ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PUBLIC SPEAKING

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Chapter 1: Background

I completed my bachelor's degree in Communication Studies here at IUPUI and was lucky enough to find a position working with Dr. Ulla Connor at the Indiana Center for Intercultural Communication (ICIC). I started as an interviewer and progressed to a research associate. This was my first exposure to the world of ESL learning.

I found this world of linguistics fascinating. As I worked coding and scanning letters for research projects my admiration and respect for non-native English speakers grew. I knew in my heart that I would never be able to speak or write a second language as well as they could communicate in English even when many of them were disappointed with their spoken and written English proficiency. This was a humbling but true thought that lead me to study linguistics and Teaching English to Speaker's of Other Languages.

As my position at ICIC came to an end. I found the IUPUI Speaker's Lab. I accepted the position as coordinator and took charge of the lab. The Speaker's Lab was designed to help students with presentations as they take the R110 public speaking course. It is easy to love the lab. The students would arrive asking for help, wanting to learn. The lab grew in stature and visits and I continued my graduate work, first completing the certificate in Teaching English as a Second Language then continuing in the Master of English program.

Along the way I started to teach college level courses. I first taught Communications R110, the public speaking course. Soon after that I taught English G012 the ESL course for academic listening and speaking. I was able to assist ESL learners in many classes that required presentations. I was running the Speaker's Lab, teaching R110 and/or G012 and taking English graduate courses. I was helping students who wanted help; I was busy but I loved it.

Recently I became co-director for Communication R110 campus-wide. I had closely observed the class administration of G012 (usually 3 sections annually) and of R110 (130 sections annually). R110 has about 2500 individual students each academic year. In my position as co-director I controlled the scheduling, the course materials along with the pedagogy. This thesis is about combining my personal experience, the two similar but complementary worlds of ESL and Communication Studies and the many roles I have played as student, researcher, mentor, instructor and administrator to help non-native English speakers and those trying to assist them with the challenging situation of public speaking at the university level.

Public speaking is not easy. In American universities it is common for students to "present" information to a class. These presentations happen across the curriculum whether presenting a paper in a music class or summarizing research results in a chemistry class. To prepare students for these presentations and future expectations either as a graduate school student or as a graduated professional, universities have classes in public speaking. For many students, no matter their academic background, these classes create a great deal of anxiety. Many of us remember the heartache we felt when we were first asked to present. As I was talking to a student about her reticence to participate in the class, I was reminded of one phrase that summed up the status of public speaking in the university environment, "If it was easy, we wouldn't have to have a class."

In the 1970's, David Wallechinsky, Irving Wallace and Amy Wallace released the Bruskin report. It cited results from a questionnaire stating that public speaking is the number one fear of Americans (1977). Public speaking ranked higher than heights, snakes and even death, giving credence to the phrase, "I would rather be the one in the coffin than the one talking about the one in the coffin." Years later, the Bruskin/Goldring Report

followed up this research with a survey asking adults "about the things of which nightmares are made..." The survey result revealed "speaking in front of a group" as the largest producer of nightmares (1993).

To personalize this "fear of speaking" I once saw a shirt of a public speaking instructor with the image of a grim reaper on the front proclaiming, "I do for fun what others fear more than death." There is no doubt that public speaking class puts an immense amount of pressure on many students. Nevertheless university faculty and administrations across the curriculum continue to expect our students to be effective public speakers if they are to be successful students.

Into this environment we insert students still learning English as a second language. According to the U.S. Census Bureau this is necessary due to the increasing international student population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2004). To meet the needs of these English as a second language learners there are many academic programs. Many of these seem to inadequately focus upon university students presenting speeches in classrooms. This is probably because most of the text and research relating to non-native English speaking students at the university level focuses on writing and everyday speaking. Public Speaking for ESL learners is certainly part of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) but that area itself does not focus on our specific needs. To clearly define our parameters I will use English for Academic Public Speaking (EAPS). There is a lack of focus on the unique elements that are created when a non-native English speaker performs a public speaking act. On the IUPUI campus EAPS centered courses include G012, the English class for non-native speakers with a focus on listening and speaking for academic purposes and Communication R110, the fundamentals of public speaking, a speech class required of most undergraduate students.

To truly understand the uniqueness of these elements it is important to start with the goals of public speaking so that we can later examine the parts of effective communication and how those goals and parts specifically challenge EAPS students.

To understand why EAPS is important we should first understand what is involved with public speaking. Public speaking is about sharing information. Well before written communication was standardized it was common for information to be conveyed orally. Even after clear duplication of written text was an option it was common for important information to be "presented" to the public. This tradition holds today. Speaking in public is still a strong part of our lives. Our religious organizations speak to an audience, sharing their teachings and beliefs. Our politicians stand before constituents talking of values and goals, asking for action. Our teachers, on all levels, stand before an audience informing them of ideas and concepts. Business representatives meet groups in conference rooms everyday, sharing specifications, statistics and goals with the hope that they will listen and act accordingly.

Summarizing public speaking textbooks can lead to a consensus on four basic principles for effective public speaking: effective speakers exhibit a strong sense of confidence and purpose, public speaking is interactive, messages are well organized rhetorically, and U.S. audiences respond best to well prepared, extemporaneous presentations (Koch, 1988; Lucas, 2004; O'Hair, Rubenstein, & Stewart, 2007; O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2007; Osborn & Osborn, 1997; Verderber, 1994). The university is preparing students for these expectations. The university does so by providing opportunities for students to practice speaking in public in various academic courses, including in most cases a basic public speaking course. In a public speaking class the student will normally

cover informative and persuasive speaking elements and they will be required to design a presentation, and present it to his/her classmates.

In the next chapter, I will review the literature of communication theories as they relate to effective public speaking focusing on some areas of public speaking that are particularly difficult for EAPS students. Once the specific areas of interest have been identified for EAPS students and those trying to help them, chapter 3 will examine the current practices in EAPS situations followed by chapter 4 which will make recommendations for improvements in order to better prepare non-native speakers of English to give academic oral presentations.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

With a basic understanding of the connection between EAPS and the goals of public speaking I will focus on issues especially challenging to EAPS students due to cultural and language differences, which include: communication apprehension, understanding your audience's frame of reference, rhetorical organization, and non-verbal communication.

By examining the communication model we can identify the specific elements that trouble non-native English speakers. I will thereafter examine how these speaking situations cause a degree of nervousness in all individuals.

Communication Apprehension

Most non-native English speaking college students are internationals who applied for and received F-1 visa to attend an American university. They are usually the overachievers, the brightest of the bright, and typically have exemplary preparatory education.

This history of academic success can lead to certain challenges for the non-native speaking students in the class. Most of these students have a fear of public speaking, similar to many public speaking students. They also have fears of being different and misunderstood. Since many public speaking conventions are culturally specific, even if a speaker is relatively comfortable in one cultural setting, it can cause anxiety when in an unfamiliar setting. Many non-native speakers hear their classmates and believe them to be perfect speakers. Many non-native English speaking students' goal is perfection. From experience we know that perfect is not attainable and really not even practical to expect. To summarize, the non-native speakers feel different and fear the situation, yet set unattainable expectations for themselves.

James McCroskey, a leading researcher in communication apprehension (CA) developed the original conceptualization of CA. He has defined CA as, "an individual's level

of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (McCroskey, 1982).

Communication apprehension has been segmented into four different contexts including: group communication, communication in meetings, interpersonal communication and public speaking (McCroskey, 1982). Based upon research completed by Allen, O'Mara and Andriste and the earlier research by McCroskey the mean communication apprehension level for all subjects is 65.6 out of 100 (Allen, O'Mara, & Andriste, 1986; McCroskey, 1977). The communication apprehension survey (PRCA) was given to non-native English speaking students asking about both their apprehension in their native language and their apprehension in English. Based upon a possible 25 point scale the non-native English speaking student's survey has revealed a 17.7 score in public speaking apprehension in their native language. This score is higher than the apprehension in any other single area of the CA survey. This result is still lower than the public speaking apprehension the non-native speaking students evidenced in English which resulted in a 18.5. Even after a lengthy period of time the apprehension remains. A recent study by Jung and McCroskey found that length of time in an English speaking environment and number of years speaking English are not predictors of high apprehension (Jung & McCroskey, 2004). The apprehension is based upon the confidence of the individual.

The conclusion of McCroskey's work might have been obvious from experience alone, but the work of McCroskey, Jung & McCroskey and Allen, O'Mara & Lindriste has quantified two very important elements (Allen et al., 1986; Jung & McCroskey, 2004; McCroskey, 1982). First, non-native English speaking students exhibit a high level of apprehension in public speaking contexts, noticeably higher levels than group communication, meeting communication and interpersonal communication. Secondly, this

high level of apprehension is even higher when the situation requires the communication to be in English.

Understanding Your Audience's Frame of Reference

In relation to understanding your audience's frame of reference, cultural differences greatly influence our understanding of ideas. As mentioned under the communication model, any message sent has to be decoded by the audience. The decoding process involves an audience translating to the received message using their understanding of the terms, ideas and concepts presented to create an understanding. Since cultural background determines a great deal of our frames of reference EAPS students must be very careful addressing their audience. For effective communication the audience will have expectations and understanding of concepts similar to those of the speaker.

The message is the ideas encoded into language by the sender that will be received by the receiver (audience). The receiver based upon their personal ideas then decodes the message. A public speaking message is complex in that it contains one sender, but multiple receivers. The multiple receivers mean that one presented message can be (and will be) decoded based upon each individual audience member.

O'Hair, Stewart and Rubenstien (2007) point out that no matter what the speaker's attitudes, values or beliefs the audience will always evaluate messages on their own terms. One-On One: The Foundation of Interpersonal Communication (1986) says that attitudes are the predispositions that audiences hold to everything around them. These predispositions cause us to think positively or negatively about people, ideas, objects, and events.

Since the audience is part of the communication system it helps determine the message. The simplest example of this is how two people can be standing next to each other, hear the same message, but derive completely different meanings from the message based

upon their different backgrounds, goals and personal contexts. These elements are different for each individual and become multiplied and complicated as the audience grows.

Every individual decodes a message differently, and this can lead to one audience member having different understanding of the intended message then other audience member. For a non-native speaker the encoding and decoding are based upon an individual history that might be nothing like that of the speaker. This need to understand and adapt to the audience's encoding and decoding is important.

Unique differences in each individual's perceptions of information are like a personalized stain glass window. I am drawn to this analogy based upon a personal experience I had as an elementary school student. My class went on a fieldtrip to a historic home. As we were descending the steps from the upper level our attention was drawn to a window frame that held stain glass pieces overlooking the garden. I remember our tour guide remarking something similar to, "The world looks different when you look out this glass, but the strange thing is it looks a little different to each person." At the time this meant very little to me. I saw a few pretty plants and a swing tinted in the colors of red, green and blue. Now I look back on this statement in the realm of communication. I imagine the ideas of the speaker as the flowers, the grass and swing that make up the larger frame; this is how we see the world, as the speaker presents them. Each individual has their own design of stained glass that allows each to see the flowers, grass and swing, but since the colors and designs are different they would see everything differently. For some the flowers seem vibrant. For each person what is most important and clear will depend on the interaction of the scene with the stained glass.

This means that no matter how detailed the speaker tries to be, the audience will not see the world exactly as the speaker intended. The audience will see the world based on their own perceptions.

Everyone has their own frames of reference. These frames control the way we see the world. These frames manifest themselves in the audience's mind during each part of the speech act. As individuals receive messages they constantly respond to them based upon their own frames of reference. As an example, imagine if an audience receives a message about how to make homemade chocolate cake. The audience will instantly interpret the message based upon their own history. An experienced cook might be evaluating the message based upon their own past homemade cake experiences. A young man who has only cooked a cake from a box might be wondering if he would be able to complete this much more complex task. Finally, a young lady from an Asian culture who does not normally use an oven in her home country could be very confused about the entire process.

Frames of reference are not only about the audience. These frames of reference also influence the speaker. The frames control the way a speaker portrays the world. Based upon a presentation to a standard university public speaking class imagine if a speaker is a soccer player and is very comfortable with the sport. Most of the details about the sport would be common knowledge for him. He would not need to explain simple concepts such as the equipment, the field or the positions. Yet, most in his audience will likely not be as familiar with the sport; they would need the exact knowledge he considers a "given." In this situation an informative speech about soccer could be a real challenge.

The answer is to understand, as a speaker, the frames of your audience and how the audience's frames differ from your own. If our soccer-playing speaker understands that his audience is unfamiliar with the sport, he could easily provide the background needed. At the

same time if this is a different setting such as a soccer convention then the focus of his speech on soccer and the way he presents it will be very different. This is a simple example, but the concept is clear.

The basis for these frames of reference can be found by understanding what makes each individual unique. The Art of Public Speaking (Lucas, 2004) says that we must understand the psychology of the audience. According to Lucas the most important element to consider is egocentrism. This is exactly the issue here. People are egocentric. They will always be asking, "Why is this important to me?", "How does this relate to me?" If the answer to these questions is "It doesn't" then the audience will be very unlikely to continue paying attention.

Once the speaker has the audience's attention it is vital as a speaker to give them information in a way that allows them to process it and create shared understanding. Logical organization of information will assist the audience to understand the message of the speaker. By looking at the rhetorical organization of a speech I am looking at not only the way the idea is presented (chronological, sequential, spatial, problem-solution) which would be considered more of a global organization, but also how the points are presented to support that idea.

Rhetorical Organization

Rhetorical organization is developed during a student's academic career and cultural upbringing. This past education prepares the student to understand and organize ideas based upon cultural understanding. This issue was first revealed by Robert Kaplan in an article titled, "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education" (1984). This article identified why the rhetoric of essays written by English as a Second Language students varied from native-English speaking students' essays. To demonstrate this point Kaplan tried to create a

visual representation of the rhetorical organization patterns. These are commonly referred to as "Kaplan's Doodle's" (see figure 1). The doodles were later criticized for their obvious ethnocentric stance. Notice how the English line is straight while all others are less direct. Culturally, Kaplan would see the English organizational pattern as direct because it is his native organization. These visual signs were taken from the point of view of an English man looking at writings from students with English, Semitic, Oriental, Romance and Russian language backgrounds. These are taken from his (the perspective of a man born, raised and educated in English) point of view. So naturally he sees the way that non-native English speakers communicate as being different from his own. Researchers from other cultures could easily see the English line as less direct or even jumpy. Kaplan admitted this flaw. This visual flaw does not erase the core and correct principle that people with different language and cultural backgrounds communicate differently (Connor, 1996). This principle was summarized by Connor in her book "Contrastive Rhetoric"; she states that individuals write (and speak) differently based upon their native language, even if they are speaking the same language.

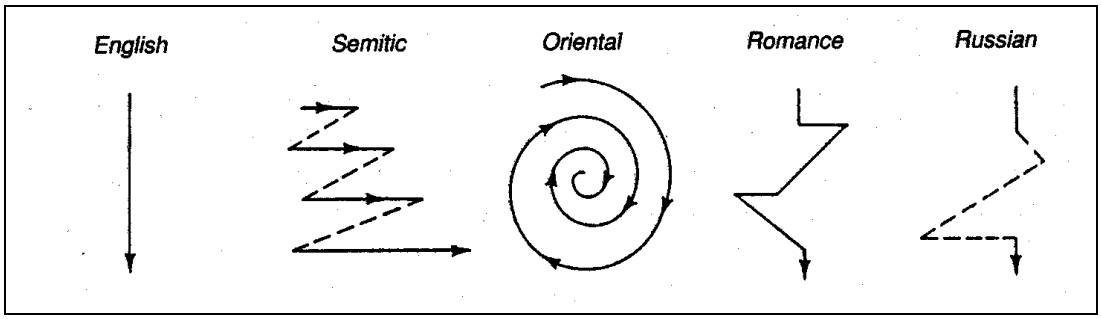

Figure 1: Diagram on cross-cultural differences in paragraph organization in Kaplan's (1984) study on cultural thought patterns in intercultural education.

These differences are revealed in the organization of sentences, main points and the entire speech. Often an instructor expects a certain organizational structure in their students' speeches. This preconception can be challenging for students because the student could

believe they are being completely effective with their ideas (referencing Kaplan's Doodles, the line seemed straight to them!). Basically, the student and instructor have different perceptions of effectiveness. This could result in the student getting a poor grade, feeling disappointed, or even confused about what they are doing wrong. Even if the student has been able to determine the appropriate organizational pattern, they must meet another challenge. This challenge manifests itself in the process of determining the information necessary to properly convey the concepts and organization.

Even if an organizational structure is "correct" or expected that does not automatically lead to a rhetorically "correct" speech act. I can easily have the proper problem-solution organization pattern, but if I fail to support my ideas in an effective manner my audience is not likely to agree with my solution. It could be that my lack of support is based upon my feelings for the amount of information that is needed to support individual ideas. This element of rhetorical organization relates to high or low context.

Context deals with the amount of information imbedded in the message to create understanding. Anthropologist Edward Hall defined levels of context in his book, "Beyond Culture." High context means that much of the understanding is based upon the innate understanding of the audience and the setting of the message. Low context means that almost all information is clearly stated and the audience needs to only receive the message to understand (Hall, 1976).

China and France would be examples of some high context cultures, while the US and Germany would be low context. All grades of high or low context are on a scale. No culture, university or classroom will have the exact same context level. The addition or subtraction of one person can change the context level for the entire group. The difficulty comes when someone is accustomed to one level of context and enters another. Students

used to high context environments have a particular challenge in a public speaking class. Items like previews, reviews, summaries and even transitions are excellent for low context situations, but students from high context environments might see these as useless.

Speakers or writers of a public speaking project with a high context background will include information that they perceive to be necessary. If their audience is used to low context communication, they will find that much of the information is not easily understandable. The speaker will be thinking, "Of course they will understand this." The audience will think, "Wait a minute what was that?" and "What does that mean?"

Solving the problems of communication apprehension, understanding an audience's frame of reference and rhetorical organization will help each speaker as they prepare to speak to an audience. Once they are speaking there is one other element that is particularly troubling for EAPS students. This is the problem of non-verbal communication. The majority of non-verbal communication problems for EAPS students involve the dramatic differences in cultural expectations of non-verbal communication in the academic setting.

Non-verbal Communication

Non-verbal communication determines a large part of our messages. Research shows that when a verbal and a non-verbal signal are conflicting the audience is more likely to believe the non-verbal signal. Just as children might tell a parent that they did NOT draw on the wall with a crayon, the parent can know they are lying based upon their lack of eye contact, their stance and the tone of their voice.

Even when the verbal and non-verbal signals work together audiences believe a speaker as much on how they present the message as the message itself. The famous example of this is the Kennedy/Nixon debates of the 1960 presidential election. This series of debates was the first to be televised. Of course the debates still had a strong radio

audience, but the new medium brought new challenges. Post-debate polls showed that radio listeners believed that Nixon won the debate as he seemed informed and had answers for tough questions while Kennedy seems to evade answering questions. Television viewers clearly thought Kennedy won as he seemed relaxed and confident at all times as opposed to Nixon who seemed nervous, even unshaven and sweaty. In these post-debate polls it become evident that the way a message is presented has enormous power of the way that message is interpreted. There are many elements of non-verbal communication. Here we will try to focus on two, eye contact and gestures, that are important for public speaking and are particularly troubling to EAPS students depending upon their cultural background.

Eye Contact

Eye contact is challenging. As a student who attended American schools all of my life the American expectations of eye contact are very clear. I was taught to look my teacher in the eye, and I was told by my parents to look people in the eye to show respect and honesty. When presenting I was told to practice the same philosophy to show the sincerity of my information (Lucas, 2004; Osborn & Osborn, 1997; Sprague & Stuart, 1996; Verderber, 1994). These expectations for eye contact are hardly universal. When I asked a Chinese citizen the same question it was a very different story. The student was taught almost the exact opposite. Do not look a teacher in the eye and look away from people to show respect. There was also no direct instruction on eye contact relating to presentations. In a similar example Japanese students are taught to look down when speaking to an authority figure. This makes it challenging for EAPS students when an instructor is watching for eye contact from the back of the room. Most presentation grading rubrics have specific grading points designed to evaluate the speaker's effective practice of making eye contact

with all of the audience and the evaluator. Eye contact is probably the most important single area of nonverbal communication for a public speaking setting, but it is not the only one.

Gestures

Gestures are normally learned in childhood. These gestures develop as children realize that a gesture helps others understand what the child really wants or means. This is the same reason that adults use gestures.

Gestures are more diverse than eye contact. Dane Archer, from the University of California, Santa Cruz makes two very simple but strong statements about gestures, gestures are not a universal language and different cultures have different gestural expectations (Archer, 1997). For a speaker this causes problems as one is never sure if the gestures one intends to make (or not make) are appropriate (or offensive). In her research involving university level students, Archer found that much of the difference gesture understanding and usage are due to "gestural permission." If an individual is not allowed or familiar with a specific gesture they will have difficulty performing and understanding that same gesture (Archer, 1997).

Gap

This chapter has served to review the areas that are often challenging for non-native English speakers and that are not adequately addressed in current EAPS methods and materials. There is a clear need to address these issues in ways that will assist EAPS students as they complete their public speaking courses and as they prepare to speak in other classrooms and outside of the university.

Based upon the needs of non-native English speaking students in public speaking classes and the lack of tools designed to assist these students, I perceive a need for module designs to be used in college speech classes. These modules will focus on these specific

EAPS areas: (1) communication apprehension, (2) understanding your audience's frames of reference, (3) rhetorical organization and (4) non-verbal communication.

The next chapter (chapter 3) will look at the current methods and materials used in EAPS settings in relation to these four stated areas. Chapter 4 will address the inadequacies of both the methods and materials to meet the needs of EAPS students by making recommendations to administrators, instructors and students to assist EAPS students as they pursue effective public speaking communication.

Chapter 3: Current Methods and Materials

Reviewing the conclusion from chapter 2, I have identified four challenging areas for our EAPS students. These include:

1. Understanding your audience's frame of reference
2. Rhetorical organization
3. Communication apprehension
4. Non-verbal communication

These four elements can be organized along a speech process timeline. This timeline starts with the planning stage, then the composition stage, and finally the presentation stage. Figure 2 shows how the four elements relate to the three speech act stages.

Stages	Challenging Areas
Planning	▪ Understanding your audience's frame of reference ▪ Communication apprehension
Composition	▪ Rhetorical organization
Presentation	▪ Communication apprehension ▪ Non-verbal communication

Figure 2: Addressing challenges in the speech act process.

This chapter will review current EAPS methods and materials typically used during these three different stages as they relate to these challenging areas. I will focus on these 4 elements as they relate specifically to non-native English speakers.

Planning Stage

The planning stage of a speech act is subject to minimalization by students. Inexperienced students will often jump right to the writing of the speech without taking time to plan.

Planning starts with an understanding of the speech act goals. Once the goals have been determined the speaker must pick a subject (topic). The topic leads to main points and the organization of main points; this can also be called the specific purpose and central idea. This level of planning is necessary to create an organized, effective speech act.

Over the past few years I have worked with many students who will ask for help because they are "stuck." These roadblocks often occur when they suddenly realize that he/she is unsure of the goal of the speech or if their speech will meet the assignment goal. This problem is born in the planning stage. Due to a lack of planning they have created content that does not fit. They are often trying to make it fit. This is a symptom of a student looking at the end product of the assignment being less concerned with how that product is created.

To understand how this happens it is important to view how this stage of the public speech act is taught in EAPS situations. I will also examine how EAPS students approach this stage.

Planning

The coursebook for communication R110, a public speaking class here at IUPUI, offers 4 steps in the planning stage of an academic speech act (Cochrane, Fox, & Thedwall, 2004). These include:

1. Choose a subject
2. Construct a very narrow specific purpose/central idea
3. Analyze audience information
4. Research

A brief review of all the necessary steps can be found in the appendix to this text. Two of these steps (choosing a topic and analyzing audience information) are areas that

strongly impact the effectiveness of EAPS presentations. I will look at the theory for each of these areas, then I will discuss how they relate to EAPS students.

Choose a Topic

Public speaking texts universally say that choosing a topic is the first step in a speech act (Cochrane et al., 2004; DeVito, 1987; Lucas, 2004; O'Hair, Rubenstein, & Stewart, 2007; O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2007; Osborn & Osborn, 1997; Sprague & Stuart, 1996; Verderber, 1994). The most common methods suggested for topic selection are "Topics you know a lot about", "Topics you want to know more about" and finally "Brainstorming for topics" (Lucas, 2004, pp. 86-89). I will examine the methods and benefits of each.

When looking at "Topics you know a lot about", instructors are telling students that they will be more comfortable speaking about a topic (and possibly persuading others) if they feel comfortable with the topic. On the surface this is very true. When we are speaking we feel better if we are the expert. As an expert your level of communication apprehension will be reduced. In general, speaker's apprehension and anxiety will reduce as the level of comfort with the topic increases. College students are not alone in this feeling. Many university instructors have similar feelings. Even in student focused classroom environments the instructor who is guiding the discussion would feel as if they need a strong understanding of the information to be effective.

As an example, John is a college student majoring in psychology it would be appropriate for John to speak about concepts such as id, ego or Sigmund Freud in an informative speech if he is comfortable with such topics. If on the other hand Becky is an exercise science major it would be more appropriate for Becky to persuade her audience to try Tae-Bo exercise for their health assuming she is comfortable with Tae-Bo.

While in "Topics you know a lot about", instructors are telling students that they will be more comfortable speaking, when looking at "Topics you want to know more about", we are going a different route. This focus is designed to bring energy and make the required steps seem less tiresome. If a speaker is excited about a topic they will have more energy when they speak and the research and organization of ideas will seem enjoyable.

If a potential speaker, Candice, is interested in NASCAR, she might enjoy working on a speech about Jeff Gordon or Dale Earnhardt. If Fred is a student who is interested in studying abroad, it would probably not be a struggle for him to prepare a persuasion speech convincing his audience to study abroad.

Ideally each student will find a topic that they know something about <u>and</u> that they want to know more about. This is an ideal situation. It is common for many speech topics to be either something they know about or something they want to know more about. The last resort is "Brainstorming." There are many different methods of brainstorming but the philosophy is the same for all of them. The speaker who is looking for ideas uses a systematic method to generate ideas. The method could involve a pattern of thinking, using someone else to help you think of ideas or using a resource, such as an encyclopedia or an internet site. In a perfect situation these brainstorming techniques will help the speaker think of either a topic they know about or a topic they want to know more about, again ideally both.

Sprague and Stuart (1996) add in the additional steps of narrowing the topic. This exercise includes determining the number of ideas one can cover in the allotted time, selecting your main ideas based upon the audience, the occasion and personal strengths as a speaker, then clarifying the purpose of the speech.

Now let's examine the process of choosing a topic from the eye of an EAPS student. As previously noted it is not uncommon for a non-native English-speaking student to mimic examples, with the belief that these are accepted or expected topics. This can result in a topic that they neither know about, nor care to know about. A student that sees an example demonstrating how to make chocolate chip cookies might easily assume that a speech about making food is "correct" and "expected." This particular student might be very unfamiliar with cooking, yet they will "make it work."

Picking a poor topic is a problem that just compounds as you progress in the speech act stages. This topic choice will make each task more difficult. Non-native English speakers who choose poor topics will struggle as they compose the speech. Only by helping EAPS students chose effective speech topics can they ultimately be effective public speakers. Only by helping EAPS student chose effective topics can we truly hope to help them feel comfortable informing and persuading.

Analyzing Audience Information

The next step in the process is to know your audience. There are two different types of audience analysis offered by public speaking texts, demographic analysis and situational analysis (Cochrane et al., 2004; DeVito, 1987; Lucas, 2004; O'Hair, Rubenstein, & Stewart, 2007; O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2007; Osborn & Osborn, 1997; Sprague & Stuart, 1996; Verderber, 1994). We will first examine the demographic then the situational elements. After that we will look at the adaptation of a speech act based upon this information.

The Art of Public Speaking by Stephen Lucas identifies the elements of demographic audience analysis (2004).

- Age
- Gender
- Sexual orientation

- Racial, Ethnic, Cultural Background
- Religion
- Group membership

Demographic audience analysis looks at the individuals in the audience. It can be challenging if the speaker is not personally close to the prospective audience. In a situation where the audience is well known this information can be readily available. Even when the information is available it is important to then use that information to look at how the specific audience will respond to the particular speech act; this analysis is situational audience analysis.

A common example appears every semester as students chose the topic of abortion for their persuasive speech. Having strong audience opinions applies to both sides of the issue, but for this example the speaker has a goal of, "persuading my audience to call their congressman to support an anti-abortion amendment." When one examines the demographics of the audience, it is clear that elements such as gender, religion and possibly group membership could be very important.

Situational audience analysis is then taking the information about the audience and relating it to the specific speech act. These elements include the size of the audience, the thoughts of the audience about the speaker and the thoughts of the audience about the occasion. The most important element relating to EAPS students is the thoughts of the audience about the speaker. These thoughts are sometimes called initial credibility. These are the expectations for the speech act from the audience. Much of this is based on what the audience knows, or thinks they know, about the speaker. If the speaker has been a successful speaker in the past the audience will expect a successful speech act again. If the speaker has not been effective in the past the speaker might have to overcome that expectation. In this

instance the audience might not "trust" the speaker or the information the speaker presents. This can be particularly troubling for a persuasive speech.

Once the audience has been analyzed the adapting begins. This involves thinking about how the analyzed audience will respond to the speech act. Based upon the audience's information the speaker can change the presentation to make sure the message is appropriate, clear and accomplishes its stated goals.

This dimension relies heavily upon the audience analysis. Only by understanding the history and feelings of the audience, the audience's frames of reference, is it possible to analyze the composed speech to determine the relative effectiveness of each part of the speech.

Non-native English speakers need specific attention in EAPS class situations when trying to understand and adapt to an audience. A speaker who does not understand and adapt effectively to an audience can have a speech act go very badly if they do not realize how their audience will react to their speech choices. I heard an example of this just yesterday. A student completed a speech on deer hunting. He did not realize that some of his audience included vegetarians and animal lovers that would never consider hunting. If he had realized he could have still talked about the same topic, including more information and facts that would be of interest to them. In this student's situation he did not analyze and adapt well.

Composition Stage

The composition stage of the presentation act takes much more time then the presentation. This stage is troubling for ESL students especially in regards to the rhetorical organization of the speech. A high quality academic presentation requires that the

information be organized in a way that accomplishes the stated goals, with a specific audience in a specific setting.

This part of the process is sometimes difficult for all students. When they arrive at this step and are looking for guidance, the composition stage of the R110 coursebook consists of just one directive, "Complete your preparation outline" (Cochrane et al., 2004). Communication texts share the different types of organization including appropriate reasoning for choosing each pattern (DeVito, 1987; Lucas, 2004; O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2007; Sprague & Stuart, 1996; Verderber, 1994). The samples below are similar to those used to teach organizational communication in public speaking classes.

The strategic order of main points depends on your topic, your purpose and your audience. Looking at each of the possible options, it is clear to see how they are applied.

- Chronological order

Chronological organization is when the ideas in the speech are patterned based upon time. This organization is very common for biographical speeches, speeches that demonstrate or explain a process and many historical speeches. The reason chronological speeches are effective is based on the fact that the organizational pattern means the audience has a clear understanding of which points will happen when.

A demonstration speech on how to make chocolate chip cookies could easily be organized by these four chronological steps: pre-heat the oven, gather the ingredients, mix the ingredients and finally cook the dough. A biographical speech about Thomas Edison would probably be organized along chronological terms; you could start with his birth, then childhood, his education and finally his adulthood and death.

- Spatial order

Spatial order means that direction determines the order of ideas. The chosen direction is not important; the important part is that a direction is chosen and is consistent during the speech. Like the chronological organization the benefits to these patterns are due largely to the straightforwardness of the pattern and the ease to which the speech can be constructed and understood.

An explanatory speech about the Eiffel Tower could be organized around the base of the tower, the middle and then the top. A speech about a telescope could start with the view piece and then proceed in order to the rest of the telescope. Explaining the 13 colonies could easily be organized from north to south (or south to north). Again the specific pattern is not important. The importance is that the pattern is clear and easy for the audience to follow.

- Causal order

Causal order can be used effectively for informative and persuasive speeches. Since the foundation of this pattern is the establishment of a cause-effect relationship it is often used in persuasive speeches. The benefit of this pattern is the clear goal of establishing the causal relationship.

As an example, a student at IUPUI used this organization to establish that the Black Plague (cause) lead to the elimination of the feudal system in Europe (effect). This organization pattern is also very effective for societal issues. A speech about acid rain could easily start with the establishment of pollution as the cause.

- Problem-solution order

Problem-solution order establishes the problem then offers a solution. This organizational pattern is for persuasive speeches. Monroe's Motivated sequence is a

commonly accepted form of the problem-solution order (Lucas, 2004). As with the causal order the benefit lies in the ultimate goal. This speech sets a clear persuasive goal of offering a solution to a problem.

I have witnessed many problem-solution speeches over the years. A common speech topic has been second-hand smoking; such a speech would first establish that second hand smoke is dangerous to one's health, then offer a plan to eliminate that danger. A speech centering on increased crime will establish the problem, then might conclude with a plan to change policing policy.

The benefit, as with the previous option, lies in the specific goal. This plan clearly allows for a persuasive speech that will try to move the audience to accept a solution.

- Topical order

Topical order is unusual among the options listed. By definition it offers no specific pattern among the points of the speech. This allows for a great degree of flexibility. The converse of this is that the audience does not have a clear pattern or goal. This places a higher burden upon the speaker to explain and support the organizational pattern.

The topic for a topical order organization could be almost anything. Under the chronological order I offered the example of a biographical speech about Thomas Edison, an example of this same topic with a topical organization pattern could be a speech that focuses on the just the inventions of Thomas Edison using different points for different types of inventions: one main point about inventions relating to sound, another to pictures, another for electronics and a final one for artificial materials.

Non-native English speaking students are often not aware of the rhetorical options available and how those options can influence the effectiveness of a speech. EAPS students

need guidance on the various organizational options and how these options will influence their chosen speech act.

Presentation Stage

We are close to the finish line now. The speech has been assigned, researched, organized, and written. The presentation stage is typically a very short, usually less than 10 minutes. Comparing this ten minutes to the hours of preparation spread over days and weeks makes the presentation seem small or insignificant, yet this is the part of the speech act where everything comes together. Some students think this is the only part that matters. The truth is that if everything has been done well up to this point then the chance of a successful speech act are high. If the work before this stage has been poor then the chance for success is low. During this stage ESL student will often have particular difficulty with communication apprehension and non-verbal communication.

Communication Apprehension

As detailed in chapter 2 the nervousness or anxiety relating to public speaking is part of communication apprehension. McCroskey along with other researchers has established a high level of communication apprehension that often results in nervousness while presenting in many students both native and non-native English speakers. According to McCroskey's research non-native English speakers in EAPS situations statistically will have 20% more apprehension in a public speaking setting when compared to their native English speaking classmates (Allen et al., 1986; McCroskey, 1977, 1982).

The presentation stage can be nerve wracking. The public speaking community says that nervousness is normal (Lucas, 2004; O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2007; Osborn & Osborn, 1997; Verderber, 1994). As I mentioned previously I attended IUPUI as an undergraduate student, and I still remember my introduction to public speaking in a class

instructed by Dr. B. Bruce Wagener. I remember a specific comment he used in a large lecture room specifically about communication apprehension. He said, "If you are not nervous when you speak, get out!" What Dr. Wagener was saying is the same thing Osborn, Lucas and so many others have said; "nervousness is normal." Dr. Wagener explained this in a very fundamental way that I still use in the classroom to this day. He explained that nervousness arrives because people want to do well. His comment was really a challenge to students, "Do you care about doing well in your presentation? If not then you are not ready for this class, you might as well get out!" No one advocates not caring about doing well. The common methods of battling nervousness or communication apprehension is to prepare well and practice, along with realizing that your nervousness will rarely be visible to the audience are the common remedies. Due to their higher level of communication apprehension and related nervousness it is important for non-native English speakers in EAPS classes to receive specific testing, guidance and assistance relating to communication apprehension.

Non-verbal Communication

Nervousness is sometimes evident in the way a student presents. This is non-verbal communication, specifically gestures and eye contact. Effective non-verbal communication is by its very nature subjective. While some elements in the presentation are easily quantifiable, elements like eye contact and gestures are very difficult to quantify. Recently in my classroom I had a student who was looking out to the audience and doing a very good job while he was doing this, yet after some time I realized that he only made eye contact with one area of the audience. This student had difficulty making eye contact with everyone in the audience. In this case you could easily have a student or some group of students who feels

that the speaker's eye contact was good or even excellent. On the other hand many in the audience could rightly feel that the speaker had little or no effective eye contact.

Effective gestures are also subjective. Does a speaker's hand gestures seem energetic or distracting. The difference can be very minor and the answer is in the expectations of the audience. Public speaking texts advise that gestures and movements be natural. One of the few specific guidelines is to keep your hands in front of you above the waist, usually chest high or higher.

The specific challenge for non-native English speakers in EAPS situations is the difficulty in determining what gestures are considered natural and effective. EAPS students need to be evaluated to determine their level of knowledge and comfort with non-verbal communication. After the evaluation special assistance needs to be offered as the speaker develops their non-verbal style.

As mentioned a public speaking text will often tell the speaker to make eye contact and use effective gestures. These elements are rarely quantifiable. The elements are also among the most influenced by cultural expectations. This does mean that presentation should not be covered, on the contrary it merely complicates our discussion is chapter 4 about how classes can address each of these areas for the benefit of ESL students.

Summary

This chapter developed a foundation for understanding the current teaching of EAPS students specifically here at IUPUI. The EAPS students here at IUPUI have similar materials and methodology to many EAPS situations at American universities. The next step in our process is to examine how these situations can better address the needs of non-native English speakers in EAPS situations. By combining the teaching of ESL, writing, and rhetoric we can address many of the problem areas in EAPS situations.

Chapter 4: Recommendations and Implications

In the first chapter, I provided some background on EAPS students; in the second chapter I reviewed literature from rhetoric, English writing and ESL teaching always looking at how these relate to EAPS situations. In chapter 3, I examined the traditional teaching used in EAPS situations. In this chapter I will offer changes to EAPS situations based upon public speaking, rhetoric, English writing and ESL philosophies. Taking advantage of diverse theoretical backgrounds we are able to look at EAPS in a new light.

My goal for this thesis is adaptability and flexibility. By combining various pedagogical areas into one coherent methodology I am choosing the best of each available option. At the same time I hope EAPS students will learn the same degree of flexibility and adaptation in the proposed modules. EAPS students already possess varying degrees of understanding in the world of public speaking. Many of them have already been successful communicators in their native language and culture. When seen in this light an EAPS class is teaching them flexibility. As mentioned, the strength of non-native English speakers is in their experience both in language and culture. It is incumbent upon the developers of the course and especially the instructors to help these students realize their strengths and use them to create successful speech acts.

The four areas of concern for EAPS students identified in the previous chapter are: understanding the audience's frame of reference, rhetorical organization, communication apprehension, and non-verbal communication. In this chapter I will create modules for assisting EAPS students in each of these four areas.

Module 1: Understanding the Audience's Frame of Reference

As I noted in the review of the literature the difficulty in understanding the audience and relating to the audience can be a challenge for all students. The EAPS student in many

ways has additional challenges due to the likelihood of increased differences based on cultural and language backgrounds. To address this issue in an EAPS class situation I offer a two-step module.

Step	Time frame
▪ Build cultural differences into the class.	▪ Complete before the class begins.
▪ Include speaker in pre-speech audience analysis.	▪ Complete with each formal classroom presentation

Figure 3: Module 1

Curriculum developers have to realize that cultural backgrounds strongly influence our perceptions. These different perceptions mean that what one person thinks is effective, another might find confusing. This is at the heart of contrastive rhetoric as defined by Kaplan (1984) and Connor (1996), the idea that individuals with different language backgrounds will communicate differently even when they are communicating in the same language. A presentation by Yook, that focused on a specific cultural background offers a guide for how American universities should perceive all EAPS situations, it is imperative that instructors do not convey that the U.S. style of public speaking better than any other (Yook, 1995).

This mentality must be part of the entire course. This concept has been referred to as cultural intelligence (O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2007), it refers to being skilled and flexible about understanding a culture, reshaping your thinking to be more sympathetic to the culture, be more skilled and appropriate when interacting with others from that culture.

Curriculum designers and instructors can improve how the class represents cultural differences be reviewing the methods and materials used. Each class can review the samples

used as models. Each textbook should offer examples from multiple cultural backgrounds. Personal examples from the instructor should be culturally appropriate and inclusive.

If an assignment requires an action that is abnormal in some cultures then the curriculum should offer clear reasoning for such a requirement. As an example, an informative speech might require extra descriptive elements. This requirement might seem unnecessary for students from a low context cultural background. Because of this the instructions for the assignment should make it clear to the student that for this assignment it is important to fully describe each element of the speech. If the speaker will be graded on effective description it should be clear how effective description relates to the grading rubric. Notice how the assignment was not changed for non-native English speaking students. The only substantive change was in the need to explain or justify elements of the class based upon various cultural expectations.

The last element relating to including cultural differences in the public speaking classroom relates to how the instructor can effectively explain and justify elements of the class. Native English speaking students will learn differently based upon their own education experience. Some will learn visually, some orally, some textually, some only by experience. Our non-native English speaking students in EAPS situations may have different learning patterns. As a curriculum is developed it would be wise to include a variety of mediums available for students to get the same types of information. For the EAPS students it is also helpful if one or more of these methods are repeatable. In Hendrix's case study (2000) it was revealed that both of her student subjects would access electronic and written messages repeatedly to ensure understanding and eliminate questions and anxiety.

A second area of second area of public speaking that was reviewed in the literature and shown to be a problem to ESL students is addressing the relationship between the

speaker and the audience. This element relates to a speaker understanding not only who they are but also who their audience is. In the situational analysis, public speaking texts will normally ask about the audience. The books will attempt to determine any elements that influence the audiences' thinking about the topic and the speech act. This is very important because speakers who don't know or don't understand their audience (the receivers) are likely to deliver ineffective or inappropriate messages (O'Hair, Stewart, & Rubenstein, 2007).

It is challenging for any speaker to adequately address his/her targeted audience. Most communication texts ask the speaker to do "audience analysis", this is where the speaker attempts to determine the audience. Based upon the specific audience the speaker must understand the audiences' needs and backgrounds. The speaker must adapt the speech to coordinate with the audiences' needs and backgrounds. Missing from these exercises is the ability to relate those audience attributes to the speaker's own elements that influence their own thinking about the topic. In Getting your Message Across: How to Improve Communication, Deikman (1979) starts the process by asking speakers to ask themselves two questions: Where do I come from (in relation to the speech topic)? and What life experiences shape my perceptions? Regrettably, Deikman does not follow-up on these questions. The important missing question is the gap between speaker and audience; what defines that gap (experience, education level, background, culture), and how can the speaker bridge that gap. This type of analysis would be very helpful for speakers to have before they have decided on their speech topic. This analysis will allow the speaker to always adopt an audience-centered perspective – trying to determine the needs, attitudes, and values of your audience before drafting your speech.

By knowing about the audience and how the audience relates to the speaker it will be possible to identify both elements of similarity and gaps. Areas of similarities or bonds can be used to create understanding and a sense of commonality. An example of this bond is the common role of "university student" for both the speaker and the audience. As a university student there are certain attributes that most will share. Some of these can include a high stress level, an affinity for technology, a negative image of campus parking, and a common goal of a good career upon graduation. A gap is a difference. Gaps are often included in the speech topic area. An effective speech will close those gaps in understanding.

An example of this would be a recent speech topic in one of my classes on cell phone usage while driving. When looking at the class and the speaker, cell phones and driving are common bonds between the audience and the speaker. These similarities relate to the topic, but there are other demographic similarities of being college students, the general geographic location they all live in, among others. The gap was in the feelings about driving and talking on the cell phone at the same time. Most of the audience did not see this as a problem. In this case the speaker will need to draw upon the similarities to create a commonality with her audience. If she can create that bond it will be easier for her audience to relate and accept her message.

The two steps relating to understanding the audience's frame of reference include: building cultural differences into the class and including the speaker in pre-speech audience analysis. By making these changes in the class non-native English speakers will feel more comfortable with the audience. Once the speaker understands the audience these steps will also allow them to use that knowledge to better address the audience in a speech act.

Module 2: Rhetorical Organization

Some might say that teaching rhetorical organization is very prescriptive. Really we are teaching options. Only by understanding the various rhetorical organization models is it possible for EAPS students to make informed decisions. In this second module I am proposing processes that will improve the understanding and options of EAPS students.

Step	Time frame
▪ Look on speech acts as a process	▪ Complete before the semester, continue semester long
▪ Prepare multiple methods of organization during the preparation stage	▪ Complete with each formal classroom presentation

Figure 4: Module 2

Step one is to look at speech acts as a process. This is based on the theories of writing as a process approach. The focus of this approach is on the various steps of creation as opposed to the end product. In a way each speech is a journey as opposed to a destination. Based on course syllabi of a writing class designed using the process approach the class will have much more time allocated to early preparation, and the evaluation would be fairly even between the steps of the process and the final product.

Traditionally public speaking classes have looked at speeches as a product. This means that the course is more concerned about what you end up with, rather than how you got there. This product-orientation means that the grading will focus on the end product. This leads to the formula-based criteria of many speeches and speech classes encouraging non-native speaking students to re-produce or mimic the work of others. Tobin (2001) claims that traditional teaching produces "canned, dull, lifeless" work. The product approach is not inherently wrong. It can just create mistaken priorities, especially for non-native

English speakers. A product approach sends the message that no matter what happens along the way, as long as you present a good speech at the end everything will be acceptable. This leaves openings for student to take shortcuts in the belief that the steps in the process do not matter. Product oriented theorists counter that the students must still complete the same steps no matter what the focus. To me this comes down to one fundamental question: Are we grading (and therefore teaching) public speaking presentations, or are we instructing and therefore grading them on how to do public speaking? In reality we are doing both.

By looking at the speech act sequences as a process, the students are free to create what proponents of "writing as a process" claim will describe with words like: lively, engaging, dynamic, and strongly voiced (Tobin, 2001). To maximize the effectiveness of students who are learning the public speaking process it makes sense to evaluate them at various stages in the process. This also allows for corrective action early in the process if the student is not heading in the right direction. I have seen many students who have obviously presented a speech they prepared the night before or have presented a speech without realizing that it does not meet the assignment requirements. In both cases a process approach would allow for feedback early in the process to make sure students are indeed working on the project and are heading in the right direction. This approach is applicable to all students. It is especially useful for our non-native English speaking students in EAPS classes because it allows for positive encouragement of personalized topics and organization to encourage growth as a speaker. In addition this approach allows for clear feedback early in the process if a student starts to stray from the assignment goals. This early feedback regulates many of the problems of a poor speech. It monitors topic selection, visual usage, organization pattern and many other elements depending on the specific course.

The best method to help students evaluate various rhetorical systems is to have them prepare multiple methods of organization for a single topic; each organization submission would consist of a topic and appropriate main points. I completed this exercise for the first time with a class while teaching the ESL writing class of English W001 at IUPUI. Since then I have incorporated it into all of the classes I teach. This exercise forces speakers to think of options. Then the student can make an informed decision about the best choice for their setting. This allows for education about options while supporting effective speech acts.

In general the focus will be to enhance flexibility. If a speaker has the knowledge to make effective choices about rhetorical organization it will simplify the process for both the speaker and the audience.

These two steps will change the view of a speech act to a process and allow students to review multiple organizational strategies before each presentation. By looking at a speech act as a process instructors hope to see the evolution of an exciting and quality work. The Assignment exploring multiple organizational patterns will benefit the student well beyond the public speaking course. By learning the organizational options and how to apply them non-native English speaking students will use and understand effective rhetorical organization strategies.

Module 3: Communication Apprehension

As reviewed in the literature researcher McCroskey has revealed that communication apprehension is very common. When I took my own public speaking class my instructor, Dr. Wagener, told us all that nervousness is normal. Yet your nervousness or apprehension can interfere with effective communication. In this case the problem is how this apprehension and nervousness negatively impacts the presentation. From a presentation stand point if no one can tell you are nervous the audience will assume you are not nervous.

Some common attributes that appear when someone is apprehensive or nervous includes: increased speech rate, fidgeting, and lose of focus while presenting.

Step	Time frame
▪ Diagnosis	▪ Complete the first week of class with follow-up testing after formal speech acts
▪ Using available resources	▪ Available semester long
▪ Topic selection	▪ Complete with each formal speech act

Figure 5: Module 3

The first area is diagnosis. Proper diagnosis of a non-native English speaker's needs is a necessity. There are many such diagnostic devices available. The PRCA test mentioned earlier from McCroskey helps determine an individual's communication apprehension. This test is particularly effective when given multiple times before and after speech events to determine any change in apprehension. The willingness to communicate (WTC) survey is similar in design and can serve much the same purpose.

There should also be more informal diagnostic steps; these include non-graded speaking assignments, class participation, and impromptu opportunities in these cases it is important to look for pronunciation, organization and level of presentation stress (Hendrix, 2000). A private conversation would allow the instructor to follow up with any possible problems. All of these should take place for the initial time early in the semester. Follow-up diagnosis would happen on an as needed basis. It will be imperative to demonstrate to the non-native English speaker using diagnostic tools the change in their own communication apprehension between the beginning and end of the semester.

Once the instructor has determined the areas needing assistance it is important to get the necessary assistance. Make sure students use available campus resources – writing centers and speaker's labs. These resources serve important needs providing educated feedback and

valuable assurance to EAPS students. This improves the preparation of the speaker and increases their confidence when presenting. These resources can be effective for all students. The benefit for non-native English speaking students in EAPS situations lies in the access to personalized assistance. With language and cultural barriers possibly being a problem access to personalized assistance is especially valuable to ESL learners. As a simple example, students can ask for clarification or repetition of classroom ideas to verify understanding.

The last element to address relates to topic selection. When speakers attempt to speak about poorly chosen topics the speakers can experience increased communication apprehension. Chapter 3 chronicled the normal public speaking topic selection process and how this process can be troublesome for EAPS students. To address this issue students should be encouraged to begin with multiple topics, I have used this exercise in the past with 3 possible topics per student. When I have done this in the past I have followed the topic choices with an exercise where the students have to defend their reasons for picking each topic both in relation to themselves as speakers and their audience as listeners. This causes the students to be very thoughtful about their choices. When the student has done the work before class, this exercise has routinely revealed one topic that is especially moving for the speaker. A topic is that is interesting to the speaker, relevant to the audience and a topic the student either knows about or wants to know about.

Addressing communication apprehension for non-native English speaking students is a process. By addressing specific issues and using the appropriate resources the student will feel less public speaking apprehension. The re-testing will confirm progress in battling apprehension. Effective topic selection is an area that is central to battling public speaking apprehension. By making sure that students choose appropriate topics instructors will see student-speakers who are less apprehensive about presenting information to an audience.

Module 4: Non-verbal Communication

In relation to non-verbal communication chapter 3 summarized how difficult it is to teach and to learn non-verbal communication. This difficulty is partly due to the cultural differences in effective non-verbal communication. Learning effective non-verbal communication is certainly a process. In some ways it is a art not a skill. When viewed in this context we are teaching the tools necessary to be an effective non-verbal communicator; the development of each individual speaker will vary based upon their own inherent skills and experiences. As with many art forms everyone can learn to be effective, while some will develop into maestros.

Step	Time frame
▪ Testing	▪ Complete the first week of class
▪ Input	▪ Available after initial testing, semester long
▪ Feedback	▪ Available after input, center around formal speech acts

Figure 6: Module 4

The Test of Nonverbal Communication Knowledge (TONCK) (Rosip & Hall, 2004), determines a student's knowledge of effective or appropriate nonverbal signals with the understanding that if a student does not understand effective (and culturally specific) nonverbal signals they will be challenged when using them.

After the instructor has administered the TONKS test it will be important for students to recognize their own level of comfort with non-verbal communication. The best methods to help this are input and feedback.

Input comes from the ability to watch other speakers using non-verbal communication. Sometimes the eye contact and gestures will be very effective and

sometimes it will be ineffective. By watching others the future speaker will have the opportunity to determine the effectiveness of various forms of non-verbal communication. They can see what is meant by eye contact. They can view gestures and determine their effectiveness. In this manner we are mirroring the language learning of many ESL students. New ESL learners will often expose themselves to English input in the form of television or radio programs. This input allows learners to gather content helping them determine the context for usage for the content.

Feedback is a healthy follow-up to increased input. Once the speaker has had the opportunity to witness various forms of effective and non-effective non-verbal communication they need feedback to tune their own non-verbal communication. This practice with feedback can come from assignments graded by an instructor, by practicing for friends or peers that can give honest feedback. At the IUPUI campus we have a Speaker's Lab that provides such a service.

Just as with other EAPS problem areas non-verbal communication must be addressed in stages. The TONKS test is an effective starting point. The feedback and practice will help speakers learn what gestures work for them in specific settings.

Combined Schedule of Modules

To assist with the implementation of these modules figure 6 combines all of the activities from the various focus areas. I then organized them chronologically to assist curriculum developers and instructors.

Time frame	Focus	Activity
○ Before class begins	○ Audience's frame of reference	○ Build cultural differences into the class
○ 1st week of class	○ Non-verbal communication	○ Test using TONCKS
○ 1st week of class with follow-up testing after formal speech acts	○ Communication apprehension	○ Diagnosis using PRCA and or WTC test
○ 1st month of the class	○ Non-verbal communication	○ Provide samples for non-verbal communication input (based upon TONCKS test results)
○ Semester long	○ Rhetorical organization	○ Look on speech acts as a process
○ Semester long	○ Communication apprehension	○ Encourage students to use available university resources
○ Each formal presentation	○ Audience's frame of reference	○ Include speaker in pre-speech audience analysis
○ Each formal presentation	○ Communication apprehension	○ Use resources to ensure appropriate topic selection
○ Each formal presentation	○ Rhetorical organization	○ Prepare multiple methods of organization during the preparation stage
○ Each formal presentation	○ Non-verbal communication	○ Provide feedback on student's non-verbal communication

Figure 7: Combined schedules of modules

Summary

As with any university course the ultimate responsible agent for learning is the student. From my personal experience the majority of non-native English speaking students in EAPS situations do take responsibility for their learning. The responsibility for us as administrators and faculty for EAPS courses is to facilitate their learning. The specific

problem areas discussed in this thesis: understanding the audience's frame of reference, rhetorical organization, communication apprehension and non-verbal communication, are all barriers to effective public speaking. By following the modules and schedule detailed in this chapter a public speaking class can be designed to facilitate non-native English speakers as they grow into effective public speakers.

Many of the materials needed to implement this program are included in this paper. Additional elements include a mentality of openness and flexibility. When teachers think of students who have moved on to become professionals the greatest gift is to know that they (the teacher) made a difference in the student's life. In this way a class that prepares an individual to be an effective public speaker for life is a gift for the student and teacher.

Appendix A: Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA-24)

The PRCA-24 is the instrument which is most widely used to measure communication apprehension. It is preferable above all earlier versions of the instrument (PRCA, PRCA10, PRCA-24B, etc.). It is highly reliable (alpha regularly >.90) and has very high predictive validity. It permits one to obtain sub-scores on the contexts of public speaking, dyadic interaction, small groups, and large groups. However, these scores are substantially less reliable than the total PRCA-24 scores-because of the reduced number of items. People interested only in public speaking anxiety should consider using the PRPSA rather than the public speaking sub-score drawn from the PRCA-24. It is much more reliable for this purpose.

This instrument is composed of twenty-four statements concerning feelings about communicating with others. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by marking whether you: Strongly Disagree = 1; Disagree = 2; are Neutral = 3; Agree = 4; Strongly Agree = 5

_____1. I dislike participating in group discussions.

_____2. Generally, I am comfortable while participating in group discussions.

_____3. I am tense and nervous while participating in group discussions.

_____4. I like to get involved in group discussions.

_____5. Engaging in a group discussion with new people makes me tense and nervous.

_____6. I am calm and relaxed while participating in group discussions.

_____7. Generally, I am nervous when I have to participate in a meeting.

_____8. Usually, I am comfortable when I have to participate in a meeting.

_____9. I am very calm and relaxed when I am called upon to express an opinion at a meeting.

_____10. I am afraid to express myself at meetings.

_____11. Communicating at meetings usually makes me uncomfortable.

_____12. I am very relaxed when answering questions at a meeting.

_____13. While participating in a conversation with a new acquaintance, I feel very nervous.

_____14. I have no fear of speaking up in conversations.

_____15. Ordinarily I am very tense and nervous in conversations.

_____16. Ordinarily I am very calm and relaxed in conversations.

_____17. While conversing with a new acquaintance, I feel very relaxed.

_____18. I'm afraid to speak up in conversations.

_____19. I have no fear of giving a speech.

_____20. Certain parts of my body feel very tense and rigid while giving a speech.

_____21. I feel relaxed while giving a speech.

_____22. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I am giving a speech.

_____23. I face the prospect of giving a speech with confidence.

_____24. While giving a speech, I get so nervous I forget facts I really know.

SCORING:

Group discussion: 18 - (scores for items 2, 4, & 6) + (scores for items 1,3, & 5)

Meetings: 18 - (scores for items 8, 9, & 12) + (scores for items 7, 10, & 11)

Interpersonal: 18 - (scores for items 14, 16, & 17) + (scores for items 13, 15, & 18)

Public Speaking: 18 - (scores for items 19, 21, & 23) + (scores for items 20, 22, &24)

Group Discussion Score: _____

Interpersonal Score: _____

Meetings Score: _____

Public Speaking Score: _____

To obtain your total score for the PRCA, simply add your sub-scores together. _____

Scores can range from 24-120. Scores below 51 represent people who have very low CA. Scores between 51-80 represent people with average CA. Scores above 80 represent people who have high levels of trait CA.

NORMS FOR THE PRCA-24: (based on over 40,000 college students; data from over 3,000 non-student adults in a national sample provided virtually identical norms, within 0.20 for all scores.)

	Mean	Standard Deviation	High	Low
Total Score	65.6	15.3	> 80	< 51
Group:	15.4	4.8	> 20	< 11
Meeting:	16.4	4.2	> 20	< 13
Dyad (Interpersonal):	14.2	3.9	> 18	< 11
Public:	19.3	5.1	> 24	< 14

Source:

McCroskey, J. C. (1982). An introduction to rhetorical communication (4th Ed). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Appendix B: Willingness to Communicate Scale (WTC)

DIRECTIONS: Below are twenty situations in which a person might choose to communicate or not to communicate. Presume you have completely free choice.

Indicate the percentage of times you would choose to communicate in each type of situation. Indicate in the space at the left what percent of the time you would choose to communicate.

0 = never, 100 = always

1. * Talk with a service station attendant.
2. * Talk with a physician.
3. Present a talk to a group of strangers.
4. Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.
5. * Talk with a salesperson in a store.
6. Talk in a large meeting of friends.
7. * Talk with a police officer.
8. Talk in a small group of strangers.
9. Talk with a friend while standing in line.
10. * Talk with a waiter/waitress in a restaurant.
11. Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.
12. Talk with a stranger while standing in line.
13. * Talk with a secretary.
14. Present a talk to a group of friends.
15. Talk in a small group of acquaintances.
16. * Talk with a garbage collector.
17. Talk in a large meeting of strangers.
18. * Talk with a spouse (or girl/boy friend).
19. Talk in a small group of friends.
20. Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.

* Filler item

SCORING: The WTC permits computation of one total score and seven subscores. The subscores relate to willingness to communicate in each of four common communication contexts and with three types of audiences. To compute your scores, merely add your scores for each item and divide by the number indicated below.

Subscore Desired
Scoring Formula

Group discussion
Add scores for items 8,15, and 19; then divide by 3.

Meetings
Add scores for items 6, 11, and 17; then divide by 3.

Interpersonal conversations
Add scores for items 4, 9, and 12; then divide by 3.

Public speaking
Add scores for items 3, 14, and 20; then divide by 3.

Stranger
Add scores for items 3, 8, 12, and 17; then divide by 4.

Acquaintance
Add scores for items 4, 11, 15, and 20; then divide by 4.

Friend
Add scores for items 6, 9, 14, and 19; then divide by 4.

To compute the total WTC scores, add the subscores for stranger, acquaintance, and friend. Then divide by 3.

Appendix C: Annotated Bibliography

Lesson 7: Communication process.

This is a lesson offered to help students understand how communication works. It focuses mostly on oral communication, but many of the same aspects could be applied to written work. It clearly identifies the communicative process along with the role of individuals and barriers within that process. Since this is an example of an exercise used to teach the communication process I found it useful as it is similar to my ultimate goal.

Adorno (1950). "The authoritarian personality."

Alfino, L. (2003). "Know your audience." Writer **116**(5): 2.

Lynn Alfino shares her experience as a first time magazine author. Leaving the academic world behind she received a lesson in, "considering who my readers were and writing to them." She realized an important point that writing for an audience starts before you start writing. I appreciate when she says, "As a writer, you should anticipate your audience's needs or expectations in order to convey information." This article does focus mostly on commercial writing, so the methods of audience analysis are not as relevant for academic settings the information, but the types of information that would be needed for audience analysis (gender, history, interests, etc) are very similar.

Allen, J., J. O'Mara, et al. (1986). "Communication apprehension in bilingual non-native U.S. residents - part II: Gender, second language experience and communication apprehension in functional contexts." World Communication **15**(1): 14.

Archer, D. (1997). "Unspoken diversity: Cultural differences in gestures." Qualitative sociology **20**(1): 79-105.

This text was only just a small part of my research information. I am intrigued by Archer's research and still wish to find the documentary video on gestures this text references.

Braithwaite, C. A. and D. O. Braithwaite (1991). "Instructional communication strategies for adapting to a multicultural introductory course." Basic communication course annual **3**: 145-160.

Bruskin & Goldring (1993). America's number 1 fear: Public speaking.

Presented the results of a nation-wide survey of adults who were asked to rank their greatest fears. The results indicated that speaking before a group was the biggest fear.

Cochrane, J., K. Fox, et al. (2004). The R110 student coursebook to accompany Stephen E. Lucas:The art of public speaking. Boston, McGraw-Hill Custom Publishing.

Connor, U. (1996). Contrastive rhetoric : cross-cultural aspects of second-language writing. Cambridge [England] ; New York, Cambridge University Press.
This book by Dr. Connor shows how a person's native language influences writing in a second language. When I was first exposed to this text I immediately realized that the conclusions drawn in relation to writing would also make for compelling conclusions for public speaking.

Diekman, J. (1979). Your message cross: How to improve communication. Engle Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.
This is a psychology book designed to help the reader address the problems in effective communication. This book contained quite a few enlightening points. One of the states goals of the book is: To make you aware of the effect of perception on your communication behavior. It is a reminder that "any message- standing by itself is not a communication at all, but simply a string or words." (11) It states clearly and repetitively that, "meaning is in people, not words", "the message is the message received." and that meaning is defined by the receiver, not the speaker. It also summarizes the communication process effectively. On page 22 it questions the prejudices and bias from a speaker's point of view and history and how all of this might influence effective communication. This leads to differences in perception (what I am going to call frame of reference) that help decode messages. It contains an interesting model of communication that includes 6 participants in a 2 person conversation. (28)

Smith as he perceives himself
Smith as he is perceived by Jones
Smith as he really is
Jones as he perceives himself
Jones as he is perceived by Smith
Jones as he really is

I am especially intrigued with #2. The speaker understanding how the audience perceives him/her would be quite powerful. As a speaker it is not just who you are, but who your audience thinks you are.
This and the previous points clearly support a need for my project. There is clearly a chasm between the speaker and the audience, regrettably as this book continues it identifies the problem, but focus primarily on everyday conversation, the theories for correction exist, but are inappropriate or lacking for public speaking settings.

Ebest, S., G. Alred, et al. (2000). Writing from A to Z. Mountain View, CA, Mayfield Publishing Company.

Hall, E. T. (1976). Beyond culture. Garden City, N.Y., Anchor Press.
Hall introduces the concept of high and low context. High-context situations are ones in which much of the communication is understood because of the shared context. Low context provides all of the information needed for understanding within the message itself.

Hendrix, K. G. (2000). "Assessment and skill development for ESL students in mainstream communication classes requiring oral presentations." Journal of the association for communication administration 29: 196-212.

Jung, H. Y. and J. C. McCroskey (2004). "Communication apprehension in a first language and sefl-perceived competence as predictors of communication apprehension in a second language: A study of speakers of English as a second language." Communication Quarterly 52(2): 170-181.
McCroskey writes with a different partner in this paper. As with the other McCroskey works it will focus on communication apprehension (CA). Jung and McCrosky provide some important information about the CA of non-native English speakers speaking in the United States.

Kaplan, R. (1984). "Cultural thought patterns in inter-cultural education." Language learning 16(1): 1-20.

Kayfetz, J. and M. E. F. Smith (1992). Speaking effectively: Strategies for academic interaction. Boston, Henle & Henle.

Koch, A. (1988). Speaking with a purpose. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice Hall.
"Will my audience…", this is the start of many questions Koch asks in relation to presentations. "Will my audience find this subject useful?", "Will my audience find this subject interesting?" In a way Koch is asking what every speaker is asking themselves before a presentation. Koch asks many questions about the audience.

Koester, J. and M. W. Lustig (1991). "Communication curricula in the multicultural university." Communication Education 40: 250-254.
Koester and Lustig support one of my primary theories that college communication classes need to be customized for a diverse student population.

Lucas, S. (2004). The art of public speaking. Boston, McGraw-Hill.
The Lucas text is the textbook used for R110 on the IUPUI campus. It is probably the most widely used public speaking text in American universities. I needed this text to support claims about public speaking instruction.

McCroskey, J. C. (1977). "Oral communication apprehension: A summary of recent theory and research." Human communication research **4**: 78-96.

McCroskey, J. C., Ed. (1982). Oral communication apprehension: A reconceptualization. Communication yearbook. Beverly Hills, Sage.

McCroskey, J. C., V. P. Richmond, et al. (1986). One on one : The foundations of interpersonal communication. Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall.

Murphy, J. M. (1992). "Preparing ESL students for the basic speech course: Approach, design and procedure." English for Specific Purposes **11**: 51-70.

Murphy, J. M. (1993). "An ESL oral communication class: One teacher's techniques and principles." Basic Communication Course Annual **5**: 157-181.

Neuliep, J. (2003). Assessing the reliability and validity of the generalized ethnocentrism scale. International communication association. San Diego, CA.
This work discusses how ethnocentrism effects communication. As mentioned in chapter 2 the connection between the speaker and the audience is a very important part of the communication model.

Neuliep, J. W. and J. C. McCroskey (1997). "The development of intercultural and interethnic communication apprehension scales." Communication research reports **14**: 385-398.
This is one of many McCroskey linked texts that provides a framework for understanding the concept of communication apprehension. This particular artiicle has the added element of intercultural and interethnic communication apprehension.

O'Hair, D., R. Stewart, et al. (2007). A speaker's guidebook: Text and reference. Boston, MA, Bedford St. Martin's.

Osborn, M. and S. Osborm (1997). Public speaking. Boston, Houghton-Mifflin.
Osborne & Osborne is widely accepted as one of the most respected public speaking texts for American universities. This text is especially valuabe as it provides a strong foundation of public speaking methods and materials yet, since this text is not currently used for either of the IUPUI courses specifically referenced in this thesis. By referencing this text I hope to establish that the methods of public speaking instruction are relatively universal across the industry. I also hope to find ideas for improving current EAPS situations on the IUPUI campus.

Quigley, B. L., K. G. Hendrix, et al. (1998). "Graduate teaching assistant training: Preparing instructors to assist ESl students in the introductory public speaking course." Basic Communication Course Annual 10: 58-89.

Rosip, J. C. and J. A. Hall (2004). "Knowledge of nonverbal cues, gender and nonverbal decoding accuracy." Journal of nonverbal behavior 28(4): 267-286.
Rosik and Hall provide a clinical look at nonverbal communication. This was refreshing because in most texts nonverbal communication is discussed in a very anecdotal way. They talk about good eye contact and positive body language, but there is very little in a way to support the understanding of nonverbal signals. The TONCK (Test of Nonverbal Cue Knowledge) could be a valuable resource for administrators and instructors. This test could provide a tangible resource to establish a quantitative measure of a students understanding of American environment nonverbal communication.

Shankar, A. D., Ed. (1993). Issues of ethnic diversity in the basic course. Teaching and directing the basic communication course. Dubuque, IA, Kendall/Hunt.

Skaalvik, E. and S. Skaalvik (2002). "Internal and external frames of reference for academic self-concept." Education psychologist 37(4): 233-244.
Skaalvik and Skaalvik provide background from my theory of "frames of reference." This text specifically provides an overview of frames of reference in the academic environment. This text provides an evaluation tool for frame of reference evaluation that will influence the recommendations made in chapter 4.

Sprague, J. and D. Stuart (1996). The speaker's handbook. San Diego, CA, Harcourt, Brace and Jovanovich.

Tobin, L. (2001). Process Pedagogies. A guide to composition pedagogies. G. Tate, A. Rupiper and K. Schick. New York, Oxford University press: 1-18.
This text details the research looking at process pedagogy in the field of writing. The book itself looks at many different writing pedagogies. The process pedagogy is most interesting to me for my work in chapter 4 of this thesis. It is interesting to see that the goals of writing instructors mirror the goals of speech instructors.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2004). "College enrollment by selected characteristics: 1980 to 2004." from http://www.census.gov/compendia/statab/education.

U.S. Census Bureau. (2005). "U.S. population fact sheet." from http://factfinder.census.gov.

Vaughn, S. and M. Edmonds (2006). "Reading comprehension for older readers." Intervention in school & clinic 41(3): 131-137.
This article, written by Vaughn and Edmonds, touches upon the concept of frame of reference. The article focuses mostly upon the use of frame of reference in the realm of reading, but it did help provide a framework for frame of reference in the world of communication.

Verderber, R. F. (1994). Speech for effective communication. Austin, TX, Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
"Speech for Effective Communication" is another of a collection of basic public speaking textbooks. This text helps provide information (along with Osborne & Osborne and Lucas) about the fundamentals of public speaking teaching. This text will be especially important for chapter 3 of the thesis.

Wallechinsky, D., I. Wallace, et al. (1977). The book of lists. New York, Morrow.
This text provided a small but important piece of information. The survey results relating to fear of speaking are very moving.

Webster, L. J., Ed. (1993). The needs of a non-traditional student: Teaching and directing the basic communication course. Dubuque, IA, Kendall/Hunt.

Yook, E. (1995). Culture shock in the basic communication course: A case study of Malaysian students. Central States Communication Association. Indianapolis, IN.

Appendix D: Combined Checklist for Modules

☑	Time frame	Focus	Activity
☐	○ Before class begins	○ Audience's frame of reference	○ Build cultural differences into the class
☐	○ 1st week of class	○ Non-verbal communication	○ Test using TONCKS
☐	○ 1st week of class with follow-up testing after formal speech acts	○ Communication apprehension	○ Diagnosis using PRCA and or WTC test
☐	○ 1st month of the class	○ Non-verbal communication	○ Provide samples for non-verbal communication input (based upon TONCKS test results)
☐	○ Semester long	○ Rhetorical organization	○ Look on speech acts as a process
☐	○ Semester long	○ Communication apprehension	○ Encourage students to use available university resources
☐	○ Each formal presentation	○ Audience's frame of reference	○ Include speaker in pre-speech audience analysis
☐	○ Each formal presentation	○ Communication apprehension	○ Use resources to ensure appropriate topic selection
☐	○ Each formal presentation	○ Rhetorical organization	○ Prepare multiple methods of organization during the preparation stage
☐	○ Each formal presentation	○ Non-verbal communication	○ Provide feedback on student's non-verbal communication

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Allen, J., O'Mara, J., & Andriste, G. (1986). Communication apprehension in bilingual non-native U.S. residents - part II: Gender, second language experience and communication apprehension in functional contexts. *World Communication, 15*(1), 14.

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DeVito, J. A. (1987). *The Elements of public speaking* (Third ed.). New York: Harper & Row.

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O'Hair, D., Rubenstein, H., & Stewart, R. A. (2007). *A Pocket Guide to Public Speaking* (second ed.). Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's.

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Yook, E. (1995). *Culture shock in the basic communication course: A case study of Malaysian students.* Paper presented at the Central States Communication Association.

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Concentrations: English as a Second Language, Linguistics
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Undergraduate Certificate, Business Foundations, Indiana University, earned at Indiana University-Purdue University Indianapolis, 1999

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