire for safety. Underneath the general desire for security is also an individual's desire for safety. He desires protection from harm and from the common dangers that threaten to destroy him if left uncontrolled. The avoidance of danger therefore, constitutes the basis of many of man's actions. As a result, the desired action may frequently be stimulated by indicating the danger of following another course.

Speaking before a jury of Athenians in an effort to secure the conviction of Aristogiton, Demosthenes purposely pointed out the danger arising from a criminal being permitted to mingle in society.

I am surprised at people who are so constituted, that, while they intrust their private interests only to men of longtried honesty, they will confide the interests of the commonwealth to men whose baseness has been proved beyond dispute.

Again appealing for action through man's desire for safety, he says:

What an absurdity it would be, that in legislating you should manifest displeasure against the vicious, yet, when you have caught them in the act of crime, you should let them off with impunity; . . .

<sup>6.</sup> Demostheness Translator, The Orations of Demosthenes against Timocrates, Aristogition, et.al, Geo. Bell and Co., London, 1888, p. 57. tr. Cherles Rann Kennedy.

In both of the quotations from Demosthenes is seen an appeal to the reasoning powers of his listeners. The action he wishes to encourage is stimulated by the intellectual motive. In a similar instance another speaker might have elected to base his plea on the emotional motive, calling upon the spirit of patrictism to produce the response with the words:

Men of Athens, I tremble with fear when I see the inspiring dignity of our City trampled into the dust under the influence of unscrupulous men.

TI. The Desire for Influence. It is true that people in general take a great delight in feeling superior to other people. Man's ego exerts a powerful influence over the things he does or refrains from doing. In addition to his interests in maintaining a certain measure of security, he is constantly striving to improve his influence over his fellows. It is for this reason that his desire for influence is conceived as a motivating element.

A. The Desire for Wealth. Because of what money will buy, and because of the prestige which it gives to its owner, the accumulation of wealth has had a tendency to dominate man's activity. He sees wealth as a means of enjoying the comforts and luxuries of life which are not accorded to the man of limited means. He sees money as the universal panacea; he sees it as a means by which his social standing may be elevated to a position of general recognition.

The sales talk, which is the means employed by the salesman urging his customer to buy, is essentially a speech for action.

Its primary purpose is to create in the mind of the prospective buyer a definite need for the article. The need will always be in terms of one or more of man's natural desires.

The agent for a cheaper motor car is likely to stress the economy of cwning a light car. The customer is led to see that his wealth will not be depleated in buying such a car to the extent it would be if the heavier model were purchased.

The agent for the expensive model will attempt to make his customer believe that to buy a cheaper model would be to admit that he were financially unable to buy a better one. The prospective buyer, not wishing to appear less prosperous than he really is, acquires a need for the more expensive machine.

B. The Desire for Reputation. As a whole, people are intensely interested in the regard other people hold for them. They are willing to do those things which will improve their standing with their associates, and are equally willing to refrain from doing those things which would reduce the good will toward them.

In an address delivered at the dedication of the Robert 7 Gould Shaw Monument, Boston, 1897, Booker T. Washington made excellent use of the desire for reputation in his appeal to the members of the colored race for diligent effort.

The full measure of the fruit of Fort Wagner and all this monument stands for will not be realized until every man covered by a black skin shall, by patient and natural effort, grow to that height in industry, property, intelligence, and moral responsibility where no man in all the land will be tempted to degrade himself by withholding from his black brother any opportunity which he himself would possess.

The word "pauperism" strikes a discordant note in the mind

<sup>7.</sup> Booker T. Washington, "In Dedication of the Robert Gould Shaw Monument," Boston, 1897, Recorded in Selected Addresses of Booker T. Washington, edited by E. Davidson Washington, Pub. 1932, by Doubleday, Doran and Co. p. 57.

of everyone. It challenges reputation, for none who would have a desirable reputation can restrain a loathe for the condition it signifies. Stirring his audience to combat intemperance, Edward Everett, in a temperance metting in Salem, Massachusetts, June 14, 1883, based his appeal on this desire for reputation:

In fact, intemperance is peculiarly a principle of pauperism; more directly so than of crime, though it tends strongly enough to crime. But every man who depends upon his industry for his support and that of his family, by becoming intemperate unavoidably becomes a pauper. His strength and health are impaired, his energies stupefied, his earnings squandered, his credit and character sacrificed, all around him, except those who are unfortunately bound to him by ties that cannot be broken, are repelled, - and the man sinks into pauperism almost as a matter of course.

admit that there is a greater necessity for the less serious phase in life than the desire for security or influence. Assuredly there is a distinct desire manifested in every individual for the lighter, amusing, and entertaining elements of this environment, and the third desire to which man accedes is the desire for pleasure.

The desire for pleasure is so strong a stimulus to act that, indeed, many pleasure seeking activities are pursued at the sacrifice of the more serious mecessities that should preceed them. So potent is it that a more suggestion "It's fun" will prompt the doing of the act.

The pleasure derived from doing a good turn, helping others, being kind, or displaying sympathy may provide the stimulus to do

<sup>8.</sup> Edward Everett, Orations and Speeches on Various Occasions Vol. 1, Little, Brown and Co., Boston, 1890. p. 351.

the act. The man who gives to charity may do so, not for the effect the gift may have upon his influence in the community, but purely for the pleasure he derives out of being thoughtful.

Whereever possible, the speaker should associate the element of pleasure with the act he wishes his listeners to perform. In doing so, he incorporates one of the most powerful urgos: in the make-up of mankind.

6. Conclusion. Since the range of human activities is governed by the fundamental desires of man, it is logical to assume that the most certain means of causing him to respond satisfactorily is through an appeal to one of more of these basis desires. The real success of the speech for action depends upon the ability of the speaker to resent the reasons for doing the thing he proposes in terms of the things ordinarily done in the interest of satisfying the fundamental wants. His problem is to indicate the likeness existing between the things which are done and the things he advocates doing.

# QUESTIONS FOR CHAPTER VI

for action. appealed to	number of sentences which might appear in a speech Indicate which of the three fundamental desires is in each statement by writing security, influence, in the blank preceeding the sentence.
1	. Its luscious sweetness would be tempting, even to a King.
2	. The reward of human praise and devotion is his who dares to display the courage of his convictions.
3	. Honest property, my friends, is a thousand times more desirable than dishonest riches.
-	. To own a policy in that company identifies you as one whose daily bread does not depend upon the weekly check.
5	. And you can laugh at the driven rain, chide at the wintery blasts, and ignore the dreaded heat of summer within the walls of a home which is properly insulated.
6	Dull moments are few in that place where a half hours drive to the eastward places you upon a tropical beach, and a half hour drive to the west places you in a land of perpetual snow.
witerplane to the second secon	. The criminal is a manance to the welfare of all. Trust him as you would trust a coiled rattler, and destroy him.
***************************************	. No fatted calf is there to greet the return of a modern prodigal.
9	. Many wise deeds will not stamp one as a saint, yet a single ill-considered one may condemn him as a sinner.
1.0	No, money is not the only goal toward which to strive, but neither have suspender buttons come to be a common medium of exchange.
In a like ma	nner indicate the fundamental desire satisfied by following acts.
J. J.	. Buying a loaf of bread
12	. Seeking employment
13	. Voting

14.	Keeping clean and neat
15 *	Attending a movie
16.	Being mannerly
17.	Buying a new article of clothing
18.	Campaigning for an office seeker
19.	Playing a game
20*	Objecting against doing wrong

#### EXERCISES FOR CHAPTER VI

- From newspaper or magazines make five clippings which have action as their general purpose. Write a short statement of the specific action desired by the writer of each.
- 2. Indicate which of the three fundamental desires is appealed to as a means of producing the proposed action.
- What, if any, other fundamental desire might have been შ. introduced to make the appeal strongers
- Rank the elippings in the order of their merits as speeches for action. Taking for your purpose that of the writer, rewrite the clipping you ranked lowest in such a way that it will provide a more powerful stimulus to act.
- 5. Summarize your answers to exercises 1-4 and present them in the form of a discussion before the class.
- Present before the class a sales talk on one of the follow-6. ing: articles of merchandise:
  - 1 A piece of tapestry
  - 2 An electric Washer
  - 3 An oriental rug
- 6 A Factory-to-Mearer garment
- 7 An insurance policy
- 8 Windshield defrester
- 4 A radio 9 Camping equipment 5 A football season-ticket 10 An article of food
- Prepare a five minute speech which aims to achieve one of 7. the following purposes. Illustrate wherever possible. Let the subject disclose your purpose.
  - 1 Attend Blamk College
  - 2 Choose worthy associates 7 Protect wild life
  - 3 Learn to swim

  - 4 Join our club 5 Be a good sport
- 6 Don't jump at conclusions
- 8 Uphold the law
  - 9 Live within your means
- 10 Judge others impartially
- Below are a number of ideas which suggest speeches for 8. action. Select an appropriate title for each and indicate the specific act desired.
  - 1 World peace
  - 2 Health
  - 3 Courage
  - 4 Honesty
  - 5 Chain stores

- 6 Quarantine
- 7 Majority or plurality
- 8 Dog taxes
- 9 Free speech
- 10 The constitution
- You are a member of an organization. Two candidates have 9. been nominated for the office of president, both of whom are your very good friends, yet you feel that one is much better qualified for the presidency that the other. Prepare a short speech urging the election of the one, but carefully avoid offending the other.

10. Make a short speech in nomination of one of your friends as a representative of an organization to which you belong, to attend the meeting of the state association. Bring out carefully the qualities such a representative should possess, and show that the individual has those qualifications.

#### CHAPTER VII

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GENERAL PURPOSE OF IMPRESSIVENESS

The excellence of a speech for impressiveness depends far more upon what is felt then upon what is eaid. It does not aim to convince or to persuade or to advocate a line of action, but aims simply to generate feeling. In consequence, the understanding of its development will depend upon the understanding of the origin of feelings.

In the course of every day existence people come in intimate contact with the elements of their enviornment, and in so
doing, gradually build up a series of associations with those
elements. The nature of the association will depend upon the
intensity of the feeling which has been connected with it. It
is difficult to explain the delight one experiences upon returning home after an extended absence, or to explain why it is that
the heart beat quickens at the sight of the old, familiar things,
except to understand that the condition is the result of the establishment of sentiments, feelings or attitudes.

Through the operation of the subconscious mind every object and every event which man experiences is associated with some degree of a feeling state. That feeling state may be that of (1) excitement or calm, (2) pleasantness or unpleasantness, or (3) strain or relaxation; but whatever the feeling state associated with the object or event may be, the more often and the more vividly the condition is experienced the more permanent the association becomes.

The child who has been burned fears fire. The child who

has been chased by a gander fears goese in general. It is because he has built up, along with the idea of goese or of fire, a feeling of unpleasantness. He has developed an attitude toward two of the elements of his enviornment. Likewise, the sound of a fire alarm or of the ambulance siren is associated with unpleasantness because of the concept of those conditions which they suggest.

Conversely, the mention of the "old swimmin' hole" excites a feeling of pleasantness because of the memory of good times associated with it. As time goes on, the pranks which memory plays upon the sentiments connected with pleasurable events tend to magnify the pleasures many fold. The trees one climbed as a child, grow bigger under the influence of memory than under the influence of biologic and organic conditions. The memory is prone to exaggerate details, and the lanes of childhood become thoroughfares; buildings become skyscrapers, and trivial events grow into momentous occasions.

Of course, not all feelings, sentiments, attitudes, and appreciations are products of childhood. While many of them are, it is equally true that the process of formation is constant from earliest childhood throughout the remainder of life.

It is significant in connection with the study of impressiveness to note that feelings, sentiments, attitudes, and appreciations are the basis of impression. Those things which involve an
emotional intrepretation, or which stir the feelings, are impressive. Experience, coupled with the intensity of the feeling
as associated with experience, limits the extent of the impression.
The speaker then, must limit his references to experiences that
are common to his listeners if he is to realize the achievement

of the purpose of impressiveness. Failure to do so prevents familiar and meaninful associations becoming active elements of interpretation, and the speech is doomed to fall short of its objective.

The listener who has never visited the Grand Canyon will not be impressed by the meaning of "disturbing silence". It is meaningless to him until he has actually experienced the feeling that one has as he stands on its rim and listens in vain for a single suggestion of a sound. A comparison of the sound of a tornado to the roar of Niagra would lack impressiveness unless the listener had actually experienced one or the other. The association between the feeling and the experience has never been established.

The conclusion to be reached is that in order to be impressive, a speech must be firmly grounded in the experiences of the listeners, and must arouse associations or feelings normally connected with those experiences.

1. Diction and Impressiveness. Diction, conceived as the choice and use of words, is of primary importance in the speech for impression. Those ideas and words selected must create a vivid image, and the image created must engender feeling. Irving might have described Ichabod Crane by saying 'His coat sleeves were too short'; but, for the sake of impressing the picture upon the minds of his readers, he described his character as having "arms that dangled a mile out of his sleeves".

Notice the images made vivid by William Jennings Bryan in his Cross of Gold speech:

<sup>1.</sup> William Jennings Bryan, "Cross of Gold" speech in A History of American Oratory, p. 552, Comp. by W. C. Shaw, pub. 1928, By Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis.

Ah, my friends, we say not a word against those who live on the Atlantic coast, but the hardy pioneers, who have braved all the dangers of the wilderness, who have made the desert to blossom as a rose - the pioneers away out there who rear their children near to nature's heart, where they can mingle their voices with the voices of birds - these people, we say, are as deserving of the considerations of our party as any people in this country.

Impression was the purpose of Robert G. Ingersoll's "Decoration Day Oration". Observe the intensity of the feeling as he describes so vividly the painful parting of the soldiers.

We lose sight of them no more. We are with them when they enlist in the great army of freedom. We see them part with those they love. Some are walking for the last time in quiet, woody places with the maidens they adore. "e hear the whisperings and the sweet vows of eternal love as they lingeringly part forever. Others are bending over cradles kissing babies that are asleep. Some are receiving the blessings of old men. Some are parting with mothers who hold them and press them to their hearts again and again and say nothing . . . . And some are talking with wives. and endeavoring with brave words, spoken in old tones to drive away that awful fear. We see them part. We see the wife standing in the door with the babe in her arms - stand-- ing in the sunlight, sobbing. At the turn of the road a hand waves - she answers by holding high in her loving arms the child. He is gone, and forever.

2. The Speaker and Impressiveness. Several qualities should characterize the speaker. In the first place the speaker must be sincere; he must earnestly believe in the worth of the ideas he presents. He must be intensely interested in the subject himself before he is able to command the interest and attention of others. False interest or superficiality on the part of the speaker is quickly detected by the audience, and the result is certain to be failure.

Secondly, he must experience the same feeling he wishes to

<sup>2.</sup> Robert G. Ingersoll, "Decoration Day Oration" in A History of American Oratory, Op. Cit. p. 474.

arouse in his listeners. The actor is advised to "get into character" for it is through the sense of participation that his audience is made to see the character represented rather than the actor himself. For the same reason, the speaker should, in speaking, be as genuinely impressed as he hopes his listeners to be.

And finally, the speaker must be personal if he is to achieve a measure of success in impressing an audience. The display of a suggestion of haughtiness is opposed to the successful outcome of any speech, but applies particularly to the situation where impressiveness is the chief purpose. The audience must be made to feel that the speaker is "one of them" and that the words he utters are simply an expression of their own feelings.

3. The Voice and Impressiveness. Impression depends entirely upon vivid emotional associations being aroused in the minds of the listeners. Diction or phrasing has been mentioned as one means by which the speaker may arouse vivid associations, but, used alone, this means is not enough. The voice must be considered as a second factor.

By proper inflection and tone control, a simple statement may be made impressive, and it is inversely true that
an elaborate idea clothed in commonplace tones may lose its
effectiveness. The tone must be in harmony with the thought,
it must disclose the feeling behind the thought, and rise to
climaxes along with the thought. Children are prone to express feelings in their voices much more readily than adults,
which suggests that the absolute freedom of voice is not

something which has to be learned; but that it is something present in all individuals and which is likely to be inhibited by influences manifest after the period of childhood. siveness demands that the voide be free to express the feeling. Those influences which tend to restrain the freedom of the voice must be subdued. The speaker should strive to cultivate a feeling of composure and dignity before a group. When this is accomplished his body is relaxed and comfortable as he faces his audience. The muscles of his speaking mechanism are free from tension and strain, and his voice is flexible to permit the expression of the feeling by tone as well as by words. The drawing of three or four long, deep breaths before going to the platform to speak will be of aid to the young speaker. Deep breathing requires relaxation of the throat and chest; consequently it assists one in exercising relaxed control of the breathing and speaking mechanism.

4. Conclusion. The speech for impressiveness has for its purpose arousing the emotional associations within the minds of the hearers. Impression of an individual is possible through the fact that he is constantly forming associations with the elements of his environment in the form of attitudes, sentiments, feelings, or appreciations. The mention of the element not only arouses the recognition of the element, but also arouses the feeling or sentiment, attitude or appreciation which has become associated with it.

Particular attention must be paid to the selection of impressive material to be certain that the material is capable of being brought vividly into the listener's experiene. Particular emphasis is placed upon the selection and use of the exact word to best express the idea. Avoid carefully the use of general terms so long as there is a possibility of selecting one with an exact connotation.

Sincerity of purpose, interest in the subject, participation in the experience, and a personal rather than an arrogant attitude are required of the impressive speaker.

Impressiveness is also dependent upon proper voice control. The pitch and tone must be free to respond to the feeling accompanying the expression of an idea. Thus the voice itself is a factor influencing impression. The expression of feeling through the inflection and tone of the voice need not be learned but is a natural possession of the normal individual. It is dominant in children, but becomes restrained as one grows older. The cultivation of a feeling of relaxation and poise will subdue the constraint and permit a spontaneous freedom of vocal response.

#### QUESTIONS FOR CHAPTER VII

Choose the word or group of words which best completes the statement and place its number in the parenthesis directly preceding the number of the statement.

#### Example:

- (2) 0. Biology is a (1) fruit, (2) a science, (3) a drink, (4) an animal. Biology is a science, so the number 2 placed in the parenthesis makes the statement correct.
- () 1. The quality of a speech for impressiveness is measured by what is (1) heard, (2) felt, (3) understood, (4) done.
- () 2. The understanding of the development of impressiveness is increased by the understanding of the origin of (1) habits, (2) instincts, (3) nervous system, (4) feelings.
- () 3. Contact with the elements of the environment encourages the development of (1) associations, (2) likes, (3) dislikes, (4) fear.
- ( ) 4. Vividness of the association will vary according to the intensity of the (1) feeling, (2) experience, (3) thought (4) unpleasantness connected with it.
- ( ) 5. There are (1) two, (2) three (3) four, (4) five recognized feeling states.
- () 6. The more vividly a condition is experienced, the more vivid becomes the (1) association, (2) excitement, (3) strain, (4) appreciation.
- ( ) 7. (1) Habits, (2) judgments, (3) situations, (4) attitudes develop out of associations.
- ( ) 8. Memory tends to (1) create, (2) magnify, (3) destroy, (4) maintain, experiences.
- () 9. Feelings originate during (1) early childhood, (2) youth, (3) the entire life, (4) old age.
- ( )10. The speaker should limit his references to experiences which are (1) new, (2) common, (3) strange, (4) rejected by his listeners.
- ( )11. Superficial interest (1) insures success, (2) is easily detected, (3) is desirable, (4) characterizes the good speaker.

- ( )12. The act of the speaker in experiencing the feeling he wishes to generate in the audience is (1) participation, (2) representation, (3) characterization, (4) unnecessary.
- ()13. The attitude of the speaker toward the listeners should be (1) arrogant, (2) haughty, (3) personal, (4) disregarded.
- ( )14. The voices of (1) children, (2) adults, (3) aged persons, (4) men, naturally express the feeling.
- ()15. The voice is more responsive to the feeling when the body is (1) strained, (2) relaxed, (3) uncomfortable, (4) tense.
- ()16. Inflection is variation in the (1) pitch, (2) rate, (3) loudness, (4) quality of the voice.
- ( )17. Composure is a feeling of (1) naturalness, (2) restraint, (3) fear, (4) embarrasment.
- ( )18. In order to impress his listeners, the speaker should choose words that are (1) general, (2) suggestive, (3) indefinite, (4) exact in their commotation.
- ( )19. A speech in honor of a great hero is more likely to have
  (1) clearness, (2) belief, (3) action, (4) impressiveness
  as its purpose.
- ( )20. "To generate feeling" describes the purpose of a speech for (1) impressiveness, (2) action, (3) belief, (4) clarity.

## EXERCISES FOR CHAPTER VII

- 1. Read the farewell speech of Abraham Lincoln or George Washington. Select the passages that are particularly impressive to you. Read them to the class and tell why they impressed you.
- 2. Select from Dickens: David Copperfield or Oliver Twist several impressive paragraphs of narration or description. Read to the class the two paragraphs that appeal to you particularly. Tell why they attracted you.
- 3. Select two impressive paragraphs from modern fiction. Read them to the class.
- 4. Prepare a four-minute speech on "The Narrowest Escape of My Life". Make your listeners feel the danger that threatened you. Try to make them feel relieved at your successful escape.
- 5. A very good friend is confined to a hospital and will have to remain there several months. Write him a letter expressing your sorrow at his misfortune, your hopes for a speedy recovery, and some suggestions for amusing himself during his enforced residence in the hospital. Remember, you must not make him feel bad. Read the letter to the class.
- 6. You have been elected to an important office. Express your appreciation to your supporters who elected you, and propose how you intend to justify the faith they have expressed in you.
- 7. Your class has won the annual award for scholarship. As the dlass president it is your duty to present the award to the class. Prepare a speech of five minutes in length to be used as a presentation speech.
- 8. You are moving away from the community where you have lived for a long time. A dinner is given in your honor, and, of course, the guests expect a word from you. Prepare a four-minute speech appropriate for the occasion.
- 9. Assume you are not the one who is departing, but that you have been chosen by the group to repond to the farewell speech. (Students should work in pairs on Exercises 8 and 9)
- 10. Make an oral application for a position as reporter on a large daily newspaper. Do not brag, but be certain that you impress the editor with your ability to handle the work.

## CHAPTER VIII

### THE PREPARATION OF THE SPRECH

The necessity of careful preparation for speech making is equally as important as careful preparation for anything else which is to be done well. One can imagine what would happen if an unskilled workman were to start building a house with only a vacant lot and a pile of building materials at his command. It is very likely that he would run up against so many difficulties that the house would never be completed, but even if it were, the chances are great that it would fail to measure up to the minimum requirements of good construction. Even the most skillful carpenters will not consent to begin working on a project until every detail of construction has been carefully worked out. Likewise, the skillful speaker will not consent to appear before an audience without the same critical planning that characterizes the proceedure of the expert carpenter.

- 1. Gathering Material. The acquisition of a wide range of experience is probably the first essential step in the preparation of a speech. It is essential preparation for speaking in the sense that all speaking, and accordingly all thinking, is in terms of the experiences of the individual. Three means are recognized by which one is able to acquire and maintain a store of information and experience. These means are by (A) conversation, (B) observation, and (C) investigation.
- A. Conversation. It is through the medium of conversation that the desirable interchange of ideas takes place. Through conversation an individual is able to study the reactions of

others to his ideas and to receive critical as well as constructive comments on his ideas. It is a means by which the experiences of one may be made to serve another.

The speaker who is scheduled to appear before a group seizes every opportunity to discuss the topic with other people before giving his lecture. He sees conversation as a means of studying the effect his speech is likely to have on his audience in terms of the effect it has on various individuals with whom he previously discusses the topic.

The importance of conversation as a means of gathering information will be realized more fully when it is understood that, of the three activities possible in gathering information, conversation is probably the one which is most used. More of the information one has is gained through conversation than through either of the other two sources; no doubt, because he engages in that activity a great deal more than he engages in either of the others.

Conversation is further a desirable preparatory activity for public speaking, because it cultivates the ability to make ideas clear, and clarity is recognized as the ultimate end of all communication - speaking and writing.

B. Observation. The second recognized means of acquiring information and experience is through the means of observation. It offers unlimited opportunities if exercised effectively, but the habit of careful observation must be cultivated consciously to become effective. For example: Two hunters go into a brier patch to hunt rabbits. One is an experienced hunter; the other is inexperienced. The experienced hunter has little trouble

"spotting" the rabbits in their hutches and comes in at nightfall with a good bag. The other, who fails to eight his game until it runs, is forced to take chance shots and returns with little else than the exercise.

The difference is that one has acquired the ability to observe carefully; while the other has not. A minister was known to argue that his church was built of stone, but later investigation revealed that it was built of brick. Another contended his church had two spires, but upon investigation only one was discovered to exist. Only a few persons are observing enough that they can be certain how many steps lead up to their porches. The ability to observe carefully and accurately is a mark of distinction; it should be cultivated earnestly in order that no opportunity to acquire a wealth of information is wasted.

C. Investigation. Perhaps the most desirable material is obtained through the third method - investigation. Reading and research are included under the method of investigation, and, while less used by the public in general, will prove most profitable to the one who is preparing to become a preficient speaker. The almost unlimited number of books, the constantly increasing number of magazines and newspapers, and countless publications of reports and proceedings available through the services of modern libraries provide access to nearly every phase of the world's knowledge. Information acquired from the printed page is less likely to be familiar to the listener than that gained through conversation or observation, but the fact that others have access to the printed material as well suggests that even the material gained from reading may not be entirely new.

The method of individual research affords the most original means of acquiring knowledge and experience. While relatively few ever gain the distinction that comes with original investigation, the material thus gained is valuable in the construction of a speech. The ability to find out things for one's self is to be admired. Even though the information may be no more reliable than that acquired from secondary sources, there is a certain prestige accorded to the one who seeks original sources which is not conceded to the one who relies entirely upon the findings of others.

- 2. The Divisions of the Speech. Along with the though of the preparation of the speech it will be of value to consider the divisions of the speech. Regardless of the type, the topic, or the situation, the speech will always consist of three main divisions (1) the introduction, (2) the body, and (3) the conclusion.
- A. The Introduction. Considering that the speaker who rises to address an audience is many times, indeed generally, facing people who are strange to him, there is a need for a brief "getting acquainted" period before plunging into the depths of the topic. A little time is nequired for the listeners to become familiar with the voice of the speaker, his manner before they can center their attention upon his words rather than his person.

The introduction, then, may be regarded as having a threefold function. It must include the statement of the topic and the purpose of the speech. It must provide for the securing of attention, which is probably best achieved by indicating why the topic is of particular interest to this audience and upon this occasion. In this way there is established a definite connection between the speech and the audience. The audience becomes an intrinsic part of the speech situation. And finally, it must serve to establish good will toward the speaker and the subject.

The third item is, and many times may be assumed; however, it may not be taken for granted, under those conditions where there exists the slightest shadow of doubt as to the attitude of the audience toward either the speaker or the topic.

3. The Length. No definite rules can be established regarding the time to be consumed in the introduction. Obviously the time required will vary in different situations; but to make a general restriction, it may be said that the introduction shall consume only sufficient time to accomplish the three essential purposes attributed to the introduction. A similar thought was expressed by Abraham Lincoln when asked how long a man's legs ought to be. His conclusion was that they ought to be long enough to reach from his body to the ground.

Investigation of a several speeches of twenty minutes or less in length discloses that the ratio between the length of the introduction, body, and conclusion may be expressed by the numbers 2, 6, 1. It will be noted that the in a nine minute speech two minutes would be consumed in introduction, six minutes in the body, and one minute in the conclusion. Observation of

the relative length of each part shows that the introduction averages twice the length of the conclusion, and that the body of the speech is equal to twice the sum of the time expended in introduction.

The Introduction Illustrated. Note the means utilized in securing attention and interest in the following paragraph taken from an introduction to a speech by David Goldman entitled "Sinster Shadows".

It is night. From out the shadows falling over a lone some New Jersey estate, a sinster form stealthily climbs a ladder, leans through a single open window, hastily snatches up a sleeping infant, and disappears into the shadows from which it came. Crime has added another name to its long list of victims.

In the above introduction is seen an attempt to direct the interest of his listeners in the Lindberg kidnapping event into the channel of his speech on crime. The details of the crime having been printed in virtually every newspaper in the United States, the speaker could be practically certain that his reference to that crime would generate an interest in what he had to say. He was thus calling upon common experience as a source of interest. The entire nation had been stirred, emotionally by the crime, and the mention of it naturally had a tendency to stimulate the same degree of interest in his speech.

<sup>1.</sup> A study made by the writer based on speeches by twelve college students reprinted in The Year Book of College Oratory, Vol. IV

<sup>2.</sup> David Goldman, "Sinster Shadows", Year Book of College Oratory, Vol. IV. Comp. Evan E. Anderson, Pub. 1932, Noble and Noble, New York, P. 17.

The opening lines of a speech by William H. Seward effectively disclose his purpose and, at the same time, aim to establish a tellerant attitude in the minds of his listeners. The
speaker was aware of the hostility aroused by his consent to
defend William Freeman, a demented negro and confessed murderer.

MAY IT PLEASE THE COURT. - Gentlemen of the jury: "Thou shalt not kill," and, "whoso sheddeth man's blood by
man shall his blood be shed," are laws found in the code of
that people who, although dispersed and distracted, trace
their history to the creation; a history which records that
murder was the first of human crimes.

In the following introduction observe the abrupt statement of the topic, and note also how the speaker establishes the connection between the speech and the audience through the repeated reference to "our problem".

My subject is prohibition. It isn't so fascinating as war. You will hear no drums beating, in my speech; you will see no flags, no soldiers falling, no bayonets gleaming. There is no glory here. There is only our problem to consider: a problem that involves a law, the drinking evil, and the American people. Ours is a problem that endures contemptuous sneers, tolerates a million jests. Ours is a problem whose unattended growth is like the growth of an illegitimate idiot child. We laugh at it. We spurn its appeals for serious reflection. We scorn its hysterical warnings to beware the consequences of unguided labor.

<sup>3.</sup> William H. Seward, "Defense of William Freeman" in a compilation by William L. Snyder of A Collection of Arguments and Speeches, Baker, Voorhis, and Co., New York, 1892, p. 151.

<sup>4.</sup> Bert Evans, "Here Stood an Oak", in The Year Book of College Oratory, vol. IV, compiled by Evan E. Anderson and published 1932, Noble and Noble, New York, p. 29.

In his speech on "Utah, Kansas, and the Dred Scott Decision", Lincoln employs a more gradual type of introduction. His first statement concerns himself; the second, a reference to the occasion; and the following statements, to the purpose of the speech.

Follow-citizens: I am here to-night, partly by the invitation of some of you, and partly by my own inclination. Two weeks ago, Judge Douglas spoke here on the several subjects of Kansas, The Dred Scott Decision, and Utah. I listened to the speech at the time, and have read the report of it since. It was intended to controvert opinions which I think just, and to assail (politically, not personally) those men who, in common with me, entertain those opinions. For this reason I wished then, and still wish, to make some answer to it, which I now take the opportunity of doing.

B. The Body. As it were, the introduction of the speech has as its purpose the setting of the stage for the speech itself. The body of the speech, in reality, is the speech. It is that portion of the speech in which the purpose of the speech is developed. Having devoted the four chapters preceding the present one to the development of the general speech purposes, further discussion of that phase will be limited to the mention that each of the four speech purposes quite generally appear in a single speech. They should not be considered as types of speeches, but rather, as implied by their names, simply the general purposes of speaking.

Arrangement or Topics. Three separate systems of arranging the main headings or topics are in general use. The nature of the speech and its purpose will ordinarily influence the choice

<sup>5.</sup> Abraham Lincoln, "Utah, Kansas, and the Dred Scott Decision"
in Political Speeches and Debates of Abraham Lincoln and Stephen A. Douglas, Alonzo T. Jones, ed., Int. Tract Soc., Battle Creek, Michigan, 1895, p. 40.

of arrangement to be used, while, in many instances, it will be found that the subject lends itself to any one of them. These orders of arrangement may be called (1) logical, (2) chronological, and (3) topical.

The Logical Order. The logical order of arrangement presents the topics in such a way as to conform to the normal processes of thinking and reasoning. It is particularly adapted to speeches for belief, but is not confined to or exclusively associated with the development of that purpose.

The logical order of arrangement is seen in the following:

## The Evils of Capital Punishment

- I. Capital punishment is brutal
- II. Capital punishment advertises crime
- III. Capital punishment does not prevent crime
  - IV. Capital punishment opposes moral advancement

The Chronological Order. The chronological order of arrangement places events or happenings in the strict order of their occurance. Items are not grouped according to their relative significance, but only with reference to time. The chronological order is especially effective when clearness is the purpose, but, like the logical order, is not confined to any single purpose.

The following example shows the chronological arrangement of topics.

## A Biography of Lincoln

- I. Lincoln's childhood
- II. His youth
- III. His manhood
  - IV. His assasination

The Topical Order. To illustrate the application of the topical order and to indicate the possibility of applying two different methods to the same subject, the following topical outline might also serve as the basis of a speech:

A Biography of Lincoln

- I. Education
- II. Honesty
- III. Perseverance
  - IV. Influence

Another possibility for developing a speech on the same subject would be:

- I. Factors that prompted political aspirations
- II. Factors influencing political success
- III. Factors that revere his memory

Or still, the same subject might be developed in another way:

- I. Lincoln, the rail splitter
- II. Lincoln, the orator
- III. Lincoln, the statesman
  - IV. Lincoln, the divine

Taking another subject, as a basis for discussion, a topical arrangement might appear thus:

# The Blight of Depression

- I. The economic effect of depression
- II. The social effect of depression
- III. The moral and religious effects of depression

C. The Conclusion. The conclusion is to the speech what the final notes are to the musical composition. It gives to the speech a finished touch, and lends to it an air of completeness. It should leave with the listener the impression that the speaker had arrived at the place where he started. It is the place in which the final, highest, and lasting climax should be reached. Two methods of conclusion in common use are (1) to apply the thought contained in the speech, and (2) to summarize the thought.

Application of the Thought. In many instances the speech may be brought to a satisfactory conclusion through the application of the thought developed in the speech. It is particularly true of those speeches having clearness or impressiveness as a purpose that the application of the thought is an effective means by which a lasting impression is stamped in the minds of the listeners.

It was this method employed by William Jennings Bryan in a speech at a reception provided for him in Lincoln, Nebraska upon his return from a world tour in 1906. In conclusion he said:

Tonight we shall not rest on the trembling bosom of the mighty deep; we shall rest rather on these billowy plains of the boundless west, and I am sure that the alfalfa-scented air of these lands will be sweeter than the spicy breezes of Ceylon. And I know that in our home upon the hill where we can meet you and talk over the days when we have been absent we will be far happier than we would be in any castle on the Rhine.

In concluding a speech at his brother's grave, Robert G.
Ingersoll employed the means of applying the thought contained

<sup>6.</sup> William Jennings Bryan, "A Response" Speeches of William Jennings Bryan, Vol. II, Funk and Wagnalls Co., New York, 1909.

He who sleeps here, when dying, mistaking the approach of death for the return of health, whispered with his last breath, "I am better now." Let us believe, in spite of doubts and dogmas, tears and fears, that those dear words are true of all the countless dead.

Summary of the thought. The complexity of the material in the speech may make necessary another type of conclusion. Unlike a reader, the listener has no opportunity to turn back a page or two to make a connection lost through misinterpretation, but is entirely dependent upon the speaker to do it for him. A single hearing of a great number of ideas is not sufficient to foster complete grapp of the ideas, so, in such cases, the speaker will find it to his advantage to summarize his thoughts and present them to his audience in a small parcel that can be retained more easily.

A common method of summarizing is by the simple means of restating the main points of the speech:

A second method of summerizing is that of expressing in a different way the thought contained in the speech. It is the tying together of all of the essential ideas of the speech, and expressing them as a unit. This type of conclusion is superior in those cases where the main points have been repeated several times during the speech for it affords the opportunity to

W. Robert G. Ingersoll, "At His Brother's Grave" in Warren C. Shaw, History of American Oratory, Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1928, p. 471.

avoid what otherwise might become monotonus repetition.

It was not the hewing of wood that made him famous; it was not his elequence upon the speaking platform, nor was it his supreme power as an arbitrator that crowns him with the reverence of the American people. No. But it was by his possession of those two characteristics which comprise the greatness of any man, - Courage and Character.

3. Methods and Proceedure in Speech Planning. The beginning point for any speech and for any speaker is that of selecting a subject and a purpose. With these in mind he is ready to undertake the problem of acquiring the material to be included in the speech. He must search thoroughly for good material, and must become well informed on the entire topic rather than the isolated phase which he expects to discuss. Without broad preparation, the speaker cannot help leaving in the minds of his listeners the idea that he has told all he knows.

His next problem is that of preparing an outline of the speech. It is to the speaker's interests to know how the speech is going to appear when finished as much as it is to the interests of the carpenter to have plans showing how his building is to look when the last workman has left the job. Whether the outline will be legical, topical, or chronological will depend partly upon the type of speech, but largely upon the choice of the speaker.

The speakers next problem is that of deciding what are the main issues to be discussed and include them as the main headings in the outline. He must bear in mind that his allotment of time should limit the number of points to be discussed rather than detract from the thoroughness of their treatment. Having established a few main points around which to build the speech,

further preparation should be concerned with their expansion.

After such expansion, the speaker will have an outline consisting of a few main headings under each of which will be numberous sub-headings, the indentation of which will indicate their relative importance.

From this point the proceedure will vary according to the individual. Some will doubtless prefer to take the autiline and from it, write out the speech in detail. Others will choose to extemporise on the outline, and there is no way to establish a prediction that will work equally well for all. It is a matter to be decided upon by the individual.

The student of public speaking may ask, "Should I use notes during my speech"? The enswer will depend upon the student's ability to use them without seeming to roly upon them entirely. It is frequent that a speaker using notes will center altogether too much of his attention upon the material in his hand and, by so doing, be unable to maintain the attention of his listeners. The skillful use of notes need not detract from the interest and attention of the audience, but the fact is that it so frequently does merits the answer of, "No".

The alternative is, of course, to memorize the notes. In a comparatively short time the average speaker can commit to memory sufficient notes to carry him through the speech.

In the more lengthy and more involved speeches such as court pleas that frequently require a speech of several hours in length, the use of notes is desirable and necessary. Premium is placed upon time, and little opportunity is afforded for the memorization of the extensive outline from which they are given. The debater frequently uses a system of brief notes

to steer him on the proper course through the debate. His problem is similar to that of the attorney pleading a case to the jury. His attention must center upon the speeches of his opponents, and in the short span of a few moments he must prepare to combat their arguments.

The salesman, on the other hand, would appear very ineffective if his sales-talk were to be given from a handful of
notes. The welcoming speaker would present a laughable situation if he had to refer to his notes to remember the name of the
guest, the reasons, one after another, for welcoming the guest,
and the occasion bringing them together. It is generally good
policy to avoid the use of notes wherever possible.

Important speeches involving public policy, or those of a nature that present technical material and scientific study are usually written in full and read by the speaker. Presidents, legislators, scientists, and educators favor this method because of the exactness with which important thoughts may be stated. If they were to depend upon expressing the thought in the language at their command extemporaneously, they feel that something of accuracy would be sacrificed.

Another method of preparation is that of memorizing the entire speech. In those situations where the purpose of the speech is impressiveness exclusively, where the attitude of the audience is definitely known, and where there is a unity of feeling toward the speaker, the speech, and the occasion, the speech may be set up in advance and given from memory. The argument against the memorized speech is that it cannot be adapted readily to the situation at hand, so it is only in those instances where all of the elements of the entire situation are subject to analysis or

control that the speech may be memorized. Among those speeches which should, by all means, be memorized are eulogies and speeches es of dedication.

4. Practice as Preparation. The final step in the preparation of the speech is practice in delivering the speech aloud. The hurdler does not practice by jumping over chairs, but goes to the track for his training period. The speaker should train for the delivery of a speech by actually giving it over and over until he has mastered the presentation of the thought and co-ordinated with it the interpretation of the thought. He should see the natural climaxes, and call upon, not only his words, but his feeling, his voice, and his actions as well, to build up these natural interest peaks.

Adequate practice renders the speaker confident. It assures him that he is able to meet the situation, and inspires grace and posie. The speaker, who appears before an audience without sufficient practice is characterized by the restlossness of uncertainty, and disregard for the courtesy due his audience.

# QUESTIONS FOR CHAPTER VIII

projenje					~					rial
	) <del></del>		Kirinaya minin dinga pingi minaya.	d anglisant bugits spitter	***	<del>al-mijodys</del> a				
	*				<del>innişayılıyı izi o İfrâsiyi içindiçil</del> i					
ينصن	to Acting the orbital and the best of the			<del>(******************</del> ******************	idalatu kalabar oleh erri oleh kendabi sasular sasular s	uderia				
	Under	r whic	h are	readi	lna and	l res	earch in	ıoludod	19	
			•			,"				
***		<del>(min'dra departement)</del>			<del>rangahkarany (aloparah</del> saraphi <del>r (ala</del> )	<del>agtirit</del>				
	Give	three	פמינטט	1 18 0 18 T	of the	intr	oductio	1.		
944	jerijske jedinomiti tirdir.		opine service and the service	respectable to the later of the	<del>nii, Xyaa ja kaan ja ja ja an in Minis</del>	<del>distrope</del>				
<del>tions</del>		projesta s producej kaj plani	<del> </del>		kiragili podisi islik ver i delikirajik positikosi <b>isl</b> ik					
			22444			unidatios				
					***					
	ion m			i e je j		wew distant				
, janga	Maraka (d)ika maja sa (d)	e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e	i de la companya de							
400			niegowyd y tropograf y tribuseth	ole by the state of the state o	naki yakun mekanali ka Marani	<del>armetist</del>				
***				garan ayan ayan ayan da ayan da ayan ayan a	n visik kaldagai senjäärneitä kiristos saa Kaldagai säätä kaiten kiristosia saanaista saa	economical.				
****	What	is pi	robabl	y the	n visik kaldagai senjäärneitä kiristos saa Kaldagai säätä kaiten kiristosia saanaista saa	economical.	ngth of	apeeda		whi
400	What	is pi		y the	n visik kaldagai senjäärneitä kiristos saa Kaldagai säätä kaiten kiristosia saanaista saa	economical.	ngth of	apee a		whi
**** ****	What	is pi	robabl	y the	maxim	rum le	ngth of	speed		whi.
•••• ••• •••	What re fig	is prures r	robabl	y the	mexim	num le			hes to	
9 1	What	is programme to the second sec	robabl may ap	y the	mexim	num le	ngth of the three		hes to	
9 1	What the t	is prures c	robabl may ap the te	y the ply?	maxim	rum le			hes to	
9 1	What re fig What the t	is prures c	robabl may ap the te	y the ply?	maximapplied form?	num le			hes to	
	What re fig	is prures c	robabl may ap the te	y the ply?	maxim	num le			hes to	

	Give	two	me an	s of	concl	uding	g sp	eech.				
15.				-iting in the American are								
16.				integral to an inger								
arat ar 17.	Indi:				four	steps	you	would	follow	in	the	prep-
18.				<del>they are the laterity or</del>		<del>na je paj je i svoje i svoje</del> v						
19.	(i)))(i))	-		<del>laipuminga shilip, a'gu a</del>								
~~												

### EXERCISES FOR CHAPTER VIII

- 1. Select a public speech or a well written magazine article resembling a speech, and prepare an outline of the speech such as might have been made by the author in preparing the speech. Write the outline on the blackboard and read the speech to the class while they have an opportunity to observe the outline during the reading of the speech.
- 2. Present before the class a list of all the sources of material available for the construction of a speech on one of the following subjects.
  - 1. Religious Organizations for Boys (or girls)

2. The Stage in Shakespear's Day

3. Modern Social Evils

4. Effects of War upon Commodity Prices

5. Recent Fiction

- 6. The History of the Printing Press
- 7. The Influence of Paper on Education
- 8. Scientific Weather Forecasting

9. The Development of Steam Power

- 10. Predictions Concerning Future Transportation.
- 3. Select a subject for a speech and illustrate the three orders of the arrangement of topics. Place the three outlines on the blackboard. Which method is superior for that particular subject? Give your reasons before the class.
- 4. Prepare a speech on one of the subjects listed under question 2. Place the outline used in preparation of the speech on the blackboard where it can be seen by the class during the delivery of the speech. Entertain comments and criticisms of the class relative to the effect of the outline upon the speech.
- 5. You have been transfered to a new city as the manager of a large business employing seventy persons. None of the employees are known to you, and their knowledge of you is confined to the fact that you have been pointed out to them as "the new bess". Prepare a speech you would present at the first general meeting of employees. Your purpose will be that of inspiring confidence and securing wholesome cooperation.
- 6. Prepare another speech similar to that indicated in question 5, except for the assumption that you are not strange to the employees. Instead, you have been promoted to the position as manager, from your former position on the sales force.
- 7. A new school building is to be erected in your town. A regular town "squabble" has broken out as a result of the residents in each part of town wishing to have the new building located in their section. Prepare a speech aimed to relieve the tension, and to promote good feeling between the antagonistic fectors. Your discussion must be non-partisan and must consider as the issue "Where is the best location for the school", not "Where is the best location for the

8. Select five articles from newspapers which are not well written. Indicate how, by proper organization, and by the introduction of appropriate material, they might be improved.

#### SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

- 1. Anderson, Evan E., comp., The Year Book of College Oratory, vol. 4, Noble and Noble Co., New York, 1932, pp. 378.
  - Contains copies of winning speeched delivered in various college extemperaneous speaking contests.
- 2. Brigance, William Norwood, Classified Speech Models, F. S. Crofts and Co., New York, 1928, pp. 411.
  - Composed of forty-two speeches by modern speakers, classified according to type. A note concerning the speaker, the occasion, the audience preceds each speech.
- 3. Brigance, William Norwood, The Spoken Word, S. F. Crofts and Co., New York, 1927, pp. 329.
  - A popular public speech text. Views speech as having but one purpose. A detailed chapter putline preceeds each chapter.
- 4. Cicero, Marcus Tullius, Orations of, vol. 4, tr., C. D. Yonge, pub., George Bell and Sons, London, 1888, pp. 540.

  Title denstes contents.
- 5. Dolman, John Jr., A Handbook of Public Speaking, Harcourt, Brace Co., New York, 1934, pp. 165.
  - One of the few texts suitable for high school public speaking classes.
- 6. Drummond, Alexander M., and Russell H. Wagner, Problems and Opinions, The Century Co., 1931, pp. 484.
  - A collection of discussions on persistent questions.
- 7. Drummond, Alexander M., Speech Training and Public Speaking for Secondary Schools, Century Co., 1925, pp. 291.
  - The report of a special committee of the National Association of Teachers of Speech with a series of articles written by prominent members of the association.
- 8. Esenwein, J. Berg, The Art of Public Speaking, The Home Correspondence School Press, Boston, 1915, pp. 512.
  - A rambling philosophic treatment of public speech training.
- 9. Everett, Edward, Speeches and Orations of, vol. 1, Little, Brown, and Co., 1890, pp. 669.
  - Title denotes contents.
- 10. Higgins, Howard Hubert, Influencing Behavior Through Speech, The Expression Co., Boston, 1930, pp. 346.

- An extensive treatment of public speech training dealing particularly with the motivating type of speech.
- 11. Ingalls, John James, A Collection of Writings of Hudson Kimberley Co., Kansas City, Mo., 1902, pp. 536.

Speeches to Kansans on Kansas Problems.

12. Alonzo T. Jones, comp., Political Speeches and Debates By Lincoln and Douglas, International Tract Society, Battle Creek, Mich., 1895. pp. 555.

Discussions and debates on political issues of the time.

- 13. Lindgren, Homer D., comp., Modern Speeches, F. S. Crofts and Co., New York, 1926, pp. 506.
  - A collection of speeches classified as follows:
  - 1. Written papers which have been read to an audience manifestly interested in a particular subject.
  - 2. Written papers delivered by a great personality and interesting because written or spoken by him.
  - 3. Speeches that combine complete rhetorical preparation with a sense of the presence of the audience, and
  - 4. Speeches that are clearly in touch with the audience throughout. These are distinctly speeches as distinguished from essays.
- 14. Phillips, Arthur Edward, Effective Speaking, The Newton Co., Chicago, 1915, pp. 315.

One of the earlier texts to approach the problem of speech from a psychologic viewpoint. Desirable as a text for college students of public speaking.

15. Phillips, Arthur Edward, Natural Drills In Expression, The Newton Co., Chicago, 1923, pp. 363.

Name implies the contents.

16. Quintilian, <u>Institutes of Oratory</u>, vol. 1, George Bell and Sons, London, 1887, tr. Rev. John Selby Watson, pp. 464.

Writings and lectures on the education of an orator, in twelve volumes.

- 17. 8
- 17. Sandford, William Phillips and Willard Hayes Yeager, Principles of Effective Speaking.
- 18. Scripture, Edward Wheeler, The Elements of Experimental Phonetics, Charles Scribner and Sons, New York, 1922, pp. 606.

A highly specialized treatment of the anatomy of the vocal and respiratory systems.

19. Shaw, Warren C., History of American Oratory, Bobbs Merrill Co., Indianapolis, Ind., 1928, pp. 666.

A collection of recognized great speeches by American orators, with introductory notes and comments by the compiler.

20. Shurter, Edwin Du Bois, The Rhetoric of Oratory, Macmillan Co., New York, 1907, pp. 384.

Essentially a collection of literary speeches with editorial notes and comments.

21. Snyder, William L., A Collection of Arguments and Speeches, Baker Voorhis Co., New York, 1892, pp. 748.

Consists largely of speeches before the New York Bar.

22. Washington, Booker T., Selected Speeches of, ed. by Ewin Davidson Washington, Doubleday Doran and Co., Garden City, New York, 1932, pp. 283.

A variety of speeches delivered before both white and colored audiences.

23. Watkins, Dwight E., Public Speaking for High Schools, Knox Press, Galesburg, III., 1918, pp. 183.

Devoted largely to drill material for high school students.

24. Woolbert, Henry C., Fundamentals of Speech, Harper and Brothers Co., New York, 1934 revision by Joseph F. Smith, pp. 625.

The author of this book was, before his death, considered one of the most outstanding teachers of speech in the field. His text sets forth the methods he used in his classroom.