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THE COMPOSING PROCESS AND SPEECH COMMUNICATION:
AN EXAMINATION OF THE STRATEGIES OF SIX
SUCCESSFUL STUDENT SPEAKERS

by

SUSAN MCKINNEY ANDERSEN

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education in
the Department of Instructional Programs at
the University of Central Florida
Orlando, Florida

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Major Professor: Nancy R. McGee

ABSTRACT

Speech is a process, yet studies in human communication generally examine speech as a product. Rather than studying the decisions employed in the construction and reception of messages, most research in speech focuses upon evaluating communication products. This study represents an effort to build communication theory within a different paradigmatic perspective, employing ethnographic interview method for the purpose of generating theory.

The purpose of this study was to examine the composing processes of six successful student speakers as they prepared formal public speeches. The specific strategies and methods employed were found to vary among these students and to deviate significantly from instructors' prescriptions. The study also ascertained the degree to which past communication experiences and speech training influenced the students' attitudes, beliefs and values regarding speech communication. Applications to speech education at the post-secondary level were discussed, as was the impact of the factors of communication apprehension, gender and family background. Results were reported in extensive case-studies of each student subject.

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I

INTRODUCTION

Speech is a process, yet studies in human communication examine speech as a product. Rather than describing the process whereby humans interpret events, make decisions, construct or receive messages, most research in human communication focuses upon comparing and evaluating communication products.

The majority of studies in speech communication employ experimental methods and test hypotheses. Recently, however, critics (Tucker, Weaver & Berryman-Fink, 1981) have voiced concern over what they see as some communication researchers' tendencies to formulate trivial hypotheses simply because they are testable. Methodological worship, they claim, leads many researchers to apply certain methods or instruments not because of their relevance to a research question, but because those methods or instruments are conventional or fashionable.

A further limitation of present communication research is certain researchers' tendencies to assume investigation is complete when hypotheses are confirmed or rejected. Threatening the integrity of the discipline of speech communication is a wide-spread preference for hypothesis testing over theory building.

This study represents an effort to build theory within a different paradigmatic perspective. Rather than laboratory experimentation for the purpose of testing hypotheses, the present study employs an ethnographic interview method for the purpose of generating communication theory. Specifically, this study examines one form of human communication -- public speaking -- by focusing upon the process of speech composition rather than upon a recorded speech product.

The grounded theory approach is currently accepted in the fields of sociology and social psychology, but has been virtually ignored by communication researchers. Glaser and Strauss (1967) made a case for the importance of grounded theory research in all the social sciences, stating that to be useful, theory should utilize concepts which are directly applicable to the data under study and must be able to explain the behavior being studied. The best way to generate such theory, according to Glaser and Strauss, is explanation of the data themselves.

While there has been significant change in the pedagogic methods of speech instruction over the centuries, there is little evidence in the literature that these methods are based upon knowledge of how the student actually approaches the task of speech composition, how the student incorporates the lessons of speech education into his own communication behavior, or whether the prescriptive

guidelines of speech composition, when employed by the speaker, actually improve the speaker's ability to communicate effectively. Therefore, an important feature of this study is the information which may be used to revise or improve current methods of speech instruction. The findings of this study have implications for those who would understand the way in which successful speakers undertake the task of composing public speeches and the impact which past experience, speech instruction, and communication apprehension may have upon the speech composition process.

Such an approach to the study of composition is not novel outside of the field of speech communication. The first descriptive study of the composing processes was conducted by Janet Emig (1971), who observed the writing behaviors of eight secondary school students. Emig reported that even excellent writers do not follow the rules which teachers have been professing for centuries. For over fifteen years, researchers in the field of English instruction have used the case study approach to better understand how a variety of writers -- from elementary school children to professional novelists -- approach the task of written composition.

The research employing the case study technique has had significant impact upon modern English curriculum. First, the data which have been collected through case studies and

other descriptive research methods have served as reference points from which researchers in writing instruction have been able to develop and test hypotheses which are grounded in reality. Experimental research based upon Emig's and others' findings has discovered effects and interactions which might never have been investigated had the case study research not uncovered the existence of significant factors which mediate writing instruction.

Second, the impact of case study research has been instrumental in changing significantly the present English curriculum: rather than a prescriptive rules approach which dominated the English curriculum for the first half of this century, composition instruction has been revised to focus the student's attention on the process of discovery, invention, creativity and logical reasoning which is the writing experience. It is conceivable that English instructors might never have thought to improve writing instruction by focusing the student's attention upon the writing process had Emig and her colleagues not first focused upon the study of writing as a process.

It was expected that research which focused upon the formative processes of speech composition would yield similar results. Not only would such a perspective provide communication researchers a rich source of testable hypotheses, but the re-conceptualization of speech as a

process might also generate new methods for teaching human communication.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the composing processes of successful student speakers as they prepared messages to be shared with a public audience. The examination was expected to reveal the specific strategies and methods employed by these students to meet the perceived requirements of the communication situation.

This study also attempted to ascertain the attitudes, beliefs and values of these students regarding speech communication in generalized and specific contexts.

Study Questions

1. How do successful student speakers begin the speech composition process?
2. What specific strategies and methods do successful student speakers employ in the composition of their speeches?
3. What attitudes, beliefs and values do successful student speakers have regarding speech communication in the public speaking context?
4. What impact, if any, does gender have upon the student speaker's perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication?

5. What impact, if any, does level of apprehension have upon the student speaker's perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication?
6. What impact, if any, does previous speech experience have upon the student speaker's perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication?
7. What impact, if any, does speech instruction have upon the student speaker's perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication?

Definitions

Attitudes. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) have defined attitudes as internal structures, manifesting themselves in general feelings of favorableness or unfavorableness toward the self or some external stimulus. For the purpose of this study, "attitudes" included students' expressions of favorable and unfavorable feelings toward any aspect of the speech process.

Beliefs. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) define beliefs as expressions of acceptance of the existence of some condition or relationship. For the purpose of this study, "beliefs" included students' expressions of acceptance of the existence of rules or relationships which govern the speech process.

Composing Process. For the purpose of this study, the "composing process" was defined as all thoughts and activities which the student speakers saw as relevant to the formation of the assigned public speech. The composing process took place at any time from the assignment of the public speech through the final delivery of the public speech.

Generalized Context. The "generalized context" of speech communication included oral communication in any social situation: conversation, small group interaction, large group interaction, public speaking and mass communication.

Level of Apprehension. For the purpose of this study, "level of apprehension" was operationally defined as a student speaker's score on McCroskey's (1982) Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24) instrument.

Previous Speech Experience. The "previous speech experience" of each student speaker in this study was expressed in the form of a "speaking autobiography." This speaking autobiography was generated for each student through a structured interview and an examination of any available documents which provided evidence of the student's past experiences in public speaking.

Public Speaking Context. The "public speaking context" of oral communication included any speech activity which took

place in front of an audience, in a relatively formal setting, with or without the possibility of evaluation.

Specific Strategies and Methods. The "specific strategies and methods" of student speakers included any and all deliberate choices and decisions which a student speaker claimed to have made concerning the way in which a speech was composed.

Speech Instruction. For the purpose of this study, "speech instruction" referred to any formal training in which the curriculum specifically concentrated upon oral communication. "Speech instruction" may have included classes, workshops, extra-curricular clubs or organizations, tutoring, workbooks, textbooks or manuals which were primarily intended to improve oral communication skills.

Successful Student Speakers. The "successful student speakers" of this study were students who, at the time of data collection, were registered in an introductory-level public speaking class and had received a grade of "B" or better for their first speaking assignment.

Values. Rokeach (1968) defines values as enduring beliefs that specific modes of conduct or end-states of existence are personally or socially preferable to opposite or converse modes of conduct or end-states of existence. For

the purpose of this study, "values" referred to student speakers' enduring beliefs concerning the personal or social importance of oral communication.

Assumptions

1. The students selected for case study were representative of successful student speakers who were registered in college-level introductory public speaking classes on the campus of the University of Central Florida during the academic year 1987-1988.
2. The responses of students in the interview phase of the study were truthful. Responses of students were not attributable to demand characteristics of the interview since this was an exploratory study which did not seek confirmation of any hypothesis or position.
3. Instructors' evaluations of student performance on speech assignments had a high degree of reliability. An independent study comparing the scores given confederate student speakers by members of the same speech faculty used in this study has revealed no significant differences between faculty members' evaluations of student speakers (Butler & McKinney, 1986).

Limitations

1. The results of this study do not constitute an exhaustive or definitive explanation of how all successful

student speakers compose oral communication.

2. Because of the small size of the sample used in this study, generalization to the population of all successful student speakers enrolled in public speaking classes is made cautiously.

3. The information provided by students interviewed in this study may have been limited by the effects of mistakes in student memory, inadvertent misrepresentation of facts, beliefs, attitudes or values on the part of the student, or misunderstandings of terms between the interviewer and the student.

4. The results of this study may be analyzed for the purpose of hypothesis generation, not for the purpose of hypothesis testing.

II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Western civilization may be most accurately characterized as a literate culture. While it is true that the scientific, economic, political and artistic advances which have been made in the last one thousand centuries are directly attributed to the development and refinement of written modes of communication, the underpinning of all forms of human expression is oral language. In his consideration of orality and literacy, Ong (1982) has asserted that, "In all the wonderful worlds that writing opens, the spoken word still resides and lives" (p. 8). While oral expression of thought does exist independent of any sense of written code, written expression presupposes orality. Despite the "primacy of orality" in human language systems, Ong maintains that the scientific study of language has largely neglected oral expression.

Ong's conclusion may seem an inaccurate statement to one who has a passing acquaintance with the vast body of literature dealing with human communication or speech. From the time of Aristotle's "Rhetoric" to this age of general-systems theory, man has attempted to create theories concerning ways to affect desired ends through

communication. Still, closer examination of the theory and research conducted under the heading of oral communication reveals the truth of Ong's assertion.

Speech differs from written expression in that the spoken word has temporal existence, but no spatial permanence, while the written word exists and presides both in time and in space. Speech is difficult to study unless it is recorded in some matter; therefore, many theorists have found it necessary to re-code speech into some form of permanent record. In the past, this meant transforming spoken communication into written language. The earliest speech researchers examined speech texts in order to generalize rules about human communicative behavior. The limitations of this approach are obvious to all who recognize that speech includes more than just words--speech also can be seen as a physical activity, an event, or a transaction between two or more individuals (Brock & Scott, 1972).

Today, because of the technologies of audio and video recording, the researcher who wishes to study speech is able to capture more of the components of the speech act than just the words. Thus, an entire division of speech research which is concerned with nonverbal expression--kinesics, pupil dilation, facial expression, vocalics--has broadened the spectrum of understanding of the speech act. Nevertheless, even audio or video recording of human

communication is only a representation of speech: no technology has yet been invented which can record the contextual, situational or transactional nature of the speech act.

Speech is a process, an activity, a situation-specific transaction between two or more individuals, but typically those who study speech view it as a product, a thing, a result of human interaction. It is possible to classify the body of literature concerning speech under three headings: historical/critical, prescriptive and empirical. Each of these categories approaches the study of speech from a different perspective, and each examines the product of speech. Virtually none of these perspectives provide insight into the process of speech, what typically goes on in the mind of the speaker during the speech act.

As Brock and Scott (1972) have noted, the historical/critical perspective of speech study attempts to describe, to interpret and to evaluate human efforts to induce cooperation through the use of symbols. "Rhetorical criticism" examines the communication of influential public figures in an effort to (1) place the communication within an historical or social context; (2) shape or reconstruct the meaning of the communication for later generations; and (3) judge the relative importance or quality of the communication within some artistic criteria.

While the ultimate purpose of rhetorical criticism is the development of a set of standards or models of excellence in speech, Brock and Scott claim that it contributes to speech theory as well. First, they argue, rhetorical criticism may provide insights that can then be transformed into principles for further testing. Second, it may serve as a test of conventional principles of speech; if common teaching holds a certain tactic as valuable, its worth should be born out in the criticism of speakers who use it.

Historical/critical research has its roots in the scholarship of the earliest rhetoricians, Aristotle, Cicero and Quintilian. The weakness of this perspective is its insistence in treating speech as a *fait accompli*. Modern rhetorical critics have attempted to bring more consideration of the process of speech composition into their work. Rosenfield (1968), Brockriede and Scott (1970) have operated under the "Experiential" school of rhetorical criticism which holds that meanings are in people, not in discourse; Burke's "Dramatistic" approach to rhetorical criticism sees society as a process in which speakers interact; and Harrell and Linkugel (1978) have adopted a "Generic" form of criticism which goes beyond an analysis of specific speech acts in an effort to categorize all speech as a model for some larger, shared human truth.

In spite of the fact that modern rhetorical critics acknowledge the essential process nature of speech, they still treat speech as a product insofar as the speech act is only the catalyst of their study, not the final point of analysis. Rhetorical criticism has not employed the ethnographic method in order to investigate the motives, strategies, values or feelings of the speaker as he constructs speech -- the rhetorical critic either limits his perspective to the observable impact which the speech has upon the audience or allows himself to speculate upon the inner-state of the speaker based upon indirect observation methods. Perhaps the greatest limitation of the research of the rhetorical critic is the self-imposed stricture against analyzing speech which has not already been judged as historically significant or artistically valuable. The rhetorical critic usually does not have the opportunity to apply his technique to the speech of day-to-day human interaction. His expectations about human speech are significantly biased: effective speech is seen as the product of important events or great personages.

Prescriptive literature in the field of speech may be seen as the logical extension of the work of the rhetorical critic. The historical/critical method of research sets forth the aesthetic and technical standards by which speech may be measured, and prescriptive literature in speech translates these standards into rules and guidelines for

effective speaking. The bulk of literature in the field of speech including textbooks, manuals, articles in speech education journals, and more recently, movies, tapes and lecture series may be classified as prescriptive.

Textbooks in speech communication vary little in their advice to the student speaker. Although most texts used today do acknowledge the transitory, transactional, process nature of human speech (typically in introductory chapters), the predominance of information contained in these books is of a prescriptive, product-centered nature. Two texts which have wide use in college public speaking classrooms, DeVito's The Elements of Public Speaking (1984) and Lucas' The Art of Public Speaking (1986), provide specific guidelines for the "proper" selection, organization, structure, amplification and delivery of speeches. For these authors, it is possible to identify a unit of analysis called "the speech." A speech has clear limits -- an introduction, body and conclusion -- as well as a clearly identifiable purpose -- to inform, persuade or evoke. A speech is "delivered" to an audience by means of verbal and nonverbal channels of communication. A speech can be evaluated by submitting its many parts to separate analysis. A speech is effective when each of the parts of the speech are effectively executed. DeVito, for example, provides a tip for engineering the introduction of a speech:

The introduction to a speech, although obviously delivered first, should be constructed last -- only after the entire speech, including the conclusion, has been written. In this way you will be in a position to see the entire speech before you and will be able to determine those elements that should go into introducing this now completed speech. (p. 144)

Clearly this advice presupposes that "the speech" is a written document, and not a process which takes place in the presence of an audience.

DeVito seems to contradict his own perspective, however, when he proclaims in another chapter that ". . . the extemporaneous method is clearly to be preferred, especially in the public speaking classroom situation. . ." (p. 316). He defines extemporaneous speech as that in which the speakers have ". . . prepared thoroughly, have the organization clearly in mind, and know what they want to say and in what order they want to say it. But they have given no commitment to exact wording" (p. 316). How can speech be both "written" and "extemporaneous"? The prescriptive scholar offers no reconciliation.

Perhaps the greatest concern with prescriptive literature in speech is the fact that pedagogy is almost exclusively based upon these "guidebooks," yet the advice offered by the prescriptionists is rarely supported by research. The information contained in public speaking texts either represents the original preference of the author or references other prescriptive speech texts:

rarely is research in the field of human communication cited by the author as the basis for a recommended technique. Kopp (1967) has criticized the common emphasis of speech texts and educational programs which concentrate too little upon the power which speech has in interpersonal affairs, and concentrate too much upon efforts to make students conform to a norm of competence. Kopp cites another critic, Bolz (1963), who is also critical of prescriptive speech scholarship when he observes that the purpose of speech education is not to eliminate these personal differences -- not to make every child an orator -- but to help each pupil to say those things which are important to him.

The third traditional source of literature in the field of speech is the body of empirical research which has investigated virtually every aspect of speech communication, from the perspective of the speaker, the message, the channel and the receiver. Tucker, Weaver and Berryman-Fink (1981) have provided an excellent synthesis of over fifty years of research in speech communication, demonstrating that the field has made dramatic strides in identifying, examining, and in some cases, solving problems related to human communication and social interaction. The authors are critical, however, of what they see as a failure on the part of communication researchers to

conscientiously follow programs of study which will lead to a theory, speech communication.

An earlier critic of research in speech communication, Petty (1967), has commented that:

The principal faults of much that has been done are the small-scale and short-term efforts that have been made, the uncoordinated nature of much investigation, the too frequent errors in research design and implementation, and the considerable amount of misdirected drawing of conclusions.
(p. 66)

Petty also faults speech researchers for failing to coordinate research programs with the real needs of the academic community. In short, in an effort to pursue personal interests through pure research, speech scholars have neglected applied research topics which would directly aid the speech teacher and student.

Still more voices of concern, those of Blake and Amato (1967), question:

. . . why is it that as late as 1964, although there was an increase in the number of studies in written expression, research studies published in various educational journals for the last five years, we found an almost complete void of studies done in oral language, and the studies done were mostly related to speech pathology. (p. 64)

The majority of studies in speech communication employ experimental method as a means of testing hypotheses. Tucker et al. (1981) voice concern over what they see as some communication researchers' tendencies to formulate trivial hypotheses simply because they are testable.

Methodological worship, they claim, leads many researchers to apply certain methods or instruments not because of their relevance to a research question, but because those methods or instruments are conventional or in vogue.

Because the norm of speech communication research has dictated the use of experimental method, it has been difficult for researchers to examine speech as a process. The very nature of experimental research dictates the manipulation of variables and the measurement of some end effect; in the field of speech research, the effect which is most often measured is some form of speech product (operationally defined, depending upon the object of the study as persuasiveness, effectiveness, comprehension, attractiveness or a myriad of other variables which have been identified by speech researchers as valid measures of speech effect).

To study speech processes requires a research method which invites description of behavior, and which is able to enter the process without bringing outside intervention to bear on the speech act. Such a method is found in wide practice in the fields of sociology, social psychology and education -- ethnography -- but has been virtually ignored by speech communication researchers (Tucker et al., 1981).

A further limitation of present communication research is certain researchers' tendencies to assume investigation of communication factors is complete when hypotheses are

confirmed or refuted. Threatening the integrity of the discipline of speech communication is a wide-spread preference for piecemeal hypothesis testing over on-going theory construction programs.

Bailey (1982) has described a theory-building paradigm which does not rely upon traditional scientific method of hypothesis testing, rejection and acceptance. "Grounded theory" is theory which is discovered or generated from data which is obtained through non-experimental methodologies. According to Bailey, grounded theory is developed by: (1) entering the research situation without a hypothesis; (2) describing the situation; and (3) formulating possible explanations as to why the observed data were created. Of course, grounded theory is only complete when the explanations furthered by the researcher are tested in a more controlled way. Hypotheses which are generated through this approach are superior to hypotheses which are generally investigated in traditional research because they have some basis in reality, are backed with observational data, and have direct application to the real-life situation from which the observation was first made.

A review of recent literature in the field of speech communication reveals no such ethnographic, case study or grounded theory approach to the investigation of the process of speech. In the past fifteen years, however, a

body of research has been conducted in written composition research, a field which is closely related to speech communication, using ethnographic methods of observation, interview and case study to generate a theory for the composing process of written communication.

In 1971, Janet Emig published the results of a study in which she used observation and interview as methods to uncover the strategies of excellent student writers. Dissatisfied with the traditional source of information about the writing process (accounts concerning professional writers, dicta and directives contained in composition texts, and experimental research in writing), Emig designed a methodology which allowed the researcher to examine first-hand the process of composing (observation) and to probe the meaning which the process of writing had for writers (interview).

The findings from Emig's eight case studies surprised the community of composition instructors and researchers alike. Emig found that, despite the fact that the students she studied were receiving relatively traditional instruction, these excellent writers failed to employ in their writing many of the rules of composition. For example, Emig found that few of the students she observed utilized an outline to organize their ideas before writing essays, even though outlines were recommended by virtually all of the students' writing instructors. Another

unexpected finding was that students employed vastly different methods and styles when engaged in "self-sponsored" writing as opposed to "school-sponsored" writing. Further, Emig noted that students did not typically feel motivated to write for their own enjoyment; most writing in which her subjects engaged was the result of a school assignment.

Emig's study represented a breakthrough in writing research, a first step in designing research which would examine the act of writing as a process, rather than attempting to analyze and extrapolate purpose from a finished product. In subsequent years, numerous studies have employed her methodology, or refined the technique of gathering information directly from individuals actively engaged in the process under study. Notably, DeBeaugrande (1979) expanded upon Emig's method by adding the analysis of revisions and drafts to the examination of the writing process. Haselkorn (1985) reported the use of a computer program which charts the decisions a writer makes while engaging in the writing process. And Blau (1983) devised a method for charting the writing process through the use of an invisible monitor under the writer's manuscript.

The majority of studies of the composing process of written composition, however, do not employ exotic technologies to track the process. Most researchers undertaking this form of research rely most heavily upon

the ethnographic interview in which the writer's strategies, philosophies, feelings, values and previous experiences with writing are revealed. Subjects may be asked to keep "writing diaries" to be shared with the researcher during an interview session, or subjects may be asked to relate a "writing autobiography" which can reveal the experiences subjects have had with writing and interpretations placed on these experiences by the individual. Among these researchers are Britton (1975), Graves (1979) and Nolan (1979) who adapted the ethnographic interview method to investigate young children's writing processes. Pianko (1979) studied the composing processes of college students using a format similar to Emig's ethnographic interviews and writing simulations. Petrosko (1984) studied the particular problems which writing apprehensives have with the writing process through the use of interview and observation techniques. Crowley (1977) made use of writing diaries in order to chart the composing process in adult writers.

Some researchers have warned against the temptation to generalize the findings of observation and interview research to larger contexts. Tomlinson (1984) indicated that researchers using ethnographic techniques need to be wary in relying upon students' accounts because of the possibility of memory mistakes or deliberate misrepresentation of the facts due to the demand

characteristics of the interview situation. Voss (1983) criticized those who have made efforts to generalize their findings, reminding the researcher that ethnographic techniques are meant to generate testable theory, not to predict behavior in the general population. Park (1979) and Sommers (1979) questioned the value of such research in supplying usable information to teachers of composition, and suggested that ethnographic research attempt to identify those teaching practices which students find helpful in improving the quality of their writing.

Several excellent reviews of literature in the area of the composing process of written communication have been undertaken. Notably, D'Angelo (1978) attempted to construct a "modern theory of the composing process" under the model of the evolutionary theory of social interaction and Van Nostrand (1978) traced the empirical basis for a new paradigm of research in the composing process.

Although no theoretical basis for applying ethnographic methods to the study of the speech composition process exists within the field of speech research, the concept is well developed in a related field. It would seem that speech communication research would benefit significantly from the insights which such a method could supply. Twenty years ago, Dance (1967) challenged the speech researcher to actively seek new methods which would bring greater understanding to the field of human communication. Tucker

et al. (1981) quoted his challenge and emphasized its salience in this age:

According to Dance's commentary on human communication theory, we have no grand theories, a number of partial theories, and many particularistic theoretical bits and pieces. He posits many reasons for this lack of theoretical development: (1) the the processual nature of communication, which precludes prediction; (2) the omnipresent and ubiquitous nature of communication, which makes explanation difficult; (3) the fact that communication is both the instrument and the object of our study; (4) the rigidity and condemnation that results from paradigmatic debates, and (5) the competitiveness among related disciplines. Dance concludes that it would be neither possible nor desirable to suppress the disagreement within our discipline. He advocates multiple approaches to theory construction. (p. 278)

The present study is a first attempt to construct theory in a way which is new for the discipline of speech. Although the research explained herein is exploratory in nature, it is rich with possibility for future field and experimental research. It is expected that research which focuses upon the formative processes of speech composition will yield similar results as the research which has focused upon the formative processes of written composition. Not only will such a perspective provide communication researchers a rich new source of testable hypotheses, but the re-conceptualization of speech as a process may also generate new methods for teaching human communication.

One area of concern for speech researchers and speech instructors alike has been the impact which "communication

apprehension" (McCroskey, 1970), "shyness" (Zimbardo, 1975) or "reticence" (Phillips, 1965) has upon the speaker. A review of the literature in the field of speech anxiety research reveals virtually no studies which employ ethnographic methods in an effort to understand the dynamics of apprehension from the perspective of sufferer.

The largest number of studies investigating speech anxiety have utilized experimental or survey method to identify the correlates of speech anxiety, the performance factors which are associated with various levels of measured communication apprehension. These studies focus upon the speech act as a product, and compare the speech products of individuals with varying levels of measured communication apprehension in an effort to find the behaviors which are predicted by the speaker's level of anxiety (Daly & McCroskey, 1984). Another category of studies in the field of speech anxiety research reports the success of various remediation programs. Here, the relative merits of systematic desensitization programs, skills training programs and cognitive-behavioral therapies are tested, again using evaluations of the speech act as the dependent measure (Friedrich & Goss, 1984; Kelly, 1984; Fremouw, 1984). One criticism which may be leveled against the body of speech anxiety research is that all of these studies assume that apprehension which is measured by a paper and pencil instrument or apprehension which is noted

through observation of a "nervous speaker" is the same thing as the apprehension which is experienced by speakers who are engaged in the process of speech. In other words, there is concern that researchers have constructed a concept called "anxiety" and superimposed this concept, ex post facto, over examinations of speech products, rather than asking the speaker to describe and label his own internal mental state while engaged in the process of speech communication. Only through ethnographic methods of investigation can researchers of speech anxiety come to fully understand the impact which apprehension has upon the attitudes and behaviors of speakers.

III

METHODS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the composing processes of successful student speakers as they prepared messages to be shared with a public audience. This examination was expected to reveal the specific strategies and methods employed by these students to meet the perceived requirements of the communication situation. This study also attempted to ascertain the attitudes, beliefs and values of these students regarding speech communication in generalized and specific contexts.

Population and Sample

The population of this study consisted of all successful student speakers enrolled in any section of SPC 1014, the introductory-level public speaking course at the University of Central Florida in the 1987-1988 academic year. Not included in this population are students who had earned the grade of "C" or lower in their first speech assignment, or students who withdrew from the public speaking class before completing all required course work.

A sample of six cases was drawn from the above population, using non-probability sampling procedures.

First, a sampling frame was constructed, listing all students currently enrolled in SPC 1014 who met the requirements of "successful student speaker" based upon instructors' evaluations. Second, each student in the sampling frame completed the PRCA-24 instrument and was assigned to one of three categories based upon his score on this instrument: a student was categorized as "higher in apprehension" if he scored within the highest 1/3 of all scores, categorized as "average in apprehension" if he scored within the middle 1/3 of all scores, and categorized as "lower in apprehension" if he scored within the lower 1/3 of all scores in this administration of the PRCA-24. Finally, a stratified sample was drawn, selecting two students -- one male and one female -- from each of the three levels of communication apprehension, for a total sample of six.

Instruments and Procedures

As described above, the study made use of the PRCA-24 instrument as a means of stratifying the sample. In this study, the PRCA-24 was not employed as a dependent measure.

Data Collection

The primary method of data collection was the ethnographic interview, an unstructured interview which sought to uncover the methods, strategies, beliefs, values and attitudes of student speakers as they prepared and

delivered a formal public speech. Bailey (1982) has described the advantages of this methodology in social science research as being ten-fold:

(1) It allows the greatest degree of flexibility since interviewers can probe for more specific information, clarify misunderstandings and repeat missed questions.

(2) It increases subject response rate because of the personal rapport of the interviewer and the subject.

(3) It allows the researcher to note the nonverbal behavior of the subject, lending another dimension to responses.

(4) It allows the researcher a degree of standardization and control over the environment.

(5) It allows the researcher to control the order and pace of response.

(6) It allows for maximum spontaneity. Both researcher and subject may feel free to deviate from the structure of the interview when unforeseen issues arise. This spontaneity often leads to the discovery of dimensions of the research problem which the researcher could not have anticipated prior to research.

(7) It ensures that the subject's answers are his own, not aided by the prompting of others.

(8) It ensures completeness of the data collection.

(9) It allows the subject to note the exact time, place, and conditions of the research situation.

(10) It allows the researcher to investigate phenomena at a greater level of complexity than possible in experimental or survey research.

The ethnographic interview is preferred when one wishes to study human behavior from a process rather than a product perspective since, in Bailey's words, it begins from the assumption that ". . . the emphasis in social research should be on the process of social interaction through which social reality is constructed and maintained, rather than on the end result or product of such interaction. . . ." (p. 300).

Additional information about the speech composition process was obtained from the examination of documents, when supplied by the subjects, in the form of notes, drafts, diagrams or manuscripts which were used during the speech composition process. Emig's (1972) study made extensive use of this document analysis to reconstruct the decision processes of student writers as they refined the essays they were assigned to write.

In a related study, Cooper and Odell (1976) used drafts of subjects' writing to investigate why they had made certain decisions in writing. The researchers made changes in writers' works, then asked them whether they could accept these changes in an effort to solicit from the authors their rationale for crafting their messages in the ways they had.

In the present study, document analysis, when possible, not only provided evidence for reconstructing the decision process of students who were engaged in preparing speech communications, but also generated questions which could be asked during the ethnographic interviews. The documents were used as a "point of departure" for the interview as the student writer explained the strategies used in the speech composition process.

In addition to collecting information about the thoughts and behavior of subjects relative to a specific speech situation, this study created for each case study a "speaking autobiography" whereby subjects recounted experiences and impressions of speech communication in a generalized context. While the unstructured interview was the primary means of data collection for this aspect of the study, document study was also undertaken when subjects were able to supply records of past experiences in speech communication. Emig's study used the "writing autobiography," an oral account of the student's writing history, supplemented by existing documents in an effort to ascertain the student's experiences with and impressions of the writing process. Other researchers have used diaries in an effort to force subjects to reflect upon the process of writing. The present study relied less heavily upon recorded historical data since the speech process is typically a transitory phenomenon. When written record of

past speech experiences did exist, subjects were encouraged to supplement this data with descriptions of the personal meaning which that speech experience had for them.

Data collection began immediately following the selection of the six student speakers from the population of currently enrolled speech students. The first interviews were held within one day of the assignment of a speech presentation within each of the subject's classes.

At the first interview, subjects were informed of the purpose of the research, were given the task of beginning to reconstruct memories and documents which would be used to create a "speaking biography," and were questioned as to their plans, strategies and feelings relative to the upcoming speech assignment. Subjects were reassured of the confidentiality of their reports, and encouraged to be candid in their descriptions of personal methods and feelings. Finally, subjects were instructed to bring to the next interview any recorded material they might accumulate while engaging in the speech composition process over the next week, as well as any thoughts, concerns, ideas or feelings they might have relative to the upcoming assignment.

The second interview had two phases. The first dealt with subjects' recorded and verbal accounts of the speech composition process relative to the in-class speech assignment. Subjects explained their composition

strategies, sometimes using documents to illustrate their points. The researcher probed subjects to determine how they felt about the speech composition process, and what they anticipated would take place in the speech delivery process.

The second phase of this interview dealt with the construction of a "speaking autobiography" for each student. Prompted by the researcher to recount any thoughts or feelings about past speech experiences, subjects were free to begin the speech biography at any point in time, or from any perspective -- cognitive, affective or behavioral.

The third interview occurred immediately before the delivery of the assigned speech. Subjects were again asked to relate all strategies, thoughts and feelings about the process which they found salient at the time. Of particular interest in this interview were the recorded materials which subjects brought with them -- notes, outlines or manuscripts. Subjects were asked to provide explanation of the reasons behind the decisions they had made regarding the way in which the planned message was to be structured and delivered. Of particular interest to the researcher were students' reports of feelings and attitudes regarding the speech process; the meaning and source of these feelings and attitudes were probed.

The final interview occurred immediately following the completion of the speech process -- just after delivery of the assigned speech in the classroom. Students were asked to recount this experience, and again, were questioned as to any strategies employed by the speaker and any thoughts or feelings which accompanied the speech process.

Finally, students were asked to relate this speech experience to past speech experiences. In this way, a unified description of each student speaker's impressions of the speech process could be obtained.

Data Analysis

Data obtained from this study follow a case study format. The data analysis of case study information is difficult to specify: the most specific thing that may be said is that it is descriptive analysis. Because no hypotheses were forwarded, it is impossible to speak in terms of the researcher's expectations being confirmed or refuted by the data. Indeed, the researcher entered this examination with no expectations except that the subjects' accounts would suggest trends or issues which should be addressed in future research.

Bromley (1986) described the data analysis phase of case study research as a circular process whereby the investigator enters the research situation with only a few preconceived questions and uses the data he collects to generate new questions which will examine the problem or

issue in greater detail. Thus, the data analysis of case study information does not end with a statement of fact, but allows the investigator to re-enter the research process at a different level and with more pertinent questions.

The data obtained in this study were checked for trends. The results of this descriptive analysis are not probability statements of generalizability to the larger population, but hypotheses and research questions which would seem to be most relevant to the study of the speech communication process.

IV
RESULTS

Introduction

The six case studies contained in this chapter represent a descriptive analysis of the speech composition processes of a small sample of students enrolled in a college-level speech communication class. Student subjects were enrolled in different sections of the same introductory speech class taught at the University of Central Florida, SPC 1014. All of the students sampled in this study were undergraduates, ranging in age from eighteen to twenty-two. All of the student subjects were caucasian, and all described their families' socio-economic status as "middle-class" or "upper middle-class."

Only one of the students lived in a parent's home while attending college; three students resided on-campus, while the other two lived in nearby off-campus housing.

The common syllabus used by all SPC 1014 instructors which describes the content of the course is contained in Appendix A. It must be noted that despite the common syllabus, individual instructors may have differed from one another in teaching methodology, evaluation policy, selection of course content emphasis, and teaching or

speaking experience. The case studies reported here help reveal the impact which these instructors' diverse methods and philosophies had upon students' perceptions of speech composition and speech instruction. In short, the diversity of student subjects' experiences and attitudes toward speech composition may be partially explained by the diversity of experiences and attitudes present in various speech classrooms.

This chapter consists of case studies of the six students who participated in this study. According to the wishes of the student subjects, pseudonyms of their choice have been assigned to guarantee anonymity.

Each case study is organized into five sections. Section one relates basic demographic information about the subject, subject's level of apprehension as measured by the PRCA-24, level of previous speech education, and a description of the type of speech which the student was in the process of preparing during the interviews. Section two of each case study recounts the "speaking autobiography" related by the subject. Section three outlines the speech composition strategies reportedly used by the subject for previous speeches and for the present speech under consideration. Section four discusses the subject's attitudes, thoughts and feelings about the speech process in particular, and about oral communication in general. Finally, section five of each case study is a

detailed description of the subject's speech composition process. This final section of each case study is arranged chronologically from the earliest stages of idea generation to post-delivery self-evaluation.

At the end of this chapter, a summary of findings is presented. The descriptive data contained in the case studies is synthesized to provide answers to the study questions which were proposed at the outset of this research. Important trends and issues which were not anticipated, but which revealed themselves during the data collection and analysis processes, are also reported.

Case Study 1 -- "Chalis"

Background Information

Chalis, a nineteen-year-old white female, was enrolled in one of Instructor B's two sections of SPC 1014 during the Fall, 1987 term. Chalis came to the University of Central Florida directly after graduating from a high school in the Mid-West. At the time of the study, Chalis lived alone in an apartment near campus.

A theatre major, Chalis decided to register for SPC 1014 in the first semester of college study because she felt that speech would help her in her major coursework. Chalis had taken a speech course in high school; she related that she felt confident in enrolling in a college-level speech class because she had enjoyed and succeeded in her high school speech class. By the time of the first

interview, Chalis had already delivered three speeches in SPC 1014; she had earned two "A's" and one "B" for her speeches. The speech which Chalis was in the process of composing during the three-week interview period was a group speech (See Appendix A for description of group speech assignment).

On the PRCA-24 instrument, Chalis scored 59, placing her within the mid-range of apprehension scores for the sample described in Chapter Three. For the purpose of this study, Chalis was considered to have a "moderate" level of communication apprehension.

Speaking Autobiography

Not until the second meeting did Chalis first begin to relate her background and experiences in oral communication, to compose her "speaking autobiography." The interviewer made the decision to postpone this discussion until the subject and interviewer were better acquainted since Chalis displayed uneasiness in answering open-ended questions or in initiating discussion during the first interview. By the second meeting Chalis herself initiated the subject of past communication experiences when she related that she probably performed well in SPC 1014 because she had one year of speech and two years of drama training in high school. Thus, Chalis' high school speech and drama experiences became the point of origin for her speaking autobiography.

In high school she took a full year of speech (even though she only needed the credit for half of the year) because she believed it would help her in college and in her career. Chalis enjoyed her high school speech class. She described a "loose atmosphere" where the teacher used games, impromptu and humorous speech assignments, and group activities to help students feel relaxed and confident as speakers. Chalis felt that she was one of the best speakers in that high school class, receiving "A's" on all her speech assignments. She also described the class as being "easy," with "few specific assignments," "light topics" and a lenient grading system: "If you were bad, you'd get a C, if you did just O.K., you'd get a B or even a low A."

According to Chalis, the desire to act was present from childhood, but it was not until high school that she had her first experience with acting. Although still "quiet" in high school, Chalis related that when on stage, she never thought about nervousness. She selected theater as a major in college because drama was her favorite subject in high school, but also because she desired a career which would allow her to express her creativity. While Chalis indicated that she still hoped to act professionally, she voiced the concern that an acting career could jeopardize a marriage. Unwilling to make such a sacrifice for a career,

Chalis concluded that she would be satisfied teaching drama once she is married.

Chalis related that her mother and father (who are divorced) do not encourage her aspirations in theatre, but that her stepfather does support her acting goals. In fact, it was her stepfather who first suggested that Chalis become involved in drama in high school. Chalis provided the summary observation that ". . . my mother does not know or understand me as well as my stepfather -- I can really talk to him, but not to my mom."

Asked about the amount and quality of communication in her home during her childhood, Chalis explained that, as an only child, she was always around "grown-ups," and learned to become a listener, not a talker. "Even as a child," Chalis observed, "I was always quiet -- my mom says I didn't even cry a lot. Even now, I'm not that outgoing." Chalis concluded that her family does not communicate well, and that the greatest communication problems exist between Chalis and her mother. Chalis explained that the source of the difficulty is that she is emotional, while her mother is not; Chalis perceives herself as "sensitive," her mother as "logical." It is interesting to note, however, that throughout the interview process, Chalis indicated many times that she had phoned her mother to discuss speech ideas and other class assignments. Apparently, although Chalis evaluates the quality of communication with her

mother to be below average, this does not lead her to avoid communication with her mother altogether.

In relating early school experiences, Chalis reported that she was very ". . . shy and quiet, very sensitive and emotional." Chalis remembered that she was ". . . always scared of school." In Chalis' words, "I never said a word in class, always made straight A's, and would cry if I made less than 100." Her first memories of communicating with classmates came from the second grade, shortly after Chalis moved to Texas from New Hampshire. "People would make fun of my accent," she recalled, "so I just stopped talking." Chalis' earliest memory of public speaking was an oral report in one of the early elementary grades. Although she could not remember the details, she remembered the feelings associated with the experience: "I don't remember how I did, but I do know I dreaded it."

Chalis related unhappy memories of her junior high school years. She recalled, "A certain group of girls in the seventh and eighth grade picked on me and made fun of me all the time because I was so good. I never really fought back. They were so awfully tacky to me that I finally had to change schools."

While Chalis readily recalled the incidents in junior high school involving the taunting of her classmates, it was not until the last interview session that she remembered the experience which, by her own admission, is

most revealing of her early communication attitudes and behaviors. According to Chalis, until seventh grade, she had always earned the highest grades in her class. When she was in seventh grade, however, she learned that the eighth grader with the highest average delivered the valedictory address in the promotion ceremony. In Chalis' words,

I didn't really try from then on until high school, and I know the reason is that I didn't want to give that valedictory address -- the idea of giving it just scared me to death. When I was in high school, it made me kind of mad. Now I think it's kind of stupid. The worst thing is that I found out later that the valedictorian didn't even have to write their [sic] own speech, two or three teachers wrote the kid's speeches for them. That wouldn't have been as bad. If the speech was stupid, it isn't like it's my fault.

Chalis was genuinely surprised by this memory, but indicated that this incident was very characteristic of her communication behaviors prior to high school. In looking back on her communication experiences prior to high school, Chalis portrayed herself as "shy" and "fearful" about communicating, a child who dealt with her anxieties by avoiding uncomfortable communication situations or retreating into silence. Although Chalis continued to see herself as "quiet" throughout high school and into college, she reported different causes for the reticence and dramatically different methods for dealing with communication situations.

Chalis explained that by her ninth year in school, she had become less "shy" and more "quiet." She differentiated between the two words by contrasting her "shy" and "quiet" behaviors. When she was "shy," Chalis believed that she was afraid to speak or interact in any way with others, fearful of ridicule or taunting. Throughout the description of her early school experiences, Chalis emphasized how important it was to her to "be right" or to "be perfect" in school. Never would she volunteer an answer in class unless she was sure that she was correct; rarely would she give an answer in class unless she was specifically called upon by the teacher.

In relating her communication experiences upon entering high school, Chalis concluded that her shyness had developed into "quietness," the behavior she believes she still exhibits. Feeling she is no longer fearful of speaking to classmates or teachers, she reported that she simply ". . . [does] not make an effort to talk" in most public situations like classes or parties. When questioned as to the reason for the reticence, Chalis no longer used words of fear or anxiety; instead, she described her motivation as a preference for allowing the other party to initiate communication with her, to speak only when spoken to:

I'm more quiet than shy -- I don't make an effort to talk. I talk to people I know, no problem. But not to strangers. People may think I'm snobby

but I won't talk to people I don't know unless they talk to me first.

Throughout her descriptions of her later school experiences, Chalis continued to emphasize the importance of "being right" and "being perfect," but added to her list of communication concerns the importance of "appearing to be in control" and "keeping the listener interested." Thus, it appears that Chalis' "quietness" allows her time to assess the situation and analyze the audience so that she might communicate in the most appropriate manner.

It was apparent from Chalis' remarks about her highschool years that three forces contributed to her present public speaking strategies: her speech and drama class experiences and her participation in teen pageants. As discussed above, Chalis enjoyed her speech and drama classes. In speech class, she learned that she could be successful as a communicator if she applied even a small amount of effort. Chalis saw the type of communication learned in her high school speech class as quite different from other forms of communication she engaged in at school. According to Chalis, oral communication in her high school speech class was easier than other forms of classroom communication because in speech class she was able to ". . . just read [her] speech off of a paper." She contrasted speeches given in speech class with "oral reports" given in other classes, saying that "I'd rather give a speech than an oral report -- oral reports are

boring and there's too much information to try and memorize it or to make it clear. It's easier to get confused with an oral report." Another apparent difference between the speeches delivered in her speech class and the "oral reports" delivered in other academic subjects was the perception of control over the topic. In her speech class, Chalis was able to select her own topics, and often chose to speak about "light subjects" or topics with which she was very familiar. In contrast, the topics for the "oral reports" which she "had to" prepare in other classes were usually assigned to her, and required a large amount of research and study before Chalis would feel secure in her delivery.

In drama class, Chalis learned that she could be the focus of attention without feeling nervous. She explained that the reason for the lack of nervousness on the stage was not so much confidence in herself as it was an ability to hide within the personality of the character she portrayed: "It's like playing make believe. . . . They're not your words that you're saying, and the audience isn't really looking at you; they're looking at the person you are supposed to be."

Memories of her pageant experiences were of a less positive nature than were her speech and drama experiences, and may account for Chalis' enduring concern for

perfection, exactness and control in a public communication situation:

In pageants, they always counted off for my talking with my hands. She [a coach] criticized me for using my hands all the time. I don't think it should matter, it's how some people express themselves -- in speech you shouldn't do it, but in just normal life, it's O.K.

Chalis did not refer as frequently to her pageant experiences as she did to her other high school activities; indeed, she seemed uncomfortable in discussing that subject. However, it was clear that she perceived communication within the pageant context to be the most formal and most "professional" model of speech communication. It is interesting to note that, when talking about her present speech strategies, Chalis would refer back to the lessons learned through participating in the pageants:

When I give a speech, I try to do it confidently and calmly. I try to look interested, even though I'm not. I feel really wierd gesturing. I talk with my hands a lot, but when I give a speech, I feel funny planning my gestures. I guess that comes from when I was in pageants. I can't really use facial expressions that much, because when your mouth is moving, you can't smile. . . .

To summarize her pre-college experiences with oral communication, it is important to understand Chalis' path of development. As a child from what she described to be a relatively non-communicative family, Chalis entered school with little experience or confidence in oral communication. Chalis coped with the resulting fear by

avoiding both interpersonal and public communication. As she progressed in school, she learned that she could always receive positive feedback if she communicated only when she was sure that she was correct; thus, she developed the attitude that when she spoke, all elements must be perfect, from content to delivery.

By high school, Chalis reported that she had learned a new set of coping strategies for dealing with her still-present anxiety with oral communication. In interpersonal relationships, Chalis limited her conversations to those few friends with whom she felt well acquainted and comfortable, but made no efforts to make new friends each school year.

By her senior year, Chalis had learned to deal with public speaking situations in a variety of new ways. In her speech class, she learned the security of "writing out" her message, and reading from the prepared manuscript, eliminating the need to focus attention upon the audience or to "think on [her] feet." In drama classes, Chalis learned how to cover nervousness by disassociating from herself and from her audience, losing self-consciousness by immersing herself into the content of the dialogue. It was from her drama training, too, that Chalis learned to memorize large blocks of text. The process of remembering lines, according to Chalis, also helped her to focus her attention away from her anxiety and onto the message.

Through her participation in pageants, Chalis learned the importance of "appearing to be in control," of "looking professional," and of "looking interested." Although Chalis' anxiety about communication had changed little from her early school days, her experiences in high school gave her a repertoire of behaviors which would help her succeed in situations demanding oral communication.

Chalis entered her college speech class with a highly developed sense of how to perform well on a public speaking assignment. Chalis' first speech was very successful; she was one of the few to receive an "A" for the assignment. She had prepared this speech using the combination of strategies learned in high school: after writing the speech in its entirety, she spent a number of days committing it to memory, and practicing the delivery aloud, in front of a mirror.

However, Chalis' second speech was less than perfect. Although she received a grade of "B," Chalis continually referred to this as "The speech I messed up on." In an effort to employ extemporaneous composition and delivery methods which her speech instructor advocated, Chalis deviated from her set formula of writing-memorizing-practicing the speech. Chalis had prepared only a few notes (rather than her customary manuscript), practiced the speech only minimally, and did not attempt to pre-determine

spontaneous while delivering the speech. Chalis arrived in class the day of the speech feeling "real nervous" and "not as well prepared as usual." Halfway through the delivery of the speech, Chalis lost her place and began to cry. She was able to regain her composure and finish, but she perceived that the speech was a failure:

For some reason, I just lost it. I don't really even know why. After I did that, I couldn't look at anybody. I had done O.K. when I was practicing it, and I never messed up on the parts that I messed up on during the speech. I guess I was real nervous. I hadn't slept well the night before. I didn't know the speech as well as I should have because I practiced it late and not as well as I could have. I also think it was a harder speech than the others I had given -- big words and a lot of complicated things. It was on abortion and there weren't words that you use everyday. I was concerned that it would be too short, so I tried to lengthen it so there was alot more stuff to remember.

When asked if she perceived negative feedback from the audience or the instructor as a result of this experience, Chalis said that while the class was very kind to her, she did not believe that her classmates were fully honest in their comments. Although they told her that she had given a good speech, Chalis believed that her classmates were simply unwilling to voice negative feedback. Chalis was satisfied that she received the grade of "B," but voiced the concern that the instructor was "giving her the benefit of the doubt" rather than grading her as harshly as the situation warranted.

Following her perceived failure in the second speech, Chalis volunteered to deliver her third speech the very next week:

I was scared because I had screwed up so bad before. I wanted to get up there because I may never be able to do it again if I didn't try now. I was nervous, but screwed up a few times -- not bad -- and I got a 90 on the speech.

It is important to note that Chalis did not attempt to deliver her third speech in the extemporaneous mode; she returned to her old formula of success: writing the speech in its entirety, committing it to memory, then practicing it until it was perfect.

It is also noteworthy that Chalis expressed less enthusiasm and liking for her college speech class than she expressed for her high school speech class. Chalis' main complaint concerning SPC 1014 was what she perceived to be arbitrariness and harshness in the instructor's evaluation system. She related how one of her friends, a student in the same class, had received "D's" on her speeches ". . . because she can't keep her voice from shaking while she speaks." In citing this example, Chalis expressed indignation over the fact that the instructor was apparently unwilling to overlook delivery flaws resulting from nervousness: "It's not something you can do anything about; you can't just change being nervous."

When asked what she thought the instructor looked for when evaluating a speech, Chalis first responded that she

was not really sure, but then speculated that content, organization, appearance and vocal control seemed to figure heavily in the instructor's evaluations. She then remembered that the instructor arrived at the speech grade by assigning fifty per cent weight to the speech content and fifty per cent to the speaker's presentation skills. According to Chalis, she had never received detailed evaluation comments from the instructor:

If you do really bad, she'll put lots of stuff, but I never really have that many comments on my paper. She'll put things like 'very good speech, Chalis,' 'You're a little shaky here,' or 'you have become a professional speaker.'

Asked if she ever makes an effort to change the areas where she has received specific feedback from the instructor, Chalis responded that she did not: "No, I just try to know my speech better -- just try to hide my nervousness." She continued by explaining why she thought she did better than many others in her class: ". . . I think I do better than most people because I am able to control my nervousness and I make some kind of effort to sound professional." Finally, the investigator asked whether Chalis would ever seek help from the instructor outside of class. Chalis responded with an emphatic "no," explaining that ". . . she [the instructor] really isn't the type you would ask for extra help outside of class -- you just try to work it out on your own."

The foregoing is a synopsis of Chalis' relevant oral communication experiences up to the point of the interview process. While it is certainly not exhaustive of the subject's experience with oral communication, Chalis' speaking autobiography represents those incidents and issues which she believed to be most expressive of her background and identity as a "successful student speaker." The remainder of this case study investigates the strategies, thoughts, feelings and attitudes which Chalis had and the behaviors she exhibited with regard to the speech she was in the process of composing during the weeks of the interview.

Speech Strategies

In her high school speech class, Chalis was required to write and turn in the speeches she delivered. In Chalis' college speech class, SPC 1014, the syllabus, textbook and instructor all specified that speeches for this class should be extemporaneous, that is, fully researched, thought out and pre-arranged, but not pre-written. Nevertheless, with one exception, Chalis' composition strategy for this class was to fully write her speeches. "I write the speech straight through from introduction to conclusion," Chalis reported. She continued,

I try to come up with a good introduction . . . and, even when there don't seem to be any -- three main points. . . . Three main points is a good way to outline speeches without putting too much detail in, but I'm always someone who has trouble

finding enough to talk about. All my speeches are short. My English papers are always short -- don't want to try to stretch it out because it'll sound like I'm doing that. In high school, all my speeches were a minute or two long and I'm used to that.

In describing her typical preparation strategy for a speech assignment, Chalis related that she usually waited until the night before the speech was due to compose the actual speech, although she often spent time before this in researching the topic (more about research in section five). She explained that she often "procrastinated" in completing assignments in other classes, and speculated that she seemed to be better motivated to work when she had a deadline of a few hours. Chalis perceived her first step in speech preparation to be the writing of a complete essay about her topic. Second, she reported that she usually ". . . look[s] at the written speech, revise[s] or re-write[s] it." Once she is satisfied with the manuscript, Chalis' third step is to "read and time" herself. If the speech is too short, she adds information or examples to make it longer, and practices the speech several times while timing herself. Chalis' fourth step involves typing the finished manuscript of her speech, a step which helps her memorize the speech. Finally, Chalis typically prepares note cards and an outline for use in delivering the speech. It is interesting to note that Chalis' "note cards" are nothing less than the entire speech hand-written

five will treat Chalis' method of preparation in greater depth by way of reporting how she approached one specific speech assignment.

As will be discussed later, for Chalis, success in public speaking is more a matter of delivery than of message content, language style or organization. Nevertheless, Chalis generalized several rhetorical strategies which she believed helped her succeed as a speaker: (1) the selection of an appropriate topic, (2) the importance of introductions and conclusions, (3) the identification of three main points, (4) the use of sources to support points, (5) the importance of clarity of purpose, (6) the importance of making the message interesting, (7) the use of "correct" language. While these rules were derived from the textbook or from her instructor's directions, Chalis indicated that she was in full agreement as to the importance of these elements to a successful speech; other rules expressed by the textbook or the instructor, such as maintaining a time limit or the use of a specified number of sources, Chalis rejected as being unimportant or arbitrary. It is also important to note that Chalis did not express a rhetorical strategy or rule which was uniquely her own: Chalis attributed all her speech methods either to her present textbook and instructor, or to previous speech instruction.

(1) Selection of an Appropriate Topic. Chalis expressed the belief that "Topics must fit the format of the speech." In other words, according to Chalis, the most important factor in determining a topic for a speech is the requirements of the situation: the instructor's directions, parameters of the assignment, the expectations of the audience.

As will be discussed below, Chalis was dissatisfied with the topic of her last speech assignment because she believed the group had selected a topic which could not be readily adapted to the format of group presentation. Nevertheless, Chalis concluded her discussion of topic selection saying, ". . . it's not so much the topic as what they do with it" which is important to success as a speaker. Topics, according to Chalis, must have the ability to:

. . . hold [the audience's] interest -- light subjects interest me the most. If a topic interests me, I think it will interest them. I try to pick something that they are mildly interested in. But I try to stay away from really serious stuff like capital punishment. Most people wouldn't care that much about it, and the ones that do might get really mad at you if you said something that they didn't agree with.

(2) Importance of Introductions and Conclusions. The first part of the speech which Chalis typically composes is the introduction. Chalis observed that an effective introduction should have an "attention getter," a story,

question or statistic which ". . . makes the audience want to listen to the rest of the speech."

Chalis said that she believed that her ability to compose effective introductions and conclusions is one of the factors which distinguishes her speeches from those of less successful student speakers. However, as will be seen in section five, the conclusion typically gives Chalis the most difficulty of any other part of the speech. According to Chalis, an effective conclusion ". . . sticks in [one's] mind, sounds like an ending, makes a final point, makes [one] think about [the subject] some more." Despite the fact that she knows what the conclusion should accomplish, Chalis finds it difficult to express these intentions in a few closing words. Chalis reported several strategies for dealing with this block. "First, I try to go through my books and articles [research sources] to find an idea -- I see how they ended," explained Chalis, "but most of the time, I'll wait until just before I go to sleep the night before the speech to think of a conclusion. I may call my friend and ask her, or sometimes my mom helps me with an idea."

Chalis reported that while introductions are hard to "write," they do not cause the continual problem that conclusions do. Indeed, Chalis estimated that she had suffered severe "writer's block" on conclusions in twenty percent of the speeches she had ever composed. It is also

interesting to note that Chalis observed that she usually had difficulty in writing conclusions to essays, and attributed the block in both essay and speech composition to the same cause: "I've already said the important things in the main part of the speech or the paper, and I don't have anything else to say. I don't want to repeat myself; I don't want anyone to get bored."

(3) Identification of Three Main Points. All of the speeches which Chalis delivered in SPC 1014 contained three main points. While Chalis did not believe it necessary to state a thesis or topic sentence, she believed that the purpose of the speech (as expressed in the introduction) should be clarified and expanded upon by three main points in the "body of the speech." It is clear through Chalis' statements concerning main points that the strategy of three main points was derived from the instructor's recommendations:

Even if there aren't any, I try to have three main points. She [instructor] counts off if there's not. Like in my smoking in public places speech, my three main points were: annoyance, discomfort, and health risks involved. I know that annoyance and discomfort are really the same thing, but it really sounds better if you have three reasons for something instead of just two.

In a later interview, Chalis further explained that the instructor required speeches to contain ". . . three main points, and clear points. That means that the points are well defined and organized." Apparently, Chalis took to

heart the instruction that main points should adequately explain the topic, but not the directive that main points be "well defined" or mutually exclusive; the student complied with the letter, rather than the spirit of the rhetorical "law."

In other sessions, Chalis expressed that, in her opinion, it was not necessary to always have three main points in a speech, as long as the message was separated into its logical component parts. Unwilling to take a chance of displeasing the instructor, Chalis adhered to the three main points rule throughout the semester. According to Chalis' words on several different occasions, she was ". . . not as nervous about the actual presentation as [she was] about the evaluation, the grade." When asked to what extent she composes her speeches to please the instructor, Chalis answered, "As much as I have to, but I don't kill myself trying." Chalis believed she, not the instructor nor the audience, had the greatest influence upon her decisions regarding speech composition.

(4) Use of Sources. As in her use of three main points to expand the topic, Chalis adhered to her instructor's directions in her use of sources to support main points. When asked whether she conducts research in preparation for her speeches, Chalis explained that the instructor required the citation of at least two sources in each speech; Chalis complied with this requirement in all of her assignments.

Chalis reported that she preferred to use pamphlets for her research, but would also use books dealing with her topic. From these resources, Chalis gleaned statistics, "information lists," stories, and sometimes received inspiration for the structure, the introduction and the conclusion of her speech. When asked whether she cited these sources in the body of her speech, Chalis explained that she only credited the sources if the information she quoted or paraphrased was not common knowledge; otherwise, she felt free to use the information as her own.

Regarding citing sources in the speech, Chalis believed that attributing information was necessary, but awkward: "We have to cite the sources in the speech -- I don't like to, but I do. It interrupts the flow." In later interviews, the investigator probed the student for further beliefs regarding the use of outside sources, for example, asking whether the student had any special strategies for enhancing her credibility (a typical reason for the use of expert sources), but Chalis did not indicate that she used source citations for any reason other than the fact that it was an instructor requirement.

(5) Importance of Clarity of Purpose. "Communicating [one's] meaning and [one's] intention to the audience so that they understand exactly what it is [one] is trying prove or trying to say," or "clarity of purpose," is a major concern for Chalis as she prepares and writes her

speeches. A speech without purpose, direction and focus is a failure in Chalis' estimation. Of all the strategies expressed by Chalis, this is the one which seems to be most important to Chalis herself, the one which does not seem a mere reiteration of the instructor's requirements. This idea will be explained more thoroughly in the last section of this case study, since it was in the group speech that Chalis felt frustration in making the other members of her group understand the importance of relating their individual presentations so as to ensure a unified, clear, purposeful message.

(6) Importance of Interest. Throughout the interview process, Chalis repeated the importance of gaining and keeping the audience's interest. It is interesting to note that Chalis was unwilling to deviate from the instructor's directives, even if she risked "boring" the audience with the "required" statistics, source citations, three main points and "controlled" method of delivery.

Still, Chalis' estimate of effective speech often hinges upon the question of interest. When asked who she saw as a model of an effective speaker, Chalis replied that she had not really heard that many speakers who she thought especially effective: "I get really bored listening to most speeches, especially if they are very long. . . . Good speakers may not write good speeches and visa versa-- a lot depends on how the speech is given, if the speaker

is enthusiastic, that helps a lot." However, when asked who she saw as a model of an ineffective speaker, Chalis did not hesitate to answer:

George Bush -- he has no personality, nothing comes through; he's boring, too. I don't think Reagan is that good, either, for the same reasons. Most of the speeches in my class are awful -- it's like they just don't try or take it seriously. It seems like the people who do good on speeches always do good, and the people who do bad always do bad.

As discussed above, Chalis bases her determination of the interest and appeal of her speeches upon her own likes and dislikes: ". . . if it interests me, I think it will interest them. . . ." Later, she concluded,

The other people in the class see a 'good speaker' as someone who keeps their interest. For me, I think a 'good speaker' is someone who has main points, clear points, well defined and organized points, a calm, clear voice -- not nervous, no shifting back and forth, someone who holds your interest, doesn't 'screw up,' uses correct English. Light subjects interest me the most, not a lot of statistics. And enthusiasm is really important.

(7) Use of Correct Language. For Chalis, the need to use "correct" English manifests itself in her method of writing/memorizing her speeches. The interviews did not pinpoint the time when this became a concern; however, review of her speaking autobiography reveals that "correctness" in oral communication was an important goal for Chalis even in the elementary grades. This quest for perfection of expression was a continuing theme in Chalis' school, extracurricular and home life, and a goal which was

likely reinforced by teachers, drama and pageant coaches, and even parents.

As discussed earlier, in elementary school, Chalis learned that she could always be judged "correct" if she spoke in class only when she was sure that she was right. In speech class, she learned to write her speeches, then to read them, ensuring that she would always deliver a well thought out and "correctly" worded message. In drama, Chalis learned to memorize her lines and to make pre-written messages appear more spontaneous and genuine. In pageants, Chalis learned that her entire persona could be judged according to her words and actions. Here, "correctness" took on a quantitative value as each mistake of word or action represented a demerit in her overall evaluation.

For Chalis, "correctness" of speech does not mean language which is aesthetically appealing, nor does it mean language which is appropriate to the situation, the audience or the topic, nor does it mean elevated, formal or stylized language. Rather, Chalis used "correctness" to mean an absence of slang, non-fluencies, mispronunciations, word choice errors and pauses. While Chalis indicated that she attempts to use "professional-sounding language," by this she means that she brings into her speech the special or technical terminology indicated by the subject. For example, in a speech about abortion, Chalis attempted to

explain various abortion procedures using the proper medical terminology. It is important to note that this was the speech which Chalis perceived as her "failure" because she had not memorized the terminology as well as she had wanted, had not written her entire speech on her note cards, and drew a momentary blank when trying to remember the word for a specific procedure. For Chalis, this speech stands as her failure in using "correct" language because she was unable to immediately recall the word she wanted.

While Chalis' rhetorical or composition strategies are almost exclusively limited to the specific requirements of the instructor, Chalis' delivery strategies seem to be more of her own design. When revealing her speech strategies during the interviews, Chalis was more willing to discuss delivery method than rhetorical method. It became apparent that, for Chalis, "public speaking" means nonverbal delivery; the investigator had to probe to uncover Chalis' composition or language strategies, what Chalis would term "speech writing." Thus, Chalis related that the speech process is two distinct activities: speech writing, which takes place in private and ends in a finished written manuscript, and public speaking, which takes place before an audience and ends in the successful recitation of the manuscript.

With only one exception, the speeches which Chalis delivered in SPC 1014 were memorized, manuscript speeches.

As discussed above, her only attempt to use the extemporaneous mode of delivery resulted in what Chalis perceived to be failure. Chalis was fully aware that her practice of memorizing speeches was not followed by many of her classmates, and was not a method advocated by her instructor or her textbook. Nevertheless, she believed this method was most effective for her:

I have a real good memory, so it's not hard for me to memorize my speeches. Extemporaneous is fine if you can do it, but some people are awful at it. I think that they should be able to make that choice for themselves -- even if they want to read their speeches, that's o.k., I think."

It is important to note that Chalis believed that her grades justified her use of the memorized mode of delivery; she had received "A's" on each speech she had memorized, but received a "B" on the speech she delivered extemporaneously. If her instructor truly wished Chalis to use the extemporaneous mode, this was not the message that the student received.

In talking about her methods of delivery, Chalis repeatedly used the idea of "control." When asked what aspect of her delivery distinguish her from the other students in her speech class, Chalis replied, "I am able to control my nervousness. I try to plan speeches to sound professional, to sound organized. Mostly, my delivery is very controlled." At another time, Chalis depicted her nonverbal delivery in the following way:

I always try real hard to stand still. I try to give a speech confidently and calmly. I try to look interested even though I'm not. I feel really wierd gesturing. I talk with my hands a lot, but when I give a speech, I feel funny planning my gestures

At no time during the interview process did Chalis mention vocal tone, volume or emphasis as a delivery strategy, nor did she indicate that facial expressions were important to delivery, nor did she discuss the role of movement in delivery, nor did she consider the issue of eye contact in nonverbal delivery. Also missing from her discussion of delivery was a consideration of appearance, dress and grooming. It would seem from her description of "ideal delivery" that Chalis strove to remain perfectly still, arms at her side, looking out into the audience with an expression of "cool professionalism," speaking in a well-modulated, clear and confident voice.

In the final interview, Chalis was asked what advice she would give an untrained speaker who had to deliver his or her first speech. Her reply may be seen as a summary of her speech strategies, the melding of her instructor's requirements and her own preferences: "That depends on the subject, but I would tell them to have two sources and three main points, to sound calm and to stand still, to make it interesting and to keep the time limit."

Feelings and Attitudes About Speech

Chalis' responses concerning her feelings and attitudes about speech generally indicate that she considered her class, SPC 1014, a necessary evil in her college curriculum, and that she considered the speech process a worrisome and undesirable activity. While Chalis said that she did believe that speech should be a requirement for college graduation, she indicated that the value of the course was largely limited to the help it could provide in other classes:

I took speech in high school because I thought it would be good for me. . . . [Should speech be a required course for colleges?] I guess so -- everybody needs to get in front of people. It's good for you. It helps in other classes where you have to write essays and oral reports. It's better than science and other classes that you may never use again in your life. I think this class will really help me -- it already has helped me -- to organize thoughts for writing assignments in my English classes, and in my major.

When asked whether she foresaw using public speaking as a medium of communication outside of college, Chalis was doubtful:

Yes, I may want to teach or act, but that's not really the same thing as a speech. I couldn't really see myself giving a speech for a cause, or as a professional speaker. I'm really not the type to single myself out, to get up in front of a crowd of people and tell them that they have to do something. Maybe I wouldn't feel as funny doing it as long as I was talking about myself (like if I ever got famous, or something) or for a really good cause, but I doubt it.

Thus, Chalis did not see SPC 1014 as a prerequisite to advanced work in the field of speech, nor did she intend to use the skills acquired in the speech classroom in a public communication context.

As for her expressed attitudes about the process of speech making, Chalis communicated uncertainty, apprehension, frustration and annoyance more often than she communicated certainty, confidence, ease or pleasure. This finding was somewhat surprising since Chalis scored well within the normal range of scores on the PRCA-24, indicating only moderate levels of apprehension with regard to oral communication.

When Chalis revealed for the first time that she feels "nervous" before and during public speeches, she explained that she is "not as nervous about the actual presentation, . . . [is] more nervous about the evaluation, the grade." Chalis explained that her nervous feelings typically begin during speech preparation, while she is writing the speech the night before the assignment is due. She recounted the feelings she had while preparing for a previous speech, commenting that she felt very anxious and "shaky" even while thinking about and writing her ideas; these feelings of apprehension continued until she realized that the class assignments were running behind schedule, and that she might not have time to deliver the speech the next day. In Chalis' words, realizing that she might not have to give

the speech ". . . took the pressure off and [she] was able to prepare for [the speech] calmly." Interestingly, this speech was considered by Chalis as one of her best efforts in SPC 1014.

Throughout the interview process, Chalis made many references to feelings of apprehension, discomfort and uncertainty which she associated with various aspects of public speaking. On one occasion, Chalis explained that she practiced speeches alone, in front of a mirror, but that she would not consider practicing speeches in front of friends or family: "It makes me more nervous to do it [speak] in front of a few people than a larger group. You're more aware of people listening to you when there are only one or two people listening to you." Although Chalis was likely to read parts of her speech over the phone to her mother, she did not see this as the same thing as "giving a speech" to her mother; apparently, Chalis felt safe in practicing the words of her speech, but was unwilling to practice the physical and vocal aspects of delivery in front of an audience. Asked whether she ever used a tape recorder in practice sessions, Chalis replied emphatically,

No, I'd never do that! I can't stand the way my voice sounds on tape. I'd never use it to practice, and I'd never give a speech for other people in practice. I just like to be alone and work it out for myself.

It has been suggested that experiences of failure and success mediate subsequent levels of communication apprehension (Daly & McCroskey, 1984). Following the speech which she saw as her personal failure, Chalis remembered that her apprehension level was particularly high, but that her embarrassment and nervousness did not lead her to avoid future speech situations:

After I did that [lost her place and cried], I couldn't look at anybody. I was scared because I had screwed up so bad, but I wanted to get up there because I may never be able to do it again if I didn't try now. [On the next speech] I was real nervous, screwed up a few times -- not bad -- and got a 90 on the speech.

Chalis went on to explain that after "making up" the failure with a successful speech, her next speaking experience was "easier," less stressful. Chalis' apparent ability to build upon success and to accept failure as a challenge to be overcome allows her to approach speaking situations with manageable levels of communication apprehension, levels which are reflected in her PRCA-24 score. In Chalis' own words, "I'm better than a lot of other students in the class because I am able to control my nervousness. . . . I don't think I'm any less nervous than anyone else; I'm just better at hiding it." Chalis was asked to relate her methods for dealing with nervousness. Her initial reply was that she did not have any strategy for coping with nervousness, but upon reflection, she listed a few methods which she regularly employs: standing

"perfectly still," keeping hands at her side, looking at everyone in the audience, and volunteering to give the first speech of the day. When asked how these strategies alleviate nervousness, Chalis responded that they were all ways of "acting confident"; Chalis believed that if she knew that she looked confident, she did, indeed, become more confident.

Chalis' answers to a final question about feelings associated with speech were particularly revealing of her general attitudes toward public speaking. When asked how she feels after she delivers a speech in class, Chalis responded:

Usually relieved because it is finally all over. Upset, too, because I'm not sure how I did. And sometimes I feel mad at myself, especially when I make a mistake or forget something. Mostly, I just feel like -- when I'm giving the speech -- that I want to get it over with.

Relating the Speech Process

In the first interview, Chalis explained that her next classroom speech, due in two weeks, was a group speech. She saw this assignment as quite different from previous speech assignments, primarily because Chalis did not feel that she had control over the important decisions of the presentation's topic, focus, content or organization. From this first interview, Chalis expressed dissatisfaction with this speech assignment, a dissatisfaction which continued throughout the speech preparation and delivery process.

Chalis had been assigned to a group, the leader had been designated by the instructor, and, by the time of the first interview, the group had already held meetings to determine the topic of the presentation. Chalis was unhappy with the make-up of the group, the competence of the leader and most of all, the topic which the group had selected:

I'm really not happy with this group assignment. There's no time for research as a group and I'm really afraid that the others in the group may not be any good at researching and writing speeches. I'd rather give a speech by myself -- I don't really like being in a group and having my grade depend on them. [Are there any positive aspects to the assignment?] I guess there will be more security -- I won't be noticed as much when I'm speaking with a group.

Chalis' group had selected the topic of "Abuse," planning to discuss, symposium-style, the various types of abuse prevalent in American society. Chalis expressed concern over this decision:

This topic has me worried. What solution can I give? It's not like we're going to be able to solve the whole problem of abuse. But the topic was not my idea. I'm not sure it will work that well, but we had such a hard time agreeing that this was our last resort.

Chalis went on to explain that she had been assigned by the group the sub-topic of "Wife Abuse." She had already decided that her part of the presentation would be informative, but that she would try to present some solutions to the problem in the conclusion of her presentation: "Mrs. B. doesn't just want us to be

informative, she wants us to solve a problem. The others may not do that, but I will."

Chalis brought her resource materials to the first interview, two books about spouse abuse which were published in the 1970's. When she was asked why she had selected those resources, Chalis explained that they were the only two books that she could find in the university library dealing specifically with "wife abuse," and that the pamphlet file (her preferred source of reference material) contained no articles on the subject. Chalis went on to say that she felt her search for resources was complete since the instructor only required two sources for speeches. Chalis intended to search for statistics, information lists, interesting quotations and ideas for organization in her two resources.

Later in the first interview, Chalis related her preliminary plans for organizing her segment of the group speech. First, she planned to discuss characteristics of the battered woman, then the profile of the male batterer. Finally, Chalis speculated that she would suggest things which a battered woman could do to help herself, or what an audience member could do if he or she knows a battered woman. Chalis believed that this format would allow her to present her information in a very short time period, still allowing her to reach a solution which she perceived to be of importance in the instructor's evaluation system.

Chalis' remarks about her group during the first interview typified her feelings about the assignment, feelings which would only intensify over the next two weeks:

I would feel better about the group speech if I was leader. Our little leader really doesn't seem to care that much; he isn't willing to make a decision or to tell people what they have to do. My ideas don't really seem to matter that much. This other girl in the group is the one who convinced everyone that we should do this topic, and she doesn't want to hear any other ideas.

By the second interview session, Chalis' frustration level had increased:

I'm really worried about the structure of the speech. Everybody's different topics don't seem to relate -- I think we may be trying to do too much. The next time we meet, I'll ask to change the format to something I thought of which would be much easier to handle.

Chalis' alternative plan was to narrow the topic to wife abuse, which she saw as a major issue, worthy of a half-hour discussion. Chalis argued that the presentation could easily be structured, first by providing definitions and examples of wife abuse, then by exploring aspects of wife abuse, finally by providing solutions to the problem.

Even though Chalis had what she believed to be a well thought-out alternative plan, she admitted that her chances for convincing the rest of the group were dubious: "Marcy [the other group member who had convinced the group to select the topic of abuse] is always pushing to have it her way. I'm sure she'll find some reason why we can't change

now." Anticipating this resistance, Chalis had already begun writing her part of the presentation, following the guidelines agreed upon by the group. She brought her uncompleted draft to this second interview, a two page essay entitled "Social Aspects of Abuse" (see Appendix B). Chalis related her dissatisfaction with this first draft of her speech:

I started writing it, but I had a hard time pulling it together because I got really confused after I read the books I got on the subject. There's too much material for just one part of a presentation.

Chalis explained some of her compositional strategies while the interviewer was permitted to read the draft of the speech:

I thought I'd start with a story as an attention-getter -- to show how people take wife abuse so much for granted that a girl could be murdered and no one would do anything because they just figured it was her husband who was beating her. Then, I thought I would go into some statistics, just to show how common the problem is, and I cited the source here -- I don't want to; it interrupts the flow of the speech -- because we have to. . . . You can see that I organized it chronologically because that's the way one of the books I got for a source does it.

When the investigator observed that the speech manuscript did not appear to have a thesis, Chalis responded that her instructor did not require a thesis for speeches, but that the purpose of the speech must be clear. Indeed, Chalis had indicated early in the speech manuscript that her purpose was to inform the audience about the problem of "wife abuse."

At the end of the second interview, Chalis repeated that she intended to "change the minds" of her group members concerning the direction of the assignment. When asked whether she would speak to her instructor about the problems she was experiencing with the group speech, Chalis responded emphatically, "No. We'll try to work it out ourselves."

By the third interview, Chalis had failed to convince her fellow group members to change the focus of the presentation. Chalis recounted the group's last meeting where it was decided that ". . . it would be impractical to change the presentation at this point, because some people have already done their research -- but not everyone." Chalis expressed even greater dissatisfaction with the topic, the group and her own work:

I'm very unhappy with this project. . . . I'm not even happy with my speech -- it's so boring. Maybe that's because I didn't pick it [the topic]. I'm having a real hard time getting motivated to do any work toward it at all. I think we can pull it off, but it won't be that great.

Chalis spent the remainder of the third interview talking about her part of the presentation, the strengths and weaknesses of her speech manuscript. Chalis brought a new manuscript for the investigator to read, and related that she had already read the "speech" over the phone to her mother. "She likes it," Chalis reported. The manuscript was complete, except for a concluding paragraph. Apparently, the conclusion was eluding Chalis, a problem

she had suffered with many of her previous speeches and essays:

I'm having trouble with the ending. 'Although there is no way to stop abuse . . . there are many agencies to help' I need an ending that sticks in your mind, that sounds like an ending. It has to make a final point. I want them to think about it some more, be aware of the problem if it occurs in their lives.

Chalis explained that she had already tried some of her common "tricks" for finding a conclusion; she had asked her mother for ideas, and had looked in her resource books for ideas, but to no avail. The investigator asked Chalis to try to compose a conclusion aloud, on the spot. It is important to report that this request seemed to take Chalis by surprise, and she was reluctant to try the oral composition method. Nevertheless, Chalis complied, and her results genuinely surprised her:

'Wife abuse is [vocal emphasis] a serious problem, one that has no real solution. But there is help for victims of wife abuse. So if you yourself are a victim or you know someone who is' -- what would you say? Get out? -- 'send them to a -- for victims of wife abuse there is counseling and there are shelters available.' But I need another sentence or two to conclude it. I'll come up with something. Maybe I'll call my mother and she'll think of something. Maybe I'll just start memorizing it and something will come to me.

Chalis finally asked the investigator to help her with a conclusion; when the request was refused, Chalis retorted, "If I was doing this on my own, by now I would have changed the whole thing around!"

During the three interviews prior to the delivery of the group speech in her class, Chalis' concerns about the speech centered around the choice of topic, the focus of the speech, the organization of material, the mechanics of writing and memorizing the composition and the strategies for delivering the speech. At no time did Chalis express concern for the style, level of formality or artistic quality of the language used in the speech. When Chalis was questioned as to her choice of a word or of a syntactical construction in her speech composition, she replied that "that's just the way I thought of it, and that's the way I wrote it down." Beyond the aim of "sounding professional," which to Chalis means using correct language, without mispronunciation, word choice errors or nonfluencies, Chalis did not report that she consciously employed any style or language strategies to enhance her speech. Yet Chalis had many plans for the delivery of her segment of the speech.

Meeting three was held just a few days before Chalis and her group were to deliver their presentation in class. During this meeting, Chalis related her preparation plans, including the delivery strategies she intended to use:

I'm planning to go home from here and memorize my part. I'm feeling better because I know now that she will not be timing it [the presentation]. We may not use the podium. We hopefully will just stand in front of our little desks and give our speech. It looks better that way than behind the podium, anyway. With a podium, it looks like you're trying to hide, and you might start leaning

on it. . . . I'd rather do it sitting down, though; it's easier, but the whole purpose of speech class is that you have to get up with everyone looking at you, so that's what I'll plan to do. . . . I think I'll sound good compared to the rest of the people in my group.

One final observation was made during the period of speech preparation: Chalis' difficulty with the group assignment may have resulted from her perception of her role in the presentation. Throughout the three interview sessions held prior to delivery of the speech, Chalis spoke of her part in the presentation as if it were a separate speech, distinct from the other group member's parts. Chalis was apparently unable to visualize the group speech as a unified message, parts of which would be delivered by her group-mates, part of which would be delivered by her. Chalis' comments about this assignment generally served to emphasize the differences between herself and the other group members, between her own work and that of the others; at no time prior to the presentation did Chalis discuss the ways in which her comments might tie in with the rest of the group speech.

A final meeting was held immediately after Chalis' group speech was delivered in class. Chalis' first words revealed her ongoing concern with grades and evaluation:

I got the best grade in the group. I was a little unsure about the evaluation comments she [Instructor B] made. [Will you ask your instructor to explain the comments?] No, it really doesn't matter. I know I had to look at my notes a lot and she commented about that. But she said that I used the podium 'incorrectly,'

and I don't even know how to use the podium -- we never were allowed to use it before. I expected a low 90 or high 80. Sometimes she grades easier than others -- you never really know how she'll like it.

Chalis was asked to evaluate her own performance in this, her final speech for SPC 1014. Her comments indicated that she did not feel appreciably different about her performance in this assignment than she had in previous assignments, despite her grave misgivings about the group speech format:

I was real nervous. I wanted to get it over with. The person who spoke before me didn't do real well, so I should have looked better. The audience seemed interested. . . . [What are your overall impressions of this assignment?] It can be helpful for some, but personally, I didn't like it. But even though I wasn't really happy with this speech, it was still O.K.

It is important to remember that Chalis had indicated in an earlier interview that she never felt happy or confident about her performance immediately after delivering a speech.

One final observation must be made in order to view Chalis' experience in proper perspective. The PRCA-24 instrument allows for the examination of sub-scores for various types of oral communication situations: interpersonal communication, public speaking, communication within meetings, and small group communication. While Chalis' sub-score for small group communication was relatively low (12/42), her sub-score for communication within meetings (17/42) was almost as high as her public

speaking subscore (18/42). While none of her sub-scores register in the high-apprehension range, Chalis' attitudes toward the group assignment seem to support her somewhat elevated level of anxiety associated with the type of interaction typical in work meetings.

Case Study 2 -- "Russell"

Background Information

Russell, a nineteen-year-old white male, was enrolled in one of Instructor A's two sections of SPC 1014 during the Fall, 1987 term. Russell came to the University of Central Florida directly after graduating from a high school on the east coast of Florida. At the time of the study, Russell lived with a roommate in a house off campus.

An engineering major, Russell decided to register for SPC 1014 in the first semester of college study because he was "not able to get into an English class"; he was advised by his department to "take speech now and get it over with before getting into [his] upper division classes." Although Russell had not taken a speech course in high school, he had taken a full year of drama in the ninth grade. He had anticipated that his college-level speech class would be similar to that class. Russell related that he had enjoyed and performed well in his high school drama class; that experience had helped him feel "more confident about getting up in front of people and speaking."

Nevertheless, Russell admitted that he ". . . never would have taken this class if it were not required."

By the time of the first interview, Russell had already delivered three speeches in SPC 1014; he had earned two "B's" and one "A" for his speeches. The speech which Russell was in the process of composing during the weeks of the interview was a persuasive speech (See Appendix A for a description of persuasive speech assignment).

On the PRCA-24 instrument, Russell scored 49, placing him within the mid-range of apprehension scores for the sample described in Chapter Three. For the purpose of this study, Russell was considered to have a "moderate" level of communication apprehension.

Speaking Autobiography

Russell began relating his speaking autobiography in the first meeting by commenting:

I don't know how I can give speeches because I never wanted to read out loud in school. I really don't like to read -- and I think that reading really helps you in preparing for a speech. You have to know a lot of information before you can get up in front of people and tell them something worthwhile. Also, reading out loud in class is a lot like giving a speech -- and that really used to scare me when I was in elementary and even middle school. I was always afraid I would mess up a word, and that everyone would laugh at me. I don't think that ever really happened, but I was still always worried that it would.

Despite the revelation of his fear of reading aloud, the overall portrait which Russell created of himself as a

communicator is not that of a shy, fearful or reticent young man. In describing his typical communication behavior, Russell claimed he is ". . . one who always wants to show things off -- to show off what [he] know[s]." Later in the first interview, Russell explained,

I've always been one to sit in the back and make wise cracks -- to be the big mouth -- to draw positive attention to myself. I mean, I won't say anything that will make me look stupid or mean -- just things that will make people laugh and like me. I like to be in control.

The investigator observed throughout the interview process that Russell not only seemed willing to discuss his experiences and ideas, but actually enjoyed having the opportunity to talk about himself. Rarely would the investigator have the need to prompt Russell to fully disclose his thoughts; he did so willingly, often with great attention to detail. Nevertheless, parts of Russell's speaking autobiography are less than exhaustive because Russell claimed he was unable to remember childhood experiences in any detail, especially early experiences with public speaking.

Russell described his family as ". . . very communicative -- sometimes overly communicative." The youngest of two children, Russell's household consisted of his father, his mother and his older sister. Although Russell generalized that interaction between members of his family was open and "all intertwined," he also described a communication climate where some degree of avoidance and

combativeness existed. In fact, Russell's first words in describing his family's communication patterns indicate his apparent low level of satisfaction with communication in his household:

[Could you tell me what communication was like in your house while you were growing up?] I'm sure this happens in all families, but communication drops off just as you become a teen. You become more active with your peers. You just zip your mouth shut and don't say anything. Even at dinner, it's like a funeral or something. You don't say anything and when you're done, you get up and leave.

Russell described his relationship with his mother as positive, but rather limited: "My mom was always around the house -- sometimes she would read to us. When we grew up, she would give us 'speeches' -- lots of speeches about what time to come home and to be careful. I got to hear them all twice. . . ." Likewise, he depicted rather limited dealings with his sister ". . . because she was five years older than me [sic] and she was always off doing her own thing."

It was his relationship with his father that Russell spoke of most often and with the most ambivalence: "My dad was one who always said 'it's my way or the highway.' He wasn't an abusive father, but now I would really like to gain back that time we lost when I was a teen." On a later occasion, Russell related the point in time when he believed he first started having limited communication with his father:

When I was about fourteen or fifteen, I started getting quiet around the house. Every weekend, my dad and I used to go fishing, but when I started getting older, the fishing trips would turn into a day-long lecture. He slowly pushed me away from him and toward my friends. It was easier to just avoid him than to argue back. Now I miss those times we had together. I wish I could go back and change things.

When asked whether he usually responds to negative communication or conflict by retreating or aggressing, Russell explained that he tries to let the other party know how he feels, but that he does sometimes "close people out" when they continue to argue with him or when he perceives that they are not listening to him. Russell then recalled a tactic he had tried at home for improving communication between his father and him: in his high school "life management skills" class Russell had learned a "fair fighting" technique whereby each party has five minutes to express, uninterrupted, his point of view. "We tried that at home and it worked a little," recalled Russell,

. . . but my dad would sit there and when it was his turn, he would come out with something completely unrelated to what you had just said -- something off the wall. You could talk to him forever and get nowhere. I think I've gotten that trait from him to a certain extent.

Despite the primarily negative reports of family communication patterns which Russell gave, he did relate that he found it easier to talk to his mother, sister and father now that he was "on his own," no longer a permanent member of the household. Also, it was apparent that the relationship between father and son is a close one in that

Russell usually coupled a complaint about one of his father's communication behaviors with the observation that "I think I do that a lot myself." Further, Russell admitted that in choosing his college major and career, engineering, he was in greatest part influenced by his father, a NASA engineer.

Russell's memories of communication experiences in a school context were somewhat less negative, but also less explicit than those of his family communication patterns. According to Russell, as a young child, he was a "show-off," but ". . . that never helped [him] in front of people." He explained this observation using the example of "show and tell," which he remembered as one of his favorite activities in his early school years. "I really used to love show and tell. My mom says I couldn't wait for it." Although he liked being the center of attention, he was unconcerned about the appropriateness of his behavior; he enjoyed playing the clown or dare devil, but did not take into consideration the consequences of his behavior or words. Russell was unable to remember a particular incident in which his "show off" behavior met with negative feedback, but he had a generalized memory that his early attempts at public communication were not fully successful. "I don't remember what brought about the change," recalled Russell, "but by the time I was about eight or nine I started to get more quiet in class. I

guess that's when I got guts -- I didn't have the nerve to act up in class or in front of people any more."

Russell's memories of communication in school during later elementary and middle school were vague and incomplete. "In elementary school," Russell recalled, "you had to stand up and give reports, but I have no real memory of any of them. I wanted to forget them, I guess." Russell's only vivid memories of oral communication in the classroom during this period were of reading aloud, an activity which he repeatedly mentioned as being his worst communication memory:

I was never much of a reader. I think that hurt my ability to talk. English things are the most important. I never really spent a lot of time on it in school, but if I had it to do over, I'd study English a lot harder.

Russell reported that he ". . . didn't stand out in any way in school" until ninth grade, when he enrolled in a full year of drama, an elective which satisfied his high school's performing arts requirement.

"Drama class changed me," remembered Russell,

It wasn't required, but it should have been. In fact, I think that two years of it wouldn't be too much. You learned how to deal with people, how to get up in front of a class. From then on I began participating more in my classes because I wasn't afraid of saying the wrong thing or of looking like an idiot in front of people.

Russell attributed his success in his drama class to the teacher and the learning activities. "I liked the teacher, she wasn't your everyday teacher: she was a lot looser, a

lot more flexible, so that taught you to be flexible, too," Russell remembered. According to Russell, the classroom activities, while performed under the guise of games, helped him to overcome his self-consciousness and to enhance his creativity:

We did games: charades, mime, rhythm games that made you feel silly and like a little kid. But they taught you that it was O.K. to look a little foolish in front of an audience. We also did a lot of impromptu exercises. I did like that the best. That's when I learned that I could be off the wall -- that I could express myself without a lot of preparation. I did really get so much from that class.

Although Russell believed that his experience in the ninth grade drama class helped him to be a better communicator in school, it is interesting to note that he actually practiced his public speaking skills only once in his next three years of high school. While Russell claimed that he rarely was required to communicate orally in the high school classroom, it is important to mention that Russell declined opportunities to use his public speaking skills in non-school sponsored activities. "In senior year, I had the chance to take a part in the school play, but I turned it down," Russell reported during the first interview. When asked his reasons for declining the opportunity, Russell provided three: "First of all, it was memorization, which I hate -- it's so time consuming; second, I didn't want to get up there and look like a big idiot; but also, because it would have conflicted with

sports and the hard classes I was taking." When the investigator probed for the most important factor influencing his decision to decline the part, Russell admitted that it was the task of memorizing lines which dissuaded him. Russell explained that, while memorization is not difficult for him, it is an activity which he finds "time consuming," "boring," and "nerve-wracking."

In a later interview, Russell commented that he never participated in extracurricular activities which would put him "in the spotlight." "I'm a member, a follower, not a leader," Russell observed; "I was never interested in being class president, or an officer in such and such a club. I guess I was always happy just being one of the guys." The only exception to this philosophy was expressed in Russell's dissatisfaction with not achieving "star" status in high school athletics. Russell reported,

In sports, I was always the one to get the job done, never the superstar. I was always a little bit better than mediocre in all sports -- a good athlete. I can play any sport, but the coaches never used me in positions which would have been the best for me. I'd have made a good pitcher, but they always played me in outfield. I should have been a runner, because I'm fast and not very heavy, but they always made me play tackle. I was never put in a star position even though I wish I had been. I think I was gypped out of a lot of things in life because no one took the time to work with me.

Later, Russell expanded upon this observation by commenting that lack of approval and interest from his coaches often made him feel inadequate, not just in sports, but in his

personal life as well. He believed he overcame these feelings on his own by "blending into the crowd" and by ". . . saying and doing things -- cracking jokes and making little comments. . . " which would make him more popular with his peers.

Russell reported that after his drama training, he was more active as a participant in his high school classes, but that the majority of formal communication he produced for school was written. "All of our reports were written, not spoken," said Russell. He made this observation to explain what he believed was a poor performance on the only oral report which he was required to perform in high school. Russell continued:

In my junior year of high school in English we had to give a book report in front of class. It was supposed to last fifteen minutes, but I couldn't do that -- that's much too long. We were supposed to read some books by one author and tell how we felt about them. But the books were so long. It was too hard of an assignment -- more like something you'd expect in college, not high school. Well, I hadn't prepared that well. I mumbled over everything; really, it felt like I was babbling. I fell all over myself. Needless to say, I didn't get too good of a grade. I got a "C" on it, and I was just ecstatic about that. I never had to give another speech or report in high school after that; that was my last speech before I got into this class.

Asked whether this experience in his eleventh grade English class had any impact upon his feelings about speech in general, or upon his expectations of the college speech class he had enrolled in, Russell replied that he was somewhat anxious about taking a college-level speech class,

but that he had hoped that the class would be like his drama class; if it were, he knew that he would be successful. Russell found that, indeed, SPC 1014 was like the drama class in many ways, but that, on the whole, it was a unique experience in communication for him.

Russell commented that on the first day of class in SPC 1014, he was surprised by the size of the class: "I thought that public speaking class would be really large--like fifty or one hundred people. Instead, there were only about twenty five or thirty. That's not really public speaking; it's more like small group speaking."

Russell reported that he felt more comfortable about taking the course when he saw the small size of the class, but that he still had no pre-conceived ideas about what would be expected of him in terms of performance. Repeatedly, Russell complained that Instructor A did not make clear the full requirements of the assignments; Russell claimed that it was only after hearing a few of his classmates' speeches and finding out their grades for the assignment that he could determine ". . . what the teacher wanted in the speech." Furthermore, this strategy of Russell's apparently failed a few times, as he reported that for some of the speech assignments, he had ". . . not given the teacher what he wanted."

According to Russell, the only requirements which the instructor made clear to the class were the use of the

extemporaneous mode of delivery, preparation of an outline and a bibliographic listing of any sources used in the speech. Russell's understanding of extemporaneous delivery was very close to the definitions presented in the course text and on the syllabus (See Appendix A for definitions):

[What do you mean by "extemporaneous?"] That means that you think about what you're going to say and you decide what order you're going to say it in, and you can even make some notes or an outline to remind you of the points you're going to cover. But you don't memorize all the words of the speech; you just know what it is you want to say, and you say it.

As for the outline and bibliography, Russell disclosed that he usually ". . . [wrote] those up just before class. I don't type them or try to pretty them up in any way."

Russell described his first speech in SPC 1014 as a relative success: he had used a modified form of the extemporaneous mode of delivery, had turned in an outline and bibliography, had selected a topic which he believed was of interest to his audience, and had received what he perceived to be positive feedback and evaluation from the instructor. "My first speech was about the parking problem on campus," explained Russell;

Most of it was extemporaneous, but some ideas were written down that I wanted to hit -- which I read. That was hard -- to jump from one mode or aspect to another. He [instructor] really liked that I talked about something relevant and that I used for a visual aid something that everyone could put their hands on -- the student paper. I did pretty well on that one -- got a "B" -- but I don't think that was my best speech.

The second assignment was the speech which Russell considered his ". . . personal best, even though this was not [his] best grade." Russell appeared to enjoy talking about this speech, and made many references to it throughout the interview process, using this performance as a reference point for all future speeches:

My second speech was about skiing. I think he [instructor] may have thought it was a memorized speech. I didn't know what I was going to say; I just knew how I was going to say it, what I was going to cover first, second and third. Whatever came out of my mouth is just what I said. It wasn't exact -- I mean, I couldn't give the same speech twice. But I could go in the same order. That's the way I like to give speeches. You give good eye contact; you don't have to fumble through papers. But it's not memorized, either, where the guy is just speaking in a monotone like he's reading straight out of a book.

On another occasion, Russell compared his upcoming speech with his second speech, hoping he would feel and perform the same way:

I want to feel comfortable in this one, like I did on the ski speech. Slowly, I am becoming more comfortable, I think. On the speech I did on the skiing, I couldn't believe it. I just -- wham-- I didn't have to blink, I didn't have to think. It didn't matter who I looked at or how I looked at them. It just came right out -- unbelievable! I even amazed myself.

Despite his positive feelings regarding this speech, Russell did not receive his best grade for this assignment, apparently because he had failed to discuss the history of skiing, an instructor requirement which Russell claimed to know nothing about until after he had delivered the speech. Further, Russell suspected that his instructor thought that

the speech was memorized since Russell used no notes in the delivery of his speech. It must be noted, however, that these evaluative comments were not documented in any way; the investigator requested copies of the instructor's evaluations and comments for all speeches, but Russell did not supply any documents to back up his oral reports about the instructor's evaluations and comments.

It was Russell's third speech in SPC 1014, the group speech, which earned him his best grade, an "A." Yet this was not the speech effort about which Russell felt the most favorable:

I liked the group speech, but I would have wanted a smaller group. I like giving solo speeches best, but the group does give some security. Still, by yourself, you're not as limited as you are with the group speech. In group speeches, you have to make sure that your part fits in with everyone else's parts.

Russell was asked to discuss the reasons he believed he received a better grade on this speech than on his "solo performances." His response provided some reinforcement for his earlier observation that he tends not to be rewarded for his personal work, but receives the most positive recognition as a member of a team:

I really can't understand it, because my part was pretty much read right off the page. I wasn't as familiar with the subject [water treatment techniques] as I was with my own topics, so I had to write a lot of notes and look at them pretty often. The transitions were ad libbed, though. . . . I guess the grade for that speech being better than for my solo speeches had to do with teamwork. We worked together and that might have helped the grade. You don't necessarily have

to come up with the topic, and that's the hardest part for me. I guess we had a good topic, and we covered it well, and that's what he [instructor] liked.

It is likely a significant finding that, despite the fact that Russell received his highest grade for a speech delivered in the manuscript mode of delivery, he was unwilling to use this delivery method in his final speech. Instead, Russell approached the composition of his fourth and final speech with the intention of using the extemporaneous method, because, in his words, "it feels the best." Interestingly, Russell did not indicate that his decision to use extemporaneous delivery for his last speech had to do with the fact that the instructor "required" this method; apparently, Russell had learned through the second and third assignment that this was a requirement which could be waved at the instructor's discretion.

The foregoing is a synopsis of Russell's relevant oral communication experiences up to the point of the interview process. While it is certainly not exhaustive of the subject's experience with oral communication, Russell's speaking autobiography represents those incidents and issues which he believed to be most expressive of his background and identity as a "successful student speaker." The remainder of this case study investigates the strategies, thoughts, feelings and attitudes which Russell had and the behaviors he exhibited with regard to the

speech he was in the process of composing during the weeks of the interview.

Speech Strategies

Before he enrolled in SPC 1014, Russell had no well formed public speaking strategies. Although he had had favorable experiences in oral communication in his ninth grade drama class, none of the assignments he performed in this class were pre-prepared speeches or reports. In the drama class he had learned to develop his skills in impromptu speaking and improvisation, but had not studied methods of formal speech composition. Later in high school, Russell had his only other pre-college experience with public speaking: the eleventh grade book report. According to Russell, he received no instruction in speech or oral report preparation prior to the assignment; thus, he attempted to approach this formal speaking situation as he had approached the informal impromptu exercises in his drama class. This clearly was an inappropriate strategy, and Russell's efforts met with little success, either by his own or by his teacher's estimation. Russell entered SPC 1014 unsure of what would be expected of him, but "willing to learn how to give a speech properly."

Throughout the interview, Russell commented that he felt that the textbook used in SPC 1014 had ". . . given [him] a lot of help, a lot of advice about how to prepare for a speech." Russell also cited the advice and

requirements of his instructor on several occasions, admitting that, even though he was often unsure of ". . . what he [instructor] wanted," he had learned some new strategies from class lectures, as well. Yet another resource which Russell reportedly made use of in creating his own repertory of public speaking strategies was the example of fellow classmates. In one interview, Russell commented:

I'm really starting to pick things up from the other speeches in class. Like today, I was watching this one guy give his speech. He used a visual aid, but then he took it down when he was finished talking about it. I thought, 'that's a really good thing to do, because that way it forces the audience to give their attention back to you.' You see, I'm really paying attention, and I think you learn how to give speeches by watching what others do.

Thus, even though Russell entered SPC 1014 without speech composition strategies, by the time of the interview process, he had assembled a relatively structured set of composition and delivery methods. Russell's first observation concerning his speech composition strategies seems overly simple at first, but it represents perhaps the greatest modification in this student's method as a result of taking SPC 1014: "I tend to do better on speeches I work harder on, and with topics I know more about." This revelation indicates that Russell moved beyond simply relying upon the improvisational skills he learned in drama class, toward formally composing messages in advance.

From the first assignment, Russell understood from the book, the instructor and the syllabus that the preferred method of composition and delivery was extemporaneous. Each of Russell's four speeches was prepared in a slightly different manner. Nevertheless, each method may be seen as falling along a continuum of more or less extemporaneous. For Russell's first speech, he prepared rather extensive notes, writing out information which he believed he was likely to forget in the pressure of the public speaking situation. During the speech, Russell found the temptation of referring to his notes distracting; he felt awkward about ". . . having to jump back and forth between [his] notes and what [he] was able to talk about without notes." His second speech, he believed, represented his mastery of the extemporaneous mode because he was able to speak fluently, without any notes. His third speech was only minimally extemporaneous, according to Russell. Although he improvised transitions between his main points, Russell reported that he read directly from a manuscript when he was relating the information of this speech.

When asked whether he ever wrote the entire text of his speech, Russell denied the practice of writing the entire speech, essay fashion. Explaining his typical compositional method, Russell said,

I guess I do write some of it out first, to get an idea of what I'm going to say. I write out paragraphs for each main point, just to get an idea of what I want to say about the highlights of

the subject. Then I make, not really an outline, but a speaking outline . . . key words that will remind me of what I want to say next. But I don't try to memorize any of it.

On yet another occasion, Russell explained:

When I pick a topic, I could sit here and talk to you about it. But the information about some more technical things, things I'd have a hard time remembering like statistics, I'll have to write those down. But people don't really expect you to know those things off the top of your head.

Russell believed that if he wrote the entire speech, he would be too limited in his delivery; he would not be able to select the words or examples which seemed to be the most appropriate for the speaking situation. Yet he realized that some degree of preparation was necessary if he was to be perceived as confident and credible by his audience. Effective speech making, Russell learned, relies upon thorough preparation. When Russell was asked to estimate the time frame within which he typically prepares for a speech, he responded that he ". . . think[s] about the speech pretty continuously, from the time it's assigned until it's due." However, Russell did reveal that he often postpones formal work on the speech until the night before it is due:

I don't generally schedule when I will work on it, or any of my homework, for that matter. I do procrastinate. I wait to see how it develops, but I am thinking about it all the time. I have stayed up late -- until two o'clock -- the night before, but I'm usually just fine-tuning the ideas I had hit upon. If I'm working on an idea I like for a speech, sleep doesn't matter to me.

Indeed, as will be seen in section five, Russell employed this method of waiting until the night before the speech was due throughout the duration of the class. When Russell was asked to explain why he does not formally prepare the speech in advance of this time, he replied that he ". . . can't get motivated to work seriously on it until the night before."

Unlike many speakers, Russell reported that he does not practice his speeches before he delivers them for the intended audience. To do so, he believed, violates the definition of extemporaneous delivery:

[Do you practice your speech at all before you actually give it in class?] No. These are supposed to be extemporaneous speeches. You'll never say it the same way twice. If it was written out, that may be different. But you can't set exact wording -- if you worked it out, you would be memorizing.

As will be discussed in section five, Russell was quite comfortable with the practice of oral composition, and reported that he sometimes ". . . trie[d] ideas and ways of saying them out on [his] roommate." This ability and willingness to compose orally in a spontaneous fashion, displayed by few subjects in this study, may account for Russell's apparent unconcern for written preparation documents or formal practice sessions.

Although Russell would likely observe that his success as a speaker stems largely from his ability to speak extemporaneously, adapting his message to the needs and

mood of the situation, throughout the interview process he did generalize a few rhetorical strategies which he believed helped him succeed as a speaker: (1) the selection of an appropriate topic, (2) the use of visual aids, (3) the importance of information, (4) the value of "wit" or humor, and (5) the use of relevant or familiar material. While some of these rules were derived from the textbook or from his instructor's directions, Russell indicated that he derived the majority of his rhetorical strategies from observing other speakers or from self evaluation of his own speeches. Other rules expressed by the textbook or the instructor, such as maintenance of a minimum and maximum time limit, preparation of an outline, use of a specified number of sources, or adherence to content restrictions, Russell rejected as being unimportant or arbitrary.

(1) Selection of an Appropriate Topic. When describing his preparation strategies, Russell emphasized the importance of the topic selection stage. Although he believed this was the part of speech composition which gave him the greatest trouble, he also believed that his success would be determined in large part by his proper selection of a topic.

According to Russell, the ideal topic is
". . . something you already know a lot about, or something you really want to learn about." Russell cited two

examples which supported his rule: Russell believed his second speech was successful because he knew so much about the topic of skiing that he could speak about it authoritatively, without the need of many notes; he believed his third speech was successful because he was very interested in the topic of water pollution treatment, had performed much outside research, and provided the audience with much information on the subject.

Russell's strategy for selecting the "right" topic was rather unorthodox, yet was a formalized part of his composing process. He rejected the more conventional methods of topic selection typically recommended by speech texts and instructors: perusing the news for topical issues, assessing personal interests and skills, browsing the Reader's Guide; instead, Russell waited for the topic to "find him." He explained that he waited for the topic to make itself known to him through daily events. For example, he discovered the topic for his second speech when he tripped over one of his skis; he decided to speak about four-wheel drive vehicles only after he had gotten stuck in soft sand; he was inspired to prepare a speech about campus parking after seeing a cartoon about Orlando's traffic problems in the student newspaper. Russell reasoned that by waiting for the topic to "strike him," he is able to relax about the speech, assured that the topic he selects

will be something which is already a part of his life or something which he finds noteworthy.

Once he has decided upon his topic, Russell explained that he performs only as much research as he feels necessary to bring his knowledge level to a point ". . . just above what the average person would know." For some topics, this means simply relying upon his personal knowledge of the subject, but for other topics, like the water pollution speech, Russell performed a "great deal of research." Russell reported that he prefers to use periodicals as research sources, although he did not have a specific reason for this preference. Asked whether he ever cites the source of his research in the speech, Russell responded that he never mentions a source in his speech, but does list his resources in the mandatory bibliography which is turned in to the instructor.

(2) Use of Visual Aids. Russell commented that he felt most comfortable speaking when he had a visual aid to help him explain his ideas. In fact, Russell used visual aids in all but one of the speeches he delivered in SPC 1014. Asked why he used visual aids in his speeches, Russell explained:

I like visual aids when I listen to speeches because they help you understand ideas more clearly. In most speeches that I give, I like to use visual aids. I don't like to talk with my hands -- I'd rather point to something and show something. Sometimes, it saves the amount of

explanation you have to give. It's like, do you describe what a slalom ski looks like? Isn't it better to say, 'here it is'?

Russell was asked to specify the type of materials which make the best visual aids. He drew upon his own speeches, in which he believed he made effective use of visual aids for supporting material:

In my first speech, my visual aid was kind of small, but it was very effective. I used the cartoon I saw in the Future that talked about the traffic problems in Orlando. That was really effective, not because everyone could necessarily see it, but because everyone could leave the class and get a paper and see it for themselves. . . . In my ski speech, I used the actual thing -- the ski. I also drew some pictures to show skiing techniques. But in the group speech, I couldn't use visual aids, first of all, because it would have looked bad if I was the only one with them-- it would make the others in the group look bad, but also because I had so many different things to cover in my subject, that I would have needed too many visual aids to have one for each type of water treatment method.

While objects, pictures and models make effective visual aids in Russell's estimation, graphs and charts do not. Russell explained why he never used graphic representations of information in his speeches saying, "Charts bore me; charts and graphs are just statistics made into a visual aid. I'd rather explain the statistics in words than to show a bunch of numbers which don't mean a lot to a lot of people." Nevertheless, Russell believed that statistics, used properly in a speech, added much to the effectiveness of the communication.

(3) Importance of Information. For Russell, "information" is synonymous with "statistics," the form of supporting material which he believed makes a speaker sound ". . . like [he has] done research, like [he knows] what [he is] talking about, like [he understands] the whole picture." Despite his preference for statistical information, Russell cautioned,

I use percentages, but I try not to be repetitive, I try not to use them to excess. I just want to make it clear that I am telling facts--statistics sound more credible.

It is interesting to note that at no time during the interview process did Russell discuss his deliberate use of any other forms of supporting materials, although it was clear to the interviewer as he related the composition process of his up-coming speech that, at least in the last speech, Russell made extensive use of example and analogy for support of his points. Still, until the end of the interview process, Russell continued to equate information and support with statistical evidence alone.

(4) Use of Wit and Humor. Russell's belief in the value of humor and "quick-wittedness" in public speaking was revealed in his observation about the effectiveness of other speakers, and in his projection of how he would like to be perceived as an oral communicator. When Russell was asked whether there were speakers whom he saw as models of effective communication, he responded quickly:

Yes, a good public speaker is quick witted -- like Ronald Regan. You know how he is: someone asks him a question or throws out a comment to him and he answers them right back with a joke or some witty remark. That makes an audience respect you. It also makes the audience feel more comfortable if it looks like you're in control. That's how I want to look to an audience. Like someone who is quick at thinking on his feet, and a good sense of humor.

In a later interview, Russell voiced the opinion that speech instruction should make greater use of impromptu exercises because students need to "learn how to think on their feet." "You need to teach students to be quick witted," Russell observed; he believed that his drama training was responsible for whatever ability he had to integrate spontaneous humor and wit into his own speeches. Russell also voiced the belief that the success of his second speech lay in his full use of the extemporaneous mode of delivery which allowed him to interject appropriate and situation-relevant humor and asides in the preconceived content of his message.

(5) Use of Familiar and Relevant Material. Russell's strategy of using familiar and relevant material was carried through his speech composition process, from selection of topic, through creation of support and evidence, to delivery of the speech. When Russell was asked to express in a brief statement his strategy for success as a public speaker, he replied: "Choose topics as you know them -- stick with things you know." Russell

explained that topics which are familiar and of interest to the speaker will not only be the easiest for the speaker to discuss, but they will most likely be topics which the audience will find most interesting. Perhaps Russell believed this because, at the time of the interviews, he had only addressed audiences of his peers, who were likely to share beliefs, interests and experiences with him. Having only experience in addressing heterogeneous audiences, Russell's audience analysis apparently consisted of extrapolating the audience's interests from his own.

When selecting examples, visual aids, statistics or other forms of evidence for his speech, Russell reportedly paid close attention to the familiarity of the material he employed. For example, in a speech about campus parking, Russell said his "best" example was a story about his friend who had received multiple parking tickets on campus:

They could all relate to that because everyone at one time has tried to find a parking space when they were late to class, and just decided to park anywhere and risk the ticket.

In that same speech, Russell employed the student newspaper cartoon for a visual aid because it was evidence to which every one of his listeners had direct access. In yet another speech, Russell employed statistics, but made an effort to simplify them, to put them in laymen's terms: in his speech about water pollution treatment techniques, Russell chose to express raw number data in terms of percentages because ". . . percentages are more meaningful

to the listener." As will be discussed in section five, Russell made extensive use of example and analogy in his final speech in an effort to make a potentially unfamiliar topic more understandable for his audience. It is important to note that Russell's comments about the use of evidence suggest that his choice of common place over more abstract support was deliberate.

Even in his plans for speech delivery, Russell expressed a desire to be "natural" and "normal." Asked whether he has any special techniques for delivering a speech, Russell responded:

No, I've never really done anything special. I like to come across as confident, but not too confident, because then I think you have a better chance of messing up. I like to be semi-confident. I never come around from behind the table, although I think that would be a good thing to do if you were giving a very personal or casual talk. I don't really like to use a lot of gestures, because that takes away from me as the center point. Occasionally, I'll catch myself using my hands too much, and I'll just fold my arms or something.

Later, in the final interview, Russell summarized his philosophy about public communication:

Feeling comfortable -- that's the key. The more you give, the more comfortable you get. There are some who just can't give speeches, no matter what, and they probably shouldn't have to. But I can do it just fine, especially if I know the people in the audience. I know the people in this class-- this helps.

For Russell, the word "feeling" has an important meaning with regard to his success as a public speaker. He must "feel" comfortable with his topic; he must "feel" in the

mood to prepare his speech; he must have a "feel" for the situation and the audience in order to know how to compose his message; he wishes to "feel" in control of himself and his material while speaking; and most of his post-speech, self-evaluative comments were expressed in terms of "feelings."

Feelings and Attitudes About Speech

In an effort to determine Russell's general attitudes toward the public speaking process, he was asked what his largest concern was, both when preparing a speech and when delivering a speech. Russell's response corresponded to his avowed preference for extemporaneous speech composition. According to Russell, when preparing for a speech, his main concern is the audience:

I want them to understand it the way I understand it, to feel the way I feel, to understand my feelings.

Although the primary focus of his attention does not shift away from the audience while he is delivering the speech, Russell admitted that when speaking, part of his concern is focused upon himself: "I do think of myself, somewhat, when I am speaking. I don't want to look like an idiot up there." It is important to note that Russell never mentioned the message as a focus of concern either during the preparation or delivery phases of the speech. Nor did Russell express the sentiment that he was more concerned with the opinion of his instructor than with that of other

audience members. Indeed, it will be shown in section five that Russell intended to deliver his fourth speech in the same manner that he had delivered his second speech, even though this speech did not earn him his highest grade. Nevertheless, Russell apparently valued the "good feeling" which totally extemporaneous delivery gave him over the higher grade which manuscript delivery was able to earn.

Russell's expressed attitudes toward the process of public speaking were generally positive. During the interview sessions, Russell usually concluded his reports about his past speeches by saying "I enjoyed this speech" or "I learned a lot from this speech." At no time did Russell express the sentiment that he had failed at any of his speech efforts in his college class even though there clearly were some performances which he considered better than others. The only misgivings which Russell expressed concerning a speech in SPC 1014 related to the final speech assignment, the persuasive speech which he was in the process of composing during the interviews. "I'm not looking forward to it because I don't like persuading people." Russell complained. Russell's thoughts and feelings concerning this assignment will be discussed in detail in the following section.

Russell's opinion of the value of speech training, specifically the requirement of SPC 1014, seemed to change during the course of the interview process. During early

interviews, Russell expressed the view that courses in speech are a necessary part of any college curriculum. In fact, Russell suggested in his second interview that the speech requirement be expanded to a full year, provided some of his recommended modifications in the curriculum be instituted:

[Should speech be a required course?] Yes, definitely. You should be able to speak in front of a small group of people. I wouldn't even argue against two semesters of speech, but I think then that the second semester should be a larger class so that you get experience in speaking to groups of one hundred and fifty, or more. . . .

However, by the last interview, Russell's opinion of the value of his speech class seemed to have changed:

[What are your final impressions of this class?] I don't see how the class will ever help me. I'm glad it's over.

It should be noted that Russell's dissatisfaction with the speech course may have been prompted by his recent receipt of his final grade in the course. While Russell expected a "B" because he had received grades of "A" and "B" on his speech assignments, he had earned a "C" in the class:

I'm not happy with the grade I received in the class. Overall, I got a "C" but my speeches were all "B's" and "A's." But there were two tests, outlines and sources and a paper we had to write about how we thought the audience would react to our persuasive speech. I don't think he ever really explained the assignments fully, I didn't know what I was supposed to do.

Nevertheless, Russell's negative feelings about his class were tempered by his admission that training in speech could be important no matter one's career:

But then, I may have to use it some day. One time my dad -- he works for NASA -- he had to give a talk to twenty five people, and when he got there, he had two hundred and fifty people waiting for him. So I guess you never know when you'll have to give a public speech.

With this final observation, Russell completed his series of interviews.

Throughout the interview process, Russell's evaluation of himself as a speaker was relatively unchanged. Even when he learned that he had earned a "C" for the course, Russell did not appear to doubt the belief he expressed early in the interview process -- that he was an effective oral communicator. One incident which Russell related during the final interview serves as an excellent example of this student's self-image as a speaker. Russell recounted how during his last speech a member of his audience, a young man sitting in the front, laughed and shook his head the entire time that Russell delivered his speech. The investigator asked Russell whether this behavior on the part of an audience member had disconcerted or concerned him while speaking. Russell responded:

Well, yea; I wondered what he was reacting to. So after the speech, I asked and he told me that he had just bought a four-wheel drive and that I sounded just like the salesman who sold it to him. I guess I timed the speech just right for him.

Russell's interpretation of this incident demonstrates well his self-assurance as a speaker. Rather than assuming that the noisy audience member was a heckler, or believing, as many inexperienced speakers might, that he had done or said

something inappropriate, Russell assumed that the audience member was providing him with feedback. Rather than ignore the obvious attempts of the audience member to communicate with him, Russell sought out the young man and offered to continue discussion of the topic with him even after the formal speech was over.

As reported in section two, Russell's score on the PRCA-24 instrument placed him within the mid-range of apprehension scores for the sampling pool of this study. However, communication apprehension, nervousness, stage fright or fear were rarely if ever mentioned by Russell during the course of his interviews. When Russell did refer to feelings of nervousness associated with giving speeches, it was usually expressed in positive rather than negative terms; in other words, Russell spoke more about things that made him feel comfortable or confident while speaking than about things that made him feel nervous or apprehensive. Even in Russell's most direct reference to a specific anxiety he experiences while speaking was expressed in rather positive, active terms:

I like talking one on one more than to groups, because I like to look at the person I'm talking to. I like to be able to judge how well they are understanding me. But when I give a speech, eye contact is hard. I guess I really just look through people, not at them. I don't make eye contact with everyone. Sometimes I pick out one or two people and look at them. Not everyone reacts the same way, so if I try to look at everyone, then I have to try to adjust to what they are all saying to me with their expressions.

As mentioned earlier, for Russell, the most important lesson learned in speech class was that he became more confident and competent with each successive attempt. By embracing the extemporaneous method of composition, by learning about his fellow classmates through their speeches, and by repeatedly practicing the skills of oral communication, Russell believed he could overcome any nervousness which an inexperienced speaker "naturally" possesses. "Feeling comfortable -- that's the key. The more you give, the more comfortable you get," Russell concluded.

Relating the Speech Process

In his first interview session, Russell reported that his next speech assignment was a persuasive speech. He revealed that he was uncomfortable about the upcoming assignment:

I'm uncomfortable about persuading. If you force people, that's bad, so I'm kind of pessimistic about this speech. But I'll still do my best.

Russell also revealed that his roommate, a student in the same class, had delivered his persuasive speech that day and had "bombed" because he had not thoroughly prepared for the speech in advance. Russell was determined that he would not fail the assignment simply because of lack of preparation.

However, at this meeting, Russell had no idea of the topic of his speech. He reasoned that his speech was not

due for almost two weeks; he had enough time remaining to prepare adequately. It was at this time that Russell first revealed his "method" of topic selection: "I have no idea of my topic -- I'm waiting to have a topic jump out at me." Russell expressed confidence that a topic would reveal itself in time for him to perform the necessary research and preparation.

During this first interview, Russell also discussed his plans for composition and delivery of his upcoming speech. He revealed that he intended to use the extemporaneous method of delivery, preparing only a few brief notes to jog his memory. Further, he did not expect to pre-write or practice the speech in its entirety. "I know it sounds funny, but I do better thinking about my speech, making it up mentally. Sometimes I think about it when I'm cutting the grass. I get all my ideas worked out, then I just go in and make a few notes," Russell explained.

By the second interview, held the following week, Russell's misgivings about the assignment had grown. He complained:

I think this speech should be more informative. Persuasion is like forcing. I don't like to force anyone, I guess because I was forced to do some things and I resented it. I've had a really difficult time coming up with a topic that I could persuade people on.

It was clear from Russell's comments that he equated persuasion with manipulation and coercion. The interviewer

explored his feelings about persuasion with a series of questions:

[What kinds of things are persuasive?] Information, if it's unbiased. If I can tell that somebody's just giving one sided of the story, then I just block them out.

[Do you think that other people find unbiased information to be persuasive?]

No, you shouldn't give both sides in a persuasive speech. They might use the information you give against you, to dispute what you're trying to get them to do. I mean, you don't want to tell them the disadvantages of what you're trying to convince them of. I don't think that he [instructor] would like it if we gave the other side from what we believe in. That wouldn't be persuasion, that would be an informative speech.

[Do you think you would ever use persuasion in a 'real life' setting?]

In work maybe. I could go to a client and show the high points of a certain product or my idea. But I wouldn't show the low points; that's shooting yourself in the foot.

[Is persuasion dishonest?]

Yes. Persuasion can be deceiving. You see, I automatically think that all persuaders are dishonest; therefore, I won't get caught by them. Mr. A [instructor] doesn't ever talk about this in class. I don't know, maybe after this speech I'll be more willing to here persuasive speeches and to give them.

It is clear from Russell's responses to these questions that he had serious misgivings about the ethicacy of the persuasive speech assignment, as he understood it. Although he wanted to perform the assignment "correctly," he felt uncomfortable about delivering biased information to his audience. The dilemma revolved around Russell's understanding of persuasion as a one-sided appeal for action. Apparently the issue of one-sided versus two-

sided persuasive arguments, a debate within the field of speech theory with a rich heritage and an extensive literature (Hovland, Lumsdaine & Sheffield, 1949; and others), had not been discussed in Russell's speech class. "Maybe I should just persuade people not to persuade," Russell concluded, "but that wouldn't really be right either."

Despite his negative feelings about the assignment, however, Russell reported during the second interview that he had selected a topic and had begun "thinking through" his upcoming speech. In an effort to find a topic which would not have moral overtones, Russell settled upon:

Four-wheel drives. I think I'll persuade them to buy one. I got stuck in the sand and thought how it helped me get out and how others could use one around here with all the dirt parking lots.

Russell explained that he had not committed any part of his speech to writing or memory, but that he had talked to his roommate about his topic. His speech, he believed, was "pretty well thought through." Russell then began to deliver, without the aid of notes, a sample of what he expected would be the introduction of his speech:

'Picture yourself coming to school at five minutes 'til ten. Your class is at ten o'clock. You're hurrying around and you're driving all up and down the parking lots and can't find any spots and you see the dirt parking lot and you remember your friend John or you know somebody else who gets stuck and they had to pay the towing service to come pull them out,' and all that and go into four-wheel drives that way, or, you know, then again, you could go into it as a business:
'Imagine sitting on Daytona Beach and watching the

tourists come down and maybe they'll get stuck, and pulling them out and being able to not really take their money, but to provide a service to them at a reduced rate as over a wrecker,' or something like that. There's many ways I'm looking at it right now. I'm not set.

After his introduction, Russell said that he intended to make it clear to the audience that he wished "to persuade or mostly to inform them as to reasons -- needs for a four-wheel drive. I'm sure a few people haven't heard about them, so I'm going to bring it out, to tell their advantages." Russell explained that he planned to organize his speech around the advantages of four-wheel drive vehicles, but that he did not think that he should mention any disadvantages. "I'd want to hear both," Russell admitted, "but if you mention a disadvantage you're cutting your own throat."

Asked whether he anticipated any opposition or disagreement to his message, Russell responded that he did expect that some would disagree with him. However, he believed that he probably would never know how his audience felt on the issue since there was no question and answer period following this round of speeches. Russell was asked whether he would try to anticipate and respond to possible objections in his speech. Although he said he had not planned to do so, he admitted, "It's something to think about." Russell continued:

I know right now that people will worry about the cost, but you pay for it now or pay for it later. I feel strongly that each family should

have at least one four-wheel drive vehicle. But I don't know whether to discuss cost, since that might scare them off.

Again, Russell wrestled with the one-sided/two-sided message dilemma, but did not have theory-based information about persuasion strategy to help him make a decision.

Russell returned to his oral composition once again, to provide a sample of the conclusion he intended to deliver in class:

In conclusion, I hope I've helped you better understand the aspects of a 4-wheel drive vehicle, whether it be a car or a truck, and the ways that it helps if you ever become in a situation that you can't do anything about.

By giving voice to his ideas in this way, even before the structure of his speech was formalized, Russell was able to hear the logic of his thoughts. It is probably significant that Russell composed his introduction and conclusion before he gave voice to the body of his speech: in so doing, he was forced to decide upon a specific thesis or focus for his speech and to summarize in a brief statement the content he expected to cover. Notable is the fact that during this interview session, Russell made no attempt to compose or even discuss any of the points or arguments he intended to include in the speech.

In the third interview, held the day before his speech was to be presented in class, Russell discussed his plans for completing the composition of his speech. Although Russell was asked to bring to this meeting any notes,

recordings, manuscripts or other material he had produced in preparation for the speech, he arrived at the meeting site without any tangible evidence of speech preparation.

Nevertheless, Russell assured the interviewer that he had almost completed preparation for the speech, still affirming that his composition method was "mental." Russell anticipated that he would finish "getting the speech together" that night:

I'll go home -- while I'm mowing the yard -- and think about it. I'll plan my strategies. I know that there is some info about the new four-wheel drive cars and trucks that I'll have to write down, because I don't think I can remember it all, but that's all I plan to write down.

Russell was asked where he would find the information about the "new four-wheel drives" that he planned to relate in his speech. He responded that he planned to read and paraphrase articles in a specialty magazine to which he subscribes; however, Russell denied that he would cite the magazine as the source of his information in the body of his speech. Instead, Russell intended only to list the magazine on the bibliography which was to be turned in to the instructor.

In addition to preparing the bibliography, Russell indicated that he would prepare the mandatory outline which also was to be turned in to the instructor. He did not anticipate writing these documents until "just before class." Russell reasoned that to prepare the outline earlier than immediately before delivering the speech might

hinder his ability to adjust and refine his speech up the last moment, as he preferred to do:

If I write the outline tonight, I may think of something in the morning that I want to say, or decide to change the whole speech around. Then I would have to re-write the outline. If I wait until just before class, there's a better chance that I will have the speech all set in my mind and that I won't be making any major last minute changes.

It is apparent that Russell viewed the formal outline as useful only insofar as it fulfilled the instructor's requirements for the assignment. It is necessary to note that Russell reported on earlier occasions that he sometimes prepared an informal, "key word" outline for himself which helped him maintain his intended structure while speaking. This personal outline was never seen by the instructor; indeed, Russell was unable or unwilling to produce an example of these documents for the investigator, despite several requests to do so. Russell completed this interview by returning to his feelings of discomfort about the practice of persuasion. He explained that he had spent time thinking about the nature of persuasive speech as opposed to the nature of informative speech and had concluded that, "Informative and persuasive speeches are really kind of the same. It's just that in informative, both positive and negative sides are given, but in persuasive, only the positive side is." Russell had resolved his personal dilemma by deciding to "give an informative speech about four-wheel drives"; he had decided

that he could only maintain his ethics if he discussed both the positive and negative aspects of the topic. Russell believed that in presenting both sides of the issue, he might be seriously compromising his grade:

I don't think teachers want to hear the negative parts when you're trying to persuade an audience to do something. But I do think that if I were in an audience listening to a persuasive speech, I would respond better to both the positive and negative sides being discussed.

Despite his fears of failing to satisfy the instructor's expectations, Russell was determined to present both sides of his topic, to give what he perceived to be an informative speech.

In Russell's final interview session, he discussed the outcome of his final speech assignment. Russell had thought that he deserved "about a B" for the speech, and indeed, that is the grade he received. Russell did not believe that he had performed as well for this assignment as he had for his informative speech about skiing:

I was confident going into the speech, but not overly confident. The speech was short, but I didn't want to drag it out longer than it needed to be. I stumbled two times, not serious; I made a joke of it and that seemed to put the audience at ease, and me too. After the speech, I didn't feel as good about this as the ski speech. I had to look at the paper some; I didn't know the subject as well as skiing. I'm glad it's over; I still like informative [speaking] better.

The informative speech was to remain his personal model of excellence.

Although Russell had promised the interviewer that he would bring to the final session copies of the outline, bibliography, speaking notes and instructor's evaluation, he arrived at the last interview without any documents. Russell explained that, the semester being over, he had inadvertently disposed of all his materials from speech class when he cleaned his home. No documents, therefore, would be available for examination in this case study.

Despite the lack of written material, Russell attempted to relate a full account of what he had covered in the speech. He explained,

I said the introduction pretty much as I told you before. Then, in the main part of the speech, I used situations relevant to campus: getting stuck in the dirt parking lots, attending a division two, double A game and there's no parking except next to a big mud hole. . . . Then I said, 'But that's O.K. You just push your car into four-wheel drive and go right on through the sand or the mud. What? You don't have a four-wheel drive? Well let me tell you a few things about them.'

Later, Russell explained how he addressed the possible objections which audience members might have had about the subject:

I ended up saying that four-wheel drives may not be needed by everyone, all the time. I tried to answer their questions or arguments without actually raising them for them. In other words, I gave them information that would have answered some people's objections without having to actually bring up the objection, myself. But I think that the situations I talked about -- the times when a four-wheel drive would be helpful-- I think that almost everyone could relate to them,

so hopefully not too many people were completely negative about it.

Russell had discovered on his own a theoretically sound strategy which represented a compromise in the one-sided/two-sided message dilemma; he presented both sides of the issue, but demonstrated the relative advantages of one side over the other.

Except for the young man in the front row who laughed during the speech, Russell did not report that he received any feedback about the speech from fellow classmates. Further, except for the grade which he was assigned, Russell said that he did not know how his instructor had reacted to his message. Although he had the opportunity to answer audience questions after his previous speeches delivered in this class, Russell explained that due to lack of time, the question and answer period had been eliminated in this final round of speeches. However, the lack of constructive criticism and feedback after this speech was not out of the ordinary; according to Russell, "We never get the chance to get feedback or criticism about our speech, just questions." When asked whether he would have liked to have known his audience's reaction to his speech, Russell replied that he would, but explained:

I don't think he [instructor] wanted us to get into criticizing each other. He didn't even want us to talk about major controversial issues. That's part of what made picking a topic so hard. I guess he didn't want any fights breaking out.

During this final interview, Russell's overall impressions of the value of the class seemed to change radically, as discussed earlier. His demeanor during the final interview was also quite changed. Far from the enthusiasm he generally displayed for discussing his speech topics and methods, Russell was quite reticent about relating his final speech experience. The information he did provide seemed to be expressed in tentative tones, as if to indicate doubt over the validity of his self-evaluation of his work. Perhaps the fact that he had received a full letter grade lower than he had anticipated for his final grade in SPC 1014 had some bearing on his final comments and impressions.

Case Study 3 -- "Diane"

Background Information

Diane, a nineteen-year-old white female, was enrolled in one of Instructor B's two sections of SPC 1014 during the Fall, 1987 term. Diane came to the University of Central Florida directly after graduating from a high school in the Northeast. At the time of the study, Diane lived with roommates in the campus dormitories.

A sports medicine major, Diane was "forced" to register for SPC 1014 in the first semester of college study because she was closed out of the other general education requirement classes for which she had intended to register; "I never would have registered for this class now if I

hadn't been closed out of everything else," admitted Diane. Diane had never had a speech class in high school; however, in her twelfth grade English class she was required to give several speeches. Diane had anticipated that her college-level speech class would be similar to that English class; this expectation caused her a great deal of anxiety, according to Diane, because she had "hated giving speeches" in her English class. Nevertheless, Diane related that she had performed well in this high school English class. Diane said that she entered college ". . . knowing that [she] was a good writer and a good speaker."

By the time of the first interview, Diane had already delivered three speeches in SPC 1014. She had earned "B's" for all her assignments; however, on one speech which had originally received the grade of "A" she was penalized one letter grade because she had not adhered to the time limit and had not followed her outline to the letter. The speech which Diane was in the process of composing during the weeks of the interview was a group speech (See Appendix A for description of group speech assignment).

On the PRCA-24 instrument, Diane scored 32, placing her within the low-range of apprehension scores for the sample described in Chapter Three. For the purpose of this study, Diane was considered to have a "low" level of communication apprehension.

Speaking Autobiography

Diane began relating her speaking autobiography with the observation, "I don't mind giving speeches at all." Indeed, later in the interview process, Diane admitted that she ". . . even look[s] forward to giving speeches in class." However, she revealed that this had not always been the case; some of her experiences with public speaking in one high school class had been unpleasant, had made her feel uncertain about her ability to effectively communicate in a formal speech setting.

Nevertheless, the overall portrait which Diane created of herself was that of a competent, assertive, involved, communicative young woman. During the course of the interviews, the investigator found Diane eager to relate her experiences, attitudes and strategies. With only minimal prompting, Diane thoroughly discussed each topic suggested by the investigator, and often initiated relevant topics on her own. Diane's cooperation with the project was not complete: she often failed to keep appointments, necessitating slight modifications in the four-week interview schedule.

The first communication experiences which Diane related involved school. "I used to be shy from when I started talking up until kindergarten," Diane remembered, "but ever since I've been in school, I've been real talkative-- always talking." Diane spoke of school in very positive

terms. She related that she had always been a good student, and had always liked and respected her teachers:

I always got along with my teachers -- always. I guess I could always see others acting up, you know, misbehaving, and I would always see the teacher having a bad time with that, and I would feel bad, and even when I was little -- in kindergarten, first and second grade -- I would see that and I would always just not want to be like that. So I always was just a good little girl.

Even a potentially negative school experience involving a "very mean" elementary teacher, Diane remembered with fondness:

In fourth grade, I had a very mean teacher. She was a good teacher, but a very mean person, and I was always afraid of her. That was the only teacher I was ever afraid of. One day, she was standing over me and I was doing math -- I remember so clear -- and she could see that I was just shaking, and she put her hand on my shoulder and she said, 'You are a very good student; you have nothing to worry about; you don't have to be afraid of me,' and after that we just started talking and everything -- so that helped.

It is clear from this example and others related by Diane that she perceived communication or "talking it over" as the preferred method of resolving interpersonal conflicts. Further, Diane did not report an aversion to initiating communication with another party, even if the other party occupied a position of authority. Later in the first interview, Diane observed:

Sometimes, I'm a little hesitant to go talk to my teachers. But I figure, if you take the time to see them, they have to appreciate that. I'm having some trouble in my biology class right now, so I'm going to go and talk to my professor and let him know. Right now, he doesn't know me

because the class is so big, but I think that once I go to talk to him, he'll know me and understand that I'm taking the class seriously, and he might be able to help me better.

Diane explained that her attitudes about school and her respect for teachers were not ridiculed, but were supported by her peer group. She described her school friends as "the good kids," and claimed that they were the majority in her school. Diane continued:

People in my classes that I was friends with, they didn't like the kids who were really bad. If they saw that someone was bad or misbehaving, they didn't want to associate with them. Not to be stuck up, or anything, but just that they didn't want to be like that. So if you wanted to be liked, if you wanted to have friends, just be yourself and just be good.

It is perhaps noteworthy that Diane spent her entire elementary and secondary school career in the same building, a small public school in the Northeast.

Diane's first memories of public communication in a school setting were of "show and tell" in kindergarten. "I was always wanting to go up and do it," Diane remembered of these early speech opportunities, but she could not remember the content of any of these kindergarten reports. Later in elementary school, beginning in third or fourth grade, Diane remembered that both mandatory and optional oral report assignments were made. She recalled preparing oral reports about history, but could not remember performing the assignments in front of the class. The

optional assignments, speeches about vacations or field trips, Diane remembered more vividly:

We were asked whether we would be willing to come up and tell the class about our vacations or whatever. A lot of people didn't want to do it, but I always did. The more quiet kids were always bad at that, though.

According to Diane's report, her early childhood shyness never manifested itself again. Diane observed that she sees herself as an "involved" person, one who enjoys participation and even leadership in groups:

I always wanted to be involved in something. I got into a couple of plays in junior high school years, and I was on stage and everything. I always volunteered to do things in class, and then I was in student government from ninth to twelfth grade, so I did a lot of speeches for that.

Asked to speculate why she believed she enjoyed involvement in such activities, Diane replied that she had always received encouragement and positive feedback for her efforts:

When I was done, I always felt I had done a good job. People always seemed to appreciate my work, and that feels good.

Despite her willingness to participate in school and extracurricular activities which required oral communication in a public setting, Diane admitted that she occasionally experienced "nervousness" in relation to these situations. "I would be nervous, afraid I wouldn't remember something. But that would only be for the first few minutes, then I started feeling more comfortable," she observed. Diane explained that her belief in her own

abilities as a speaker and a writer helped her to overcome any feelings of apprehension she experienced in public communication situations:

I like to write, and that helps in making a speech, because if you don't know what to say, or how to prepare to write it -- so it's kind of both ways -- a writer and a speaker. I always felt confident about both of those.

Although Diane had many school related experiences with oral communication, she had never taken a speech class before college. In her senior year, however, Diane received some degree of formal speech training within the curriculum of an "advanced placement" English class. Diane described the content of this course as a combination of literature, writing and speech assignments; "This was my roughest class," she admitted.

In Diane's twelfth grade English class, speech assignments were approached in much the same manner as writing assignments. Often, the topic for the speech was assigned to the students. Diane recalled of many of the topics of these speech assignments,

They did not interest me at all; they were speeches about politics and government. Sometimes the teacher would get notice about a speech contest, and we'd have to write a speech as if we were going to enter the contest.

On the few occasions that Diane had been able to select her own topic for her speech in that class, she reportedly found the speech writing and delivery process more enjoyable.

Preparation for speeches in Diane's high school English class involved writing a manuscript speech, submitting the manuscript for editing and grading, memorizing the manuscript, and reciting the speech in front of an audience. Diane was uncertain or failed to remember whether separate grades were assigned for the written manuscript of the speech and the oral delivery of the speech. Her memory was very keen regarding the amount of editing and revision of the speech manuscript which the teacher required each student to perform prior to delivering the speech orally:

She graded the written speech first. That was a lot of preparation. First you had to make an outline of ideas; then, when that was approved, you started writing. You had to turn in several drafts of the speech. She was really picky on grammar and sentence structure. She would always tear our speeches apart. I hated that at the time. It made me so mad. She made it sound like she hated everything about it. Now I realize she was doing us a favor. I learned the mechanics of language from her.

Despite her teacher's attention to the mechanics and content of the speech manuscript, Diane observed, "I never learned how to give a speech -- not the speaking part -- in that class. And delivery is an important part of speaking. I learned style in my college class."

Diane related that during her senior year of highschool she developed rather negative attitudes and behaviors toward speech in a classroom setting, attitudes which would remain with her until college. She remembered:

I did not want to speak. I hated it, hated that class. I just wanted to get out of it. When I had to give a speech, I dreaded it and I got up there and forgot things.

In spite of her self-perceptions, however, Diane's English teacher apparently thought her work was of high quality. Diane remembered two occasions when her teacher had selected her to present a speech outside of the classroom setting, in competition or assembly. The first time, Diane was selected by the teacher as one of two students in the class to enter a national speech contest. Diane declined this offer, offering as explanation that she was too involved in extracurricular activities to take the time to prepare for the contest. The second opportunity, Diane accepted. She recounted:

For my last speech in high school, I was selected by my English teacher to write and memorize a valedictory address -- just like we might give it at graduation -- except we had to deliver it to the faculty, the board of education and some parents during some big meeting. We couldn't have a podium, or anything -- just right out there in the open in front of everyone.

In spite of the negative feelings she had about speech during this period in her schooling, Diane admitted that this extra-classroom speech assignment ". . . helped [her] a lot; helped [her] get over [her] nervousness." Even after delivering many speeches in college, Diane remembered this experience as her crowning achievement in public speaking.

After recounting her communication experiences in elementary and secondary school, Diane turned her consideration to her family. Diane, the youngest of two children, grew up in a household with both parents and one brother. She described a home environment where adults and children interacted freely, where family time together was valued:

We never really emphasized 'Now it's time to talk and be together,' we just did it. My grandparents would come over on weekends for dinner, and we would sit at the table for hours after and play games and talk, and just do things together -- kids and grown-ups.

When asked whether she would describe her family as communicative, Diane responded that she had always found it easy to communicate with her mother and older brother, but that communication with her father had been difficult:

My mom and I always talked, and my brother and I are best friends. . . but my dad and I had a communication problem. We never talked much. That was always a big problem.

Diane reflected upon the lack of communication between her and her father, and in an attempt to provide a reason for the difficulty, responded:

I don't even know. He talked with my brother all right, but that's because they would do things together. I guess sometimes I was . . . I would be jealous or whatever. . . . My mom always said my dad and I are alike, and I always say 'no we're not,' but I guess in a way we are.

Despite the perceived lack of communication between them, Diane admitted that she found it easier to talk to

her father now that she was away from home. She credited the change in relations largely to her father's efforts:

Now that I'm away, he calls me all the time; he writes me letters; he's really trying. I'm happy about that because I guess now I realize we never did communicate before, and I'm sorry for that.

Diane explained that her decision to move away from home for college did not represent a desire to leave her household permanently. She explained that her parents were to move to Florida in a few months, and that she had preceded them in order to establish herself in college before returning to the household. Diane revealed that her decision to move ahead of the family was met with opposition by her father, but that she believed the short separation had actually been instrumental in mending their relationship.

In addition to its proximity to the city to which her parents intended to relocate, Diane said that she had selected her college because of its degree program in sports medicine. Diane portrayed herself as "the athletic type," and explained that she sought a career in sports medicine in order to combine her interest in sports with her aptitude for science. When asked whether she had ever entertained interest in other careers, Diane remembered that she had thought about the legal profession because of her experience in student government and her writing and speaking ability, but had dismissed the idea, fearing that she would find the course of study tedious.

Diane entered her college speech class with strong opinions and well formed expectations about public speaking: speech class would be a continuation of her twelfth grade English class, where she would be expected to write, memorize and recite letter-perfect manuscript speeches. Furthermore, Diane expected to "hate" SPC 1014 as much as she had her speech assignments in high school.

Diane found many of her expectations violated on the first day in her college speech class. In relating the events of that first day, Diane revealed how her attitudes concerning speech changed radically after only one assignment:

The first day we went in, we had an assignment. She [instructor] paired us off, and we had to just write down everything about them. Then after twenty minutes or so we had to go up in front of class and tell what we had learned about them--introduce each other. It was good. A lot of people were funny about it, said funny things and joked around. I knew right then it would be an interesting, fun class.

This impromptu, non-graded assignment served to relax Diane's fears about speech preparation, fears which were born of the rigorous criticism and high standards of her twelfth grade English teacher.

Hesitant to rely solely upon first impressions, however, Diane admitted that she prepared her first graded speech in SPC 1014 in much the same way that she had learned to prepare speeches in high school:

The first speech I did, I wrote the whole thing out. I didn't really know what my new teacher

expected, so I played it safe. I was really nervous because I didn't know how she graded. I just wanted to be really good. I wanted to make sure I knew it, which was hard because, even though I had about a million note cards, you can't read them in the speech. . . .

When Diane received the grade of "B" for this first assignment, she "felt better" about her chances for success in the class. Along with the letter grade, Diane received some written comments from her instructor which encouraged her to adopt a more extemporaneous method in speech preparation.

In addition to the feedback received on her own work, Diane also learned about the instructor's preferences in speech method by observing the performances of (and subsequently learning the grade received by) fellow students, and by witnessing the "model speeches" which her instructor would periodically deliver to the class. The latter Diane found to be the most effective instructional method used by her professor:

She's given a couple of speeches to us to show us some technique. That's good. It gives us an example of a good speech. I've picked up her ideas, some of my friends' ideas, and added them into my own style.

By her second speech, Diane had changed her speech preparation method, writing in full only the introduction and conclusion of her speech, as her instructor required. Diane prepared an outline of "main points" to help her organize her thoughts for the speech, and made no effort to memorize the wording of the body of her message. Diane

believed that she had performed much better on this speech than on her first in the class; indeed, the written comments of the instructor indicated that this speech was received more favorably than the first. However, Diane's grade for this perceived superior effort was virtually the same as for her first. Still, Diane reported that she was satisfied with her grade of "B" for this assignment. Moreover, she was encouraged by the reawakening of confidence which she perceived during the presentation of this speech.

Diane's third speech was her best effort according to her own and her instructor's evaluations. Diane related her feelings regarding this assignment:

I liked this last speech the best because I didn't have to write it all out, and yet I knew what I was going to say. It saved a lot of time in preparation, and yet I knew it thoroughly enough. . . . I thought I did real well on it. I thought I would be embarrassed because it was on 'safe sex,' but I was real serious. But I didn't want to be dead serious, so I put in a little comedy. It helped ease the tension for the audience. And so far, it was my best grade.

Diane would have received an "A" for this speech, had she not committed two "faults" for which she was penalized five points: her speech was one minute and thirty seconds under the prescribed time limit, which deducted three points from her score, and she failed to say her introduction in exactly the same way as she had written it on the outline which she turned in to the instructor, which deducted two points from her original grade. Diane seemed to accept

these penalties unquestioningly, happy that she had presented a speech which "could have been an 'A'."

Perhaps harkening back to her childhood desire to associate with and to please her teachers, Diane expressed almost perfect agreement with the evaluation and grading methods of her present speech instructor. Indeed, Diane was proud that she had performed so well to date in this class. She faced her fourth and final speech assignment in SPC 1014 with the intention of correcting her past performance flaws, and with the hope that she would ". . . earn an 'A' for at least one of [her] assignments."

The foregoing is a synopsis of Diane's relevant oral communication experiences up to the point of the interview process. While it is certainly not exhaustive of the subject's experience with oral communication, Diane's speaking autobiography represents those incidents and issues which she believed to be most expressive of her background and identity as a "successful student speaker." The remainder of this case study investigates the strategies, thoughts, feelings and attitudes which Diane had and the behaviors she exhibited with regard to the speech she was in the process of composing during the weeks of the interview.

Speech Strategies

Diane entered SPC 1014 with well defined public speaking strategies which she had learned in her twelfth

grade English class. However, her level of personal commitment to these strategies was quite low; Diane reported that she was uncomfortable with, actually "hated," the process of speech writing, memorization and recitation which she had been required to practice in her English class. It is not surprising that Diane dramatically altered her speech composition strategies after she learned about the acceptability of other methods. It was with her adoption of the extemporaneous method of composition and delivery that Diane began to view public speaking as a favorable, rewarding activity.

Revealing a preference for caution in ambiguous situations, Diane decided to prepare her first speech in SPC 1014 using the method she had perfected in high school. Diane explained that the first assignment was made early in the semester, before she had an opportunity to carefully study the advantages of other forms of speech delivery. Most importantly, Diane claimed that before the first assignment, she ". . . didn't know what [the instructor] expected" in terms of preparation, content or delivery. In an effort to avoid falling short of the instructor's unexpressed expectations, Diane "over-prepared" the speech:

First, I chose a topic I knew a lot about. This was supposed to be a personal belief speech, so I decided to talk about why I chose sports medicine for my major. I figured that no one would know more about that than me. I used some personal experiences in the speech, but I also did a lot of outside research. Then I wrote the whole thing out, word for word, and memorized the speech, and

I made note cards which weren't really notes; I wrote the whole speech out on the cards so that I could look at them if I forgot any part of it.

According to Diane, the process of writing, memorizing, and attempting to recite the speech while occasionally glancing down to read her manuscript was unnecessarily complicated. With the benefit of hindsight, Diane observed that it is ". . . harder to memorize a speech. If you'd just stop and think about what you're trying to say, it's easier and you're much more clear."

By the second speech assignment, Diane had the opportunity to view the composition and delivery strategies of her instructor and her fellow students, as well as the chance to read more of the speech theory contained in the course text. These three forces proved influential in Diane's personal speech strategy:

The book is basic, and you follow that, but if you add your own technique -- that's good. She's [instructor] given a couple of speeches to us to show us some technique. That's good; it gives us an example of a good speech. I've picked up her ideas, some of my friend's ideas, and added them into my own style.

At the time of the interviews, Diane had delivered two speeches using her "own style" or what she often referred to as ". . . my special way of giving speeches." By this, Diane did not mean simply her preference for preparing and delivering her speeches in the extemporaneous mode, but her conscious use of stylized language and organizational patterns to make her speech distinctive.

When Diane was asked to discuss her preferred method of speech preparation, she described a process which is almost identical to the definition of extemporaneous speech given in the syllabus and text used in SPC 1014 (see Appendix A). On one occasion, Diane explained:

I just more or less write out my main points and then just think about what to say for each of them, and organize them and just put it on my note cards. . . . I like to -- after I've got it pretty well organized and everything -- to go to bed, and then in my head I just say my speech. I'll go over it and over it and over it and make sure I know it. And then I make sure I get up early enough that I can go over it one more time in the morning out loud.

When asked the difference between this method and memorization, Diane insisted that she no longer memorizes speeches. She claimed that, with her new method of preparation, she is less concerned with the exact wording of her message than she is with the meaning of the message; she saw this as a complete reversal of the emphasis of the speeches delivered in her high school English class, where she was more concerned with the "mechanics of the language" of her speech and less concerned with meaning.

However, Diane's preparation for speeches is not completely devoid of memorization: in accordance with the requirements of her speech instructor, Diane reported that she memorizes both the introduction and the conclusion of her speeches, as well as the exact order in which main points and sub-points will be presented:

We have to write an outline for her. We have to write out our whole introduction, word for word, and then our main points -- oh, at the beginning, the purpose for why we're doing this speech -- and then our whole conclusion, word for word.

It is interesting to note that at the beginning of the interview process, Diane expressed agreement with this requirement. By the end of the study, however, Diane appeared to be a stronger devotee of the extemporaneous method, and reported that she did not feel it necessary to pre-determine the wording and arrangement of the speech:

Extemporaneous is the best way to give the speech because it makes the audience know that you care about what you're talking about. If you're reading it off a note card, its just a speech that you've learned. That's what this whole class was supposed to be all about: to make it sound like it's not memorized.

Diane's rejection of memorization apparently stemmed from the fact that she found the practice difficult; she reported that more than once while delivering a speech in SPC 1014 she had forgotten the exact wording of her introduction or conclusion and had to resort to reading her note cards, a practice which she believed detracted from her competence and believability.

For Diane, the process of speech preparation was not protracted. "I usually don't spend a lot of time on a speech," she explained; "It takes me some time to decide on a topic, and for me the introduction is the hardest, but once I've decided on main points, the whole speech pretty much falls into place." Diane indicated that the time

frame in which she typically prepared a speech was a matter of a few days, with the composition of the introduction, main points and conclusion occurring no more than twenty-four hours in advance of the presentation.

Prior to composing the speech, Diane reported that she liked to ". . . talk to [her] roommates . . . just have a conversation about the speech with friends." However, Diane rejected the advice of her instructor to practice the speech orally in front of family or friends. Diane explained:

I don't practice my speeches in front of my roommates or even in front of a mirror. Reciting the speech in front of someone before giving it in class is better for nervous people, but I think it's unnecessary. I practice by myself. I've always done it that way -- even in high school-- and it's never been a problem for me.

Likewise, Diane rejected the instructor's suggestion of speaking into a tape recorder in order to time the speech. Diane reasoned, "I've never worried about the time limit; I've just always said what I wanted about the subject, and it's been just about the right length." All of these preparation suggestions, Diane believed, over-complicated the process of speech composition; she explained on several occasions that the most valuable lessons she had learned through her college speech class was the importance of "simplicity," "ease" and "sincerity," qualities which could be destroyed by excessive preparation.

Aside from her adoption of the extemporaneous mode of preparation and delivery, Diane indicated that her success as a student speaker may be attributed to her "special way of giving speeches." By this, it was discovered, she meant the specific rhetorical strategies which she had developed and incorporated into her speaking style, independent of the instructor's requirements or guidelines. Diane related that her rhetorical strategies were: (1) attention to speech structure, (2) the use of the familiar or commonplace, (3) attention to audience interest, and (4) demonstration of sincerity. Diane revealed that she had derived these rules through observation of other speakers, including her instructor, and through rigorous self-evaluation.

Despite her rather well defined personal code of rhetorical strategies, Diane never completely dismissed the importance of adhering to the rules of speech expressed by her instructor or the text. Indeed, Diane received her instructor's critical feedback quite willingly, even when she believed that her speech had fully complied with her own standards of rhetorical excellence.

(1) Attention to Speech Structure. Perhaps the greatest revelation which Diane made as a result of formal speech training was that ". . . every speech has a different subject, but the same structure."

Diane explained that she believed the ideal speech was composed of an introduction, main points, sub-points and a conclusion. The introduction should contain an "attention getter" and the purpose of the speech. Main points should number three or four, and constitute the "reasons" or "arguments" of the speech. According to Diane, sub-points serve to "make the main points broader; they prove the main points." Sub-points may take the form of statistics or examples, although Diane indicated a preference for using examples as sub-points: "All statistics are boring and hard to listen to." In Diane's rhetorical scheme, a speech may contain as many as five sub-points for every main point, although the number of sub-points depends upon ". . . how much information is needed to explain a main point." Finally, the conclusion of the speech, according to Diane, should provide summary and should ". . . end up with a clincher that gets you thinking about the topic." On one occasion, Diane observed that the conclusion is ". . . really the introduction in reverse." Diane believed that all of her speeches in SPC 1014 except the first had followed this structural pattern precisely.

(2) Use of the Familiar or Commonplace. Diane observed that adherence to the aforementioned structural pattern helped the audience follow the speech easily because it is a familiar progression of reasoning: ". . . that way, they can pay attention to what you're trying to say instead of

worrying about how you're saying it." This demonstrates Diane's attention to the use of the familiar and commonplace as a rhetorical strategy: Diane expressed the belief that audience understanding is better achieved when the speaker ties his message to information which the audience already possesses:

The best kind of sub-point is an example, especially a personal example -- something that happened to me, or people I know, or something that may have happened to people in the audience. People listen to stories. It's more personal, and that's what a speech should be.

According to Diane, the use of the commonplace aids the speaker as well:

I found that if you use personal experiences, that helps a lot. For my last two speeches, I used personal experiences. It helps because you know the story and it comes right out.

This ability to express oneself spontaneously, without the aid of notes or memorization is, in Diane's estimation, the greatest indicator of speaker credibility. Indeed, the speakers whom she reportedly admired were valued by Diane because they had the ability to ". . . talk about real life" and ". . . speak in ways that everyone can relate to." She cited Bill Cosby and a high school friend as two people who possessed this ability; however, she expressed the opinion that President Reagan failed on this account:

I try to listen to him, but he makes no sense at all to me. He doesn't answer questions in press conferences, he just dances all over the issues. It's not that I can't understand the words he's

using, but the ideas don't come together to make any sense.

(3) Attention to Audience Interest. Aside from adhering to the basic structural pattern and utilizing familiar material for the purpose of maintaining audience-centeredness, Diane explained that there were some incidences in which the speaker must employ special techniques to ensure audience interest. Observing that some topics may be "dry" or "sensitive" by nature, Diane suggested the use of certain rhetorical strategies which would overcome the audience's boredom or discomfort with speech material.

For example, Diane explained that her use of a visual aid in one speech helped her maintain audience interest while she related "dull, yet important" statistical information. While Diane indicated that visual aids are normally not her preferred method of presenting sub-points, they are necessary when attempting to convey statistical information in a meaningful way.

In another speech, a potentially sensitive subject was reportedly defused through Diane's use of humor:

I thought I would be embarrassed because it was on 'safe sex,' but I was real serious. But I didn't want to be dead serious, so I put in a little comedy. It helped ease the tension for the audience.

Diane reasoned that, had the audience members not been allowed to vent their anxiety through laughter, their

internal thoughts and feelings might have competed for attention with the speaker's important message.

(4) Demonstration of Sincerity. According to Diane, one of the most important qualities which a speaker can display to his audience is sincerity. Indeed, when Diane listed the qualities of a "good speaker," sincerity topped the list:

All-around sincerity is the most important. When I listen to a speech, I need to know that they're talking about something they believe in, instead of just saying something because they had to have an idea for a speech.

Although Diane did appear to value the role of sincerity in ensuring speech ethics, she also expressed the practical view that sincere speakers are more successful than those who audience's perceive as insincere.

It is easy to see how Diane's rhetorical strategies interrelate to provided a full portrait of her ideal of rhetorical expertise: in her estimation, the effective speaker uses the extemporaneous method of speech composition and delivery in order to demonstrate to the audience his familiarity and expertise with the subject matter, as well as his sincere desire to communicate a worthwhile message to the listener. To further demonstrate his empathy with the audience, the ideal speaker employs simple speech structure to facilitate audience comprehension, cites familiar examples and stories to involve the audience's imagination and sympathies, and uses special rhetorical devices such as visual aids and humor to

sustain audience attention and interest in difficult speech situations.

Feelings and Attitudes About Speech

In an effort to determine Diane's general attitudes toward the public speaking process, she was asked what her largest concern was, both when preparing a speech and when delivering a speech. Diane's response corresponded to her avowed preference for extemporaneous speech composition, but also revealed her prior concern for speech "mechanics," fostered in her high school English class. According to Diane, when preparing for a speech, her main concern is the message, while her secondary concern is the audience:

My biggest concern when I'm preparing the speech is my message -- what I'm trying to get across. Then I think about the audience, and how they will react to the message I've prepared.

However, during the delivery of the speech, Diane's primary concern shifts to the audience, with her secondary concern resting upon the message:

When I'm actually giving the speech, I pay more attention to the audience, how they're taking what I'm saying. My secondary concern then is the message. I try to keep my mind concentrating on what I want to say, without trying to remember exactly how I practiced it.

Diane never mentioned herself as a focus of concern either during the preparation or delivery phases of the speech, nor did she express the sentiment that she was more concerned with the opinion of her instructor than with that of other audience members.

Diane's expressed attitudes toward the process of public speaking were generally positive, due in large part to what she perceived to be a positive experience with public speaking in SPC 1014. Diane explained that although she ". . . hated giving speeches in high school," she never questioned her ability to perform well. Despite the sometimes harsh criticism of her English teacher, Diane realized that she was an effective writer, and was satisfied that her speaking abilities were equally as good.

Upon entering a college-level speech course, however, Diane found that she could not simply rely upon her writing skills if she was to be an effective speaker. She learned that a speech is more than a recited essay; it is a unique form of communication which is comparable but not identical in form to written discourse.

Although formal speech training dramatically altered the way in which Diane viewed public speaking, she found the new methods of communication quite liberating and enjoyable. On several occasions, Diane expressed delight for her new found speaking skills:

I did better than I thought I would because I hated speech in high school, but I enjoy this. I really like giving speeches. I really look forward to them. If I ever wind up having to give a speech in the future, I'll feel better about it. I don't mind giving speeches at all. . . I really like it.

Diane was in full agreement with the university-wide requirement of one course in public speaking, claiming that

her experiences in her speech classroom were responsible for her changed attitudes toward public communication.

Diane's opinion of the value of speech training was quite high, from the first day of class, through the final assignment. Although Diane entered SPC 1014 with serious misgivings, unsure whether she would perform well, whether she would enjoy the class, or whether she would

". . . learn anything that [she] didn't already cover in high school," on the first day, after the first assignment, she ". . . knew right then it would be an interesting, fun class."

According to Diane, the most valuable lesson she learned in her college speech class was the importance of style and delivery in speech making. While content and language is important, Diane acknowledged, an effective speaker must be able to "relate to" an audience, to use ideas and language which the audience will find understandable and interesting. Diane repeated several times the inappropriateness of delivering written, memorized messages to a live audience, saying that the audience would be able to detect that the speaker's words were "rehearsed" or "canned." According to Diane, "Memorized speeches don't sound sincere; they sound like you've just memorized the words without necessarily believing in what they mean."

Diane also reported that she valued her experiences in SPC 1014 because of the opportunity for interaction with classmates which it provided. "This class has helped me for the future," Diane observed, "It helps in meeting people; I can talk in front of any group of people, now." On another occasion, Diane commented that she had learned from her speech class that audiences were generally "friendly" to speakers:

Everyone helps everyone out. You get a lot of encouragement from the audience. Now when I speak, I just figure that everyone's going to love my speech; I do better, and they probably do really love it.

When asked whether she foresaw using her public speaking skills in future classes or in her career, Diane was uncertain. She expressed willingness to use her training outside the speech classroom with comments such as, "I can talk in front of people now It's easier to prepare and deliver a speech now. . . . If I ever wind up having to give a speech in the future, I'll feel better."

Throughout the interview process, Diane's evaluation of herself as a speaker was relatively unchanged, and generally positive. When Diane was first asked to evaluate herself as a speaker, she responded that she considered herself a good student, overall, and that her public speaking skills were comparable to her other academic abilities. During a later interview, she more narrowly

defined what she meant by "good student." According to Diane's perceptions, she was "probably a mid or high 'B' speaker." Diane went on to explain:

I'm not an "A" because I play with my note cards a lot, but that's just nervousness. If I weren't nervous, I wouldn't shift, and I'd do a lot better.

Despite her evaluation of herself as a "B" speaker, Diane indicated in her interview before she delivered her last speech in SPC 1014 that she was "hoping to get an 'A' on this last speech." Furthermore, Diane consistently characterized herself as successful in speech. For example, in describing the small group to which she had been assigned for the last speech, Diane commented, "I'm really glad I got into the group that I did. We're all really good speakers, so that will make it easier." Also noteworthy is the fact that Diane had been selected as leader of her group. When asked why she thought the group had selected her as leader, Diane responded, "I guess they thought I'd be good. The topic was my idea, and they knew that I already had a lot of the information we needed for our research."

At no time in the interview process did Diane indicate doubt over her ability to perform well on a given speech assignment, although she did reveal that she sometimes experienced pangs of nervousness while delivering a speech. Diane explained that she had experienced severe nervousness during speeches in her high school English class, and

attributed these feelings to her fear of forgetting part of her memorized material. While Diane reported that her feelings of nervousness during speeches had subsided substantially throughout the semester of speech in college, she admitted that she still experienced mild nervousness, especially during the first few moments of the speech.

It is interesting to note that Diane's score on the PRCA-24 instrument placed her within the low-range of apprehension scores for the sampling pool of this study. Yet throughout the course of the interviews, Diane made close to a dozen separate references to her nervousness or apprehension associated with oral communication, either in an interpersonal or a public speaking context. Diane's score on the PRCA-24 and her reports of oral communication apprehension do not seem as conflicted when viewed in relation to her positive, confident statements concerning speech, such as, "I just go in with the attitude that I'll give a good speech, and I do fine," or "I really like giving speeches. I really look forward to giving them." It is apparent from study of Diane's many statements regarding her feelings about speech communication that she considers nervousness a normal part of public speaking, but that she believes it can be controlled by adopting a positive mental mindset:

I used to worry about what people thought of me, but that just distracts me. Now I just think about the speech and the audience, and after a while, I find that I'm not nervous in the least.

For Diane, perhaps one of the most valuable aspects of speech training was her discovery of extemporaneous composition, which allowed her to ". . . think about, not just try to remember" the content of her message.

Relating the Speech Process

At her first interview session, Diane had much information to share about her upcoming speech assignment. Her next speech, she reported, would be a "group speech," and there were six people, including herself, responsible for the presentation. Before Diane entered the study, she had already attended one group meeting in preparation of the assignment; at this meeting, Diane reported, the group had selected its topic and had appointed her "leader." According to Diane, the leader's role in the group speech was important: it is the leader's responsibility to introduce the topic to the audience, to preview each of the sub-topics of the presentation, to introduce each speaker, and to provide a conclusion for the presentation. When asked why she believed the group had appointed her as leader, Diane responded, "I guess they thought I'd be good."

Indeed, Diane admitted that she had contributed many ideas to the group discussion of possible topics even before she had been appointed leader. Ultimately, the topic which the group decided upon, suicide, was one of Diane's suggestions:

I have a lot of information about it. I did a twelve page paper on it in high school. . . . I mentioned a lot of different topics -- suicide I had the most information on.

Diane explained that the topic which the group had selected "fit the format" of the group speech assignment as explained by the instructor. "It had to be a problem-solution type of topic, and we had to be able to pick at least five different sub-topics, so suicide seemed like a good topic," Diane observed.

In their first meeting, Diane and her group had not only decided upon a leader and a topic, but had also identified five different subtopics which would be discussed by each group member: the growing phenomenon of suicide, the legal aspects of suicide, the profile of the suicide victim, the effects of suicide on family and friends, and the available solutions and help available for those contemplating suicide and families of suicide victims. Diane explained that there were many more sub-topics which the group might have selected, but that these sub-topics seemed to lead most logically from problem to solution. As leader of the group, Diane perceived her task to be the composition of ". . . an attention-getter, something really dramatic." Following the attention-getter, Diane foresaw the need to ". . . go over each sub-topic and give a little bit of information about each," by way of introducing each group member and the subject matter which they would cover in the presentation. "I'll let them

give their own transitions in between the sub-topics," Diane decided, "That way I won't have to keep jumping up and down." Finally, Diane explained that she would have to provide closure to the presentation: "I'll just summarize at the end."

During this first interview, Diane did not yet know the content of her introductory and concluding remarks, only the structure which she and the other group members would follow. When asked how she planned to decide the content of her remarks, Diane speculated, "I'll go over my old paper and see how I started that one out. I'll see if I get any ideas from that."

With the assignment two weeks away, Diane felt no sense of urgency in composing her part of the presentation. In fact she revealed that she did not intend to solidify her ideas for the introduction and conclusion until the night before the speech; this system had ". . . worked for [her] in [her] past speeches, and this speech," she believed, "won't be as hard as the others because [she would not] have to come up with main points."

Later in the first interview session, Diane turned her attention to a consideration of the evaluation of her upcoming assignment. She indicated that she was ". . . not sure how she [instructor] would grade the group speech," but was confident that the group would not be penalized if one person failed to work up to the level of the rest of

the group. Diane voiced confidence in the fact that all of the members of her group would work hard on the assignment, saying, "Our group has really good speakers in it, so I'm not worried about our grade."

Diane expressed general liking for the group speech assignment:

It's easier because everyone helps everyone else and you aren't doing the whole speech yourself. You only give the introduction and conclusion or one of the main points.

Despite her perception of the relative simplicity of the individual's task in the group speech, Diane did acknowledge that this assignment was like individual speech assignments in many ways:

But even though you only give, say, one of the main points, you do a little introduction and conclusion in your part of the presentation. Still, it's not as much and everyone helps each other out.

Diane concluded, only half facetiously, that she would enjoy this speech assignment, if for no other reason than the fact that she could ". . . use the podium if [she] want[ed]. Mrs. B. doesn't let us use it normally."

In Diane's second interview session, she spoke only minimally about the upcoming speech assignment. She still had not formalized her plans for the introduction and conclusion of the group speech, and maintained that she had not produced any notes, manuscripts or practice tapes in preparation of the assignment. Still, Diane expressed confidence that her hopes for an "A" on this assignment

would be met because ". . . this is such a good group." Diane revealed during this meeting, that it was "slightly ironic" that she had been selected to give the introduction and conclusion of the speech, since she usually finds these to be the "hardest parts of the speech." She explained:

The main points are just facts, but the introduction is the hardest part for me because I want to start out -- I work for a really good introduction. . . . I want to end up with a clincher at the end that gets you thinking, but I usually wind up just summarizing, so I have to work hard on my conclusions too.

Nevertheless, there are a few techniques, according to Diane, which help her overcome her difficulty with what she perceives to be the most important parts of the speech.

First, Diane revealed, "I always write out my introduction and conclusion, word for word." She explained that she felt more comfortable experimenting with language and syntax in writing, committing the perfected passage to memory for oral delivery; according to Diane, the success of an introduction or conclusion rests upon the use of stylized language and interesting sentence structure.

Another technique of which Diane admitted making frequent use is discussing her upcoming speech assignments with friends and roommates. "If I get stuck for an idea for an introduction or conclusion, I usually ask one of my suitemates for help," Diane said. Diane indicated that she only quizzed friends for ideas; "The work is my own," she assured. Diane also reported that she does not enlist her

friends as practice audiences for her speeches. "I'll just have a conversation about the speech with my friends, but I don't practice speeches in front of them. . . ," Diane said.

The third meeting with Diane was held the day before her presentation in speech class. True to the plans she had made two weeks prior to the assignment due-date, Diane still had not composed the introduction or conclusion of the group speech, but intended to work on it that evening. She explained that her group had planned a final organizational meeting for the next morning, just before speech class; they intended to practice the presentation "one time through" to ensure smooth delivery of the group speech.

Diane admitted that she felt "a little nervous" about the presentation. When questioned about the source of her nervousness, she responded that she usually is nervous in new situations; the group speech constituted a new form of public speaking for Diane. She expressed mild misgivings over the fact that ". . . the group [was] so large"; she was unsure how well each of the speaker's sub-topics would coordinate into a unified presentation. However, she received solace from two facts. First, Diane continued to maintain that her group had ". . . good speakers in it; a lot of them have improved." Furthermore, according to

Diane, the position of the group's presentation, early in this round of speeches, was an advantage:

For the last two of my speeches, I was on the last day. That's the hardest, because you are compared to every other speaker, and you compare yourself to everyone else. This time, we're first. I feel better knowing that we'll get it over with before everyone else.

Diane left the third interview session with the intention of composing her part of the presentation that evening. She expected that true extemporaneous delivery would be impossible since she preferred, and the instructor required, writing the introduction and conclusion in their entirety. Still, Diane expressed the hope that she would be able to deliver her part of the speech convincingly, without having to rely too heavily upon her note cards.

While the final interview session was to take place immediately following delivery of her final speech, Diane failed to keep either that appointment or a follow-up appointment which was scheduled the next week. By the time of the fourth meeting, two weeks had elapsed from the date of Diane's last speech. In that time, Diane claimed to have discarded her notes from her group speech, making document analysis impossible.

Nevertheless, Diane was questioned about her final impressions regarding this assignment. She observed that the group as a whole had performed well, and that their individual grades differed only by a matter of a few points. However, the "A" which Diane had anticipated had

not been achieved. Diane believed that her only shortcoming in the presentation was the fact that she ". . . had to read the conclusion right off [her] note cards" because she did not feel that she would be able to remember all the information she needed to include.

Diane's introduction made use of "startling" statistics and a "real life example" in order to capture the audience's attention and establish the topic. However, Diane's account of the introduction was vague, unaided as it was by her notes for the speech. For her conclusion, Diane explained, she simply ". . . summarized the main points brought up by the other speakers." There had been no time, she asserted, for a "clincher," as she had planned.

According to Diane, the instructor "seemed to like" the presentation, but had made very few verbal comments about the presentation in class. Diane told that the instructor was planning to meet with each student individually, to discuss how each speaker had progressed throughout the semester. Diane expected that her instructor would clarify and expand upon the comments she had written on Diane's evaluation forms (see Appendix C).

When Diane was asked to comment upon how she believed she had progressed as a speaker during the course of the semester, she provided her concluding remark:

I did better than I thought I would because I hated speech in high school. But I enjoy this--

I really like giving speeches. I really look forward to them.

Case Study 4 -- "Dabney"

Background Information

Dabney, an eighteen-year-old white male, was enrolled in one of Instructor C's three sections of SPC 1014 during the Fall, 1987 term. Dabney came to the University of Central Florida directly after graduating from a high school in South Florida. At the time of the study, Dabney lived with roommates in the campus dormitories.

A communication major, Dabney decided to register for SPC 1014 in the first semester of college study because ". . . it was one of the only general education classes open when [he] registered, and besides, [he] knew that [he] would enjoy and do well in the class." Dabney had taken a speech class in high school; in addition to this experience, he reported that he had many encounters with public speaking prior to enrolling in SPC 1014. Dabney related that he had ". . . always enjoyed speech, always enjoyed communicating," thus he entered his college speech class with the expectation that he would enjoy it and succeed in his speech efforts.

By the time of the first interview, Dabney had already delivered three graded speeches in SPC 1014. He had earned two "B's" and one "A" for these assignments. In addition to the graded speeches, Dabney reported that he

periodically delivered short, ungraded speeches in SPC 1014, for which he had received positive feedback from the instructor and classmates.

The speech which Dabney was in the process of composing during the weeks of the interview was a special occasion speech, a speech described by Dabney's instructor as one appropriate for a ceremonial occasion, with the purpose of evoking an emotional response from the audience. It is important to note that this assignment was a unique requirement of Dabney's instructor.

On the PRCA-24 instrument, Dabney scored 28, placing him within the low-range of apprehension scores for the sample described in Chapter Three. For the purpose of this study, Dabney was considered to have a "low" level of communication apprehension.

Speaking Autobiography

Dabney began relating his speaking autobiography during the first interview, saying:

I've always been a communicator, because of my family being so verbose, just so talkative. Everyone has something to say at the dinner table. That's where it's all happening: at the dinner table. And you need to get your say in, otherwise, you -- won't get your say in. And we all kind of work on that; since the beginning, it's always been like that.

The portrait which Dabney created of himself was that of an extreme extrovert. "I've always enjoyed just getting up in front of people and doing things to make them laugh or to

entertain them," Dabney explained. When asked why he enjoyed public communication, Dabney was initially uncertain: "I don't know if it's an attention thing -- I do like the attention." Upon further reflection, Dabney realized that mere attention is not the primary motivation for his extroverted behavior; he expanded, "If I have something to say on top of getting the attention, and maybe someone is listening, then that's when communication is the best. Audience response to what you're saying, and if what you're saying is really worth hearing -- that's the best."

Dabney sees himself as a "class clown-type," but a "respectful class clown." He remembered his earliest efforts to provide amusement in the classroom:

In the first grade, I brought these glasses with the nose and mustache. I was always kind of the class clown-type, and when I kept getting response to stuff like that, I'd think, 'great, this is really great!' And all I did was put them on, and everyone turned around, and that was it; I took them off. Some teachers peeked in and wondered what was going on, and said to my teacher, 'Oh, you let him act that way?'

Yet, Dabney believed his behavior never exceeded the boundaries of respect or appropriateness. He added to the portrait of himself as class clown, the perception of himself as a "respectful" student, well liked by his teachers and peers. Dabney offered the following anecdote to explain his character:

I was a respectful class clown. . . . In junior high, I used to impersonate my marine biology teacher. . . . In my English class we had to give speeches. I did it on aquatic life, so I did it

in the personality of my marine biology teacher. The class loved it because a lot of people in my English class had Mr. W. So later on in the day, I was in Mr. W.'s class . . . and he said, 'Alright Dabney, let's see me -- come up here and do me.' So I went up there and I did it. He was gone. Oh, I blasted the man; he was floored. The class was losing it and I was loving it, and we had a good time. So it was always a respectful kind of class clowning. If the teacher didn't want it, I understood that; I tried to get away with my little things, but it wasn't disrespectful.

Indeed, Dabney recalled no time in his life when he had received a completely negative or unrewarding response for his efforts to communicate, either in a public or an interpersonal setting.

Throughout the interview process, Dabney appeared to be very willing and pleased to share his experiences and ideas. Dabney answered questions thoroughly, without frequent prompting from the interviewer; indeed, Dabney often initiated discussion of issues which he believed to be relevant to his own oral communication experiences. Anecdote and example were Dabney's favorite vehicles for illustrating the nature of his speech behavior. Still, it must be noted that Dabney demonstrated a decided preference for discussing his general impressions about former speech experiences rather than for discussing the specific content of past speeches.

Dabney believed that the size of his family was the most important factor in the development of his communication behavior. He observed, "My friends who can

express themselves well mostly all come from big families." According to Dabney, in his own family of six he had learned interpersonal skills which are valuable in all social situations. "You learn cooperation; you learn respecting others; you don't place as great an emphasis on yourself as you do on the family. You work well with others," Dabney explained.

According to Dabney, not simply the size of the family, but also ". . . the personality of the parents will dictate how the children will turn out." In Dabney's estimation, his father and mother were significant forces in the development of his communication style and his overall personality. Although he reported that the similarities between himself and his father sometimes lead to confrontation, Dabney attributed his "expressiveness and sense of humor" to his father's example:

My dad and I are so much alike. Sometimes we don't see eye to eye, but we are so much alike it just kills us. My dad has a great, great sense of humor. He taught English, so he's very -- he can quote Shakespeare; he would do that. He would use big words around us. He'd call us things like rascalion: 'you rascalion!' We'd play fight and we'd pick it up. You pick that up when you're a kid. We're all expressive; my older brother has shown a great desire to write. My dad is outspoken and I think we're all affected by our father in that way.

Not just his father's personality, but that of his mother, as well, was seen by Dabney as a influence in his own communication style. Dabney explained:

My mom has a great sense of humor, too, so I guess we were just cursed, or something -- born to have it. My mom, she's very resourceful; she's very loving, very open. She expresses herself well, and she always gets what she wants, because she has that way of using her knowledge and her words to show you just how right she is.

Extended family, too, was cited by Dabney as a source of influence on his communication behaviors. Dabney's earliest memory of public performance involved singing a song at a large family reunion at the behest of his grandmother. He remembered mixed feelings associated with this experience:

We [Dabney and his younger brother] got up there and blushed and hit each other and kind of sang it, and we were embarrassed, but we did it and they clapped and roared, and we were like . . . 'O.K.!!'

In an effort to explain the nature of his family's interaction patterns, Dabney related an experience in which he attempted to resolve a family problem using "honest and open communication":

We always talk out our problems; you know there's really something wrong when someone stops communicating. For example, my dad was very upset about a mid-life crisis type of thing. He'd go out late and one time he didn't come home until the next morning. And he wouldn't talk about that. It really scared me. I love my dad so much, it really upset me, and I tried to talk to my mom about it. She wouldn't, so it just got to the point that I forced it, and said, 'Come on, Mom,' so she did. I felt better about it, and I wrote my dad a letter. I said, 'I love you; I understand that you don't want to talk about it now, but I just want you to know that I love you and I'm proud of you' So even when there's not communication, we try to keep it up. Lack of communication is a definite sign of trouble in our house.

Dabney explained that this type of communication problem is rare in his family; indeed, the day-to-day reality of life in his household is "communication overload" rather than communication deficit.

According to Dabney, the largest number of his public communication experiences took place under school sponsorship, either as part of the regular curriculum or as part of extracurricular activities. Dabney's experience with public speaking spanned a variety of activities, including classroom speeches and oral reports, school plays, talent shows and student government. Further, Dabney reported that he had taken one semester of public speaking in high school as an elective subject. Dabney believed that his positive experiences and continued interest in public performance had led him to select the film major in college: he saw film making as an "outgrowth of those experiences." Dabney explained, "I like to write a lot and I felt film would be a great way to write and manipulate an audience to see something, to experience something that I see or have experienced."

Dabney's first memory of public performance outside of a family context was in the second grade, when he was selected for a role in the class play. "I think my teacher saw in me that I like to get up in front of my peers. I've just always been like that; I've always been able to trust myself." From that time through high school, Dabney

reported, he performed in school plays. Dabney explained, "At first I got involved because people would approach me and say 'would you like to,' and then as I got in high school, but junior high school especially, I just pursued it. I wanted to do it; it was fun, so I just did it, I pursued it myself."

Perhaps because of his involvement in school plays, perhaps because of his growing notoriety as "class clown," Dabney was selected as emcee of the junior high school talent show for two consecutive years. He admitted that he handled this assignment well, "considering [his] age." It was this experience with extemporaneous public communication, quite different from the memorization and structure of play acting, which Dabney believed most profoundly influenced his attitudes toward public speaking. Dabney found that he could be most effective as a communicator, could achieve the maximum level of interaction with his audience, when he was free to adapt his message to the conditions of the situation. In short, it was as early as seventh grade that Dabney confirmed impromptu and extemporaneous delivery methods as his own, rejecting methods requiring extensive preparation and memorization.

Only two years earlier, while still in elementary school, Dabney had experimented with extemporaneous speech methods; his efforts had met with only partial success.

Remembering his first formal speech assignment, Dabney recounted:

In fifth grade we had to give a speech. I don't remember why. I did it on some sort of fictitious T.V. situation -- 'Jaws Jr. Eats the Luv Bug' or some sort of thing that my fifth grade mind made up. It was totally extemporaneous. I was kind of like a stand-up routine. At that time, Robin Williams was my idol.

Dabney reported that while delivering the speech, he had felt that he was succeeding because his peer audience seemed to follow his idea and to enjoy his attempts at humor. "I got the response I wanted," Dabney explained:

I felt so good that I just pushed even further away from the subject. In fact, it was totally off the subject. I was on a tangent, just to get more laughs, to get more feedback until I was stuffed, and then I was done with the speech.

However, Dabney's positive feelings about the communication effort were to be tempered by his teacher's comments:

Afterwards, the teacher said (as I was standing up there), 'class, this is a fine example of saying nothing, of the content being absolutely worthless, but the presentation being very well--presented.' I wasn't supposed to be extemporaneous; it was supposed to be planned, and I didn't plan for it.

Dabney reported that he felt confused by the teacher's comment. He concluded that he chose to believe the response of his peers, since he perceived that they reacted "appropriately" to the message as he had intended it, but that he had learned the importance of understanding the teacher's expectations, and of "giving teachers what they want."

It was not until seventh grade that Dabney had another opportunity to deliver a speech in a classroom setting. This time, he reportedly made a conscious effort to appeal to his peer audience while fulfilling the requirements of the assignment. Dabney remembered:

In seventh grade, in English, I read Around the World in Eighty Days; my speech was on that. I loved that book. We had to take the book and adapt it to a movie. So I drew the characters out and made the movie on poster board and took actors of the day and just assigned them parts. And there was a popular movie critic on T.V., and I imitated him. It was preparation, but I love to draw, so it wasn't like preparation for me. It was just fun and a way to entertain the class again.

This effort met with more consistent approval; Dabney believed that he had succeeded in entertaining his classmates (admittedly his primary goal) while delivering the quality of content which he understood his teacher expected. It may not be simply coincidental that this speech, which Dabney remembers as his first fully successful speech in a classroom setting, took place in the same year that he undertook the duties of emcee for the student talent show. Apparently by seventh grade, Dabney's competence and confidence as a public speaker had reached a level which distinguished him in the eyes of classmates and teachers.

After seventh grade, Dabney's speaking autobiography shows a steady history of public speaking experiences.

Without question, however, Dabney remembers his campaign speech for ninth grade class president as his personal triumph as a public communicator:

My ninth grade year, we had student government elections, and I decided to run for president of my class. Everyone who ran gave speeches. Everyone gave boring speeches . . . I was just dying; I was the last person. It was between me and this other girl. She got up and did her thing. The crowd was going crazy. I was nervous and I hadn't spoken to an audience for a while, so I had a lot of adrenalin pumping.

It must be noted here that prior to relating this experience, Dabney had explained that he believed that nervousness and an "adrenalin rush" enhances his performance when giving an important speech. So Dabney viewed his nervousness in the speech under discussion as an asset, not a liability, to success. Dabney continued:

Oh, it was all right. The stars were in the right position, moon was there. So I got up and I just gave what I thought was one of the better, best speeches in my life. We had five hundred people in our class, just five hundred people screaming and shouting, and I felt like Hitler. Oh God, I was removed again from myself, and I'm looking at myself and saying, 'You know who you look like? If you did like this, it would be just like Adolph Hitler!' It was just incredible; it was just a rush. It happened again! It happened, and I won, and I ran unopposed for the next three years.

Although he ran unopposed, Dabney reported that he still delivered election speeches in tenth, eleventh and twelfth grade. He did not believe that his performance in those later election speeches matched the quality of his first:

. . . they weren't as effective -- charismatic, because the pressure wasn't on. Each year after that I would just tell what we had accomplished the year before and say we need to do more, and that's all I said. All I did was motivate them; I didn't say anything about myself. I still interjected humor, but I noticed that they got progressively less intense. I realize that when the mood isn't right, and you're not in front of the right people, then the magic isn't there; it's more like routine speaking. You have to have an outline just to keep your mind on what you're supposed to be saying.

In other words, Dabney found that extemporaneous, even impromptu methods work well for him when he perceives that a speech will be instrumental in his achieving a goal. When the consequences of speech are less profound, Dabney learned that preparation could make up for deficits in enthusiasm.

Dabney's high school speaking career was characterized by his efforts to find the proper balance between reliance upon his native ability to entertain an audience with virtually no prior preparation and his desire to grow as a speaker through endeavors in strategic speech composition. According to Dabney, his motivation for communicating orally began to change in high school. No longer was he satisfied with simply amusing or surprising his classmates and teachers; instead, Dabney said, "I wanted to be entertaining, but I wanted a plan, I wanted to have a message." Dabney saw this metamorphosis as a process with which he continued to wrestle even into college: "It started in high school, and it wasn't one speech, one

event, or even a span of one or two years. In fact, it's still happening."

Upon entering high school, Dabney had already amassed a large repertory of oral communication skills, primarily based upon his elementary and junior high school experiences with drama, comedy and entertainment. In the two classroom presentations he had delivered, Dabney relied heavily upon his skills of comedy, invention and improvisation, but did not prepare the content of his messages in accordance with any formal rhetorical strategies. Further, while these speeches were received enthusiastically by his peers, his grades on speeches were less encouraging.

In ninth and tenth grade, Dabney discovered that even a small amount of preparation before a formal presentation was met with no diminished enthusiasm from his classmates, and improved evaluations from his teacher. Dabney recounted that one particular English teacher had taught him the value of speech preparation:

I've always loved English. My teacher in ninth and tenth grade loved English, too. We would constantly have to give book reports, oral book reports, and those I prepared for. I read this one book; it was a science fiction book. I ate it up. It was like four hundred pages -- a long book -- and I read the thing, and I gave this book report on it. I was the main character, you know a little acting involved (couldn't hurt) and I got my points across and she loved it.

Dabney remembered that in the two-year period of study under this English teacher, he had the opportunity to

prepare similar presentations on numerous occasions. He credited these frequent experiences with oral communication in this and later English classes with his present ability to deliver "meaningful, important speeches." In Dabney's words, "It was little things like that that happened to me in my English classes that made me a good speaker. It was the verbal communication, getting up in front of everyone -- and through an organized manner, or at least pre-meditated -- and I loved that."

Dabney's positive experiences with oral communication in the English classroom continued in his eleventh grade year. Determined to perform as well in this "advanced placement class" as he had in his previous English classes, Dabney worked hard at preparing his assignments and delivering the highest quality of work. Dabney reported that he viewed his eleventh grade English teacher as a model of excellence in oral communication, and that, while taking the class, he had "stretched to achieve the same standard" in his own oral presentations:

Mr. H. was a wild man. Just watching him deliver speeches and lectures, it was like a stand-up routine. And he could be serious, but he was always funny. He was organized; he was smooth; he was funny. He's like my standard; he's something I want to shoot for in trying to be. He really influenced me a lot.

In this class, Dabney had the opportunity to practice his public speaking skills frequently, through book reports and speech assignments. In an effort to achieve his

teacher's level of communication excellence, Dabney reported that he sometimes spent many hours in preparation; "I premeditated what I was going to say. I planned it out before -- not to write it down or put it in outline form-- but I had it in my mind that I wanted to say certain things in a certain way."

Dabney vividly remembered one assignment from this class which he believed represented his best work in classroom-related oral communication:

We had an assignment to read a book and just get up in front of the class and talk about the book. So I read C.S. Lewis' Through the Looking Glass-- while I was reading it (the night before, of course) I was writing notes furiously. It was the night before, but I was trying to prepare for it.

But it was not simply the preparation which Dabney had undertaken prior to the speech which he credited with his success. Dabney believed that during this speech, he was "inspired" to transcend his original interpretations of the book, finding new connections and new insights even while delivering his "prepared" remarks:

Even as I was giving the speech, I was enlightened. That doesn't happen often, but thank God, you know, it does sometimes! I was saying some things about how the playing cards with the royalty represented just how flat and almost meaningless royalty was in present day. Wow, I was getting inspired -- like woo, eat this!

Dabney credited the influence of a responsive audience, a challenging teacher and interesting subject matter with his enjoyment and success in this speech assignment. He also indicated that a certain level of "nervous energy" had

given him the "adrenalin boost" he needed to be able to make the quick connections and enlightening remarks which led to his perceived success. Dabney believed that his intense desire to please and to model himself after his English teacher, combined with the novelty of the speaking situations, had provided the necessary "nervous energy." He also indicated that since leaving that eleventh grade English class, he had not often been inspired to perform with the same level of energy:

Lately that inspiration while I'm speaking doesn't happen often, and I'm upset about that. It used to happen a lot because when I was in high school and so on, the opportunity for me to get up and talk didn't happen that often, and when it did, it was such a rush it would just happen: I would just say things and do things, and I was just sort of detached, watching myself -- 'what's this?'

While Dabney had found opportunities to develop oral communication skill in his high school English classes, it is interesting to note that he claimed to learn nothing of value in his high school speech class. Indeed, Dabney blamed his high school speech class for his "bad speech habits," claiming that the teacher of this elective class had permitted him to rely exclusively upon his natural skills of improvisation and impromptu speaking. Of his experience in this class, Dabney said:

My high school speech class was the joke course. It was funny, because it was a class that a lot of students took on all levels, freshman to senior, just to boost the old GPA. Everybody opted for that elective as kind of a breather; they heard it was an easy 'A.' I took it second semester Junior

year. People did their homework from other classes in that class.

Interestingly, Dabney was enrolled in this class at the same time that he was working hard to improve his public speaking skills in his "challenging" eleventh grade English class. When asked whether he attempted to apply the skill he was learning in his English class to his work in his public speaking class, Dabney responded:

No, I didn't make an effort to prepare for the speeches in there because it didn't matter whether you worked or not, she'd give the same grade. Just on the day that she said a certain speech was due, I'd say to myself, 'Well, what am I going to do? This? O.K. -- that's good.' It worked fine. People would get up, and if they had any idea of what they were doing, they would basically get an 'A.' It was a joke course, you know, and that's unfortunate. The class wasn't really taken too seriously by the teacher or the students, and I just took it, got my grade, and really learned nothing. Dabney in, Dabney out.

In twelfth grade, the public speaking in which Dabney engaged was strictly extracurricular, speeches given in connection with his duties as senior class president. Dabney revealed that he felt disappointed that he was not required to give oral presentations in his twelfth grade English class:

In twelfth grade, sad to say, we had no oral work. It was all writing to get us ready for college. It was just all reading and writing. If I had any bad habits as a result of the speech class, I

didn't lose them, or gain any good habits or become a better speaker that year.

Dabney expressed the opinion that the "bad habits" which he had been able to rely upon in his eleventh grade speech

class (that is, lack of preparation, lack of organization, reliance upon humor and improvisational skills) most likely "cancelled out" the positive skills learned in his more rigorous English classes. Although he was able to perform well on the speech assignments in his English class, he was not likely to expend the same level of effort in preparing for speeches meant for less critical audiences. By his senior year in high school, Dabney perceived himself as the kind of speaker who "did the minimum amount of work" to fulfill the requirements of the situation.

Dabney said that, even though he probably would not have enrolled in a college-level speech class had it not been a required course, he was happy that he had taken it early in his college program. "I needed this course to refine my thought processes and my organizational skills," Dabney admitted; "I learned a lot this semester."

From the first day of class in SPC 1014, Dabney knew that his college speech class would be quite different from his high school course. He explained that in his high school speech class the teacher often assigned topics which the students were expected to research or think about, then ". . . go home and prepare or write a speech about that topic." In contrast, on the first day of SPC 1014, in Dabney's words,

We got up and talked about ourselves in front of people, which is hard, but it's easier to talk about yourself than if I gave you a reading on nuclear energy and told you to go home and prepare

a speech on nuclear energy. Speech class is not so that -- what's most important is finding what is the most effective way to reach that audience. That's what this class is teaching me.

Dabney had entered his college speech class with a long and varied history of oral communication experiences. Up to the time he enrolled in SPC 1014, he had encountered speech situations in which he could either rely strictly upon his impromptu speaking skills, or in which the formula for speech success was virtually pre-determined by the teacher. In SPC 1014, Dabney's challenge was to refine his natural speaking skills, to rely less upon glibness, and to learn to set his own standards and parameters for the structure, content and delivery of his speeches.

Dabney's first speech in SPC 1014 was a success by his own estimation and that of his instructor. Because the first speech was to "Inform the audience of a personal opinion," Dabney did not feel it necessary to spend much time researching his topic or preparing his exact wording. In Dabney's words:

The purpose of this speech was to let the audience know about you, about something you think is important. It was important to let them see my personality, and for me to try to understand them, to see how they respond to me and my ideas. Still, I spent a good deal of time thinking about what I would say, and how I would say it. The speech wasn't as organized as it could have been, but I think the purpose was fulfilled: the audience, and even Mrs. C. liked my idea -- they were all with me.

Dabney earned an "A" for this assignment; his instructor

commented that Dabney had a "delightful approach," but that "tighter organization" was needed.

Feeling confident in his ability to succeed in SPC 1014 following his first presentation, Dabney admittedly turned his energies to his other classes for the next several weeks. By the time his next speech was due, Dabney realized that he had not prepared adequately, nor had he fully understood the requirements of the assignment:

I was really uncomfortable with the next speech, the informative speech. By the time I started worrying about it, I couldn't really come up with a decent topic. I was just lazy, I guess. At first, I was going to do it on the game of chess, but I started preparing like the day before, so I thought, 'no.' That would have been my momentous, 'prepared for' speech if I had done chess, but it was the day before and I figured not. I also wasn't really sure how to go about informing an audience about how to do something. I had never been in that role before.

Although Dabney had resolved at the beginning of the semester to stretch his speaking skills beyond his "natural ability" to improvise a message on any subject, the night before he was to deliver his second speech in SPC 1014, Dabney found himself resorting to old speaking habits. He ultimately abandoned the idea of tackling a challenging subject, deciding instead to deliver a humorous parody of a "how to" demonstration:

I stole a tray from the cafeteria, and I got some silverware and a cup, and I went through the steps of 'how to survive in the college cafeteria,' or something like that. It was entertaining. The audience loved it, and it basically required no effort on my part.

While Dabney had received the feedback he anticipated from his audience, he revealed that he was not satisfied with his own performance. Further, it was clear to him that his instructor knew that he had not expended great effort in preparing for the assignment:

Mrs. C. wanted more research. She said, 'Have depth.' She said on that thing [the evaluation form], 'You have this incredible gift -- great! Have depth.' So that was a slap in the head. I was already sort of thinking about heading in that direction and, you know, I was told to go there. So that's why the next speech after that was the most I've been prepared for.

Dabney received the grade of "B" for this assignment.

Dabney's third speech would be remembered by him as one of his best efforts in SPC 1014, indeed, in his entire speaking career. When relating his personal speech strategies (material which will be discussed in section three of this case study), Dabney referred frequently to this speech as his model.

This third assignment was a persuasive speech. Dabney reported that he had conducted ". . . a great deal of research on the subject of premarital sex and the possible negative consequences of premarital sex." In an effort to off set the tone of his informative speech, Dabney explained that he had tried to keep his use of humor and extraneous material to a minimum; instead, he "reached" his audience by relying upon examples, statistics and analogies drawn from his research. Dabney believed that he successfully combined his well developed knack of adapting

to audience feedback with his still developing skills of research and pre-preparation in this speech: "I was successful: I pre-planned for the audience and they did react in the way I visualized." Still, Dabney denied that he had attempted to pre-write or outline his speech. Instead, he prepared a "fact sheet" which contained the information which he planned to use in the speech, and ". . . organized the speech, the order of points, in [his] head." "That way," Dabney said, "I could adjust the speech as I needed if I saw that the audience was not responding the way I thought they should; I could pull out another example or statistic that would make the point clear for them."

Dabney's grade for this speech was an "A." In evaluating his own performance, Dabney admitted that he felt that he had been successful in communicating the message he had intended. Nevertheless, he did agree with the written comments of his instructor:

She said that my speech was jumbled and somewhat unclear in organization, and that my purpose was not that clear right from the beginning. I guess I agree with that. I need to work on my organization because I do tend to go off on tangents. If it seems to me that the audience is responding well to a certain idea, I just go into that idea more in depth, and sometimes I may lose the thread of the main message.

Nevertheless, Dabney emphatically rejected the idea of using an outline or a script to formalize the organization of his speech. He was unwilling to lose the ability to

spontaneously react to audience reactions, even if it meant sacrificing some degree of overall clarity.

Dabney related stories of other, less formal occasions in which he had the opportunity to speak in public during the semester under study. He reported that in his speech class, he had the opportunity to deliver an impromptu speech, a minor assignment worth only a few grade points. Nevertheless, Dabney saw this experience as a positive one, an opportunity to "play with language," which he said he found enjoyable. At another time during the semester, Dabney had the occasion to speak in a public setting outside of the speech classroom:

I had a speech experience this weekend. I went to mass this weekend at this little church in North Carolina. The priest, when he was doing his announcements asked if they had any visitors. I said, 'I drove all the way here from Orlando just to attend this mass.' Everyone clapped and came up later to talk to me.

During another interview, Dabney explained that he perceives himself as one who seeks opportunities to engage in oral communication, publicly or interpersonally. "Things like that happen a lot," Dabney concluded; "Given an opportunity to speak, I'll do it."

The foregoing is a synopsis of Dabney's relevant oral communication experiences up to the point of the interview process. While it is certainly not exhaustive of the subject's experience with oral communication, Dabney's speaking autobiography represents those incidents and

issues which he believed to be most expressive of his background and identity as a "successful student speaker." The remainder of this case study investigates the strategies, thoughts, feelings and attitudes which Dabney had and the behaviors he exhibited with regard to the speech he was in the process of composing during the weeks of the interview.

Speech Strategies

Dabney entered SPC 1014 having had a variety of experiences in public speaking in formal and informal, academic and nonacademic settings. Nevertheless, he realized that his speaking skills had not been perfected in his years of classroom and extracurricular oral communication. Even though his first speech in SPC 1014 had been received quite favorably by his instructor and fellow classmates, Dabney felt that his messages still lacked a sense of organization and purpose. Thus, throughout the semester, his speech strategies to a large degree turned upon his efforts to more adequately prepare his speeches, without sacrificing his nearly perfected ability to adapt and respond to the audience and the speaking situation. This would mean less reliance upon his hitherto preferred method of impromptu delivery and adoption of more structured, yet still adaptive extemporaneous methods.

Dabney explained the fine balance he tried to maintain between speech preparation and adaptiveness, using as an example his method for composing what he believed to be his best speech:

Even with this last speech, it was the most I ever prepared. If I showed you my outline, all it is is a few words scratched out. It's not even really an outline. Not A... B... and well ordered. I can see the practicality of an outline. But for me, I write in bold letters what I want as my topic and scratch out some ideas and then little side comments and arrows. It's not organized, but you need something to go by. (See Appendix D).

On a later occasion, Dabney expressed his aversion toward preparing an outline of his speech, saying:

I personally have something against outlines. I can see their practicality. I can see why they're useful for some people. But we were required to do one one time, and I wouldn't even do that. I wrote the outline, but I didn't let it dictate to me the way the speech would go.

Dabney explained that he felt that committing any part of the speech to writing limited his effectiveness: he saw as his greatest asset his ability to adapt the content of his message to the feedback he received from his audience while speaking. To pre-write, or even to pre-organize the speech, in Dabney's estimation, was to erect a barrier between the audience and him.

Still, Dabney admitted that his lack of a predetermined plan sometimes meant a disorganized message:

I have a tendency, I know, to not really see the whole thing as an organized work. I just go from one point and expound and another point and expound, and sometimes, if the mood is right, I do

well, and if not, it's like, 'Oh God, I forgot to prepare; all right, O.K.' Then I know that I'm just chugging away at it trying to make it flow smoothly and it's not working. I need to work on that. I have problems seeing the thing as a whole, and then I think I'll be more comfortable once I know what my limits are, moving around and what direction to go.

Dabney determined that he should spend more time

". . . just thinking about the speech and researching the material [he needs] to support [his] points." Just short of preparing a set outline for the organizational pattern of the speech, Dabney believed that he worked best by

". . . just writing out my major ideas and the facts that I might forget on a sheet of notes," then simply conversing with the audience about the subject, using the notes to remind him to mention all of the information which he had anticipated sharing. Dabney concluded:

I have to work on that. From that, my delivery will probably be a lot smoother, just knowing where the limits are, knowing what it is I want to say. So I think my delivery would be a lot smoother if I didn't have to worry about keeping any certain order or set wording.

Despite his avowed adherence to purely extemporaneous methods of speech composition, Dabney was capable of pre-writing a speech when the situation warranted. Dabney's last assignment in SPC 1014 was a ceremonial speech presentation; Dabney had opted to coordinate his speech with that of another classmate, which necessitated pre-writing his speech in order to ensure continuity between the two presentations. As will be discussed in section

five of this case study, Dabney found this assignment and the practice of pre-determining the exact wording of his speech dissatisfying.

Typically, Dabney extends his speech preparation process over a very short period of time. In fact, Dabney reported that the time frame between his selection of a topic to his actual delivery of the speech is usually not more than a few days. While he indicated that he spent more time in preparation for speeches in college than he had in high school or earlier, Dabney admitted that much of that preparation time is spent in research and "thinking about the speech" rather than in note writing, speech writing, outline preparation or oral practice.

In two out of three speeches which he had delivered in SPC 1014 prior to entering the study, Dabney had performed "a good deal of research." By this he meant reading periodical articles and books about the subject under consideration. Dabney explained:

I think the most important thing in a speech is just how comfortable you are with your topic. . . . As long as you're comfortable with your material, you can pretty much talk about that unhindered, with any audience. You have to be more comfortable with your topic. A well read person is naturally going to have an easier time finding material.

For Dabney, researching a topic for a speech means finding "facts" which will interest and inspire the audience: statistics, examples, stories, anecdotes and quotations.

No sooner than a day prior to delivery of the speech, Dabney explained, he "structures" his message, decides upon the specific content of his speech. "I find I can just scratch down ideas, get a feel for them and just do it-- just give the speech," Dabney said. Rather than spending his preparation time pondering the wording of his message, or even the strategic arrangement of points, Dabney believed his time is better spent ". . . reading about the subject, getting as much information about the topic as I can," and ". . . trying to anticipate how the audience will react to certain parts of the speech." Dabney explained, "In planning . . . you go through the steps and you expect the audience to react to certain things you say." Later, he concluded, "You are successful when you pre-plan for the audience and they do react in the way you visualize."

So for Dabney, speech composition need not be a protracted process, and is more a matter of anticipating the audience's subjective response to information, than of producing an objectively reasoned communique. According to Dabney, speech is not the process of simply transferring information from his mind to the minds of audience members:

Speech is a process of communication. It's one person in front of others trying to get them to understand. . . . Through humor or some sort of anecdote or something, I try to create that understanding. Simplify it, simplify it even more; make a story -- people love to hear a story -- anything.

Most importantly, Dabney does not see the speech composition or preparation phase as ending prior to delivery of the speech. On several occasions, Dabney made reference to the fact that, for him, speech composition occurs even while he is in front of his audience:

I go wild trying to think of something on the spot so that they will react and they will understand. Otherwise, they miss the whole concept. You may as well not be speaking. The audience has to respond, otherwise, it's not communication, they don't get anything out of it. You may as well write it down; you may as well write a book; you may as well make a T.V. show and hope people will listen to it, hope people will see it or hope people will read it. When you're actually telling someone something, it's the greatest thing, and if they respond to it, then it's successful and you know it's successful right there.

In relating his speech strategies, Dabney did not differentiate between speech composition and speech delivery methods; clearly, he saw both as integral parts of a unified speech process. During the course of his interviews, Dabney did generalize a number of specific rhetorical strategies which he said he consciously employed in his public speaking. Dabney maintained that these strategies were self-fashioned, although he did admit that his personal rhetorical style was heavily influenced by teachers and other speakers who had impressed him over the years. It was not until the final week of class in SPC 1014, Dabney claimed, that he "seriously" read the assigned text, thus Dabney denied that his speech method was in anyway influenced by the recommendations of a speech book.

Nevertheless, Dabney admitted that when he finally did read his speech text, he was surprised to find himself in agreement with many of its recommendations:

It's funny, I'm just starting to read the book now, and things that they're saying, like about analyzing your audience, are things I was saying to you the other day. I just looked through all the chapters and found myself agreeing, so I don't think I'd change a whole lot based upon what I've read in the book.

According to Dabney, his success as a speaker hinges upon five rhetorical strategies which he believed he uses whenever he delivers a public speech: (1) ability to accurately analyze the audience, (2) ability to adapt to audience reaction, (3) selection of "important" topics, (4) ability to relate information to the audience, and (5) use of humor. Conversely, he also indicated that his success as a speaker is in no small measure determined by his decision to reject some commonly taught rhetorical strategies, namely, preparation of an outline, oral practice of a speech, and use of premeditated gestures and phrases for strategic impact. These latter strategies Dabney condemned as "artificial and dishonest," rhetorical methods which serve to separate the speaker from the audience.

(1) Ability to Analyze the Audience. Dabney believed that much of his success as a speaker could be attributed to his integral knowledge of the audiences he had occasion to address. Realizing that he had only practiced public

speaking before audiences composed of "familiar people" (fellow students, teachers, family members), Dabney admitted that he rarely had difficulty analyzing his audience, anticipating the content and methods which would be most effective with a given audience. In SPC 1014, Dabney suggested, it was "easy" for him to become "maximally effective" because he had the benefit of ". . . constant practice in front of the same audience." "I know just who to target certain things at and who will react how," said Dabney.

Although he expressed the desire to pursue speech making as a career or avocation in the future, Dabney realized that his skills of audience analysis would have to be broadened before he could attempt speaking to a wider variety of audiences. Audience analysis, according to Dabney, is the process of understanding the knowledge and values of the audience. Dabney said he is generally able to infer this information prior to giving the speech, just by knowing the make-up of the audience with whom he will speak. Indeed, he views the true value of speech education not simply as technical practice in research and composition, but as practice in using the tools of research and composition in a variety of ways, according to the dictates of the human situation:

Because speech class is not so that everyone learns the one best way to give a speech; what's most important is finding what is the most effective way to reach that audience.

However, Dabney had learned that sometimes audience analysis does not end in the days or hours prior to delivering the speech. When a speaker finds that his audience analysis is flawed, that the audience is failing to respond as the speaker had anticipated, Dabney explained, then the rhetorical strategy of adaptation must be implemented.

(2) Ability to Adapt to Audience Reaction. In the final interview session, Dabney equated his success in public speaking with one rhetorical strategy, adaptiveness:

Speech is one big word that's very general and means so much. There are so many different kinds of speech and so many different ways to make a speech and situations in which to give a speech. I realized that this year in my class: 'Gee, there are different situations.' I always realized it, but it just really hit me how speakers have to adjust.

A speaker is successful, in Dabney's estimation, when he has analyzed the audience, has anticipated a certain audience response to his message, and, indeed, receives the response he had visualized. If that does not occur, the speaker's success is determined by his ability to "think on his feet." Dabney revealed that he had been in that position:

[What happens when your audience analysis proves incorrect?]

And that's happened too. You have to think on your feet. Just move on to your next point, would be the first thing I would say; but what I have done is just kind of extemporaneously go back and make sure they react the way I expect them to do. So I try to get the audience to react -- if it

didn't happen when I wanted it to -- the way I wanted it to.

Dabney believed that his method of preparation allows him the degree of flexibility he needs to adapt to the audience when necessary. Without a script or even an outline to follow, Dabney explained, he may turn his full attention upon the audience, reading their expressions to determine the effect of his words. Dabney stopped short of indicating that his communication is audience-driven. Instead, he believed that he allows the audience to give him feedback about the impact of his message, but that he maintains responsibility for determining the structure and content of the message. Effective speech is not just ". . . giving the audience what they want," Dabney cautioned, but:

. . . as a speaker, you have to be able to feel the audience, to understand what they will accept as an audience, and [vocal emphasis] you have to get the message across. That, I think, is the most important thing. You [vocal emphasis] can either make or break a speech; you can either get a point across, or not; you can either make them understand, or leave them confused.

While adaptiveness is essential to effective public speaking, and although public speaking is almost as transactive as some forms of interpersonal communication, according to Dabney, the ultimate responsibility for the message rests with the speaker. Speakers must be adaptive to the audience and the situation; audiences are

not expected to adapt to the speaker in Dabney's view of public speaking.

(3) Selection of "Important" Topics. In relating his speaking autobiography, Dabney recounted how his primary concern when speaking publicly in early grades was often the entertainment value of his speech. Therefore, he favored humorous, sometimes nonsensical topics to those which had more significance; the ". . . light topics made for funnier, more entertaining reports, and were easier to prepare," Dabney admitted.

But by high school, a desire to apply his skills to more significant endeavors led Dabney to select "difficult" or academically challenging topics for reports and speeches. Although Dabney admitted that he sometimes reverted to selecting speech topics based solely upon their entertainment potential, he explained that this was usually only a fall-back measure, when he found himself short of the time needed to thoroughly research and prepare a more "important" issue, as in his choice of topic for the informative speech assignment in SPC 1014.

Dabney saw as a sign of his maturity as a speaker the fact that mere attention and peer approval is no longer his primary motivation for selecting speech topics: "Now, I'm at a point in my life that I want to be entertaining, but I want a plan; I want to have a message." The speech topic which Dabney believed best synthesized the factors of

interest and importance was the topic of his persuasive speech, pre-marital sex. Dabney explained that he had realized that his audience would be attentive to his speech at first, simply out of curiosity. Although Dabney believed it would have been easy for him to treat the subject matter in a purely entertaining fashion, he had selected this topic because he had information and opinions about the practice of pre-marital sex which he believed could be of value to his college-age audience. Dabney said:

I could have made a lot of jokes about it, and really had everyone in stitches, but I had very serious reasons for talking to them about pre-marital sex. I wanted them to think about some of the possible consequences -- of what casual sex in the '80's means.

As will be discussed below, Dabney did employ rhetorical strategies which maintained his audience's original level of interest in this speech, without compromising his more serious purpose.

According to Dabney, a speaker should only select topics with which he is well informed, or about which he is willing to learn a great deal of information. As important as the significance of the topic to the audience is the apparent significance of the topic to the speaker; if the speaker does not seem to be well informed or vitally interested in the topic, his credibility will be severely damaged. Dabney explained:

I think the most important thing in a speech is just how comfortable you are with your topic. As a result of that you learn poise -- to be comfortable in any setting, with any audience. As long as you're comfortable with your material, you can pretty much talk about that unhindered, with any audience and feel like you will be accepted and that your ideas will make an impression. You have to be more comfortable with your topic.

Further, Dabney concluded, when he selects topics which he believes are significant, "It's fun, and when I get up it's not work. When it's something I like that I'm speaking on, I do well naturally."

(4) Ability to Relate to the Audience. Dabney explained that he attributed a large part of his success as a speaker to what he termed the "relating factor." By this he meant his ability to select "facts" which were understandable and relevant to his audience. In discussing his persuasive speech, Dabney observed that this "relating factor" had been significant in his success:

I wanted to stress the fact that pre-marital sex increases the risk of spreading AIDS, it increased unwanted pregnancies and I just delved into that. You know, I stressed some things along the way and I wanted to hit home.

Dabney explained how he interprets and phrases the "facts" he finds in his research so as to express the information in the most interesting or personal terms. Again using the persuasive speech on pre-marital sex as his example, Dabney said:

I used statistics from certain sources and they give like a yearly statistic of how many babies were killed through abortion, and then I just

broke that down to how many died a day -- three thousand five hundred or whatever. I did that because that's something that they can grasp more than they could the concept of a year. The concept of a year they could understand, but a day is something they will have finished when they go to sleep -- that's a day. Everybody knows what a day is and that they have to accomplish certain things in a day. So then, I said, 'this weekend, just think, ten thousand babies were killed.' And they know what a weekend is, being in college -- weekends are a very important thing. Besides, weekends are when a lot of pre-marital sex happens. So it's the relating factor.

Even when Dabney perceived that his performance on a given speech was not completely successful, as in the informative speech he delivered early in the semester, he believed he virtually always succeeded in relating his message to his audience. In other words, Dabney's admitted shortcomings as a speaker are his tendency to procrastinate in speech preparation and his lack of organization in speech delivery, but even when Dabney's speeches lack extensive preparation and a strong sense of order, he believes that he never fails to relate to his audience on a personal level.

(5) Use of Humor. Closely related to Dabney's attention to relevance in his speeches is his use of humor when communicating. Dabney perceives himself as a "naturally funny" person; he related that throughout his life he had been encouraged by parents, friends and teachers to express himself freely and openly, had been permitted to practice the skills of impersonation, parody, and humorous

improvisation free from any form of punishment or reprisal.

Dabney remembered:

I've always enjoyed just getting up in front of people and doing that kind of thing. I don't know if it's an attention thing. I like the attention, but if I have something to say on top of getting the attention, and maybe someone is listening, then that is the best -- that's when communication is the best.

Dabney said that he was entering a phase in his life when he no longer found fulfillment in knowing that he had simply entertained his audience; he wished to use his humor as a rhetorical tool which would help maintain audience attention while he communicated a more serious purpose:

When I would get up for the sole purpose of entertaining in a talent show, for example, and it works, that's great, and then likewise in a speech if I have something to say. . . . My last speech was on pre-marital sex -- anti pre-marital sex -- and the audience was just listening, and I used those skills that I had and I used it for something a little more serious. It wasn't just entertaining, and that's when it was the most rewarding.

Still, the temptation to revert to simpler messages, meant only to entertain, is occasionally too strong for Dabney to resist. Dabney reported that he consciously looks for situations in his life which might offer the opportunity for him to gain the attention, and frequently the laughter, of an audience:

I've had a lot of opportunities to speak in front of audiences in my life, but I know that I've actively sought out many of them. . . . I like impromptu speeches the best, better than plain speeches. That's when I can really shine because I can just be myself and go crazy with the subject, making all kinds of connections that the

audience might not have expected. When I get the feedback from them that they're enjoying what I'm doing, that's all I need: I'll push it out way beyond the limits.

Nevertheless, by the end of his semester in SPC 1014, Dabney had reconciled with the fact that his bent toward humor was best used sparingly if he was to be viewed as a credible speaker. He would anticipate an occasional opportunity to give free expression to his sense of humor in informal, unstructured situations where impromptu speaking is encouraged, but he would determine that most speaking occasions required more formal preparation and more conservative rhetorical methods. "Now I'm at a point in my life that I want to be entertaining, but I want a plan; I want to have a message," Dabney concluded.

Feelings and Attitudes About Speech

Although Dabney had regarded his speech class in highschool as a "joke course" in which he ". . . learned absolutely nothing of value," his opinion toward speech education changed as a result of his experiences in SPC 1014. Dabney credited the policies and standards of his college speech instructor with his changed attitudes toward speech class:

My teacher takes it seriously -- really takes it seriously. She grades kind of hard on speeches. That's good; I think grading hard is the only way for students to take it all seriously, to seriously take a speech class. People never take speech class seriously, usually. They think, 'Oh, that's just a blow off class.' But grades

make it a little more real: I know I can have fun with it, but I've got to do good, too.

Dabney believed that, even though he entered his speech class with a relatively high level of speaking skill, he had greatly improved as a speaker as a result of additional speech training:

I needed this course to refine my thought processes and my organizational skills, so I learned a lot this semester. I think I have improved. And I think I realize that I have a lot more weaknesses than I thought I did as far as speaking. It gives me something to work on now. But I think I've improved just by knowing that I have to work on a lot of things, just really max out being effective. . . .

Despite the fact that Dabney had only recently come to value formal speech training as a part of his academic program, his attitude toward the process of oral communication in general, and public speaking in particular, had always been favorable. This favorable attitude toward speech remained unaltered as a result of his experiences in SPC 1014. Dabney admitted that his love for oral communication is an integral part of his personality:

When I'm excited about something, I'm louder and aggressive, very talkative. When I'm quiet and content, I'm not really content with myself. That's wierd, I know, but when I'm content, I'm just very laid back and nothing really bothers me, and I'm not as active or loud.

Dabney also admitted that he actively seeks opportunities to communicate orally, preferably in a public setting. In Dabney's words, "Anytime you get up in front of a group and

say something, you really are giving a speech. And I have actively sought it, I know."

Throughout the interview process, Dabney related numerous examples of situations in which he had voluntarily engaged in public oral communication: academic and extracurricular speeches in school, impromptu messages delivered in church, spontaneous "pep-talks" to motivate fellow members of clubs and organizations, and even episodes of class clowning. Each experience which Dabney related was viewed by him as positive; even when he had not achieved the outcome he had anticipated, Dabney explained, the chance to interact with people was, in itself, rewarding. Dabney expected that his active pursuit of public communication opportunities would continue through college and into his career. As if in proof of this prediction, Dabney offered:

I'm already president of my fraternity pledge class, and I sent out a little newsletter. We had to give a little speech, but I tried to keep it a little more low key than in the past. But, I can see myself very definitely trying to hold leadership positions.

Dabney's extensive history of public communication attempts is not unexpected when viewed in light of his scores on the PRCA-24 measure. The PRCA-24 reports an individual's perceptions of his level of apprehension associated with oral communication, where 24 corresponds with the lowest, and 120 corresponds with the highest levels of reported communication apprehension. As reported

above, Dabney's score on the PRCA-24 was only 28, one of the lowest scores in the sampling pool used in this study. Further, Dabney's subscore for apprehension associated with public speaking was 7 on a scale where the lowest possible score is 6 and the highest possible score is 30.

What is surprising, however, is the fact that on several occasions during the interview process, Dabney indicated that he had often experienced "nervousness" when engaged in public speaking. Indeed, Dabney speculated that it is often nervousness which "inspires" him to perform well in public speaking situations. "In most cases, when I'm nervous about something or anxious about something, I get very animated and talkative," Dabney explained.

Distinguishing his form of nervousness from that which would inhibit a speaker, Dabney believes, is the way the "nervous energy" is used. Dabney related his "theory on nerves" in the following manner:

I get nervous, but I think it's what I do with that nervous energy. A friend of mine observed that about me once. I get the butterflies, but it's how you channel it, what you do with that nervous energy. You can't let it overcome you; you have to utilize it somehow, let it push you along and kind of stimulate you.

When asked how he "channels" his nervousness during a speech, Dabney was unable to give a specific reply, but observed, "I go into a speech with a good idea of what I want to say, then I just let the nervous energy take over to add the feeling, the enthusiasm to the speech."

The only negative statements which Dabney made regarding speech were directed at pedagogic practices which he believed threatened his freedom of expression or his ability to relate with his audience. For example, Dabney maintained on several occasions:

What I hate about speech classes is when they make you write an outline and follow it. I think by the time you get to college, you know how to make an outline; it's a pain. For me, I find I can just scratch down ideas, get a feel for them and just do the speech. I'd rather pay attention to the audience than to worry about whether I'm following a piece of paper.

Dabney also expressed displeasure over the practice of instructors to ". . . require a certain number of sources," or to ". . . require you to give a speech in a certain way." According to Dabney, if speech is to become a skill which is applicable to one's daily life, "Students should discover for themselves what method is best for them." In conclusion, Dabney summarized his feelings and attitudes about speech class and public speaking by saying:

This class should be mandatory, but not the text, and not certain formulas for speaking. The most important thing is that each student is at least more comfortable speaking in front of people-- just through experience -- and has felt out what method of preparing and giving speech is best for them. I would allow them to come up with their own way because I think the only way you feel comfortable as a speaker is by exploring. That's how I have learned.

Relating the Speech Process

During Dabney's first interview session, he had very few comments regarding his upcoming speech assignment. He

related that it was to be a "special occasion speech," a speech which might be given in a ceremonial context. Explaining that his speech could be a welcome, an introduction, a eulogy, a tribute, an award presentation or acceptance, Dabney was as yet uncertain what type of special occasion speech he would deliver. He indicated that he was considering "teaming up" with a fellow classmate, creating a fictional context in which both could deliver their speeches. Dabney speculated:

I may pair up with a girl in class -- she [instructor] said that we could give our speeches in pairs. So this girl and I were talking the other day and thought it might be good if one of us presented an award, and the other received it. But there's nothing definite yet.

This first interview took place three weeks before Dabney was due to deliver this speech in class. He explained that he had never begun work on any speech so far in advance of its due date; thus, he did not anticipate preparing for this speech until at most one week before delivery. Still, it was apparent from Dabney's comments that he had begun to think about the upcoming speech in so far as he approached another classmate with the idea of collaborating their efforts. Indeed, Dabney's initial ideas for this speech which he expressed during the first interview would prove to be very close to the speech he actually would deliver in class, even though he seemed to change his mind about his topic and method throughout the weeks of the interview process.

The second meeting with Dabney occurred two weeks before he was to deliver his special occasion speech in class. At this meeting, Dabney was very resistant to discussing the upcoming speech, maintaining that he had no intentions of "working on" the speech until after the upcoming holiday weekend. When asked whether he planned to think about the speech during the next week, Dabney conceded:

Maybe I'll think about it. But I have other things to do -- other classes to prepare for. This just isn't that big a deal for me to put a lot of time into it.

Dabney continued this line of thought, explaining that he perceived this speech assignment as "easier" than some of his former assignments:

First of all, it's our last speech. I think our major speeches, the ones that really make a difference in our grade, we've already given. And the type of assignment this is -- a special occasion speech -- lends itself to more of an extemporaneous, even impromptu method of delivery. I guess I just see this as more of a 'fun' assignment, something we're supposed to have fun with. It's a lot more like the speeches I used to give in high school.

It will be remembered that Dabney claimed to spend little if any time in preparation for his speeches in high school; he virtually never began preparing for a speech two weeks before the delivery date.

Although Dabney denied performing any formal preparation of his upcoming speech, he did reveal an idea which he had for the presentation. Interestingly, it was a

concept which did not include collaboration with the classmate, as originally planned. Dabney said:

I was thinking that I wanted to do the welcoming speech, which is welcoming a group of people to a certain function. There's this bizarre idea I have in my head that I was going to welcome the ministers of the Church of Lunar Awareness to a NASA official dinner as they donate so much money to the space program because they worship the moon -- or something like that.

According to Dabney, at this point in his preparation, he knew only that he wanted to ". . . do something weird"; he was still uncertain what the content of his speech would be.

Dabney ended this interview relating the fact that he had a test in his speech class the following day:

We have a test tomorrow in speech on eight or nine chapters and I'm just starting to read them now -- just starting to get a grasp on them.

He stated that he hoped that, in studying for the test, he would discover some information or receive some inspiration which would help him make a decision about his upcoming speech. Nevertheless, Dabney remained confident that he had plenty of time remaining to prepare a successful speech.

The third meeting with Dabney occurred one week before he was to deliver his special occasion speech to the class. Dabney opened the interview with the information that he had decided to work with his classmate, after all, and that they planned to give their speeches in the context of an award presentation and acceptance:

This girl and I are definitely doing our speech together. I'm going to introduce her. She's going to be some movie star, and I'm going to give her an award, is what it's going to boil down to.

Asked what he perceived as the content for his speech,

Dabney replied:

It's going to basically fill the requirements of the speech. . . . Probably describe the nature of the award and then why this recipient is receiving the award and for what work. That's basically what I have to fulfill as far as the introduction: the nature of the award and why the recipient is receiving the award.

However, Dabney said that he had not "worked out the details" of what he would say, claiming that "It'll probably be one of those improv things -- you know, last minute -- 'how about this?'"

Still, Dabney admitted that he would have to prepare at least some of his remarks since it would be necessary for him to coordinate his speech with that of his partner. Although he believed it largely unnecessary, Dabney had agreed to meet with his classmate later that day to ". . . work out the particulars of our speeches."

When asked how he felt about the upcoming assignment, Dabney offered:

I'm feeling very confident about it. We had to give impromptu speeches Wednesday. She passed a little cup around the class with little questions about how we felt about different things. We all did really well. I was sitting next to the girl who was writing down the grades. Ms. C. was feeding her the grades, and out of five maximum points, I got five.

It is interesting to note that Dabney believed that his communication strength prior to taking SPC 1014 was impromptu speaking, but that he had made an effort during his college speech course to improve his research and preparation skills. With his recent success in an impromptu speaking assignment, and what he perceived as less stringent requirements for the final speech assignment, Dabney apparently intended to rely upon his old methods one more time. Dabney left this third meeting with the intention of preparing minimally and delivering an essentially improvised speech.

Intentions do not always translate into realities. Dabney's final interview was scheduled for a few days after he delivered his speech in class. Immediately following the speech, he wrote a note to the investigator recounting what had occurred in the week following the last interview, and attached a sheet which he claimed was the manuscript of the speech which he delivered in class (see Appendix D). Dabney wrote in his cover note:

Here is exactly what I said during my last speech, the special occasion speech. This girl and I worked together. I introduced her (see sheet), and she accepted the award which was a roll of toilet paper. We had orchestra music in the background. And yes, I prepared for it !!!
Weird, huh?

It was apparent that Dabney had not improvised his speech, but the reason for his change in preparation strategy was

unclear in his note. Dabney's final interview would provide the answer.

In Dabney's last interview he recounted that "creative differences" between him and his partner had resulted in both of them writing out verbatim manuscripts of their speeches. Although he admitted that the presentation had been received well by the audience and the instructor, Dabney maintained that he was dissatisfied with the performance, and had found the preparation method distasteful:

First of all, this whole thing was her idea. She wanted control of the entire concept. She is always very highly prepared for her speeches; I think she always writes out everything and memorizes it, and that's what she wanted us to do for this speech. We just clashed at every turn. Then she wanted to have two practice sessions. Can you imagine that? I really balked at that. In the end, I guess I really could have used more preparation, because I couldn't remember all I was supposed to say; I had to look at my sheet a few times.

Ironically, Dabney had anticipated preparing minimally for this speech, making full use of the impromptu method with which he is most comfortable. Instead, he was forced to adopt a preparation and delivery method which he had never used before, pre-writing and memorization, and found himself feeling unprepared and ineffective. Although he was evaluated satisfactorily and received his customary positive feedback from the audience, Dabney perceived that this was his least successful effort:

I was more self-conscious as a speaker, even though the speech seemed to be having a good effect on the audience. I wasn't as free to do anything as radical as I would have if I were working by myself. I really felt out of it.

In spite of the fact that his last speech was not the crowning effort he had hoped it would be, Dabney concluded that he was satisfied with his overall performance in SPC 1014. Indeed, Dabney foresaw himself continuing his efforts to improve as a speaker throughout his college career, and into his professional life. For Dabney, public speaking was not merely a general education requirement, but an integral part of his self-development, something he even ". . . fantasized doing professionally one day." Dabney remarked:

I'd like to think that I will eventually become good enough to travel and speak on certain subjects and entertain and inform people. I'd like to do that; that's kind of a goal of mine in fact, I'd like to be able to do that. Where I am right now, I don't think I could really do that effectively. I need a lot more work on it, but I don't know; I could see myself definitely doing that someday.

Case Study 5 -- "Jacqueline"

Background Information

Jacqueline, a nineteen-year-old white female, was enrolled in one of instructor D's two sections of SPC 1014 during the spring semester, 1988. Jacqueline came to the University of Central Florida directly after graduating from a high school in the West. At the time of the study, Jacqueline lived with roommates in campus dormitories, but

anticipated moving to her sorority's house the following semester.

During the time she was being interviewed, Jacqueline had not yet declared a major. She revealed that she had enrolled in speech class during the second semester of her freshman year because the class ". . . fit [her] schedule, and besides, [she] liked debate and forensics in high school." Indeed, Jacqueline revealed early in the interview process that she had won an award in high school forensics only the year before.

By the time of the first interview, Jacqueline had already delivered two speeches in SPC 1014. She had earned an "A" for her first speech effort and a "B" for her second. The speech which Jacqueline was in the process of composing during the interview period was a persuasive speech.

On the PRCA-24 instrument, Jacqueline scored 95, placing her within the high-range of apprehension scores for the sample described in Chapter Three. For the purpose of this study, Jacqueline was considered to have a "higher" level of communication apprehension.

It should be noted here that Jacqueline did not complete the interview process, even though she entered the study expressing the intention of participating in at least four interview sessions. Jacqueline failed to keep the appointment for the third interview session, but notified

the researcher that she would call to reschedule the two remaining sessions for a "more convenient time." However, Jacqueline did not contact the researcher, and the researcher's many attempts to contact Jacqueline were unsuccessful. Nevertheless, the information which Jacqueline shared in her two interviews was deemed too valuable to be discounted. Further, the very fact that Jacqueline discontinued the interview process may provide revelations about her communication attitudes and behaviors, especially when viewed in the context of the information she shared.

Speaking Autobiography

While Jacqueline did not initiate discussion of her family and early school-related communication experiences during her first interview, she did offer information about her experiences in high school speech, debate and forensics during the first interview session:

It was not really speech, but when I was in high school, I won a second-place ribbon in prose reading -- interpretive reading. I really enjoyed that. But I don't really think that's the same thing as giving a speech. . . .

In spite of the fact that Jacqueline did not think that her experiences in high school forensics were genuine speech experiences, she had apparently anticipated enjoying and performing well in her college speech class on the merit of her prior experiences with public communication. Later in the first interview, Jacqueline observed:

I took speech because, of course it's required, but also because I really used to like getting up in front of people and talking or performing -- I used to really enjoy that in high school.

However, Jacqueline explained that she found SPC 1014 to be quite different from her expectations; indeed, she was to find that her attitudes about public speaking were quite different from her attitudes toward other forms of public performance. It was not until the second interview, however, that Jacqueline elaborated upon any of her past communication experiences.

Jacqueline said that she had no vivid memories of her communication experiences or attitudes prior to highschool. Characterizing herself as a "happy-go-lucky kind of child," Jacqueline recalled only that in her early years she had been a good student, active in many extracurricular groups and "pretty popular" with her classmates.

According to Jacqueline, the focus of her life in childhood was often school rather than home:

A lot of the time, I was really only home to sleep and eat. I have always been really involved in a lot of activities at school, so that took up most of my time.

This observation was made by way of explaining why Jacqueline believed she was long unaware of the rift which was developing within her family throughout her childhood. According to Jacqueline, her family communicated very little, serving first to create, then to mask increasingly serious problems:

I'm the baby of the family. I have an older sister and brother. My mom stayed home; my dad worked all the time and they got along really good -- that was just a big show, though. I found out later that they fought terribly. We were like the Brady Bunch, the little family that did everything together -- they were just covering up, though. I found out later that they were having problems even then, but I never knew about it.

By the time Jacqueline realized that her image of her family was inaccurate, her sister had been admitted for treatment of anorexia nervosa, her brother was floundering in school and her parents were fighting openly. In Jacqueline's view, this revelation about her family was a sort of betrayal: she explained that she felt isolated from her family once she realized she had not been informed of their problems:

I didn't know Mom and Dad had problems because they hid it. Then my sister was having problems, but they tried to protect me from that. . . . I was so busy in middle school and high school, so I was never really home to find out about a lot of the problems; I was never really that close to any of them.

According to Jacqueline, this sense of isolation manifested itself in anger by the time she learned the full truth:

My whole family finally went through counselling. They tried to make me go, but I refused. I had everything working for me by my senior year, and they weren't there for me earlier when I needed help dealing with things. So when they wanted me to help them with their problem, and I was O.K., I said 'no.' I guess it's bad to say, but I hold grudges -- and I'm like, 'It's your problem -- I won't go!'

Jacqueline explained that her family's problems reached a climax in her senior year of high school when her mother

"left home." "My brother didn't live home then; it was just me and my Dad there my senior year, and my sister lived close," Jacqueline said. During this time, Jacqueline believed, a relationship between her and her father was finally cemented, a relationship which Jacqueline often referred to as the driving force behind her strong desire to succeed in college:

I think that has a lot to do with why a B's no good, because I could see that my brother failed at everything. My dad really puts pressure on me to be the best. My sister, she was intelligent, completely, but she messed up because she had a boyfriend throughout college. She is so intelligent, but she got straight C's because she spent so much time with him. . . . They were really hard on my sister. I can tell my dad is not happy if my grades aren't good.

Despite the fact that Jacqueline believed that her father "puts pressure" upon her to succeed in school, she admitted that he is supportive of her. Jacqueline described her newly-formed relationship with her father as "comfortable," facilitated by relatively open communication. She contrasted her relationship with her mother as one in which communication is often difficult:

My mom -- we hardly even talk, so she can't have any pressure on me. But she's like the bad person in my life. My dad won't give me any advice; he always asks me how I feel. If I completely broke down, he'd help me, but he wants me to do it on my own. It's pretty easy for me to talk to my dad now, but it wasn't always easy. That's the psychiatrist that helped him.

Jacqueline summarized her description of her family's communication patterns by observing:

In my family, if you had a problem, you just shut up. I remember my dad would pout and try to make my mom figure out what was wrong. It's good for me now, because I won't act like that in my life. If I have a problem, I'm going to tell them what's wrong. It was bad in my family for a while, but it's worked out for the better.

Jacqueline depicted herself as an assertive individual who "[stands] up for [her] own rights" and "solve[s her] own problems." At the same time, however, she admitted that she often felt "pushed" or "influenced" by others to perform according to an objective standard, both at home and in the classroom.

Other than remembering that she was "always a good student" and "always involved in school activities," Jacqueline could shed little light upon her primary school experiences; virtually nothing was revealed concerning Jacqueline's experiences with school-related oral communication prior to high school. Indeed, Jacqueline began relating her speaking autobiography using her highschool speech class as the point of departure.

Interestingly, although Jacqueline's high school speech class was foremost in her thoughts during the interview process, she admitted that the time she had spent in this classroom was only approximately two weeks. Jacqueline explained that while she had enjoyed her high school speech class, she was eager to leave it when she was offered a position on the school "speech team." But in Jacqueline's words, the honor of being "moved up" from the standard

speech class to a special class for team members was dubious at best:

I really only had speech for two weeks or so in high school, and I wanted to be on the speech team, so she [speech instructor] moved me up, and we didn't do anything. We just came to class and left. We only had to show our faces at the door, which was a thrill in high school because you had been in school all day But there was not much speech training, really.

Although Jacqueline earned the privilege to advance to the "special" speech class because of the talent she had demonstrated early in her regular speech class, she soon viewed her work on the speech team as profoundly different from the assignments in her speech class. Indeed, Jacqueline denied several times that her performances in forensic tournaments were "anything like real speech." She explained:

My events were debate and prose reading. It wasn't like giving a speech; they [readings] weren't your words. Debate was completely different. You had to think on your feet, you had to listen to everything they were saying and think up what you would say in return. It was really frustrating, really harassing. The prose was easier because you weren't doing your own stuff. It was a lot easier that way. You had to worry only about eye contact and about nonverbals.

When asked the difference between tournament speaking, specifically debate and prose reading, and the type of public speaking she encountered in her college speech class, Jacqueline responded:

Speech is harder than reading, and beforehand, speech is harder than debate. But doing it, debate is harder because you're taking in all of

it while you're trying to think of what to say. In speech, you basically know what you're going to say; no one is going to challenge you half way through. And it's not like you're going to find this huge flaw, unless you haven't prepared-- that will be revealed. But it's not like you're going to get up there and choke if you've prepared your speech.

Jacqueline saw prose reading as the easiest form of oral communication to prepare and deliver since it involves only an understanding of the piece being read, and a certain degree of attention to the appropriate delivery of the material. Nonetheless, Jacqueline expressed pride in having won a second place ribbon for interpretive reading in a local forensics competition. Indeed, she intended to have the award sent to her from her home so that she could show it to the interviewer. When Jacqueline discontinued the interview process, she had not yet received the ribbon from home, and the researcher never obtained verification of the award for Jacqueline's supporting document appendix.

Aside from her brief experience in high school speech class, Jacqueline did not remember specific instances of public speaking or oral communication in a classroom setting. Nevertheless, she generalized:

I'm sure I gave oral reports and book reports-- everybody does. I don't think they bothered me that much -- just the normal nervousness you get when you aren't sure that you're doing it the right way. But you didn't have to worry about delivery in those. They're not really speeches. You're just reporting on something. It's not your own ideas.

Clearly, Jacqueline viewed public speaking as practiced in speech classes and speech competitions as different from the "everyday" communication requirements of the classroom.

Although book and oral reports were not seen by Jacqueline as similar to public speaking, her experiences in high school cheerleading were. Perhaps the fact that she occasionally had the opportunity to speak in school-wide assembly programs led Jacqueline to view her cheerleading experiences as analogous to public speaking experience:

I loved being up there in front of everybody. And we had to hold a microphone in front of a whole auditorium of people and talk. I liked that a lot, but I was just saying, 'and the football player of the week is' It wasn't hard. It was what people wanted to hear.

Jacqueline remarked several times during her interviews that during high school, she saw herself as a confident, competent public communicator. Although she admitted to minor nervousness immediately prior to debates or cheerleading competitions, she explained that her anxiety had always subsided once she became involved in the communication activity or the performance. Indeed, it was the high level of success which Jacqueline had experienced in her high school extracurricular activities which sparked her interest in enrolling in a speech class in college. In remembering her expectations upon entering SPC 1014, Jacqueline recounted that she was ". . . looking forward to giving speeches because [she] always enjoyed getting up in

front of people and performing in the past." Further, she denied that she felt any significant apprehension with regard to public speaking upon entering her college speech class, explaining that since this was her second semester of college, she had grown accustomed to meeting "strangers" and to ". . . having to talk to people [she didn't] know."

But Jacqueline found that her attitudes toward public speaking would change after only a few assignments in SPC 1014. Further, Jacqueline perceived that her view of herself as a highly competent speaker was challenged by her instructor. Finally, the most profound change Jacqueline underwent, perhaps as a result of her college speech experiences, was the manifestation of behaviors and feelings commonly associated with higher levels of communication apprehension.

Jacqueline entered SPC 1014 after having successfully completed one semester of college. During her interviews, Jacqueline explained that she had been apprehensive about "going away to school," where she had feared she would ". . . not know anybody, not have anyone to talk with." However, in Jacqueline's first semester of her freshman year, she had not only earned A's and B's in all of her classes; she had been invited to join a sorority and taken a part-time job in the nearby community.

Still, by the second semester of her first year in college, Jacqueline had not yet declared a major, nor did

preparation of her first speech, Jacqueline estimated ". . . it must have been a week or more."

It was her second speech which caused Jacqueline to question her public speaking abilities. Jacqueline admitted that she had not prepared as thoroughly for this speech as she had for her first:

On that last speech, I did it on Dallas, and I thought 'Shoot, I could do anything on Dallas, I don't need to write it.' I think that's why I didn't prepare as well. I thought, 'Eh, this will be easy,' and that's why I didn't fair as well.

Rather than writing a complete essay about her subject, committing the essay to memory and practicing the recitation of the essay for days prior to the speech, Jacqueline composed her second speech using the extemporaneous method described by her instructor and her speech text. Prior to the speech date, she organized her thoughts about the subject in a brief outline; on the day of the speech, she used that outline to structure the message she composed in front of her classroom audience. Jacqueline explained that she believed that she knew the subject so well that it would be "easy" to compose her message aloud, in the presence of her audience.

However, Jacqueline found extemporaneous speaking to be quite difficult:

I got nervous; I kept saying the same things over. I didn't prepare as well for that one as I did the earlier one, and I could feel it while I was up there. . . . I had a lot of repetition; I kept using the same words to describe things.

Adding to the difficulty which she felt in speaking extemporaneously was an unexpected interruption during her speech to which Jacqueline was forced to adapt:

Also, during my speech, someone walked in in the middle of it. He like opened the door and I looked at him and just blanked out. I couldn't remember what I had been talking about for a minute.

Despite the problems she perceived in her own performance, Jacqueline maintained that she did not finish the speech with the feeling that she had "done terribly." "I didn't think it was an A -- I don't think I did my best, but I didn't think I had done terribly," Jacqueline asserted. Jacqueline said that she was surprised and discouraged when she received her instructor's evaluation of her work:

He gave me an 81; that's a low B. I didn't expect a 90 or anything, but I didn't expect an 81 either. I don't know what he wants on a lot of the categories. Like on voice: he marked me down on that for the first speech and for the last one. I mean, I know on the first one I got it because whenever I get nervous, my voice gets this funny tone in it -- it's just completely different. But this time I thought I sounded a lot better; still he marked me down for it. And on eye-contact and nonverbal: I can't seem to get those right, but I don't know what I should change.

Thus, while Jacqueline perceived the weakness in the second speech to be in the areas of organization and content, her instructor perceived weakness in the areas of physical delivery, factors over which Jacqueline believed she had little control. In anticipating her third speech, Jacqueline expressed concern that she ". . . get her

nervousness under control" so that she could affect a better evaluation. To succeed, Jacqueline believed she must return to the method of preparation which had made her feel confident during the first speech: writing, memorizing, practicing and reciting. Interestingly, attempting to use the extemporaneous method of delivery advocated by the text and instructors of SPC 1014 was seen by Jacqueline as the source of her downfall in her second speech, a perception seemingly reinforced by her instructor's comparatively low evaluation of this speech effort.

The foregoing is a synopsis of Jacqueline's relevant oral communication experiences up to the point of the interview process. While it is certainly not exhaustive of the subject's experience with oral communication, Jacqueline's speaking autobiography represents those incidents and issues which she believed to be most expressive of her background and identity as a "successful student speaker." The remainder of this case study investigates the strategies, thoughts, feelings and attitudes which Jacqueline had and the behaviors she exhibited with regard to the speech she was in the process of composing during the weeks of the interview.

Speech Strategies

Jacqueline entered her college speech class with a rather positive self perception in terms of her speaking

ability, a self perception primarily fostered by her experiences and awards received in high school forensic competitions. By her own admission, Jacqueline's oral interpretation and debate expertise was only partially applicable to the new task of speech making which she undertook in her college classroom. Jacqueline approached her first speech assignment in the manner which she found most familiar and comfortable: she wrote an essay on the topic she had selected, committed the manuscript to memory and practiced reciting the memorized manuscript until she was confident she "knew" it well enough to recite it before an audience. Although the context and content of the classroom speech was somewhat different from the forensic tournament where Jacqueline was accustomed to reading and reciting prose passages or debate evidence, Jacqueline adapted the oral composition strategies she had perfected in high school to the new public speaking situation.

Throughout her interviews, Jacqueline equated speech composition with written composition. When she explained how she typically decided upon a topic for a speech, Jacqueline explained:

I learned this technique in English class in high school: they made us -- like for any paper -- we had to brainstorm. We had to sit there and just brainstorm; that's all you could do. You couldn't make an outline; you just had to brainstorm for a certain period of time. So that method just stuck with me, and that's how I decide on my topic.

Jacqueline saw her first speech in SPC 1014 as her best effort to date. Although she had deviated from her preferred method of composition in her second speech, Jacqueline expected to return to her original strategies in the upcoming speech: extemporaneous composition and delivery, Jacqueline believed, did not work for her. She explained that she had been successful with her first speech because she had prepared thoroughly; for Jacqueline, preparation means extensive pre-writing:

After I decided on my topic, like a week or so before the speech, I just jotted down ideas. Anytime something came to my mind, I just wrote it down and then I just divided it up. That first speech was on exercise, and like, I was doing it on the physical and psychological benefits, and I just wrote down, like when I was sitting in class or whatever, and I'd think of something and write it down. Then, just a week before the speech, I just combined it. That's like the very beginning, when I didn't even have an outline yet.

After spending time thinking about her topic and writing brief notes, Jacqueline said that she had spent at least a week prior to the due date of the first speech writing, memorizing and practicing her message. According to Jacqueline, this method and time-frame is her preferred strategy for speech preparation, the method she intended to employ in her upcoming speech:

I just make an outline, and then I always, I don't know why, but I always pick out three points. And then I break those down, and then I write a paragraph for each thing, design a paragraph, like if it was a regular paper or something, except for I usually write the introduction really good, and the first point really good, and then I kind of go briefer and briefer and then I just kind of go

from whatever pops up. Then I practice it over and over and over until I basically have the introduction memorized. I do write the conclusion out, also.

According to Jacqueline, in order to prepare adequately, she needs at least ten hours of practice time once the speech manuscript has been composed:

I need tons of time to practice. Well, on that first speech, I needed about ten hours because what happened is that I had it all written the week before -- I mean I was finished completely-- and all I did was practice after that. I would just say it twice a day.

When asked what constitutes a practice session, Jacqueline explained that she prefers to recite the speech orally, in private. Jacqueline elaborated:

Sometimes I'll look in the mirror. On the last speech, though, I didn't look in the mirror at all. I had some visual aids, so I just spoke to the wall. They always say that you should find someone to listen to your speech, but it's really hard for me. I'd rather just get up and do it for the class where everybody knows that's what you have to do, rather than getting somebody to come hear you and they have to say 'Oh, that's really neat.'

Despite the fact that Jacqueline saw great similarities between written and speech composition, she was also willing to acknowledge significant differences between the two. When asked whether she writes differently for speech class and composition class, Jacqueline replied:

Yes, because something I might say in an English paper, I won't say in class. Like, I wouldn't use humor in class, because I'm afraid it wouldn't go over, whereas if it's just the English teacher reading it, I'll go ahead and say a stupid pun, or something. . . . But also, in a speech, you can be much more conversational, almost more natural,

where the other [writing] is so formal. It's harder in a paper to put your feelings into it. You can do so much with your tone of voice.

On yet another occasion, Jacqueline noted:

In papers I always write with formal language and stuff, and I don't want to get up there and say 'henceforth,' and stuff like that, so it's different.

Thus, although Jacqueline admitted to composing her speeches in writing, she was also aware that the language of her speech manuscripts was of a different nature from the language of her more formal compositions which would not likely be read aloud.

As for physical or nonverbal delivery, Jacqueline expressed a preference for only subtle use of gesture, movement and vocal or facial expression, believing that nonverbal delivery should not be planned, but should ". . . flow naturally from whatever you're saying." Two areas of physical delivery which had earned Jacqueline some of her lowest marks in SPC 1014 were "vocal expression" and "use of gesture." While Jacqueline conceded that her voice had taken on "a funny sound" in her past speeches, she attributed this to nervousness and complained, "I don't think it's fair to take off for something you really don't have any control over."

As for her use -- or failure to use -- gestures, Jacqueline was adamantly opposed to the evaluations of her instructor:

He [instructor] always gets up in front of the class and talks like this [gestures broadly with hands and arms], and I think that really distracts, so I can't do it. If there's a point to illustrate, I might use the hands to do that, but I don't usually talk with them on every single word. Usually, I just have them [hands] by my side, either that, or I hold them like this [folds hands in front of her]. Sometimes, I just use one, but not very much because it makes me nervous. He showed us a film that two of the instructors here made, and it was all on nonverbals. And I thought it looked dumb because they were going, '. . . and it really adds to your speech.' [Clasps hands together in an exaggerated fashion]. I was like, 'No, it doesn't add anything to your speech.' I guess that's what he wants, though; that's what he does.

According to Jacqueline, her only genuine delivery problem is eye contact; she admitted, "On eye contact, I always have to remind myself to do better -- to scan the audience." For example, Jacqueline remembered that in her last speech before the interview she ". . . stared at the right side of the room." She explained,

I think that I deserved more points for delivery than I got on that speech. But as far as eye contact goes, I think I know what I did wrong. He [instructor] sits on the left, and I think I stared at the right side of the room. Maybe I just didn't scan everybody. I mean, I know I did occasionally, but not as much as I should have.

Jacqueline explained that her difficulty with eye contact is rooted in her feelings of "nervousness," as is her difficulty with vocal control and gesture. For Jacqueline, it is easier to direct her speech to a few well-known faces or toward the "back wall" than to attempt making eye-contact with the larger audience and her instructor. In her last speech before the interview process, Jacqueline

had found refuge from her nervousness in the faces of a few friends:

Because all the people I'm really good friends with all sit on the right, I was just talking to them and, I guess, ignoring everyone else.

As will be discussed, this ability to single out even a few faces from the audience represented a significant breakthrough for Jacqueline, who customarily copes with speech apprehension by pretending the audience does not exist.

Although Jacqueline would likely observe that her success as a speaker stems largely from preparation, her willingness to spend time planning, organizing, writing and practicing a speech until it has been perfected, she did generalize a few rhetorical strategies which she believed helped her succeed as a speaker: (1) her ability to adapt her prior knowledge and experiences to topics for speeches; (2) her ability to connect main points within a speech to create a unified message; and (3) her ability to dissociate herself from her audience and the speaking situation.

(1) Adaptation of Knowledge and Experience to Topics. For each of her speech assignments in SPC 1014, Jacqueline drew upon her personal knowledge and experience when she selected and developed her topic. Jacqueline reasoned that by speaking about things with which she was highly familiar, her preparation time could be devoted more to

composition and practice, less to formal research. Further, Jacqueline believed that her credibility would be easy to establish if she could demonstrate a valid personal connection between herself and the topic of her speech.

Jacqueline's first speech had been about the value of regular exercise. She explained that the topic was "a natural" for her because she had ". . . always been athletic; always been in really good shape." Because this assignment was to be a personal belief speech, Jacqueline said she did not feel compelled to support her speech with sources other than herself. Instead, she illustrated the various benefits of exercise with examples from her own life. According to Jacqueline, she was seen by the audience as a credible spokes person for the topic because ". . . they saw that [she] practiced what [she] was talking about."

While reliance upon a familiar topic proved a clear asset in Jacqueline's first speech, in her second speech, the familiarity of the topic led to what Jacqueline called "a false sense of security." She explained:

With the speech on Dallas, I couldn't figure out how to say what I wanted to say. First off, I just assumed I was going to write on Dallas. I thought, 'How hard could that be?' and I didn't think about narrowing it down until right before hand.

In other words, because the topic was so familiar to her, Jacqueline failed to prepare her second speech as far in advance of delivery as she had her first. Her hasty

preparation the night before the speech was due necessitated an extemporaneous method of delivery which, in Jacqueline's estimation, made her seem less competent and confident. Despite her feelings of unpreparedness, Jacqueline conceded that it was only because she knew her subject so well that she was able to succeed at all in informing her audience about her hometown.

For her third speech, the one she was in the process of composing during the interview period, Jacqueline had resolved to return to her original formula for success: she would speak on a topic with which she had direct experience and would prepare her speech well in advance of its due date. She explained her strategy:

My next speech will be on the benefits of Greek organizations. But before I can do too much, I'm going to basically just see -- I mean, I don't really know what all he wants out of the persuasive speech yet because we're just studying that now Right now, I'm doing a documented essay in English on the same subject that I'm giving my speech on. So basically, I'm doing the work for it right now. So whenever my speech comes around, all I have to do is dig out what I want, 'cause I'm keeping all my notes and everything. . . . I'm just going to take it straight from my paper. . . .

The foregoing remarks were made more than two weeks before her third speech was due. Interestingly, this early in the speech composition process, Jacqueline had decided that she would compose her speech in writing rather than return to the extemporaneous method of her most recent speech. Further, Jacqueline saw the documented essay assignment she

was preparing in her English class as virtually identical to the persuasive speech assignment she was to prepare for her speech class.

(2) Connecting Points for Message Unity. When asked to identify the strategies which she believed led to her success as a speaker, Jacqueline was only able to specifically identify one: her ability to unify the points in her speech through the use of "transitions" or "connectives." Interestingly, this was yet another area in which Jacqueline's evaluation of herself as a speaker was markedly different from her instructor's evaluation of her. While discussing her most recent speech, Jacqueline commented:

One of the categories -- connectives -- I don't agree with him [instructor] on that at all. He said I didn't have any, but -- like my English teacher in high school, that was like one of her biggest things, so I thought I did really good on that. Because, like, I always tie the paragraph ahead to the one before, so I don't agree with him on that at all -- with my grade on that.

In another meeting, Jacqueline again mentioned her strategy of "connecting ideas"; this time, she provided an example to illustrate her technique:

On my speech on Dallas, I did it on the three most outstanding things or three most publicly known things about Dallas: the skyline (which the only reason I used that was because I had a poster I wanted to use as a visual aid), the Dallas Cowboys, and the 'Dallas' t.v. show. The way I did it, I set them up so like it was the Dallas skyline and the Dallas Cowboys together, because it gives kind of a realistic view of Dallas, and I tied those together by saying when I was talking

about the skyline that another famous building is Texas Stadium which is the home of the Dallas Cowboys. And then I said, 'On the other hand, if one wanted a distorted image of Dallas, watch the t.v. show. . . .'

In her upcoming speech, as will be seen in the last section of this case study, Jacqueline consciously intended to connect her main points by using phrases which would link one point to the next. Jacqueline believed that only in verbally bridging two main points, using a phrase or paragraph which explains the relationship of adjacent points, could she demonstrate mastery over the subject about which she had chosen to speak.

(3) Dissociation from Audience and Situation. According to Jacqueline, ". . . the hardest thing about speech is to get up and just be in front of people." She elaborated: "I mean, I can write speeches; I could do that before I came into this class, just from writing my English papers--it's the same thing." But for Jacqueline, the physical process of standing before an audience while speaking is both difficult and unpleasant. In order to cope with the necessity of face-to-face speech communication, Jacqueline developed a speaking strategy whereby she ignores the audience or mentally modifies the situation to make it seem less immediate and real than it really is.

For Jacqueline, the best face-to-face speaking situation is an audience of strangers. She explained:

I prefer being in front of strangers. If I don't do my best, they won't know it, and if I mess up, I'll probably never see them again, anyway.

But realizing that the speaker cannot control the composition of the audience, Jacqueline developed ways of relating to and thinking about the audience which create an atmosphere similar to that found in a formal speaking situation where the speaker and audience are not well acquainted. Even when delivering a speech in SPC 1014, Jacqueline explained that she tried, ". . . to think of the audience as a whole -- not to single out individual people who are friends." In viewing the audience as a single, anonymous body, Jacqueline is able to dissociate herself from the audience and the situation. In a sense, she is able to lapse into an "automatic" mode of delivery which requires no attention or adaptation to feedback which individual audience members may be sending.

But Jacqueline reported that, indeed, the small size of her speech class sometimes made it difficult for her to dissociate or to retreat into her speech:

I have a problem with one person or a few persons as opposed to many. Speech class I expected to be a big one, and that's bothering me because in a big class you can just scan; you don't have to look at one person and point them out or anything.

Still, Jacqueline found a way, even in her small speech class, to dissociate from her audience, to divest the situation of its reality and relevance: she became fully involved in her own message. She rationalized:

There's only fifteen people in my class and no one's ever there, either. There's only about ten people, tops always. The people who are there are like this [mimics sleeping] because it's so early in the morning. So it's not like they're really enthused about what I have to say. I think that's good in a way because when I say 'um' or something, I don't think they notice. But if it's up to me, I don't really care if they listen to what I'm saying. . . . For the sake of messing up, it's better that way They don't all have to give me one hundred per cent of their attention.

According to Jacqueline, her only concerns while speaking are ". . . remembering [her] speech," and ". . . what Mr. D. thinks of the speech."

If Jacqueline is unconcerned about the reactions of her classmates in the audience, she is vitally concerned during and after the speech with the reactions of her instructor. "I care if Mr. D. listens, but that's about it," Jacqueline admitted when expressing the general rule that she does not care to have an attentive audience while delivering a speech in SPC 1014. Jacqueline explained that she expects her instructor to be attentive, even critical of her performance, but that his attention is somehow less personally threatening than the critical attention of her peers might be. Further, Jacqueline clarified that she is really only interested in her instructor's feedback because she is anxious to know the grade she will receive for the assignment. Jacqueline explained that even when she does not fully understand an item of criticism which her

instructor might give her after a speech, she is not likely to question him or to seek additional information:

I don't know why. I guess that whenever I'm done with a speech, I just want to get out of there, just leave -- so I just probably run out. . . . I'd just as soon see it [evaluation form] as soon as he's graded me -- not that I'm going to start working on what he's suggested, but just to know what he thought -- and then I want to get out of there.

Thus, for Jacqueline, speech is best seen as a unidirectional transfer of information in which she, the speaker (1) controls the content of a pre-composed message, (2) delivers the pre-determined (often, pre-written) message to a rather amorphous audience, and (3) is evaluated upon the technical merits of the composition and delivery by an objective and irrefutable critic, the instructor.

Feelings and Attitudes About Speech

Although Jacqueline had regarded herself as a person who "enjoyed getting up in front of people" based upon the few positive public communication experiences she had in association with high school extracurricular activities, by the time she had reached the middle of her second semester of college, her perception of herself as a public speaker had changed. Jacqueline primarily credited her college speech class with her changed attitudes toward public speaking. Specifically, Jacqueline said that she had expected her college speech class to be ". . . like speech

in high school: lots of little speeches about fun and interesting things, and lots of activities which got you thinking about life in general, and about how people are." Instead, she saw her college speech class as more analogous to an English composition class, but more stressful since in composition class ". . . you're only writing for the teacher, where in speech class, you have the teacher and the other students who are judging you." Jacqueline also expressed the opinion that, although she had always felt some "nervousness" associated with public communication, she had felt it more acutely in her college speech class than in any other situation. Indeed, virtually all the feelings and attitudes about speech which Jacqueline expressed during the course of her interviews contained assertions of her nervousness; further, on several occasions, Jacqueline identified her experiences in SPC 1014 as the source of these feelings of nervousness.

As discussed in earlier sections, Jacqueline views the speech process as a message-centered act; that is, she is likely to place greatest emphasis and attention upon the actual "text" of her speech than upon her audience or herself. Perhaps her forensics experience in high school had fostered this outlook, especially since her events, interpretive reading and debate, are highly message-centered forms of oral communication.

Upon entering her college speech classroom, however, Jacqueline was charged with the task of speaking extemporaneously, in a much more intimate setting, to small audience of friends and acquaintances. Jacqueline was immediately aware that the broad, almost impersonal style of speech she had perfected for forensics tournaments was not appropriate; yet, she had no other method in her repertoire. So Jacqueline concentrated her efforts in thoroughly preparing her speeches far in advance of the due dates; even one speech which she claimed was extemporaneous Jacqueline later admitted to composing in writing a few days prior to delivering it in class. On the merits of her clear organization, thorough research of topics and adequate use of supporting evidence, Jacqueline's instructor deemed her speeches "above average" or "excellent"; still, he repeatedly reminded Jacqueline that her delivery method was less than audience-centered (low eye contact, poor use of gesture and movement, lack of vocal variety).

Jacqueline revealed that she resisted making the suggested modifications in her delivery because she believed her more detached style of speech helped her deal with her nervousness. For example, in explaining her feelings prior to her first two speeches, Jacqueline said:

I think my whole attitude is wrong sometimes. In the beginning, I was scared to death about the first speech. I was like, I don't know what I'm going to do, so I really worked hard on it. So

like the second one, I just assumed it was going to be easier, so I was like, oh, I have another week. Then, a week before the speech, I was, like, oh no, I have to get this speech together-- now what? That's when I really started getting serious about preparing for it.

After making the above comment, Jacqueline paused and observed, as if receiving new insight about her behavior:

I don't feel I have a right to be talking when I don't know the people, or I don't know the subject matter. I guess that's why I try to prepare my speech so much -- to show that I have the right to be talking. Still, I feel uneasy telling people something when I'm not an expert.

When asked to identify the source of her reported nervousness, Jacqueline appeared to have difficulty finding an answer. First, she denied that she was "communication apprehensive":

My teacher talks about 'communication apprehension' and it's like he expects you to be a high apprehensive. I don't think I am. I mean, I get nervous in certain situations, but there's a lot of situations where I am just fine going up to people and talking. . . . I mean, like, I can walk up to a table of guys and say something and it wouldn't bother me, or girls, that would bother me even less.

But upon reflection, Jacqueline began to identify more situations in which she said she felt varying levels of nervousness or apprehension:

I had to meet with my English teacher one day, and for no reason at all, I was scared to death. I can't talk over the phone to one person very easily. It's not like I get nervous talking to people, but if there's not talking on the line, I get nervous to fill up the space. In my sorority, I still don't feel I have the right to get up and talk. It makes me really nervous, so I just blurt it out and no one can understand me. One of my biggest concerns, too, was the first day of

classes in college, not knowing anyone there and not knowing who to sit by or talk to. And even the first couple of weeks in speech class, we were supposed to read the chapters and answer the questions in class. I knew all the answers, but I refused to give an answer in class. He was like right in front of me and begging for people to answer, but I was like, 'no, I'm not going to budge; if no one else is going to say anything, I'm not either.'

When asked to identify the source of her nervousness when giving speeches in class, Jacqueline suggested two factors. First, she indicated:

Half of it is because of what it's built up to be. Everybody is like, 'I know you have to give your speech, and I know you're scared.' I heard about how scary it is: 'It's your first speech, don't worry if you get up here and mess up; don't worry if you blank out.' And I'm like, 'Oh my gosh, what if I get up there and blank out?' The worst thing that got me scared is that a girl got up there and blanked out completely. It was like right before me. She's going, 'I c a n ' t remember,' and I'm like, 'what if that happens to me?' All the what-ifs, you know?

But on a deeper level, Jacqueline concluded that she has a long-standing aversion to ". . . discussing [her] feelings about things." She explained that she does not feel nervous when she is called upon by someone to answer a question, but she does not like to be queried about her opinions on issues; even less does she like to deliver her point of view unsolicited. "If I answer a question wrong, I wouldn't be destroyed, but I don't like being called on to give an opinion. Speech is a lot like giving an opinion," Jacqueline observed.

Jacqueline's general impressions of her college speech class were relatively negative. "It's not what I expected," she admitted; "I thought it would be a lot more fun." Genuinely surprised by her intense feelings of nervousness prior to and during her speeches, Jacqueline concluded:

I didn't think it would scare me at all. I had no idea. In my speech class in high school, it was a lot more fun. That's why I took this class to begin with. Now, I'm not sure I would look forward to giving speeches in other classes. Also, I did expect to learn more. Speech is really pretty easy. Other than setting the guidelines we have to follow, it's pretty basic. I think it's kind of a knack, but practice makes perfect. And if we would give more speeches, maybe I would feel better about it. But you're kind of getting used to it, you finally know what you're doing, and its gone, the semester's over.

Relating the Speech Process

As previously indicated, Jacqueline interrupted the interview process before she had shared very much information about her efforts in composing her final speech. In fact the only information which Jacqueline shared regarding the speech composition process of her upcoming speech took place during one of her interviews.

In her first interview session, Jacqueline told that her next speech was to be a persuasive speech, and that the speech was due in a little less than a month's time. Although she had already decided that she would speak about the "Benefits of Greek Organizations," she maintained that she had no other plans for the speech at that time. When

asked how she had selected the topic, Jacqueline answered that it occurred to her because she was active in her sorority and because, in her words, "It's a subject I know a lot about -- I have a lot of good arguments in favor of the Greek system." Although prompted to reveal more of her plans and strategies for the upcoming speech, Jacqueline maintained that she was ". . . not even thinking about the speech yet." It was clear that the composition process had progressed as far as determining a topic and forming a variety of cognitions about the topic. Still, Jacqueline perceived and asserted vehemently that speech composition had not yet begun, perhaps because she still had not written any part of the "speech."

By the second interview session, the date of Jacqueline's speech was more than two weeks away, and Jacqueline believed she had begun her speech composition process in earnest. Remembering that her last speech had been her poorest effort by her own account and that of her instructor, and determining that her effort to employ extemporaneous composition and delivery methods was to blame for this recent "failure," Jacqueline expressed the determination to ". . . put more work into this speech than the last one." Jacqueline told that in the time between the first and second interview, she had decided to use her persuasive speech topic as the topic for a "documented essay" which she was assigned in English composition class.

Jacqueline said that she was in the process of writing that essay "right now," but that the time she spent working on her English composition assignment was really time devoted to her speech assignment, as well:

Right now, I'm doing a documented essay in English on the same subject that I'm giving my speech on. So basically, I'm doing the work for it right now. So whenever my speech comes around, all I have to do is dig out what I want. . . .

Expecting that the "documented essay" assignment was similar in nature to a persuasive speech, Jacqueline told that she was conducting "a lot of research" which she felt she would incorporate into her speech. When asked what form her "research" was taking, Jacqueline replied,

We have to use statistics or whatever to back up every argument we make in the essay. That's probably what we'll have to do for the speech, too. Usually for speeches I just look in an encyclopedia to get basic information. But for the speech coming up, I'm using like microfilm and stuff -- I mean, like completely using the library: books written on fraternities and everything.

During this interview session, Jacqueline continued to maintain that she had not started to "write" her speech, even though she had rather specific plans for the content of the speech. When asked when she believed she would start writing her speech, Jacqueline was uncertain: "I'm going to basically just see. I mean, I don't really know what all he [instructor] wants out of the persuasive speech yet because we're just studying that now." Jacqueline

added, "I'm going to wait until he tells us all that [he wants] and then I'll decide from there."

Later in that same interview session, however, Jacqueline returned to the subject of her upcoming speech and revealed the degree to which she had engaged in mental speech composition even while writing her essay for English class:

I've been thinking. In the paper I'm writing, I just finished the cons, like all the arguments. Then you have to like tell why they don't really hold water. And then I'm going to go into the benefits. That's probably how I'll end up organizing my speech when I write it. It makes sense.

When asked whether she expected that she would memorize parts of her English essay as her speech, Jacqueline said,

No, it'll probably be something different from the paper. In papers I always write with formal language and stuff, and I don't want to get up there and say 'henceforth,' and stuff like that; so it'll be different.

Finally, Jacqueline projected the manner in which she anticipated delivering her speech saying,

I'll probably just memorize the introduction and conclusion, and I'll be more familiar with exactly what I want to say. I'll just say the points over and over again until I can say them perfectly and I think I'll be ready. It will help that I know this topic, but that's no guarantee that you'll know your speech -- like my last one

No further interviews with Jacqueline were conducted. Although the student did contact the investigator on one occasion to break an appointment and to arrange a new meeting time, she did not keep that appointment, nor was

the investigator successful in making contact with her after several attempts. Indirect information about Jacqueline's persuasive speech was offered unwittingly by her instructor in casual conversation with the investigator. He related that one of his "better speakers" had delivered an "outstanding speech" on the benefits of sororities and fraternities. In order to preserve Jacqueline's anonymity, the investigator did not prompt the instructor further about the speech or the speaker; thus, Jacqueline's case study must remain incomplete. Nevertheless, it was apparent that her plans for this speech had been realized, at least to some degree. Further, it must be noted that Jacqueline retained her status as a "successful student speaker" throughout the duration of her speech class.

Case Study 6 -- "Matt"

Background Information

Matt, a twenty-two-year-old white male, was enrolled in one of instructor E's two sections of SPC 1014 during the spring semester, 1988. Matt came to the University of Central Florida as a third-year transfer student from a small college in the Northeast. At the time of the study, Matt lived with his parents in a house which was less than twenty miles from campus.

At the time of the interviews, Matt had not formally declared a major because he was awaiting final

determination of the transferability of the courses he had taken in his three previous colleges. Matt indicated that he was planning to select engineering or electronics as a major, but that his final decision would depend upon which program of study he could complete in the shortest period of time. He revealed that he had enrolled in speech class during his first semester at the University of Central Florida because he ". . . knew it was a required class no matter what major [he] selected," and because he felt he ". . . needed some training in giving speeches." "It [public speaking] was offered in the other schools I went to, but I think I was nervous about taking it," Matt admitted, "and I figured that this semester I would take it since I was only going part time and I'd have more time to spend." Matt believed that once he had declared a major and began taking his upper division classes he ". . . wouldn't be spending as much time on public speaking class as [he] could this semester."

By the time of the first interview, Matt had already delivered two speeches in SPC 1014. He had earned an "A" for his first speech effort and a "B" for his second. The speech which Matt was in the process of composing during the interview period was a persuasive speech.

On the PRCA-24 instrument, Matt scored 97, placing him within the high-range of apprehension scores for the sample described in Chapter Three. For the purpose of this study,

Matt was considered to have a "higher" level of communication apprehension.

Speaking Autobiography

Matt did not begin relating his speaking autobiography with early family or school-related communication experiences. Instead, in the first interview session, he chose to begin telling his experiences with oral communication by expressing the insight that he is "pretty shy in general," but that his college speech class had ". . . helped that out." Thus, Matt characterized himself from the outset of the interview process until the end, as someone for whom oral communication is "difficult" and "uncomfortable," but as someone who had benefited from the mandatory public speaking course.

According to Matt, his earliest memories of oral communication within the context of his family were positive. Matt said:

I communicate pretty well with my family. . . . Our house was not real talkative and noisy, but we were able to talk whenever we wanted. I could always sit down and talk about anything with my mom and dad. . . I discussed everything with my mom and dad, and they discussed a lot of things with us.

Matt believed that his position in the family as the youngest of four children was a factor in his good relationship with his parents:

I think that I'm close to them [parents] because I'm the youngest and we've moved around so much

with my dad's job -- I just am the one who stays with them and goes along with them.

Matt acknowledged that although he had always found it easy to communicate with his parents, his interactions with his siblings were somewhat limited:

Like my brother: we never used to get along when we were younger. We used to fight and everything. But now that he's moved away (he lives in Panama now), I communicate much better with him now-- write, call once in a while. We started communicating better once both of us were in college. . . . And my sister: I don't know; we didn't communicate much either when we lived together, but now it's better.

It was not until his third interview session that Matt revealed that his oldest brother, with whom he had a close relationship throughout childhood, "was killed" five years ago. Matt did not elaborate upon the facts surrounding his brother's death, but indicated that he had experienced ". . . a couple of very hard years" as a result of the loss.

Matt claimed that he had never delivered any sort of speech or oral report in school during his primary years in school. He commented,

In school, I never got into any speech-like situations until high school, and then that wasn't much. I never had to get up and give a report or a speech in my life. We just never had any oral reports in school; everything was written or tests.

Characterizing himself as "shy," Matt explained his typical communication behavior in school:

I don't think I was ever that talkative in school, except when I had friends in my classes and we

would make sort of quiet comments in the back of the room. But mostly, I was pretty good in school. I didn't ever get into trouble for talking or being rowdy. I had rowdy friends, but I wasn't like an instigator or anything.

According to Matt, he did not miss having the opportunity to communicate orally in school; he was happiest in a more passive communicative role, and actually disliked being singled out to express his ideas or to answer questions:

One thing I never liked was to get called on for answers in class. That always made me real nervous, unless I was absolutely sure of the answer. But even then, I was never one to volunteer to say something out loud in class. I left that to other people who seemed to enjoy the attention. I was happy not to get that kind of attention.

When Matt finally had a limited opportunity in highschool to practice oral communication in front of a class room audience, he found it to be easier than he had expected. According to Matt:

The only experience I had with speech before I got to college was like a few weeks in English class where we did speeches where you dress up like a person in history and give like an informative speech. I thought that was pretty good -- it was better than doing grammar and stuff like that. But it really didn't teach you how to give a speech; I didn't learn that until this year.

When asked whether he had practiced public oral communication in a context other than school, Matt conceded that his experience as captain of the football team had provided him some opportunity to speak in front of an audience. "You get in front as the captain," Matt explained; "It wasn't really like I ran practice, but the

coach wouldn't get there until like an hour later and I'd do calisthenics and stuff -- I'd just lead the calisthenics." Matt did not consider this experience to be fully analogous to public speaking: "It was never really anything like a speech. I never felt nervous in front of them because I knew all of them; you're together every day." According to Matt, one of the most difficult components of public speaking which was absent from the situation during football practice was ". . . not knowing the audience." "It also helped that I was older, like in a position over most of them; that helped me not be nervous," said Matt, concluding discussion of his captaining experiences.

Matt entered college with very little experience in public oral communication and, by his own estimation, very poor speaking skills. Although courses in public speaking were offered at each of the colleges he had attended, Matt had consciously avoided them because he was ". . . nervous about getting up in front of people and talking." Despite his efforts to avoid classes requiring oral presentations, Matt found that public speaking was sometimes a requirement of courses offered outside the communication department. Matt related his experience in a technical writing class as an example of the difficulty he had meeting the oral communication requirements of some college classes:

I really tried to avoid taking speech classes, but you can't guarantee that you won't have to give a

speech in another type of class. In one of my classes in college, technical report writing, we had to give like a little speech to tell what our project was about. I didn't want to do it, so I kept putting it off until it was due the next day, and then it was like a mad rush to try to prepare something to say. I stayed up all night long working on my speech and on visual aids.

Matt explained that he had procrastinated preparing the speech because he had no idea how to begin "writing" a speech. Motivated by fear, he spent the night before the assigned presentation day writing, memorizing and preparing visual aids for the speech. Commenting with the benefit of speech training, Matt believed that he had "over-prepared" for the speech, had tried to include too much material in his speech and, as a result, felt unsure of his ability to effectively communicate the full content of his prepared message.

But on the day that the speech was to be delivered, Matt was to receive a temporary reprieve:

Then as it turned out, we didn't even have to do it -- he ran out of time and forgot to have us give our reports. I was so relieved because even though I had my stuff ready for it, I still didn't want to do it. But then this guy went up after class and reminded the teacher that we were supposed to give reports, and the teacher made us give them the next class period. Of course, I didn't know about it because I had left right after class was over. But I gave it -- without my visual aids -- and everyone said it was really good. People were even asking me questions about my subject. I think it was the subject that helped me the most on that speech because it was on electronics -- some kind of invention that I had read about -- and I liked the topic and understood it.

Even though Matt's first formal speech was met with positive audience and instructor feedback, he had not felt comfortable in the role of public speaker. He remembered,

Still, I felt so nervous about that speech. I had never learned how to give a speech, and I really think I was making it harder than it was supposed to be.

Indeed, Matt maintained that he did not begin to think of himself as a successful speaker until after he had completed a substantial portion of SPC 1014. Further, at the time of the interviews, Matt still perceived himself as "shy" and said that he continued to suffer from a high level of anxiety associated with speech.

Matt entered SPC 1014 with virtually no pre-learned speech strategies and with relatively negative expectations for his success. His first few days in speech class seemed to confirm the anticipated; Matt remembered,

I wasn't really sure what to expect from the class, getting up and talking to people and everything. The first day we really didn't do anything, but he [instructor] said the next day we'd get up and tell about ourselves. I was kind of nervous about that. Actually, when I did it, my knees kept on shaking and I got really nervous, so I was standing up at first, but I had to go around the table and sit up on it because my knees wouldn't stop shaking.

Matt recalled that he was not sure how to prepare for this first speech:

At that time, I tried to memorize what I was going to say, because I had not learned how to give a speech. I thought it would be best to memorize it, or something, but then I found out from Mr. E. that's not a good idea, because I forgot so many things that I was going to say. It was supposed

to be a couple of minutes long, and I was making it out to be something much longer.

Although this was an ungraded assignment, Matt remembered his first speech in SPC 1014 as formative in his training as a speaker because through the instructor's remarks he had first learned that it was not necessary to memorize a speech "word-for-word." By the time his first graded speech was due, Matt had developed a new preparation method which he would use throughout the duration of the class: writing the speech and reciting it frequently during practice sessions, but allowing deviations and additions in wording with each subsequent recitation.

Matt's first graded speech in SPC 1014 met with a high level of success according to his own and his instructor's estimation. "For my personal belief speech, I did it on handgun control," Matt recounted; "It was kind of hard for me, but I think I gave a very good speech."

This topic was particularly difficult for Matt because, in his words,

My brother was killed with a handgun about five years ago. I was only seventeen when he got killed -- he was twenty-two. If he just got killed last year, I probably couldn't have done that, but it's something I believe in, and I knew right away when we got the assignment what I was going to do. There was only one thing: I was wondering whether I should save it for the persuasive speech, but I decided I wanted to do it right away, and that's the one that came up first.

Matt realized that this deeply personal subject would be sensitive and that his feelings might be difficult to express. Matt indicated that he wanted the audience to know him better; in his estimation, the most fundamental aspect of his identity is the impact which his brother's death has had upon him, especially in the formation of his belief system.

According to Matt, his first speech was a success. "I think my own experience was the best support. . . . When you bring something home, people realize it better," Matt explained; he believed he had succeeded in making his audience understand his opposition to hand guns ". . . from a personal perspective." The feedback which he received from his instructor and classmates reinforced Matt's personal feelings of success.

Matt was to earn an "A" for this first speech. He also received written feedback in the form of notes from each of his classmates (see Appendix F); this method Matt found particularly helpful:

They gave me positive feedback and they told me the things I was doing wrong so that I could improve it. Really, the only thing I did wrong on that speech was that I was like scratching and stuff. Mostly they told me that I had been really convincing in my arguments, which is what I was trying to do.

By the time of his second speech, Matt was beginning to feel more positive about his chances for success with oral communication. Still, he felt rather uncertain about his

ability to "control" his nonverbal delivery and to hide his "nervousness."

Matt's second speech was an informative description of "basic training for the army." He explained that he had selected this topic because he had, ". . . just come through the experience a few months before," and "thought it would be interesting for anyone who was thinking about joining the army or the reserves." While this subject was not invested with the kind of emotion and personal conviction present in his first speech, Matt believed he had fulfilled the basic requirement of the assignment: to inform. Looking back at this first two speeches, Matt realized that he had developed a method of organization which he believed made easier the task of speaking publicly:

I began to use the same pattern almost all the time. It was easier for me so I would not forget what I was going to do and it would help me out because I would usually tell them something that happened to me first, then I'd say what happens to other people, statistics, or whatever, and then tell them how something could happen to them. That way's just easier for me. I never heard it in a speech, at least not that I remember. I didn't exactly plan it, either. It was just easier for me. Everyone needs their own style.

Again, this speech met with success, albeit a somewhat lower grade. Apparently, Matt's nonverbal delivery technique was still the major concern of the instructor's evaluation:

For that last speech, he [instructor] said, 'don't lean on the podium, work on smooth verbalization, speech ran too short, work on stronger voice.' He puts little comments on the bottom. Most of those [items] with lower scores are the hand motions so I was mainly concerned with the other things because there's not a whole lot of points on hand motions.

Although he agreed with his instructor that, ". . . [he does] not know what to do with [his] hands during a speech," Matt claimed that he was not willing to concentrate too much attention on his gestures, fearing that he would become preoccupied with his hands to the detriment of his overall speech effectiveness. Instead, Matt approached his third speech in SPC 1014 with a relatively high degree of confidence, but with the knowledge that he still had work to do to fully develop his speaking expertise.

Matt began the interview process upon receiving the due-date for his third speech, nearly two weeks in advance of the assignment. Matt's third speech was to be a persuasive speech; at the first interview, he revealed that he had decided to speak in favor of widening a local highway. In fact, prior to the first meeting, Matt had already begun conducting "extensive research" on the subject. According to Matt, he had already spent more than four hours in preparation for the upcoming speech before the assignment was officially made by the instructor in class. By the time of the first interview, Matt had well developed plans for this his final speech in SPC 1014.

The foregoing is a synopsis of Matt's relevant oral communication experiences up to the point of the interview process. While it is certainly not exhaustive of the subject's experience with oral communication, Matt's speaking autobiography represents those incidents and issues which he believed to be most expressive of his background and identity as a "successful student speaker." The remainder of this case study investigates the strategies, thoughts, feelings and attitudes which Matt had and the behaviors he exhibited with regard to the speech he was in the process of composing during the weeks of the interview.

Speech Strategies

Matt entered his college speech class with virtually no strategies for composing or delivering successful speeches. But within weeks, Matt had begun to create his "own style of speaking" which had succeeded in making him feel more confident in front of an audience as well as earning him high grades for each of his speech assignments. Matt credited four factors for his developing speech competence: the "theory" he learned from his instructor and, to a lesser degree, the textbook, the comments of his instructor and fellow classmates, the many examples of effective and ineffective speech presented by his speech classmates, and his own critical judgments of effectiveness in speech composition.

For Matt, speech composition is synonymous with speech writing. When asked to describe his composition methods, Matt said,

It's like I'm writing a paper on the subject. But, I mean, I don't try to make it perfect. I just basically know what I want to do and write it out. When I'm writing it out at home, I'm writing it out so I can structure the way my thought pattern goes, and I'll write it out then I'll read it over a couple of times, then I'll make my outline of the facts.

Matt denied that he memorized verbatim the text of his written speech document. Instead, he maintained that the process of writing out his ideas allowed him time to think about the structure of the speech and to commit to memory his pattern of organization. Matt said he attempted to remain flexible as to the exact wording of his speech.

Matt's method of practicing his speech delivery involves hours of preparation; during practice, Matt continues to refine and compose his speech:

First, I practice just saying the speech to myself, then, after I do that a few times, I'll practice it in front of my mother and my girlfriend so I can get some feedback. I'll change it while I'm practicing it. They'll just say, 'well, you should say this instead of that,' and if I agree with them, then I'll change it.

According to Matt, he is likely to deliver his speech ". . . twenty times, or more" privately and in front of his small "practice" audience. Again, this method helps Matt to commit the speech structure and some wording to memory. Matt expressed the belief that much of his nervousness about public speaking is based in a fear that he will "draw

a blank" or forget the content of his speech. To forestall this occurrence, Matt practices thoroughly:

I just keep on doing it over and over and over again until I know it and I feel confident. And sometimes I still feel kind of nervous.

Matt revealed that, although he experiences a mild sense of anxiety throughout the entire speech composition process, his feelings of nervousness are particularly acute the day the speech is to be presented in class. In an attempt to forestall that which he fears the most, forgetting the content of his speech, Matt revealed that on the morning of a speech assignment:

I get up pretty early and I always have it written out. I've been practicing it a few times before and then the day of the speech, I'll spend the whole morning and afternoon practicing it. You know, I'll practice it five times, take a break, practice it again. I'll usually do that about ten times until I feel pretty confident.

While his practice sessions prior to the day of the speech are generally reserved for working out the content of the speech, Matt explained that he waits until the day of the speech to integrate the verbal message with nonverbal delivery techniques. According to Matt:

When I practice it -- he [instructor] says I move around a lot -- so when I practice it I try to be still. But mostly I try to concentrate on just delivering the speech so I don't forget, you know, forget words or something like that. Sometimes I try to plan my gestures, but that's one of my weak spots. Sometimes I don't know where to put my hands. I just kind of hold them by my sides.

During the actual delivery of the speech, Matt explained, he feels most comfortable having an outline of

his speech on the podium in front of him. "My notes I spread all out on the podium," Matt said, "I look at them once in a while to make sure I'm not jumping around or something, but I don't read it." As may be seen in Appendix F, Matt's speaking outline consists of the full text of his introduction and conclusion -- which Matt said he likes to memorize word-for-word from his written manuscript -- and the key words or phrases which he associates with each main point. "I just like to have it in case I forget something," Matt said of his outline. Although Matt would likely observe that his success as a speaker stems largely from preparation, his willingness to spend time researching, organizing, writing and practicing a speech until it has been perfected, he did generalize five rhetorical strategies which he believed helped him succeed as a speaker: (1) his use of relevant or commonplace material; (2) his use of credible sources and evidence; (3) his ability to strategically organize a speech for maximum impact; (4) his use of attention gaining introductions and (5) his expressions of sincerity.

(1) Use of Relevant, Commonplace Material. Matt credited his speech text with teaching him the rhetorical strategy of using relevant examples and making reference to common occurrences in a speech:

I don't remember it said something in the book like people like to hear about people. I don't remember which chapter it was. That's how I

decided to finally use this technique for a speech. It really worked well in my first one, so I just used it every time.

Even in selecting a topic, Matt explained that he always speaks about topics with which he has first-hand experience. "The thing I always try to do is to speak about something I already know or something that's already happened to me; I think that's what draws an audience," Matt asserted.

Indeed, Matt's three speeches for SPC 1014 dealt with subjects which he had experienced first-hand: gun control, in response to his brother's death by a handgun; Army basic training, in response to his recent stint in boot camp; and the widening of SR 44, in response to his near head-on collision with a car on that highway. Matt believed that his experiences not only lent credibility to his arguments, but also gave him vivid examples which he could share with his audience.

According to Matt's philosophy of rhetoric, examples are the most convincing forms of evidence:

Usually it's easier to get people's attention when you bring up something personal. . . . They'd rather hear some story than a bunch of figures. That's why I decided to use this for a speech, because I had gotten run off the road and we just missed hitting a telephone pole and we could have been hurt, and . . . that's the kind of thing people relate to.

In fact, Matt reported that he had relied upon examples in each of his speeches as an "attention-getter" or as evidence for his arguments. Matt was also aware of the

benefits of using other forms of evidence to aid audience understanding and to enhance his credibility.

(2) Use of Credible Sources and Evidence. Although Matt believed that his personal examples were the best form of evidence to help him achieve audience attention and to firmly establish his credibility on the subject, he realized that examples alone were not sufficient. Thus, in each of his speeches prepared for SPC 1014, Matt had made extensive use of testimony from "credible sources" and other forms of evidence such as statistics and survey data.

For Matt, research on a speech topic typically began with the phone book. When he sought additional support for his personal belief about hand guns, Matt consulted the "blue pages" of the phone book where he located the phone number of the Orange County Sheriff's department. Likewise, in his speech about the state highway, Matt turned to the phone book to find the phone numbers of possible sources:

I was looking through that; I was looking for the Department of Highways, Department of Transportation, and before that I called the Highway Safety Patrol. I'm not sure where I got that idea. . . . I called Florida Highway Patrol, and they kept on giving me different numbers and I called all those different places and finally I talked to someone, a man who was doing a study on that road.

Matt reasoned that, while his personal experience was valuable in helping his listener realize the relevance of his subject, only the testimony of a certifiable expert

would provide the justification for the arguments he wished to present.

Not just testimony, but statistics and opinion poll data were consciously used by Matt to bolster his point of view in speeches. For example, in his speech about gun control, Matt remembered:

My brother was killed with a handgun, so I brought up that incident. But I also showed how many people were killed each year and all the robberies and violent crimes from handguns. . . . I said that in Northern Ireland, a country near civil war, about the same population as Detroit, Michigan, there's more people killed in Detroit, Michigan by guns than there are in the whole country of Northern Ireland.

In yet another speech, Matt used statistics to illustrate the need for the course of action he advocated:

He [Highway Safety Patrol expert] gave me statistics about it: accidents that have occurred, deaths. . . . He did a study from 1981 to 1985 and there were two hundred and seventy personal injuries, but there were eight deaths, and then over like four million dollars in economic losses.

At another place in the same speech, Matt had incorporated into his argument for widening the highway, data from a non-scientific poll which he had conducted of the university's student population. These figures, which overwhelmingly supported his proposal, Matt considered his most convincing because they had been obtained from a sample which was similar in many ways to the audience he planned to address.

(3) Organization for Maximum Impact. Throughout the course of the semester in his speech class, Matt had developed a strategy for organizing his speech so as to make the maximum use of the various forms of evidence described above. In Matt's words,

The way I always do it is I would start with my own personal experience, in the introduction. That shows the audience that you have a reason for talking about this topic. Then I would show statistics, show how these statistics would affect you. Like for handgun control, I said, like twenty thousand people died of handguns and even in Miami, three hundred people die a year, or something like that. . . . I tried to show how it would affect the person in the audience. Otherwise, they could be sitting there listening to my story and saying, 'Oh, that's too bad that happened to you, but it won't happen to me.' With the statistics, they can see just how many people it does affect. Then, finally, I show how you can improve it or how other countries have improved. Then, for the conclusion, I kind of go back to the beginning and tell my story again, and say how I hope it does or doesn't happen to people anymore.

When asked where he had learned this technique of organization, Matt responded that he had developed it on his own, by listening to other speakers and by examining the way in which he best processed information as a receiver.

Matt's typical pattern of organization -- moving from the specific case to general statistics, then back to the specific case -- affords him a way of overcoming a common difficulty of speakers, namely, the composition of effective introductions and conclusions. While many of the other students in this study indicated that introductions

and especially conclusions were problem areas in the speech composition process, for Matt the "writing" of an attention-gaining introduction and a memorable conclusion was simple: he had merely to begin and end with his own story.

(4) Use of Attention-Gaining Introductions. Matt expressed the understanding that the introduction of the speech is important to the overall success of the speech. "I like to begin with something that will get their attention, that will get them listening," Matt commented. He continued, "That's where telling a story helps, because, like I said, people want to hear about people."

In his second speech, an informative presentation about Army basic training, Matt attempted to use humor in conjunction with his own story to gain the attention and interest of his college-age audience:

I began it by telling how I got there and telling what it was like. I got there and you go to a reception station first; they gave you all these shots and they gave you a uniform. Then you take a little 'cattle truck' over to the basic training area. I began by saying I was ready to get away from New Jersey for a while. I was looking forward to a four month vacation. But then you got on this cattle truck, and the drill sergeant is walking back and forth. He says, 'I don't know how they treated you at the reception stations, but your vacation is over!'

Matt believed telling about his own naivete was a good way to relate to ". . . people in the audience who might feel like they don't know anything about the Army."

Another rationale behind his use of a specific introduction and organizational formula which Matt expressed was less stylistically motivated, more practical. Matt said that using the same pattern of organization for all of his speeches helped him "remember" his speeches more accurately:

I use the same pattern almost all the time because it was easier for me so I would not forget what I was going to do, and it would help me out because I would usually tell them something that happened to me first, then I'd say what happens to other people -- statistics, or whatever -- and then tell them how something could happen to them. . . . I never heard it in a speech that I can remember. And I didn't plan it the first time, it was just easier for me. Everyone has their own style.

(5) Displays of Sincerity. According to Matt, the most important quality which a speaker can exhibit is sincerity. He believed he had demonstrated his own sincere interest in the topics about which he had chosen to speak by relating how he had been personally affected. Especially in his speech about gun control, Matt believed that his willingness to discuss his brother's death demonstrated that he sincerely believed in the position he advocated:

It was difficult for me to talk about it, but I had to. That was the best way I could convince them that something like that could really happen to them. They'd be looking at me and saying, 'Wow, if it could happen to him, it could happen to me.' I had to let them know that.

Matt's belief that sincerity is an important quality for a speaker was demonstrated in the opinion that he expressed regarding speech preparation, too:

I think that in speech class, the teacher should have you turn in your written speech, or your notes, or something. I know there are a lot of people who can just speak real well right off the tops of their heads, without doing any real work beforehand. That's kind of like cheating, I think. I mean, you should have some real information to give in your speech. It's also kind of unfair to people like me who can't sound good just thinking up the speech on the way to class. I mean, I really have to put a lot of time into my speech before I feel comfortable giving it.

In Matt's estimation, a sincere speaker is one who has given his subject much thought, has conducted adequate research, and is willing to invest something of himself--time, emotional energy, interest -- in the speech.

Feelings and Attitudes About Speech

Matt expressed the opinion throughout the interviews that when he composed a speech, he focused upon two aspects of the speaking situation: his message and himself. Although Matt expressed the opinion that he concentrated much of his attention upon his audience, it was clear from his examples and comments that he conducted preliminary audience analysis only to help him determine the content of his message; further, his attention to the audience was anticipative rather than adaptive of the actual audience's reactions during the delivery of the speech. In other words, Matt conducted audience analysis to help him create the message; this message was typically pre-written and memorized prior to the delivery date and was not likely to be modified substantially, even in response to

unanticipated audience feedback during the delivery of the speech. According to Matt,

. . . [it's important to] learn about your audience, how they will react to your speech. Then make sure your facts are correct and make sure you know just what you're going to say in your introduction and the conclusion. To me, those are the most important things.

But Matt's focus was also somewhat source-centered; at one point in the interviews he stated: "In public speaking, I would say the most important thing is not to be nervous." Even though Matt believed that he had mastered the technique of composing speeches, he revealed that he still felt self-conscious in the areas of physical delivery:

I don't really know what to do with my hands during the speech. I wind up scratching, and stuff. Also, my voice kind of gets monotone, or something. He [instructor] always takes off for those kinds of things.

Despite his continuing sense of unease in nonverbal delivery, Matt believed that he had improved as a speaker as a result of his speech training:

If I had to get up in front of a group of people and speak, I wouldn't be as nervous about doing it. Before the class I would never want to do it. I don't know if I would volunteer now to give a speech. Well, maybe I would, but I wouldn't be the only person doing it. I'm not as nervous about talking to people I don't know as I was before.

Matt sees himself as a person who is "pretty shy in general." Indeed, whenever he expressed the various manifestations of his apprehension associated with speech,

Matt was likely to use the term "shy" to describe his feelings and behaviors. According to Matt, training in speech had alleviated his shyness considerably after only one speech assignment:

I got feedback from everyone in the class and that makes you feel better; you feel more sure of yourself. So I wasn't as nervous after the first speech. I think it helped out a lot.

According to Matt, communication apprehension, or "shyness," originates in fears of being evaluated negatively:

I was more afraid, I was more worried about what the people would think I was saying, or what people would think of me and what I was saying and what I was talking about.

By being thoroughly prepared with a manuscript speech which is well researched and backed with the testimony of experts, Matt believed he could eliminate one source of his apprehension, fear of being evaluated negatively on the basis of his information. Even by the end of the semester, Matt continued to express the fear of being evaluated negatively on the basis of his delivery manner:

Once I got to know the people in the class, I was more comfortable, but I still feel self-conscious just getting up in front of the room and talking. . . . I'm happy with the content of my speeches; it's just mostly delivery that I have to work on.

Matt expressed the opinion concerning his instructor's evaluations that, while he knew his lowest points were earned in the areas of nonverbal delivery, his instructor's comments were too vague to help him improve in this area:

. . . I wish he would just come right out and say the things that I need to work on. Like I always get taken off for 'voice projection.' What's that, like loudness? Why doesn't he just say, 'talk louder'?

At the conclusion of his interview process, Matt seemed doubtful that he would pursue public speaking as a vocation or avocation. Still, he expressed optimism that he would be able to face future oral communication obligations with increased confidence and competence:

I don't expect to give that many speeches in the future. Maybe when I have to do it for a job, or in the Army -- I may have to give a class on something -- I'll be more prepared now that I've had the class. I won't be as shy as I was. Like if I had to teach a class on how to set up a weapon, or something, I'd be more self-confident.

Seemingly proud of his academic achievements in a class which he, ". . . expected not to do that well in," Matt concluded:

I'd do a speech in the future exactly the way I do a speech for this class. I'd use the same guidelines for organization because that way works.

Relating the Speech Process

During the first meeting, Matt related that he had already "done extensive research" on the topic for his upcoming speech. Matt's third speech was to be persuasive; his topic was "Reasons for Widening SR 44."

Matt told that he had selected his topic long before the assignment was officially made in class:

He [instructor] told us in the beginning of the class what kind of speeches we'd be giving. And

about a month ago, I had gotten run off of that road when I was coming back from the beach with my girlfriend. I was saying, well, we've got to do a persuasive speech, and this road's pretty dangerous, so I thought it would be a pretty good topic for that.

Upon deciding the topic for his speech, Matt said he began watching the newspaper headlines to see if any articles would be written about the road in question. When he ultimately found such an article, Matt's speech composition process began. Still, this background work occurred before the instructor had assigned the due date for the persuasive speech.

Matt's interview process began two days after his instructor assigned dates for the persuasive speech. At his first meeting, Matt brought the statistical and testimonial evidence which he had collected from the "experts" he had already consulted:

I started looking for information right when he was telling us the assignment because, you know, it's hard to find information for that kind of topic. I made some phone calls the other day and asked them [sources] some questions.

Matt related that his next step would be to begin to, ". . . write out kind of what I want to do, kind of write the speech out and familiarize myself with my facts." He expected that he would complete at least a "rough draft" of his "speech" before the next interview session, which was scheduled one week later.

At the second interview, Matt brought his "speech" draft and an outline based upon the manuscript. Although

the date he was to deliver his speech was still more than a week away, he said that he was ready to begin the process of memorizing the speech and practicing the delivery.

During the previous week, Matt explained, he had become concerned that his audience might not know, ". . . where SR 44 is or what the conditions are there." Therefore, he had written and administered "a little survey" about the subject, distributing copies to his speech class and some other students at the university. According to Matt's findings, "The majority of the class thought it should be widened and the majority of the class thought that the road was unsafe. . . ." He said that he intended to, ". . . use that statistic in [his] speech, too."

In Matt's third interview session, just a few hours before he was to deliver his speech in class, he was anxious to relate orally the basic organizational pattern of his speech to the investigator:

In the beginning, I say how we got run off the road, and I'm going to tell them how that event happened and say, well, that's the reason I believe it should be widened to four lanes instead of two lanes. Then I say how I called them, the person over at the Department of Transportation, and the facts and go into like what they're doing. Well, I go back into saying -- I mention how lucky we were that no one got hurt when we got run off the road. And then I'm going to say that I believe this road will be safer if it is widened to four lanes, and way what we could do. We could call or write to state congressmen or senators, voice our opinion so that it would speed up the widening. . . .

Matt admitted that his reason for wanting to "go over" the speech with the investigator just before delivering it in class was that he wanted one more opportunity to review the organization and content of his speech; he was not motivated solely by the desire to advance research in the speech field.

When asked to express his feelings about this speech, Matt admitted that he had been, ". . . apprehensive about getting information" on so limited a subject. Once he had "written" his speech, Matt concluded, he felt "pretty confident" about his chances for success. Although in the past he had perceived shortcomings in his own delivery manner, Matt said that he was not overly concerned this time with his nonverbal delivery: "I'll just do my best and try not to forget anything; you can't really plan how you'll look during a speech, so I can't worry about that."

Matt's final meeting was held one week after delivering his persuasive speech in class. He related first that he had received an "85" for this assignment, and appeared to be less than fully satisfied with his grade. "I did pretty well, I guess," Matt offered, "but I think I was speaking a little too fast." "I guess I was anxious to get it over with since it was the last one," he admitted. According to his instructor's evaluation, Matt's only weak area was delivery, specifically:

He [instructor] said I was leaning, leaning in one direction; He said it was too short. . . . He

also mentioned that I didn't use my hands -- I didn't use nonverbal communication.

Again, Matt expressed the belief that there was little he could do to remedy his nonverbal delivery because he believed he needed all of his attention focused upon remembering the content of his speech.

As for his peer audience, Matt said he had received positive feedback, but he seemed to doubt the sincerity of his fellow classmates' comments:

A couple of people said it was a good speech, I mean, they didn't criticize it. They just like complimented me on the speech. Right after the speech as soon as I sat down, the people around me said it was a good speech. I don't know if they just said it to be nice or what. They're probably just being nice.

Still, Matt's final impressions about his experiences in SPC 1014 communicate his general attitude of personal achievement:

I had to work really hard to get a "B" in this class. To me, a "C" isn't failing; it's average, so a "B" means better than average. I think I earned it, because I know I put a lot of effort into every one of my speeches. I really think I learned more than the person who already knows how to speak well, and just gets up and wings it.

Summary of Findings

Several research questions were posed at the outset of this investigation; the unstructured interviews described above followed lines of inquiry which attempted to obtain from each subject the most accurate answers to these research questions. The following is a summary of the

major findings of this study, arranged under the headings of the research questions.

(1) When do successful student speakers begin the speech composition process? This study found great diversity among student subjects' time-frame for composing speech assignments.

As illustrated in Table 1, the student speakers in this study worked within diverse time-frames when composing speeches for SPC 1014. For the purpose of this investigation, the composition time-frame began with the student's decision of a topic for the speech and continued through the time of the actual delivery of the speech in class. In some cases, as in Dabney's last speech, the student was unable to decide between two topics and actually began composing two different speeches. Under this condition, the composition time-frame included that period of uncertainty in which the student attempted to select the appropriate speech topic.

Although the students in this study appear to vary widely in the amount of time they needed to prepare speeches, some noteworthy trends seem to emerge. Those students who typically composed their speeches in writing, namely Chalis, Jacqueline and Matt, reported that they began the speech composition process much earlier than did those students who typically composed their speeches mentally or orally, namely, Russell and Dabney. Diane, who

used a combination of written and mental composition strategies, reportedly composed within an intermediate time frame.

Also of significance is the finding that when students deviated from their typical preparation time-frame, they reported that their performance was negatively affected. For example, both Chalis and Jacqueline reported that they had prepared one speech within a much shorter time-frame than their customary two week period. For Chalis, this speech was seen as her "one failure," and for Jacqueline, the speech she had prepared only one week in advance of delivery was ". . . the one [she] had the worst feeling about."

At the opposite end of the spectrum, Dabney believed that his "most frustrating" speech was the one to which he had devoted more than one week. He reported that he felt most comfortable speaking when he had only spent a day or two thinking about the content of his speech.

(2) What specific strategies and methods do successful student speakers employ in the composition of their speeches? The students who participated in this study shared a common designation: each had been identified through instructor evaluations as "successful student speakers," meaning that they had received the equivalent of a "B" or better for each their first speaking assignment in SPC 1014. Although the participants in this study had

different speech instructors, it has been noted that all SPC 1014 instructors follow a common syllabus, use the same text and instructional materials and employ similar evaluation criteria.

Despite their apparent similarities, however, the case studies of these six students revealed diversity and individuality among subjects' speech composition methods and strategies. As shown in Table 2, three of the speech students, Russell, Diane and Dabney, reported that they composed their speeches using variations of the extemporaneous method advocated in the syllabus and text used for SPC 1014. For Diane, a brief written outline was supplemented by extensive mental composition whereby she ". . . go[es] over and over the speech in [her] head until [she knows] it." For Russell and Dabney, composition is completed, then an outline or notes are created to remind the speaker of important points. While Dabney reported only mental composition of his speeches, ". . . working out the speech in [his] mind," Russell claimed to compose his speeches both mentally and orally. Indeed, as quoted in his case study, Russell orally composed part of a speech during one of the interview sessions.

For Chalis, Jacqueline and Matt, speech composition was virtually identical to written composition. In fact, both Chalis and Jacqueline reported using excerpts of previously composed essays in their "speech manuscripts." Chalis

TABLE 1
WHEN THE COMPOSITION PROCESS BEGINS

NAME	AVERAGE TIME-FRAME FOR SPEECH COMPOSITION
Chalis	14 Days
Russell	3 Days
Diane	5 Days
Dabney	2 Days
Jacqueline	14 Days
Matt	10 Days

TABLE 2
STRATEGIES AND METHODS OF COMPOSITION:
MODE OF COMPOSITION

NAME	PREFERRED MODE OF COMPOSITION
Chalis	Written Manuscript
Russell	Oral Composition/Outline
Diane	Written Manuscript/Outline
Dabney	Mental Composition/Brief Notes
Jacqueline	Written Manuscript
Matt	Written Manuscript

reported writing her speeches "straight through," beginning with the introduction and ending with the conclusion. Instead of creating an outline or brief notes, she painstakingly transferred her manuscript, word for word, on palm-sized scraps of paper. Jacqueline and Matt both reported making outlines of their speeches prior to writing the manuscript. These outlines were then used as speaking notes in the actual delivery of the speech.

The participants in this study also reported various preferences in mode of speech delivery, preferences which closely corresponded to the mode of composition employed. As shown in Table 3, the three speakers who reported using oral or mental composition methods correspondingly reported delivering their speeches in the extemporaneous mode, making minimal use of notes and pre-determined wording of ideas while displaying adaptiveness to audience feedback.

The successful student speakers in this study reported little agreement with respect to the specific rhetorical strategies of which they made conscious use in speeches. However, examination of the list of strategies, represented in Table 4, reveals the aspects of speech method and style which these students felt were most important to effective public speaking.

The majority of students in this study, for example, identified the use of relevant, familiar or "commonplace" material as a key element of good speech. The students who

TABLE 3
STRATEGIES AND METHODS OF COMPOSITION:
MODE OF DELIVERY

NAME	PREFERRED MODE OF DELIVERY
Chalis	Memorized/Read
Russell	Extemporaneous
Diane	Extemporaneous
Dabney	Impromptu/Extemporaneous
Jacqueline	Memorized
Matt	Memorized

TABLE 4
 STRATEGIES AND METHODS OF COMPOSITION:
 KEY RHETORICAL STRATEGIES

STRATEGY	MADE CONSCIOUS USE OF STRATEGY
Relevance/Commonplaces	Russell, Diane, Dabney, Matt
Appropriate/Important Topic	Chalis, Russell, Jacqueline
Structure/Organization	Diane, Jacqueline, Matt
Introduction	Chalis, Matt
Expert Sources	Chalis, Matt
Interest	Chalis, Diane
Information/Evidence	Russell, Matt
Humor	Russell, Dabney
Sincerity	Diane, Matt
Conclusions	Chalis
Three Main Points	Chalis
Clarity of Purpose	Chalis
Appropriate Language	Chalis
Visual Aids	Russell
Audience Analysis/ Adaptation	Dabney
Dissociation from Audience/Situation	Jacqueline

listed this among their rhetorical strategies agreed that audiences are more likely to listen to a speaker who draws upon familiar topics or who used examples which are relevant to life in today's world. Other rhetorical strategies which were mentioned by several of the subjects were the importance of strong speech structure or organization and the use of topics which are appropriate to the speaking situation or are of importance to the audience. Dabney summarized the opinions expressed by a majority of the students when he said, "A good speaker has something important to say and says it well, in a way everyone can understand and relate with."

Table 4 reveals much about the speech style of each of the student speakers, especially when viewed in light of the information discussed in Tables 2 and 3. For example, Chalis, Jacqueline and Matt, who approached speech composition in the same way as written composition, and who were most likely to recite memorized speeches, reported using rhetorical strategies which related heavily to the structure, language and content of the speech. However, those student speakers who reported less concern for written speech composition and more attention to adapting delivery to the situation, context and audience, identified as important those rhetorical strategies which related heavily to the style and delivery of the speech. Thus, we may draw a profile of Dabney's rhetorical strategy, with

his attention to relevance, humor and audience analysis and adaptation; this is in bold contrast to the profile of Jacqueline's rhetorical strategy, with her concern for appropriate topics, organization and dissociation from her audience.

(3) What attitudes, beliefs and values do successful student speakers have regarding speech communication in the public speaking context? Answers to this research question were distilled from the several hours of interviews with each subject. While the generalizations in Table 5 represent the investigator's subjective evaluation of the observational data, in each case study an effort was made to report the accurate context and tone of subjects' responses to questions about their attitudes, beliefs and values relative to speech communication. When possible, the case studies contain direct quotations of the subjects' reflections about public speaking.

Table 5 summarizes the general attitude each subject expressed relative to public speaking. Of the six student speakers studied, the majority expressed positive attitudes about the process of public speaking. Two of these students, Dabney and Diane, indicated that they had extremely positive attitudes toward public speaking, expressing the opinion that they would enjoy using their public speaking skills in other contexts. Diane concluded her last interview session with the statement, "I look

TABLE 5
ATTITUDES, BELIEFS AND VALUES TOWARD
PUBLIC SPEAKING

NAME	(1) ATTITUDE TOWARD PUBLIC SPEAKING
	(2) BELIEFS ABOUT FOCUS OF SPEECH
	(3) PERCEPTIONS OF SELF AS SPEAKER
	(4) PERCEIVED VALUE OF PUBLIC SPEAKING
<hr/>	
Chalis	(1) Generally Negative Attitude
	(2) Message/Self-Centered Focus
	(3) Extremely Positive Self-Perception
	(4) Necessary Communication Skill
Russell	(1) Generally Positive Attitude
	(2) Audience/Self-Centered Focus
	(3) Generally Negative Self-Perception
	(4) Necessary Communication Skill
Diane	(1) Extremely Positive Attitude
	(2) Audience/Self-Centered Focus
	(3) Extremely Positive Self-Perception
	(4) Necessary Communication Skill
Dabney	(1) Extremely Positive Attitude
	(2) Audience-Centered Focus
	(3) Extremely Positive Self-Perception
	(4) Necessary Communication Skill
Jacqueline	(1) Generally Negative Attitude
	(2) Message-Centered Focus
	(3) Generally Positive Self-Perception
	(4) Non-Essential Communication Skill
Matt	(1) Generally Positive Attitude
	(2) Message/Self-Centered Focus
	(3) Generally Negative Self-Perception
	(4) Necessary Communication Skill

forward to giving speech; I really like it," while Dabney admitted that he ". . . actively seek[s] opportunities to speak in public."

Two of the subjects, despite their apparent success in SPC 1014, indicated that they had generally negative attitudes toward public speaking. Chalis viewed public speaking as a necessary evil which was "good for [her,]" but not enjoyable. Jacqueline was troubled by her attitudes about public speaking, saying that she ". . . used to like getting up in front of people," but that her attitudes had changed as a result of her experiences in speech class.

Beliefs regarding public speaking were assessed by way of determining each subject's view of the focus of the public speaking process. Predictably, the three students who employed extemporaneous delivery strategies viewed the primary focus of public speaking as the audience. Although Russell and Diane also indicated some attention to their own physical delivery while giving speeches, they, along with Dabney, agreed that decisions about the speech should be made keeping the audience foremost in mind.

Not surprisingly, Chalis, Jacqueline and Matt viewed public speaking as a message-centered act, believing that decisions about the speech should be made keeping in mind the content and integrity of the written message. Thus, none of these students was likely to make conscious use of

nonverbal delivery or to deviate appreciably from the pre-determined speech manuscript. An extreme example of this focus is Jacqueline's technique of dissociating herself from the audience and situation while speaking, as if delivering her speech in an automatic mode.

Although the students in this study had been identified by their instructors as "successful," two of these expressed negative self-perceptions regarding their abilities as public speakers. Interestingly, these were not the same two who expressed negative attitudes toward the process of public speaking. Instead, Matt and Russell portrayed themselves as less than effective in the role of public speaker, while Chalis and Jacqueline viewed their own performances quite favorably.

Matt not only expressed the concern that he did not "look good" while he was speaking, but also denied that he would make special efforts to practice and energize his nonverbal delivery. Matt believed that if he could ". . . get [his] hands and voice under control" his well composed message would be more effective. For Russell, the concern was his perceived lack of fluency. While he preferred delivering his speeches extemporaneously, Russell admitted that he sometimes felt at a loss for words in explaining a concept. Russell believed that if he could ". . . speak fluently and think better on [his] feet," his extemporaneous delivery would be more effective.

As indicated in Table 5, all but one of the subjects viewed speaking as a necessary communication skill. Chalis expressed the opinion that public speaking training would have value for her in her career, and had already helped her write better essays for English class. Russell, Diane and Matt agreed that they would probably be required to give speeches in other college classes, in organizations and in their careers; they viewed public speaking as a valuable part of their general education curriculum. Dabney expressed the opinion that public speaking class had helped him refine his already well-developed speaking style. He indicated that he had "reached a new level" in skill as a result of this class and anticipated enrolling in other speech classes in college.

Only Jacqueline viewed public speaking as being of little value to her education or personal life. She expressed the opinion that she had "expected to learn more" and "to have more fun" in her speech class than she had. She also doubted that she would transfer her public speaking skills to other classes, activities or a career. Indeed, Jacqueline blamed her public speaking class experience for the development of a high level of "nervousness" associated with communication which she claimed she did not possess prior to enrolling in the course.

(4) What impact, if any, does gender have upon the student speaker's perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication? Very few gender-linked trends emerged relative to the subjects' speech perceptions and behaviors. Part of this may be explained by the fact that this study made use of a dimensional-type sampling method, whereby an equal number of males and females were selected to represent each of three levels of measured communication apprehension. Still, a few of the trends appear which may be at least partially gender-related.

As seen in Table 6, the two students who expressed generally negative attitudes toward public speaking were female. But it will also be noticed that both of these women reported experiencing high levels of apprehension associated with public speaking, suggesting another explanation for these attitudes. Nevertheless, further examination of Table 6 shows that Matt, the one male who reported experiencing high levels of apprehension associated with public speaking, also expressed generally positive attitudes toward the public speaking process.

Another interesting finding is the apparent relationship between gender and expressed concerns during public speaking. All of the females reported that their primary concern during the public speaking process was the grade or evaluation of the speech. As for the males, their reported concerns were with the speech process itself.

TABLE 6
 GENDER AND PERCEPTIONS/BEHAVIORS
 RELATIVE TO SPEECH COMMUNICATION

NAME	GENDER	ATTITUDES	FOCUS/ CONCERNS	REPORTED APPREHENSION
Chalis	Female	Generally Negative	Message/ Grade	High
Russell	Male	Generally Positive	Audience/ Entertain	Moderate
Diane	Female	Extremely Positive	Audience/ Grade	Moderate
Dabney	Male	Extremely Positive	Audience/ Entertain	Moderate
Jacqueline	Female	Generally Negative	Message/ Grade	High
Matt	Male	Generally Positive	Message/ Inform	High

Russell and Dabney were most concerned that their speeches succeed in entertaining the audience, while Matt expressed the concern that he succeed in conveying the intended information.

(5) What impact, if any, does level of apprehension have upon the student speaker's perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication? One of the most interesting findings of this study was the discovery of some inconsistency between subjects' scores on the PRCA-24 and their expressed levels of apprehension or nervousness associated with various forms of speech communication. As shown in Table 7, even though subjects were selected so as to represent three distinct levels of measured communication apprehension, information garnered from the interviews revealed that even Dabney, with his low PRCA-24 score of 28, claimed to experience substantial levels of "nervousness" in a variety of communication situations. Perhaps the most surprising finding was that Dabney and Diane spoke of their nervousness or apprehension associated with public speaking using much the same terminology ("I was so nervous," "I was scared") as Jacqueline and Matt, who scored considerably higher on the PRCA-24 instrument. The apparent differences among the expressed attitudes of the students relative to speech, and even relative to the experience of speech apprehension, may account for the extreme differences in measures.

TABLE 7

LEVELS OF SPEECH APPREHENSION AND PERCEPTIONS/
BEHAVIORS RELATIVE TO SPEECH COMMUNICATION

NAME	MEASURED APPREHENSION	REPORTED APPREHENSION	ATTITUDES	FOCUS/ CONCERNS
Chalis	Moderate	High	Generally Negative	Message/ Grade
Russell	Moderate	Moderate	Generally Positive	Audience/ Entertain
Diane	Low	Moderate	Extremely Positive	Audience/ Grade
Dabney	Low	Moderate	Extremely Positive	Audience/ Entertain
Jacqueline	High	High	Generally Negative	Message/ Grade
Matt	High	High	Generally Positive	Message/ Inform

As Table 7 demonstrates, Chalis, Diane and Dabney reported experiencing high levels of apprehension associated with various forms of speech communication then would be indicated by their PRCA-24 scores. Chalis revealed during her interviews that she considers herself to be "quiet" in most social situations, "scared" and "afraid" in public speaking situations and "shy" in the company of unfamiliar people. Yet her PRCA-24 score of 57 placed her well within the range of moderate apprehension for the population under study. Yet Chalis' generally negative attitudes toward speech communication may have worked to augment the feelings of apprehension she had, or may have led her to interpret speech apprehension as a negative experience.

Diane and Dabney both scored quite low on the PRCA-24, categorizing them as "lower" in apprehension than the average of the population studied. Still, Diane made close to a dozen separate references to her nervousness and apprehension associated with oral communication, in both interpersonal and public speaking contexts. However, Diane's score on the PRCA-24 and her reports of oral communication apprehension do not seem to conflict when viewed in relation to her positive, confident statements concerning speech, such as "I just go in with the attitude that I'll give a good speech, and I do fine." It is apparent from study of Diane's many statements regarding

her feelings about communication that she considers nervousness to be a normal part of speech, but that she believes it can be controlled by adopting a positive mindset.

Dabney, too, made many references to nervousness in communication situations, which is surprising when viewed in light of his PRCA-24 score of 28. Dabney reported nervousness primarily in public speaking contexts, yet his subscore for public speaking apprehension was only 7 on a scale ranging from 6 (lowest apprehension) to 30 (highest apprehension). Dabney may have explained the seeming discrepancy when he told that it is often nervousness which "inspires" him to perform well in speaking situations. Distinguishing his form of nervousness from that which would inhibit a speaker, Dabney believed, is the way he uses his "nervous energy." In his "theory on nerves," Dabney explained, "I go into a speech with a good ideas of what I want to say, then I just let the nervous energy take over to add the feeling, the enthusiasm to the speech." Thus, Diane and Dabney's extremely positive attitudes toward speech communication may have meliorated any negative effects which nervousness or apprehension would cause.

Another interesting finding was that the students who reported experiencing high levels of communication apprehension were also the students who focused their

attention upon the message, while the students who reported only moderate levels of communication apprehension claimed to focus their attention upon the audience. Several explanations may be suggested. From the perspective of the message-centered student speaker, either students who experience high levels of apprehension attempt to cope with their apprehension by focusing upon the content of their messages and ignoring the audience, or students who are likely to take a message-centered focus are likely to experience higher levels of apprehension in delivering their speeches. From the perspective of the audience-centered student speakers, it is also possible that attentiveness to the audience helps to reduce the anxiety inherent in the speaking situation.

(6) What impact, if any, does previous speech experience have upon the student speaker's perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication? According to the findings of this study, virtually no relation could be found between level of speaking experience prior to entering SPC 1014 and students' perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication. While both Chalis and Jacqueline had relatively high levels of public speaking experience in a variety of contexts prior to enrolling in SPC 1014, both indicated that the speech class and the process of public speaking was an unpleasant experience. On the other hand, Matt, who had virtually no experience in

public communication prior to enrolling in SPC 1014, expressed positive attitudes toward the course and the process of public speaking in general.

It will be remembered that Chalis and Russell received moderate scores, Diane and Dabney lower scores, and Jacqueline and Matt higher scores on the PRCA-24 instrument. Some researchers have attempted to explain measured communication apprehension as a correlate of experience with various forms of oral communication. However, this does not seem to be supported by these limited data, since Jacqueline scored quite high on the PRCA-24, yet reported participation in a large number of communication-related activities, while Diane, who scored quite low on the PRCA-24, participated in fewer such activities (See Table 8).

Of course, the limits of this study prohibit generalization. Further, it must be questioned whether mere numbers of activities are comparable when the quality and extent of participation in these activities is not observable. Perhaps further investigation of the nature of students' prior experiences with speech would shed more light upon the impact of this factor, but further speculation is beyond the scope of the present study.

(7) What impact, if any, does speech instruction have upon the student speaker's perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication? One limitation of the present study

TABLE 8
LEVELS OF EXPERIENCE AND PERCEPTIONS/BEHAVIORS
RELATIVE TO SPEECH COMMUNICATION

NAME	LEVEL/TYPE EXPERIENCE	ATTITUDES	FOCUS/ CONCERNS
Chalis	High/Theatre, Pageants, School	Generally Negative	Message/ Grade
Russell	Moderate/Theatre, Sports	Generally Positive	Audience/ Entertain
Diane	Moderate/School, School Government	Extremely Positive	Audience/ Grade
Dabney	High/Theatre, Church, Clubs, School Government, School, Family	Extremely Positive	Audience/ Entertain
Jacqueline	High/Forensics, Cheerleading, School, Clubs	Generally Negative	Message/ Grade
Matt	Low/Sports School	Generally Positive	Message/ Inform

was the fact that the sampling method did not allow the investigator to question subjects' perceptions and behaviors relative to speech communication prior to enrolling in SPC 1014. Thus, there is no way to assess the impact which this class had upon the perceptions and behaviors of subjects throughout the course of the semester. However, comparisons could be drawn among the student speakers in this study according to the amount of formal speech instruction each had received prior to enrolling in the college-level speech class. As illustrated in Table 9, the student who reported having the greatest amount of formal speech training prior to college was Dabney. Of course, it will be remembered that he also reported extremely positive attitudes toward speech communication, preferred speaking in the extemporaneous mode, focused his attention upon his audience, and claimed as his primary concern while speaking his ability to entertain his audience. Dabney also scored quite low on the PRCA-24 measure, and reportedly viewed nervousness as "a rush" which aided him in the energetic style of delivery he believed he displayed.

At the other end of the spectrum, Matt claimed to have had virtually no prior training in speech communication upon entering SPC 1014. Matt himself speculated that his lack of former training in speech placed him at a disadvantage compared to other students who had taken a

TABLE 9

AMOUNT OF SPEECH INSTRUCTION AND PERCEPTIONS/BEHAVIORS
RELATIVE TO SPEECH COMMUNICATION

NAME	SPEECH INSTRUCTION	ATTITUDES	FOCUS/ CONCERNS
Chalis	High School Speech Class	Generally Negative	Message/ Grade
Russell	High School Drama Class	Generally Positive	Audience/ Entertain
Diane	High School English Class	Extremely Positive	Audience/ Grade
Dabney	Elementary High School Speech and English Class	Extremely Positive	Audience/ Entertain
Jacqueline	High School Speech Class	Generally Negative	Message/ Grade
Matt	None prior to College	Generally Positive	Message/ Inform

speech class in high school. Yet Matt believed that his college speech class had helped him correct many of his "errors" in communication, such as his lack of message organization and his over-reliance upon notes in early speeches.

For Chalis and Jacqueline, prior training in speech may have been the source of their tendency to view communication as a message-centered process. Both Chalis and Jacqueline had received speech training in high school which encouraged the writing and memorization of manuscripts. Although both women acknowledged the extemporaneous mode of delivery as the preferred method in SPC 1014, they reported that they had received acceptable grades for their first speeches which they had written and memorized; both Chalis and Jacqueline expressed a reluctance to "learn" a new method of speech composition.

Like Chalis and Jacqueline, Diane had also received speech instruction in high school which focused upon the preparation of manuscript speeches. Unlike the other women, however, Diane says the extemporaneous method as a better way, a more enjoyable method of speaking. While Diane reportedly held very negative attitudes toward public speaking in high school, her attitude changed to extremely positive as a result of her college speech class experiences.

Russell's speech training prior to college was limited to impromptu and brief extemporaneous speech assignments in his high school drama class. Russell viewed this experience as formative of his preferred speech style; his college speech class, he believed, served to reinforce his already positive attitudes toward speech communication and to refine his extemporaneous delivery mode (See Table 9).

A further aspect related to speech instruction which was examined in this study was the student subjects' suggestions for improving the college speech classes in which they were enrolled. Table 10 lists the suggestions and modifications enumerated by the students in this investigation, including the number of students who independently offered each idea.

With the exception of Matt, the students in this study had experienced some level of formal speech instruction prior to enrolling in their college speech classes. Yet five out of six of the student participants, including Matt, expressed the opinion that some form of speech training should be a mandatory part of every college student's curriculum, regardless of major. However, many of these students had specific suggestions for improving or altering the way in which speech is taught at their institution.

Perhaps the most common complaint expressed by the students in this study pertained to the required text used

TABLE 10

STUDENT SPEAKERS' SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING
COLLEGE PUBLIC SPEAKING COURSE CURRICULUM

SUGGESTED IMPROVEMENT/CHANGE	NUMBER OF STUDENTS OFFERING SUGGESTION
Different Text	5
Required Course for All Majors	5
More Speech Assignments	4
More Written Comments on Evaluations	4
Clearer Evaluation Criteria	4
Greater Diversity in Mode of Delivery	4
Greater Variety of Speech Assignments	4
Instructor Demonstrations of Speaking Techniques	3
Fewer Tests	2
Larger Maximum Enrollment/ Larger Classroom Audience	2
In-Class Help with Speech Composition	2
More Written Assignments	2
Fewer Written Assignments	2
Two Semester Course	1
Oral Examinations	1
Drop Course from General Education Program	1

in SPC 1014. Each of the five students who voiced dissatisfaction with the text complained that it was too "simple" and "watered down" for a college-level class. Chalis' comment is typical of these students' opinions:

The book is full of suggestions, but no real facts that you can grab on to. Most of it is just good commone sense.

Indeed, several of the students in this study offered the opinion that no text should be used; instead, they suggested, instructors could make greater use of lecture and demonstration to illustrate speech technique and theory.

Another common category of recommendation offered by the subjects in this study pertained to the number and type of speech assignments required. The majority of subjects suggested that more opportunities to deliver speeches should be afforded each student in SPC 1014. While most of these students believed speaking assignments should be substituted in place of lecture and tests, one student, Russell, favored extending the duration of the course to two semesters to allow for more speaking experiences.

In a similar vein, four out of six of the subjects desired greater variety in the type of speeches assigned in SPC 1014. Indeed, many of these students' instructors already made use of more than the standard four speech assignments, affording students experience in impromptu, ceremonial and humorous speaking. Students reportedly

enjoyed these "special occasion" speeches and wished more were included in the curriculum of SPC 1014.

A frequently expressed concern of the students in this study was the method of speech evaluation. The majority of students complained that their instructors' evaluation criteria were arbitrary or unclear. Several echoed Jacqueline's view that it was impossible to try to correct speech behaviors using prior evaluations as a guide because ". . . it doesn't matter whether [one] change[s] or not--the grade will usually be the same."

Perhaps insight into this complaint is provided by the corresponding recommendation of the majority of students that instructors use more verbal and written criticism or "feedback" and rely less heavily upon a "point system." It must be remembered that these students customarily received high grades for their speech assignments. Yet Chalis expressed the feelings of a student who needs more personal recognition of her work when she said,

She [instructor] always writes the same little comment: 'You are doing very well; you have become a professional speaker.' But that doesn't really mean anything.

It will also be remembered that for Dabney, the instructor's written injunction to "have depth" motivated him to prepare more thoroughly for his speeches.

Another common recommendation of the students in this study was that students should be free to compose and deliver speeches in the manner most comfortable and

manageable for them. Predictably, three of the students making this recommendation preferred composing their speeches in writing and delivering their speeches through memorization. Chalis, Jacqueline and Matt were aware that their methods were not recognized as acceptable according to the syllabus, the text and often, instructors' directions. Yet at the level of evaluation, each of these students received quite a different message when their memorized manuscript speeches earned high marks and positive comments from their instructors. Perhaps the dissonance inherent in this situation prompted these three to suggest allowing greater diversity in mode of composition and delivery of speeches in SPC 1014. Russell, the other student speaker making this recommendation, believed that in addition to the extemporaneous mode, speech students should be "exposed" to other ways of composing and delivering speeches by way of preparing the student for all public speaking situations.

Finally, one recommendation, offered by half of the students in this study, challenged instructors of SPC 1014 to serve as model speakers. While these students acknowledged that they watched their instructors' lecture style for speaking technique cues, they believed that sample speeches, delivered by their instructors, would provide the best model for speaking technique. Two students also recommended holding in-class composition days

during which the instructor and the students would engage in the process of speech composition together. Such an instructional method, they reasoned, would help students understand the decisions which a more proficient speaker would make regarding structure, language and style of speech composition.

Taken together, the students in this study appear to be calling for a greater level of interaction between instructor and student, and greater opportunity to practice newly developing skills in an atmosphere of nurturance and acceptance of individuality.

IV

DISCUSSION

Speech is a process, yet studies in human communication often examine speech as a product. Rather than describing the process whereby humans interpret events, make decisions, construct or receive messages, most research in speech communication focuses upon comparing and evaluating communication products: measures of attitude change, source credibility, speaker apprehension, and other such dependent variables.

The majority of studies in speech communication employ experimental methods and test hypotheses. However, as has been illustrated earlier, critics in the field have recently voiced concern over research which pursues trivial hypotheses merely because the effects involved are testable, and research which makes use of certain methods and instruments merely because they are conventional or fashionable. The integrity of any discipline is threatened when a wide-spread preference for post-meil hypothesis testing supplants the concern for theory building.

This study represents an effort to build theory within a different paradigmatic perspective. Rather than laboratory experimentation for the purpose of testing hypotheses, the present study employed an ethnographic

interview method for the purpose of hypothesis generation, the first step in theory building. Specifically, this study examined one form of speech communication -- public speaking -- by focusing upon the process of speech composition rather than upon a recorded speech product.

The grounded theory approach, as has been demonstrated earlier, is currently accepted in the fields of sociology and social psychology. To be useful, theory should utilize concepts which are directly applicable to the data under study and must be able to explain the behavior being studied. The best way to generate such theory is explanation of the data themselves, thus the term "grounded theory." Examination of the data in this study reveals four broad categories of theory which warrant further investigation by researchers in speech: (1) the process view of speech composition, (2) the subjective experience of speech apprehension, (3) the role of formal and informal training and experience in developing speech competence, and (4) the effectiveness of instructional methods in the teaching of speech.

Speech Composition as Process

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the composing processes of successful student speakers as they prepared messages to be shared with a classroom audience. The examination of these cases revealed the specific strategies and methods employed by each of these students

to meet the perceived requirements of the communication situation. As each student related his speech composition experience, in a very real way, he became a speech theorist, furthering hypotheses about the effectiveness of his strategies. Thus, examination of the case studies provides a list of hypotheses and research questions about speech communication which were grounded in the students' own experiences and preferences.

This study has implications for those who would understand the way in which successful students undertake the task of composing public speeches. This understanding was accomplished by shifting the research focus from speech products to the actual speech composition process. While documents were included in the examined data, more important to this investigation were the verbal accounts of the student speakers regarding their thoughts, decisions and feelings while engaged in the composition of a speech.

Perhaps the most significant finding of this study was the extreme diversity in composition methods reported by the subjects. Even though each student in the study was perceived by his or her instructor to be a "successful student speaker," it is apparent that "success" was attainable using a variety of rhetorical methods and strategies, not all of which were overtly endorsed by the speech instructor. In other words, the data indicate that in many instances, speech instructors "rewarded" student

speakers who used non-endorsed speech composition methods such as writing and memorizing speeches. In a few instances, instructors even penalized student speakers for the use of the endorsed extemporaneous composition and delivery mode.

This finding certainly warrants further investigation since instruction in any field will succeed only if evaluation clearly reflects the criteria set out in class lectures and required reading materials. Future research might investigate the following:

Question 1: "What is the relationship between instructors' prescribed methods of composition and the actual methods of composition employed by students?"

Question 2: "Do instructors base speech evaluations upon the prescribed methods of composition taught in class?"

Answers to these questions will provide vital information about the consistency and fairness of current instructional methods in speech. Further, these findings may also serve to enlighten speech scholars who tenaciously uphold the product-centered, prescriptive rules of speech composition. If it is found that successful student speakers regularly violate the commonly prescribed methods of speech composition, yet effectively communicate their intended messages, it might be argued that a "rules" approach to speech composition should be replaced by a more subjective approach whereby the student is guided toward discovery of the rhetorical methods with which he is most comfortable

and competent. In product-centered speech instruction, the student studies the "voice of the master"; in process-centered speech instruction, the student discovers his own voice.

Communication Apprehension as a Subjective Experience

This study sought to determine students' attitudes toward speech communication in general. The case studies make frequent use of examples and quotations from each student in an effort to portray the quality of the attitudes expressed during the course of the interviews. Three speech communication factors emerged which appeared to have an effect upon attitude: the focus of communication, the concerns or goals of communication and the level of reported and measured communication apprehension.

Throughout the extant literature on the subject of communication apprehension, researchers have experienced difficulty in interpreting the subjective experience of the apprehension phenomenon and in identifying the possible sources of high communication apprehension levels. Information garnered from the student subjects in this study regarding their experiences and interpretations of communication apprehension revealed that measures of communication apprehension, such as a score of the PRCA-24, may not reveal the full level of experienced communication apprehension. Even students who scored quite low on the

PRCA-24 reported experiencing significant levels of apprehension or "nervousness" associated with all forms of communication, especially public speaking. However, the student subjects suggested possible mediating factors which might explain the discrepancies between measured and experienced apprehension.

While even the two students who measured quite low on the PRCA-24 scale reported experiencing "fear" and "nervousness" before and during speeches, these students seemed to differ from the others with respect to the methods they used to "channel" the apprehension, and with respect to the attitudes they had regarding the purpose and goals of speech communication. Four trends seemed to emerge from the data in this study, trends which must be tested in future research.

First, it was apparent that the PRCA-24 was less an indication of the existence of apprehensive feelings and more an indication of the number of coping strategies a speaker has at his disposal for channeling communication apprehension. This study also revealed the apparent connection between levels of measured communication apprehension and a variety of factors which relate to the speech composition process.

It was found that those students in this study who measured higher levels of communication apprehension were more likely to view speech communication as a message-

centered act as opposed to the students with the lower communication apprehension scores who were more likely to view speech communication as an audience-centered act. Further, trends emerged from the data under study in this investigation indicating that students with higher levels of communication apprehension are more likely motivated by instrumental goals (grades or rewards) while those with lower levels of communication apprehension are more likely motivated by procedural goals (to inform, entertain or interact with the audience). A related finding was that students who reported any combination of higher measured communication apprehension, message-centered focus and instrumental speech goals were also likely to express negative statements about speech communication in general.

Thus, four hypotheses for future research are suggested by these preliminary findings:

Hypothesis 1: "There is a negative correlation between communication apprehension as measured by the PRCA-24 and strategies for coping with or channeling apprehension."

Hypothesis 2: "Higher levels of measured communication apprehension are associated with message-centered views of communication while lower levels of measured communication apprehension are associated with audience-centered views of communication."

Hypothesis 3: "Higher levels of measured communication apprehension are associated with instrumental speech goals, while lower levels of communication apprehension are associated with procedural speech goals."

Hypothesis 4: "There is a relationship among the factors of measured communication apprehension, speech focus, speech goals and attitudes toward speech communication."

Should these hypotheses find support in future research, not only would new light be shed upon the phenomenon of communication apprehension, but instructional methods in speech could be modified to meet the special needs of the highly apprehensive student. For example, highly apprehensive students could be taught ways of channeling nervousness into energized delivery, a technique which several of the students measuring "lower" or "moderate" apprehension claimed to use when experiencing nervousness in a speech situation.

Other ways in which high levels of communication apprehension might be alleviated are by teaching apprehensive students to focus upon the audience rather than the message, and by consistently rewarding speakers who make efforts to meet procedural goals rather than mere instrumental goals when preparing assignments. Indeed, it might be wise for instructors to assign several non-graded speeches so that the highly apprehensive student might try new rhetorical techniques free from the risk of academic failure.

Training and Experience in Speech Communication

While it might have been expected that prior experience and training in communication are the best predictors of

skill and attitude with regard to speech, no such direct correlations were observed in this study. Interestingly, all but one of the students in this study had received formal speech training at the secondary or primary levels. Virtually all of the students in this study had given at least one public speech prior to entering the college speech classroom. However, the students disagreed as to the value of the speech training they had received throughout their academic careers and gave widely divergent accounts of the nature of the instruction they had received. Also, as has been established earlier, virtually no consensus existed among the students as to the best method of speech composition or delivery.

The implication of these findings are of particular relevance to speech educators. While the case studies indicate that a substantive course in speech communication may have a positive impact upon the skills and attitudes of students, the experiences of a few of the subjects argue convincingly that speech instruction which is carelessly structured and poorly monitored may have damaging effects upon the skills and attitudes of students. For example, Dabney, Chalis and Jacqueline depicted their high school speech classes as "disorganized" and "easy." Fortunately Dabney had entered his high school speech class as a rather highly experienced public speaker. Still, he reported that his high school speech class "demotivated" him; it was not

until his college speech class that he would again try to improve his oral communication skills. Jacqueline and Chalis were less fortunate. Their high school speech classes were not academically challenging: instructors required little effort in exchange for outstanding grades. When these students enrolled in speech class in college, they encountered more challenging conditions. As a result of the vast discrepancies between high school and college speech requirements, both Jacqueline and Chalis felt unjustly criticized in their college speech classrooms and expressed negative attitudes toward their instructors, toward their fellow classmates and toward the process of speech, in general.

Future research in the field of communication education should investigate:

Research Question 3: "How do the quantity and quality of speech experiences and speech training -- from early childhood to adulthood -- influence speech-related skills and attitudes?"

Findings of such investigations might be used by curriculum designers to ensure that the language education programs of primary, secondary and post-secondary schools are appropriate, adequate, consistent and purposeful.

Instructional Methods in the Teaching of Speech

While there has been significant change in the pedagogic methods of speech instruction over the centuries, there is little evidence in the literature that these

methods are based upon knowledge of how the student actually approaches the task of speech composition, how the student incorporates the lessons of speech education into his own communication behavior, or whether the prescriptive guidelines for speech composition and delivery, when employed by the speaker, actually improve the speaker's ability to communicate effectively. This study sought to uncover these issues which have been long overlooked in research in communication education. Further studies are needed to collect information which may be used to revise or improve current methods of speech instruction.

Following the list of suggestions generated by student subjects concerning ways to improve speech instruction, and based upon the reported experiences of each throughout the interview process, several research questions suggest themselves for future research in the area of instructional methods in speech communication.

First, several student subjects indicated that they felt greater motivation to modify their speech methods when oral or written comments were made about their communication behavior than when a simple number on a scale was used to indicate a deficiency in a rhetorical method. Thus, future research must investigate the question,

Research Question 4: "What are the relative instructional merits of written and oral evaluation methods as opposed to numerical evaluation scales?"

Further, speech instructors might be reminded by the comments of the students who participated in this investigation that numerical scales and objective criteria must be applied consistently from student to student and from assignment to assignment; criteria must also be mutually understandable to instructor and student.

A number of students in this study recommended two instructional methods which they believed would help students better understand and assume the reasoning processes of expert speakers. Future research should investigate the effectiveness of in-class composition practice and instructor demonstrations of speaking techniques as innovative instructional methods in the teaching of speech.

In making the instructor the model of effective speech, the students in this study believed they would have a better grasp of the evaluation criteria used by their instructors. Further, when the instructor assumes the role of "model speaker," it might be argued that he is seen by the student as a colleague, as a "fellow speaker," or at least as an empathetic judge who is willing to "practice what he preaches." Future research should examine the efficacy of this method by investigating the question:

Research Question 5: "What are the instructional benefits for adult students of instructor demonstrations of speaking techniques?"

The student subjects' recommendation of bringing composition practice into the classroom was motivated by the students' expressed desire to receive clear and specific guidelines and feedback on the content of their speeches. Without exception, the subjects in this study indicated that the major portion of instruction and feedback they received from instructors dealt with aspects of physical delivery, not compositional structure. Still, the students revealed that it is speech composition, not the rehearsal of delivery, which occupies the greatest portion of their speech preparation time. Many expressed the belief that, because the speaker has "greater control" over the content of the speech than over non-verbal delivery, efforts to improve speech content are more likely to ensure success than efforts to improve delivery.

The students who advocated in-class composition practice reasoned that this instructional method would provide the student an opportunity to develop composition skills under the direction of the instructor. Indeed, within the field of written composition exists precedence for this instructional method. Current college-level English composition classes make use of directed composition activities, class compositions, group compositions and team writing assignments -- all of which occur in the classroom, under the guidance of the

instructor who is a "fellow writer." Future research, therefore, should investigate the question:

Research Question 6: "What are the instructional benefits for adult students of in-class composition practice?"

A final significant finding in this study was that the majority of students expressed the belief that the text used in their classes was not substantive and provided little direction to the student looking for sound speech strategies. Yet the field of speech communication is rich with sound theoretical models and formulae which have withstood the rigors of scientific testing. It is clear from these student accounts that even in an introductory-level speech class, some presentation of communication theory is warranted.

In an effort to appeal to students at all levels of communication experience and training, popular basic speech texts may have expunged all but the most self-evident truths of human communication theory. The findings of this study indicate that future research in the field of speech instruction should examine the efficacy of a theoretically-based program which integrates the prescriptive guidelines of typical speech texts with the theoretical explanations for these prescriptions.

Content analysis studies of current popular speech texts might be conducted to determine the amount of theory which is typically presented in introductory-level speech

texts used in colleges. Further investigation of this issue would entail surveying the speech faculty of colleges which teach speech as a general education requirement to determine the amount of communication theory which is typically presented to students in the form of class lectures and supplemental readings.

Ultimately, future research in communication education should investigate the following question:

Research Question 7: "What is the impact of a theoretically-based program of speech instruction upon student speakers' attitudes and behaviors associated with speech communication?"

Texts, supplemental readings, instructional materials and lectures which attempt to disseminate theory in the field of speech communication may not only provide the student the evidence he needs that a certain strategy is applicable in a given situation; the inquisitive student may also discover in the field of speech communication a rich body of knowledge which can enhance the quality of his future social interactions.

The over-arching message contained in the case studies reported in this study is that speech makes a difference in the education of the college student. Each of the students represented herein had a unique experience in SPC 1014. Still, all but one expressed the opinion that the college-level speech class had been an educational asset; indeed, all but one believed that SPC 1014 should be a general

education requirement. Perhaps one might rationalize that demand characteristics of the situation prompted the positive evaluation of the speech class, or argue that because these students had been successful in SPC 1014, they were unrealistically biased in favor of the class. But evidence exists beyond the scope of this limited study supporting the centrality of speech education in the curriculum.

It must be noted by way of conclusion that recent scholarship in the field of speech education, including the findings of this study, indicate that even the limited treatment of speech communication which is offered in today's schools has positive psychological impact upon the development of students. Dance (1980) has clearly articulated the position of the speech educator with his four "propositions" for the "academic viability and necessity" of well designed programs of speech education:

(1) Written language is necessary, although insufficient, for the liberal education of human beings.

(2) Spoken language is the natural and primary manifestation of human language, from which written language is derived.

(3) Speech communication is the academic discipline that historically and presently has the study and practice of spoken language as its primary subject matter.

(4) Academic training and experience in speech communication result in improved understanding of and more effective use of spoken language.

Speech researchers and educators have long argued for a speech component in the curriculum because of the evidence that speech instruction improves any kind of education. In a review of scholarship on the psychological impact of speech education, Modaff and Hopper (1984) argue that speech is "basic" to the entire education process for several reasons.

First, speech is active learning; it requires the learner to become personally involved in the subject under consideration. Second, speech is multi-sensory; virtually all of the senses are employed in the process of encoding and decoding speech. Third, speech links the individual to his environment; speech is both an internal activity (thought) and an external activity (action). Further, speech creates the means by which the learner becomes a social being. Fourth, speech guides behavior; in this sense, Modaff and Hopper argue, speech is "at the heart of all higher learning processes" because critical thinking is the process by which the opinions of others or the values of self "speak" to the individual and "persuade" him to choose one course of action over another. Finally, speech promotes literacy; according to the research in language skills acquisition, a child's speaking and listening

experiences are the basis for reading and writing instruction such that oral competence is a necessary condition for literacy.

In accord with Modaff and Hopper's conclusions, evidence of this investigation in the form of the opinions expressed by the student speakers who devoted many hours in reflection about speech education supports the position that speech education should be at the core of the curriculum, if not as a subject in its own right, at least as a dominant form of instructional method in the various content areas. Other speech researchers such as Fessender, Johnson, Larson and Good (1968) have maintained that competence in speech is a reliable predictor of competence in other areas of learning since a command of oral language requires understanding of both the structure and the content of the information which is being communicated. Still other researchers such as Trank and Steele (1983) have demonstrated how courses in communication can enhance not only speaking ability, but also writing skills.

Taken together, this evidence suggests a strong psychological basis for speech education in the curriculum. It should be noted, too, that much of the research on the impact of speech education on the learning process, such as the study reported herein, has been conducted within natural school settings where, as has been shown, little instructional time is devoted to speech. If speech were a

more vital part of the curriculum of the elementary, secondary and post-secondary school, it is likely that the positive effects associated with speech education would be enhanced.

At one time in the history of western education, speech was the cornerstone of the curriculum. Speech is certainly a liberal art; the argument may be made that speech is the most fundamental of the liberal arts since it has always been the primary means of binding and sharing human experience. Nevertheless, speech education is generally seen as expendable in today's curriculum, especially at the post-secondary level. Not only is it difficult to objectify and sequence the study of speech in the same way that other academic subjects are organized for instruction, but it has been argued that competence in speech may actually liberate the thought of students to an extent which society perceives as dangerous.

Although the official time devoted to speech education in the curriculum today is minimal, there is encouraging evidence that the speech which is being taught does make a difference in the overall development of students. Speech ability fosters literacy, improves interpersonal skills and may contribute to the positive self-concept of the student. If a case cannot be made for reordering the curriculum to include more formal courses in speech, certainly the educational community can see the value of incorporating

more speech education in the curricula of the content areas.

Speech educators and professionals must continue their efforts to practice and to assess the impact of oral communication training at every academic level. Studies such as the present investigation may assist the researcher and teacher alike by identifying areas of future research and opportunities for improvement in the instruction of speech.

More than thirty years ago, Schlauch (1955) observed that linguists, because they study human language, are among the few modern scientists who are optimistic about the future of mankind. She maintained, "Insofar as they reflect at all on the general subject of their study, [linguists] must be impressed with the enormous value of the gift of speech and its power of service for humane ends" (p. 296). If Schlauch was correct, how much more critical is it for current educators to share knowledge of human communication with students. As Schlauch has said:

Let it be said again: it is language that has made us men. There is plenty of evidence that in time we will permit it to make us better men. . . . We may dare to hope for the day when language will collaborate with the other arts of peace to the adornment of a truly humane way of life. (p. 297)

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

SPC 1014 SYLLABUS

SPC 1014 - FUNDAMENTALS OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

TEXT: Lucas, Stephen E. (1986). The art of public speaking (2nd ed.). Random House, Inc.

OBJECTIVES: There are three fundamental objectives of SPC 1014. (1) To develop an awareness of the communicative forces influencing interpersonal relationships; (2) to develop an understanding of the basic theory involved in effective communication; and (3) to develop proficiency in oral communication. The course work consists of classroom participation and text assignments designed to accomplish these objectives.

COURSE ACTIVITIES AND ASSIGNMENTS:

1. Completion of four (4) extemporaneous speeches.
2. Reading assignments.
3. Midterm and/or final examinations.
4. Classroom discussion and participation.
5. Participation in speech laboratory experiments (when available).

COURSE POLICIES:

1. Students are obliged to be present and prepared for their assignments on the prescribed day. If a student knows he/she is to be absent for some legitimate reason on the assigned day of a speech, it is his/her responsibility to make a trade with a member assigned to another day.
2. The current university policy concerning incomplete grades will be followed in this course.
3. It is unethical to use as your own, a speech or outline prepared, in whole or part, by someone else. To do so is cause for immediate failure. It is unethical to abstract a speech totally from a magazine article and pretend it is your own work. Any sources used should be credited in the speech. The best speeches do not rely heavily upon a single source, but represent ideas formulated from several sources. Source materials are expected to be used for building a background of knowledge about the subject.
4. The final determination of the course grade will be made from: (1) the oral presentations; (2) classroom participation; and (3) the midterm and final examinations. Completion of each of these aspects of the course is necessary to pass.

SPEAKING ASSIGNMENTS

SPEECH #1 (5-6 minutes) Personal Belief Speech: Informing by expressing a personal opinion.

Instructions:

1. This assignment offers you an opportunity to express your feelings about some current issue. It might be something about which everyone is aware or, on the other hand, may be something about which many in your audience have never had the occasion to consider. Keep your topic narrowed to one specific idea so you can easily handle it in the allotted time.
2. Your main concern is to inform the audience about your belief or position on the topic. You are not attempting to persuade your listeners. You merely want them to understand what you believe and how you came to that opinion. You might use facts, statistics, testimony of others, and the like to establish how and why you develop your belief.
3. Develop your ideas fully and in detail. Avoid unsupported assertions and over-simplification of the issues.

SPEECH #2 (5-6 minutes) Informative Speech: Inform with the aid of visual material.

Instructions:

1. This speech will be based on a topic researched in several outside sources. But, remember, keep your subject limited so it can be covered effectively in the given time.
2. In using visual aids, keep the following in mind:
 - a. Use large, clear, simple diagrams.
 - b. When possible, keep objects, models and charts covered until needed.
 - c. Do not hand out any visual material to the audience during your speech. It might distract.
 - d. PRACTICE USING THE VISUAL AIDS.
3. Plan the speech, then determine what points in your message might need visual support.
4. Do avoid lengthy visual demonstrations.
5. Study Lucas, chapter 12.

SPEECH #3 (6-7 minutes) Persuasive Speech: Persuade by using a variety of strategies & supporting material.

Instructions:

1. In this speech you will attempt to affect the attitudes and behavior of your audience. Topics should be selected from the problems we confront in our daily lives. Your task is to present a problem, convince your listeners of its importance to them and create a favorable attitude in their minds concerning a specific action that will solve the problem. You are urged to structure your presentation according to the motivated sequence (text, pp. 293-294).

Speech #3 instructions continued on next page.

Speech #3 instructions cont.

2. It is particularly important to relate your ideas directly to the audience. Show them that the problem involves them individually and personally. Speak to their needs and interests. Present your solution to the problem as being in accord with their needs, wants and values. Refer especially to Chapter 4 in your text for help in formulating your ideas to fit your specific audience.
3. You may want to include both your personal beliefs and visual aids in this assignment.

PRESENTATION #4 - Group Assignment (Investigative Report, Symposium or Panel Discussion): Group problem-solving using the reflective-thinking method.

Instructions:

1. For this presentation, the class will be divided into problem solving groups to investigate a current problem of local, regional or national concern. The emphasis in this assignment is on objective data gathering, problem analysis, effective decision-making and communicating your findings to the audience.
2. Each group will report its recommendations in the form of a series of oral reports, a symposium or a panel discussion (see Lucas, p. 356). The problem-solution pattern suggested for small group decision making is the reflective-thinking method (Lucas, pp. 350-355).
3. The key to an effective oral report of this type is the logical progression ideas from problem to solution. This is not to be confused with persuading your audience. You'll have your opportunity to do this in the next assignment. Some persuasion is necessarily a part of all information, but here the focus is on the accurate communication of factual details rather than persuasive appeals.

RESEARCH PARTICIPATION OPPORTUNITY

In a continued concern for advancing our knowledge of communication theory and processes, experimental research in the various aspects of oral communication is of benefit to the individual student and the communication scholars. To facilitate this needed research, the Communication Department asks that each student enrolled in SPC 1014 spend a couple of hours each semester serving as a subject in experiments conducted by the department. It is hoped that this will give the student some explicit understanding of current research methods in investigating communication problems.

Announcements seeking volunteers for service as experimental subjects may be made from time to time in your speech class. These announcements will indicate the time you may serve and the general nature of the experiment.

At the beginning of the experiment, the investigator will describe what you are expected to do. You do have the option of refusing to participate.

Any data collected will be used only for experimental analysis, and no report will go back to your instructor except that you did participate in the study.

That student should appreciate that by serving in an experiment he not only gains added knowledge and insight into experimental procedures, but he contributes in a significant way to increased knowledge about human communicative behavior.

APPENDIX B

CHALIS' SUPPORTING DOCUMENTS

Several years ago, Kitty Genovese was murdered on the streets of Queens, New York. Although thirty-nine people heard her screams and cries, no one called the police. Most explained that they did not want to get involved with the murderer of her husband. Wifebeating is a serious problem in our country. Although most of us don't realize just how serious it is. According to the book "Stopping Wife Abuse" by Jennifer Baker Fleming, it is estimated that each year in the United States, 28 million wives are beaten by their husbands. 10 percent of the men interviewed in a random sample admitted to regularly engaging in extreme physical abuse of their wives.

I will explain the historical precedents for wifebeating, the social factors contributing to the incidence of wife abuse, and what has been done about wife abuse.

Wifebeating has been an accepted practice in Western culture since the early middle ages. In fact, it is only recently that society has begun to challenge the longstanding tradition which gives a man both

the moral and legal right to continue his service.

According to the book "Battered Women: Shattered Lives" by Kathleen Holtzman, in the middle ages, the church encouraged women to be obedient for all the evil and sin in the world. Therefore, their husbands were justified in beating them.

Although views of women have shifted over the years, wife-beating has remained the right of the husband. Only in the last two decades have people begun to realize that wife-beating is wrong and should not be condoned under any circumstance.

Because of the vigor and scope of the women's movement in recent years, one might conclude that many of the factors which once contributed to the incidence of wife-beating are no longer present. However, there are still elements of our society which perpetuate the physical abuse of women.

We as a society still give informal

Several years ago, Kitty Genovese was murdered on the streets of Queens, New York. Although thirty-nine people heard her screams and cries, no one called the police. Most later explained that they had thought the murderer was her husband.

Wife abuse is a serious problem in our country, though most of us fail to realize just how serious it is. According to the book "Stopping Wife Abuse" by Jennifer Baker Fleming, it is estimated that each year in the United States, 28 million wives are beaten by their husbands.

Wifebeating has been an accepted practice in western culture since the early middle ages. In fact, it is only recently that society has begun to challenge the longstanding tradition which gives a man both the moral and legal right to batter his spouse.

In the middle ages, the church considered women to be responsible for all the evil and sin in the world. Therefore, their husbands were justified in beating them. Although views of women have changed dramatically over the years, wife beating has remained the privilege of the husband. Only recently have people begun to realize that wife beating is wrong and should not be condoned under any circumstances. However, there are still elements of our society which perpetuate the physical abuse of women.

We as a society still give informal sanction to domestic violence. Many advertisements, album covers, and movies tend to exploit the abuse of women and contain an underlying message that women who are independent or get out of line pay for it by being assaulted.

There are also many people who view wife abuse as a part of marriage. In a recent survey by Kathleen Hofeller, one-fifth of all Americans approve of slapping one's spouse on appropriate occasions, many believe that if a woman is beaten, she has done something to deserve it.

Most people believe that battered women stay with their husbands because they like being beaten. The fact is, many women are scared to leave or feel they could not be financially independent if they were to leave their husbands. But most feel ashamed and assume that they deserve to be beaten.

Although there is no possible way to eliminate wife abuse there are many types of help for battered women.

Most places have a 24 hour hotline which provides crisis counseling, information, and referral to other agencies.

Counseling is also available to women who remain with their husbands either by choice or by necessity. Group therapy has proven to be an effective and economical means of counseling victims of domestic violence. This setting encourages women to talk with one another, helping them to relieve feelings of isolation, embarrassment, and guilt.

Some cities also provide shelters for battered women. Here they ^{can} receive counseling and protection from their husbands.

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we as a society still give ³ informal sanction to domestic violence. Many advertisements, album covers, and movies tend to exploit the abuse of women and contain an underlying message that women who are independent or out of line pay for it by being assaulted

Wifebeating has been an ¹ accepted practice in western culture since the early middle ages. In fact, it is only recently that society has begun to challenge the longstanding tradition which gives a man both the moral and legal right to batter his spouse.

has remained the privilege ³ of the husband. Only recently have people begun to realize that wife beating is wrong and should not be condoned under any circumstances. However, there are still elements of our society which perpetuate the physical abuse of women.

many people view wife ⁵ abuse as a natural part of marriage. ⁴ According to a recent survey by Kathleen Afoller, 1/5 of all Americans approve of slapping one's spouse on appropriate occasions. These people assume that if a woman is beaten, she has done something to deserve it.

Many people believe that ⁽⁶⁾ battered women stay with their husbands because they like being beaten. This is not true for the most part. Many ~~abuse~~ battered women are too scared to leave or feel that they could not be financially independent. If they were to leave their husband, their husbands may also have them convinced

that they deserve to be ⁽⁷⁾ beaten.

Although there is no possible way to eliminate wife abuse, there are various types of help for abused women. A growing number of cities have 24-hour hotlines. These ^{can} provide such things as crisis counseling, information,

and referral to other agencies. ⁽⁸⁾

Counseling is an option for women who remain with their husbands either by choice or by necessity. Group therapy has proven to be an effective and economical means of counseling victims of domestic violence. This setting encourages women to talk with one ~~is~~ another, helping them to

relieve feelings of isolation, ⁽⁹⁾ embarrassment, and guilt.

Many ^{cities} ~~states~~ provide shelters for battered women. ~~These~~ Shelters provide counseling, safety, and protection from their husbands.

Wife abuse is a ⁽¹⁰⁾ problem that has no solution. There is, however, help for victims of wife abuse. If you are a victim or know someone that is, remember: help is just a phone call away.

CONTENT 50%

1-Introduction

- A. Attention getting.....
- B. Revelation of topic, stand and main points /clear, evident?/.....
- 2-Knowledge of subject, details, examples /substance/.....
- 3-Organization /clear, evident?/.....
- 4-Transitions /creative, subtle, varied?/.....
- 5-Well documented supporting material/evidences.....
- 6-Topic selection /creative, relevant?/.....
- 7- Word choice and/or grammar.....
- 8-Conclusion
- A. Summary of main points.....
- B. "Clincher" /clear, striking, creative?/.....

DELIVERY 50%

- 1-Platform presence and projection /posture, poise, artifacts/.....
- 2-Delivery method /extemporaneous, manuscript, other?/.....
- 3-Eye contact.....
- 4-Personality and habits /mannerisms; nervous habits; oral pauses etc./....
- 5-Enthusiasm and/or credibility /sincerity, emphasis/.....
- 6-Voice /pitch, rate, volume/.....
- 7-Gestures and body movements.....
- 8-Proper use of note cards.....
- 9-Audience response /applause, remarks, etc./.....
- 10-Visual aid /Impact /if no V.A. was used/.....

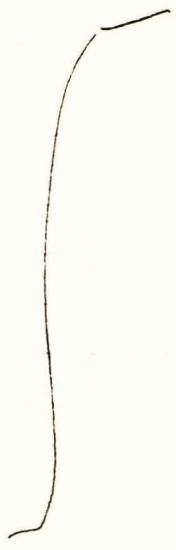
Incomplete outline:	-2/fault
Over/under allotted time: 0-30seconds	-1
Late delivery	-5

Scale:

1=poor; 2=fair; 3=average; 4=good; 5=excellent.

5. Only FOUR absences are permitted during the semester. This rule is necessary in order to provide each speaker with an audience. Students absent in excess of four classes will have to justify ALL absences (with Dr.'s notes) or receive a lower grade in course than academically attained.

1.
A.
B.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.
A.
B.



1. ✓
2. 2
3. ✓
4. 4
5. }
6. }
7. }
8. 3
9. 3
10. 1

reading

"te" - sounds; hesitations

notes should be used as before or put on lecture

91

Thought provoking message!

APPENDIX C

DIANE'S SUPPORTING DOCUMENTS

CONTENT 50%

1-Introduction

- ✓ A. Attention getting.....
- ✓ B. Revelation of topic, stand and main points /clear, evident?/.....
- ✓ 2-Knowledge of subject, details, examples /substance/.....
- ✓ 3-Organization /clear, evident?/.....
- ✓ 4-Transitions /creative, subtle, varied?/.....
- ✓ 5-Well documented supporting material/evidences.....
- ✓ 6-Topic selection /creative, relevant?/.....
- ✓ 7- Word choice and/or grammar.....
- ✓ 8-Conclusion
- ✓ A. Summary of main points.....
- ✓ B. "Clincher" /clear, striking, creative?/.....

DELIVERY 50%

- 1-Platform presence and projection /posture, poise, artifacts/.....
- 2-Delivery method /extemporaneous, manuscript, other?/.....
- 3-Eye contact.....
- 4-Personality and habits /mannerisms; nervous habits; oral pauses etc./....
- 5-Enthusiasm and/or credibility /sincerity, emphasis/.....
- 6-Voice /pitch, rate, volume/.....
- 7-Gestures and body movements.....
- 8-Proper use of note cards.....
- 9-Audience response /applause, remarks, etc./.....
- 10-Visual aid /Impact /if no V.A. was used/.....

Incomplete outline:	-2/fault
Over/under allotted time: 0-30seconds	-1
Late delivery	-5

Scale:

1=poor; 2=fair; 3=average; 4=good; 5=excellent.

5. Only FOUR absences are permitted during the semester. This rule is necessary in order to provide each speaker with an audience. Students absent in excess of four classes will have to justify ALL absences (with Dr.'s notes) or receive a lower grade in course than academically attained.

1. A 3 not fluent
B

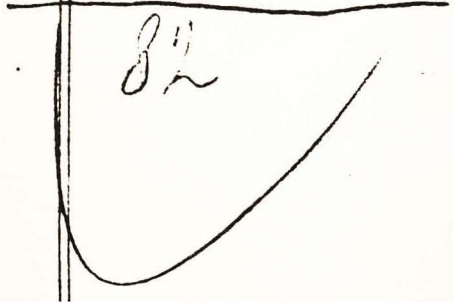
2
3
4
5
6
7

8A
B 3 read

3 shifting; crossing feet; kicking
reading it all

3
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10

4
5
6
7
8
9
10

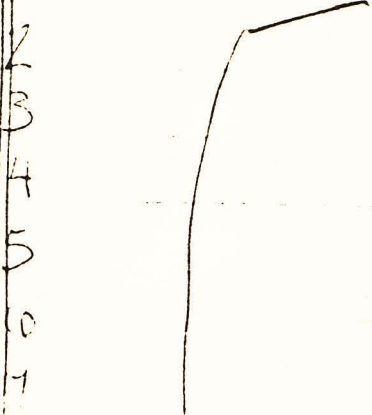


8 1/2

5:40
Good

1 Intro.

- A. 3 clear but a bit hesitant
- B. 5 clear



5 Conclusion

A

B 2 needed a better clincher and more emphasis for final impression

Delivery

1 3 radiant but shifting



4 3 "you know"-s; um-s; pauses

6 3 a bit choppy

8 3 off-hand with both words & not in palm

9 3

10 3 needed nicer & darker letters

§ 3

- Relevant topic
- Impressive voice

4:47

11
B
2
3
4
5
6
7
8A
B



clear

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10

sub 9

... ..

...

with ...

92

Employed Pers. Theor
Not ...

90

3 under 6 months

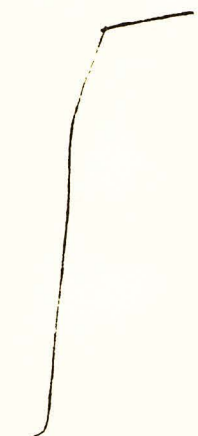
Your voice

(S:01) Good

1. A. 4 needed a bit more emphasis

B. 5

2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8. A



B. 4 creative but partially read

1. 3 radiant but shifting; fixing hair;

2. 5 Good

4. 2 hesitant; corrections; ^{uh}uhms; pauses

5. 5 sincere

6. 3 good note; choppy rate

7. 5

8. 1 not in place; back to side; held with both hands

9. 4 ; played with notes

10. 3

84

- Good voice
- Meaningful content & self reflection

APPENDIX D

DABNEY'S SUPPORTING DOCUMENTS

SPEECH EVALUATION

NAME _____ Semester Fall '87 Time _____

Remember to believe in yourself and we'll believe in you!

SPEECH			
I	II	III	IV
Op.	Inf.	Per.	Grp.
✓	6	✓	
	6	6	
6	6	6	
	6		
6	6	6	
6	6		
6	6	6	
	6		
6			
✓			
	6	6	
✓			
	✓	6	
	6		
✓			
6	6	6	

- I. You should make every effort to improve your speech comp. by:
 - A. Using clear, orderly organization.
 - B. Making the main idea of your speech clear at the outset.
 - C. Trying to adapt your material to your audience. RELATING!
 - D. Using more accurate and specific words.
 - E. Using more effective introductions.
 - F. Using more effective conclusions.
 - G. Using better transitions.

- II. You should work to improve the general effectiveness of your speaking by
 - A. More precise and thorough preparation from audience standpoint.
 - B. Greater informality, warmth.
 - C. Greater sincerity and/or ethical (personal) proofs.
 - D. More direct eye contact and/or cover all.
 - E. More energy and vitality in speaking (show enthusiasm).
 - F. More conversational quality, less "memorized" quality.
 - G. More facial expression overall.
 - H. More and/or variation of supporting material (researched).
 - I. Use of visual and/or audio aids.
 - J. Add to your credibility by showing "authority" along with your ideas.

- III. Vocally, you should work for:
 - A. Better pronunciation.
 - B. Greater variety in pitch.
 - C. Louder voice/softer voice.
 - D. Emphasis through voice.
 - E. Better articulation (open mouth and be clear).
 - F. Overall more expression appropriate for your material.

- IV. The rhythm of your speech would be improved by:
 - A. Elimination of vocalized pauses ("uh" and "and-uh").
 - B. Elimination of jerkiness. Needs smoother approach.
 - C. SLOWER rate/FASTER rate.
 - D. Occasional use of pauses.

- V. You would make a better appearance before your audience by:
 - A. Add interest by use of more body movement and gestures.
 - B. Better posture (too stiff or too "sloppy").
 - C. Eliminating extraneous and meaningless movement of your hands, head, feet ("dancing"), and/or torso.
 - D. Excessive pacing.
 - E. Dress appropriately.

VI. Additional Suggestions:

Topic: Child Behavior

58
30

A. Speech to inform of opinion: (state opinion clearly; explain reasons; and proposal) *You have a delightful approach. Like you (the person) - the fun comes through nicely. Please add to this a little tighter organization w/out losing humor & relativity.*

Topic: FOOD

43
41 3/4
43

B. Speech to inform with visuals: (statement of purpose; initial and final summaries; signposts) RESEARCHED *lets face it - you have great humor + ability to reach audience. Have depth!*

Topic: Contestants

34
40

C. Group presentation: (see leader's evaluation sheet)

Topic: Promoted Sex

7:47 oppo!
DARN!

D. Persuasive speech: (attention; need; solution; results; request). Logical proofs? Emotional proofs? Personal proofs? Credibility?

You (as always) always spoke so nicely - but a little more. My only real criticism was it was justified & presented in a way in (was) a... I thought your purpose was... than what it was till late.

Topic: _____

E. Special occasion speech:

Topic: _____

F. Impromptu:

GRADING SYSTEM: There are 400 points that can be earned during this semester. Just add up all points for grade.

93 - 100% = A (372-400)
86 - 92% = B (344-371)
80 - 85% = C (322-343)
73 - 79% = D (292-321)
Below this = F

- 28 30 points = Value of Speech I (Opinion)
- 43 50 points = Value of Speech II (To Inform with Visuals)
- 34 40 points = Value of Speech III (Group Presentation)
- 39 40 points = Value of Test I
- 58 60 points = Value of Critiques
- 57 60 points = Value of Speech IV (Persuasive)
- 15 points = Value of Special Occasion Speech
- 10 points = Value of Outline
- 5 points = Impromptu Speech
- 80 points = Value of Test II
- 5 points = Other assignments
- 5 points = No absences; 4 points = one absence; three points = two absences; two points = three absences; one point = four absences; more than four absences = NO POINTS!!

***** Subtract one point for every two absences past five!! Absences only excused with official written medical or school statement.

— 28/1/10

(10)

Saga, the Food That Epics are Made Of

Title

G.P. to inform

S.P. To explain to my audience how the organization of eating a cafeteria meal in the cafeteria works

Introduction

I. Have you ever had the craving for a good meal?

II. The Potpourri eating experience is divided into three different parts, which I will try to point out to you.

III. The three segments of the organized eating experience at Potpourri are broken down to registration, getting the meal, and finding a place to eat it.

Body

I. First, one must go through the trials of registration.

A. Have your meal card handy

1. Don't keep it in your wallet
2. Don't keep it in your pants or purse
3. Hand the card to the check-in person kindly

B. Part of registration is getting and crossing one's tray and utensils

1. Shake water off of the tray
2. Clean the clean utensils of spots and food particles

II. Secondly, one must choose one's meal and choose it wisely

A. There are foods which one can safely eat and therefore choose

1. soup
2. water

B. There are foods which one shouldn't choose let alone eat

1. the deserts are a week old and colorful
2. the lettuce can be at any moment, brown and wilted
3. the main courses are misleading

III. Thirdly, one must find a place to eat.

A. This is simple if you're greek, or belong to a fraternity or sorority.

1. there are certain places where each frat. may sit
2. you don't have to look elsewhere and risk having an accident
3. outsiders are scorned and shunned

B. Be careful where you sit

1. in getting there, be wary of dropping your tray
2. find a table large enough for your needs

Conclusion

I. The three steps of registering, choosing food, and sitting down are very important concepts in understanding the organization of the cafeteria

II. Bon Appetite!

Facts sheet on Prenatal sex speech.

AIDS: This countries leading cause of death according to the 1986 world Almanac.

15,000 people have died from it worldwide
13,074 people in the US alone

By 1990
over 200 million cases Aids will be reported

In 1986, 1,300,760 babies were unwanted, and killed.

12 months → over 100,000 babies killed a month
approx: ~~2,500~~^{3,500} babies killed daily!

percent breakdown: married: people who had abortions - 22%
unmarried: " " " " 78%
couples

then what:
→ 10,000 were killed!

~~Human~~ Human sexual behavior is strongly determined by culture: pornography, movies, sexual related actions on T.V., ^{magazines} magazines, advertisements, posters, etc.

(Pro p.s.) - The Chewa of Africa for example, believe that if their children don't exercise themselves sexually, they will be unable to produce offspring.

(Con p.s.) - The Aina of South America believe that their children should be ignorant of sex until marriage; they are not even permitted to see animals give birth.

visual aid →

- In the 1940's & 50's the U.S. and other Western countries would have been classified as sexually restrictive.

Today: sexual activities are few less restricted.

1940's: college aged students

men 49% women 27%

Had engaged in premarital sex by 21.

1980's to date:

men 89% women 74%

1970's: college students

men 96% women 69%

Blank poster for abstinence--

Morally: 1 CORINTHIANS, 6: ~~17~~ 16-20

religious prostitution, an accepted part of pagan culture in Rome.

GOOD AFTERNOON.

THIS NEXT AWARD SHOULD BE CONSIDERED A "REWARD".

TELEVISION ROLES TODAY ARE PLAGUED WITH VENOMOUS, SEDUCTIVE,
 LOOSE ROLES FOR WOMEN AND THIS AWARD ^{FOR TV'S} ~~THE~~ "CLEANEST FEMALE ROLE"
 HAS BEEN CREATED THIS YEAR BY THE ACADEMY TO CLEAN
 UP ~~THE~~ TELEVISION. THE ACADEMY OF NATIONALLY REDEEMING
 PROGRAMMING HAS RECOGNIZED THE NEED FOR AWARDS
 SUCH AS THIS ONE IN THE SMUTTY LITTLE WORLD
 WE LIVE IN TODAY. THIS AWARD LOOKS FOR
 CLEAN WHOLESOME WOMEN; WOMEN WHO
 YOU COULD JUST ADORE; WOMEN WHO ARE
 GOOD, PURE, AND SO... SO... MORAL; WOMEN
 LIKE... YOUR GRANDMOTHER. EVERYONE LOVES
 THEIR GRANDMOTHER... AND THE ACADEMY
 LOVES THESE NOMINEES FOR THE "T.V.'S
 CLEANEST FEMALE ROLE AWARD."

THE NOMINEES ARE:

LINDA EVANS

AND

THE WINNER IS....

THE ACTRESS WHO

HAS APPEARED IN "DAUGHTER OF

GIDGET", "BEST LITTLE A'-STUDENT IN TEXAS"

AND "THERESA: THE LIFE OF A SAINT."

LADIES -O- GENTLEMEN, IT IS MY HONOR TO

~~AWARDS~~ GIVE THIS AWARD TO

**University of
Central Florida**

12-10-87
(my birthday!)



Dearest Susan,

I apologize about last TUESDAY. Simply, I was in the library studying when I reflected on my grades thus far. When I thought about speech, it hit me that it was 4pm and late for our appointment. Again, I am sorry.

Here are the "official papers" pertaining to all we've talked about. Enclosed are my EVALUATION SHEET & the famous "HAVE DEPTH" scratch outline for the premarital sex speech, the OUTLINE ~~FOR~~ FOR SAGA (AUGH!!!), and exactly what I said during my last speech, the special occasion speech. This girl () and I worked together. I introduced her (SEE SHEET), and she accepted the award which was a roll of toilet paper. We had orchestra music in the back ground.

→

AND YES, I prepared for it!!! weird, huh?
IF YOU NEED ANY SORT OF ANSWERS TO
ANY QUESTIONS YOU MAY HAVE, my home #
is

Thank you for your patience.
Good luck on your report!
MERRY CHRISTMAS, SUSAN!

Sincerely,

APPENDIX E

JACQUELINE'S SUPPORTING DOCUMENTS

	poor	fair	average	good	excellent		
Introduction gained attention and interest?	---	---	X -	X	---	3.5	14
Main points clearly organized and easy to follow?	---	---	---	---	X	5	20
Main points supported with sufficient evidence?	---	---	X -	X	---	3.5	81
Was evidence from qualified sources?	---	---	---	---	X	5	
Reasoning clear and sound?	---	---	---	X	---	4	
Need issue dealt with convincingly?	---	---	---	X	---	4	
Speaker's plan clearly explained?	---	---	---	X	---	4	
Practicality of plan demonstrated?	---	---	---	X	---	4	
Connectives used effectively?	---	---	X -	X	---	3.5	
Language clear and concise?	---	---	X -	X	---	3.5	
Conclusion reinforced the central idea?	---	---	---	---	X	5	
Sufficient eye contact?	---	---	---	X	---	4	
Voice used to add impact?	---	---	---	X	---	4	
Nonverbal communication effective?	---	---	---	X	---	4	
Speech well adapted to the audience?	---	---	---	X	---	4	
Overall evaluation of the speech?	---	---	---	X	---	20	

Comments: Good job. At times you repeated
yourself, some evidence lacked depth.
But overall good job.

Speech #1

we should all ~~exercise~~ exercising

o - psychological benefits

★ - ~~no~~ physical benefits

for example
20 min. aerobic
elevate heart
rate -
cardiovascular

o feel better look better

when in shape - have more energy
able to participate in more

o when feel better - one way to have
more confidence in yourself

★ heart disease & cancer

★ if muscles are used to being used,
they are able to resist injuries that
can easily occur.

blood pressure, all bodily ~~parts~~ internal parts
strong & healthy - fight ~~disease~~ disease moving

★ strong enough for daily activities

o takes anywhere from 10 min. to 1 hr. a day
★ feel refreshed

★ keeps joints moving - arthritis

- appearance eye contact voice ^{variation}
 posture poise organization of speech ^{expression}
 preparation interesting sincerity ^{tone}
 enthusiasm

the sheet he gave us

Chronological

Spacial

Topical - give an idea - support
 start w/ least important & build

Cause & Effect

Problem solving

Intro: grab audiences attention
 establish repore, prepare for
 what follows ^{illustration}
 rhetorical or strong questions

good to close w/ a quote

Concl: integrate all points
 challenge or appeal
 * summarize

APPENDIX F

MATT'S SUPPORTING DOCUMENTS

ON July 20th 1983 My
 OLDER brother DAN was shot
 in the head and killed
 by a man ~~with a~~
 who shouldn't OF had a handgun.
 That is why I believe
 there should be strict laws
 for handgun control.

- Practically every day you read
 in the News Paper about people
 being killed by handguns in
 the wrong hands. - Just LAST week
- About 20,000 people in
 the U.S. Die a year in
 handgun related incidents
 - About 60% of all murders
 are committed with GUNS
 - 40% of which are BY handgun
 - Over 50% of all suicides
 are done with a handgun
 - almost half of all robberies
 are done with a gun
 - One in four cases of aggravated
 assault are done with a
 GUN
 - many Police Officers are wounded
 or killed in the line of duty
 and 70% of the time it
 is done with a handgun.
 - Every year about 2,000,000 non-
 military handguns are manufactured
 in the U.S.
 - The National Rifle Association
 has been lobbying for armor piercing
 "cop-killer" bullets, the sale
 of OF New machine guns

NAA

Carrying of handguns. For the easier

- Now the N.R.A. has launched a multi-million dollar campaign to allow the sale of undetectable plastic handguns. The handguns are made completely of plastic and are unable to be detected by security devices in our airports. Plastic handguns could soon be on the market and new detection devices are years away.

- U.S. Secret Service has testified that if these plastic handguns become available it will make protection of presidential candidates extremely difficult.

- The White House White Secret Service discovered 74 concealed handguns in 1986 alone, might have to be closer to the public.

- In Florida it is relatively easy to get a handgun permit.

- Apply

- pay \$146

- Take a 8 hour fire arms safety class

OF Legal concealed handguns is expected to double in Florida

Law Official predict that gun related killing due to Argument will go up substantially.

— IN Miami $\frac{1}{2}$ OF Last years 169 handgun killing started From Arguments, which is many more than the total Drug related murders ~~at~~ Miami OF that year.

— Compare to other countries

— IN 1974

11,124 Americans were murdered by hand guns

— IN Japan a country which has half our population IN the same year had only 37 Handgun murders.

— A FBI report shows that you would be 4 times as safe in Northern Ireland which is at near civil war than you would be in the city of Detroit Michigan which has about the same population

— reasons people think they need hand guns

With the frightening rise
 OF crime many people
 buy handguns to protect
 their homes and to carry
 for personal protection.
 Many people carry them
 in the glove compartments
 of their cars. We all
 heard of the incident a
 couple of weeks ago in
 Florida where one motorist shot
 and killed another when
 he asked him if he
 had a problem because
 he was honking his horn.

A gun for protection at home
 is not a good deal especially if
 there are young kids in the
 house who could get a hold
 of it. 90% of home
 burglary occur when no one
 is home so the burglars
 up stealing the handgun and
 using it for crime.

For personal protection is not
 that great unless you really know
 how to use the gun. Most times
 when people are attacked or mugged
 they are surprised and if the
 attacker gets the gun from you, you
 could be killed by your own gun.

In conclusion I think
the United States would
be a lot safer place if
there were stricter handgun
laws. I would rather
have a German Shepherd
for protection than a
handgun.

Florida

Relatively easy to get a hand gun permit

- Apply, get finger printed
- Pay \$146
- Pass a 1 hour Fire Arms Safety course

of legal concealed handguns expected to double in Florida

- Law officials predict gun related killing due to Arguments to go up substantially
- IN Miami \rightarrow of 169 handgun murder

U.S. Compared TO Countries With stricter handgun control

1974 - 11,124 Americans murdered

- JAPAN has half population of US and only 37 handgun murders
- IRONIC
- FBI Report shows you would be 4 times as safe in Northern Ireland

Reasons People have guns

- Frightening rise of crime buy handguns to protect home and to carry for personal protection
- I wouldn't keep a handgun in home especially with young children
- I Don't recommend carry for personal protection UNLESS you are well trained

- Everyday Read in Paper
- PIZZA MAN KILL

FACTS

- 20,000 American die
- 60% OF all murders
 - 43% From handguns
- over 50% OF suicides
- $\frac{1}{2}$ OF all robberies
- 1 IN 4 Cases OF Aggravated Assault
- COPS Killed or injured
- 2,000,000 handguns

NRA
lobbing
FOR

- Armor piercing 'cop-killer' Bullet

- Sale of New Machine guns
- Easier carrying of handguns

Now - launched a multi-million Dollar campaign for the sale of non detectable plastic handguns

When I saw you put up the ~~great~~
article in the paper about guns
I thought BORING, but it
was a great speech. Definately
an A. You seemed a little
nervous but you were so well
prepared that it didn't affect
you. It seems like you did
alot of research too.

Excellent job!

Your speech was a good one.
You was clear and concise.
The use of hand guns is
very important.

Try not to say um! when
speaking.

GOOD POINTS

GOT ATTENTION

GOOD KNOWLEDGE OF FACTS

GOOD OPENING

EYE CONTACT

BAD POINTS

GAVE FACTS NOT BELIEFS

VOICE AT ONE LEVEL

Well done. Presented ideas in a solid manner and supported them all. Pamphlet was good, but it distracted me from your speech - not good. Try, next time, to put that information in your speech, so you will have everyone's undivided attention.

Very well presented Speech that discusses a very important issue in our society. Well done!!

Handgun Control

Good

excellent

~~Good~~ research - use of facts

well structured

excellent speech overall

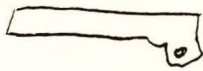
good coverage of all sides of the issue

BAD

might have wanted to mention how you felt on Rifles

her
evaluator

Good Intro, Good Conclusion, supporting Facts
good. I read the article that you got
information from on the Plastic Gun. The gun
speaking of is the Glock. When they said it
all plastic they misspoke. The barrel, Magazine
ings, and rounds are steel. were it to go through
metal detector it would look like this:



notes The head of the
Fraternal order of Police
is not a cop he's a business man.

Good topic - very believable,
well organized, well thought out.
You should relax more
your speech and presentation were
perfect, you had nothing to be
nervous about. I liked it beginning
to end.

GREAT SPEECH. GOOD VISUAL AIDS
DID A GOOD JOB SUPPORTING FACTS &
DETAILS.

My serious topic. you were really
together & calm great conclusion.
I'm sorry about your brother. Great
statistics, very clear & understandable,
nonfluencies.
Definitely an X-cellent job!
Way to go!

Positive: Great opening. My family also has
been a victim of this. Excellent statistics.
Very Interesting. Good visuals. Your speech
was the best I've heard.

Negatives: none

1. INTRODUCTION

2. STATISTICS (Study 1981-85)

- A) MR. PURCIVAL PROJECT DEVELOPER
FOR DEPT OF TRANSPORTATION
FL.
- B) 278 PERSONNEL INJURIES
- C) 8 DEATHS, CALLED "THE KILL ZONE"
- D) OVER \$4 MILLION ECONOMIC LOSSES
- E) MR. P. SAID EVEN THOUGH IT NOT IN
THE TOP 10 FOR TRAFFIC FATALITIES
IN FL, IT IS EXTREMELY HAZARDOUS

3. PROJECT DEVELOPEMENT AND
A STUDY ABOUT HOW IT WOULD
AFFECT THE ENVIRONMENT HAVE BEEN
DONE ALREADY.

4. PUBLIC HEARING HAS BEEN DONE

5. DOT HAS DECIDED TO WIDEN
ROAD TO 4 LANES FROM 50 FT
WEST OF I 4 TO I 95
16.1 MILES

6. CONSTRUCTION IS IN CONCEPTUAL
STAGE. SURVEY NOT DONE YET

(2)

7. State must acquire property w/
"Right of Way Acquisitions"
- A) Buy peoples houses
 - B) # Funded For 1988-91
 - C) Study done by MR. Percival
to determine how to Affect
the Least amount of people
but still be cheaper cost.
8. Dollar amounts are not available
for the completion of this project
9. FL. Do.T. is also planning to
improve interchanges at I 4 and
I 94.
10. SURVEY
11. CONCLUSION

Should they Widen S.R. 44?

Do you go to New Smyrna Beach often?

Yes

No

Do you take S.R. 44 when you go to New Smyrna Beach?

Yes

No

Do you feel S.R. 44 is a safe route?

Yes

No

Do you believe they should make S.R. 44 four lanes instead of two lanes?

Yes

No

3:39

85

POLICY_SPEECH_EVALUATION_FORM

	poor	fair	average	good	excellent
Introduction gained attention and interest?	---	---	---	---	<u>Y</u> 5
Main points clearly organized and easy to follow?	---	---	---	---	<u>X</u> 5
Main points supported with sufficient evidence?	---	---	---	---	<u>Y</u> 5
Was evidence from qualified sources?	---	---	---	---	<u>X</u> 5
Reasoning clear and sound?	---	---	---	---	<u>X</u> 5
Need issue dealt with convincingly?	---	---	---	<u>X</u>	4
Speaker's plan clearly explained?	---	---	---	<u>X</u>	4
Practicality of plan demonstrated?	---	---	---	---	<u>X</u> 5
Connectives used effectively?	---	---	---	<u>X</u>	4
Language clear and concise?	---	---	---	<u>X</u>	4
Conclusion reinforced the central idea?	---	---	---	<u>X</u>	4
Sufficient eye contact?	---	---	---	<u>X</u>	4
Voice used to add impact?	---	---	<u>X</u> -	<u>X</u>	3.5
Nonverbal communication effective?	---	---	<u>X</u> -	<u>X</u>	3.5
Speech well adapted to the audience?	---	---	---	<u>X</u>	4
Overall evaluation of the speech?	---	---	---	<u>X</u>	20

50
7
20

85

ments: Don't lean on foot like that. Work
on smooth verbalization. Speech ran too
short. Work on stronger voice.

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