Co-funded by the
Erasmus+ Programme
of the European Union

SUCCESS

Solutions for Unified Communication Competences for Engineering Students and Specialists

PUBLIC SPEAKING HANDBOOK FOR ENGINEERS

2024

RIGA TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
Universidad Politécnica de Cartagena
DE VINCI HIGHER EDUCATION
TECHNISCHE UNIVERSITÄT DRESDEN
THE PYRAMID GROUP

Contents of the Public Speaking Handbook

FOREWORD

If you are like many engineers, the thought of giving a speech to a group of strangers can strike fear into your heart. As an engineer, you know that employers put a premium on soft skills such as public speaking, but you may be puzzled about how you can improve your own performance. In this Public Speaking for Engineers Handbook, we take readers step by step through the public speaking process. The Handbook breaks this process into speech planning, design, and delivery and explains the range of choices while emphasizing the importance of understanding your audience. All types of engineers, as well as non-engineers, will appreciate this roadmap to successful public speaking.

IMPORTANT NOTE: DISCLAIMER

The SUCCESS project has been funded with support from the European Commission.

Project ID: KA220-HED-855B46EB

Public speaking handbook for engineers. Riga: RTU Press, 2025. 52 pp.

Project Coordinator Nataļja Muračova

Graphic Design Vilnis Laizāns

Published by RTU Press

ISBN 978-9934-37-146-2 (pdf)

1. Introduction

Tips on how to make sure you fail to present:

- Don't look at the audience, and keep your head down. Never smile and never say Hello or Good Morning, etc.
- Make your voice sound really boring by delivering from a written A4 text that covers your face. Never use small palm-sized cards.
- If they do manage to see your face, make sure it is expressionless. This will definitely make everyone nervous and irritated and create a funeral atmosphere.
- You can start by saying that you haven't had time to prepare your talk properly. This confirms that you don't take your audience seriously. So that before you have even really begun, the audience will be already looking forward to the end of your talk.
- Then go on to shuffle your papers around for a minute or two, showing that you have no idea how to operate the light switches, microphone, etc.
- Then don't say what you're going to talk about or how long it will take. Confuse them by saying you're going to be brief. But do go on and on and over the time to annoy them and show how useless you are at time-keeping.
- Make absolutely sure you speak at all times in a very low, bored zombie voice.
- Every now and then, remark that you do not have enough time to deal with your subject in depth. This will make your audience think that you know a lot more but that you're not telling them because they're stupid.
- Make sure to scratch yourself, pull your hair, etc.
- If you are online, make sure there is lots of background noise. Turn to mute without informing them. Disappear for a few minutes to make a coffee.

- If you need to drink, bring a 2-litre water bottle and make lots of noise as you drink. Be sure to wipe your mouth with your sleeve.
- Wherever possible, make references to organizations and institutions the audience has never heard of, preferably using abbreviations or acronyms for disorientation.
- Avoid examples, anecdotes, humour or any personal viewpoints. They might make it easier for your audience to understand you.
- Use complicated jargon and technical terms that you know your audience has never heard of. At the end of your talk, don't offer any summary or conclusions. Leave the audience in total doubt and total confusion as to what your presentation was all about. Never use a bibliography.
- Make sure you never thank the audience for listening and do your best not to offer any questions.

If you have to use a projector:

- Demonstrate your total lack of familiarity with the equipment; trip over cables, mislay the remote control, etc.
- Get your slides out of sequence and show them up so fast that no one can read them. Never number them so that if a member of an audience has a question, you will not be able to find the slide.
- Put lots of text on each slide to make sure the audience can't possibly read it even if they react quickly. Never use colour, pictures, or graphs – they might make your presentation interesting.
- Don't bother doing a spell check, as the audience is probably too slow to notice spelling errors anyway.
- Make sure you read word-for-word what is on the screen: this will definitely confirm to your audience that they cannot read themselves and send them into a coma.
- Put in lots of "whirlies" and video links, etc., that take ages to come up on the screen and distract from your presentations.
- If it's a group talk with a PowerPoint, use different font-size slides to disorientate the audience. Make sure that there is zero verbal and non-verbal communication between you and the group. Also, do cover the same area twice giving the exact opposite opinion of your group colleague so you can annoy them also.

But truly, one of the most impactful engineering skills you'll ever develop is the ability to inform, persuade, and lead others through effective and well-prepared public speaking. When you stand before an audience, speaking to them in a single moment and place, you have the opportunity to harness an energy far greater than what individual listeners could create on their own. In that moment, you can evoke reactions from your audience that are amplified by the shared experience of everyone else in the room.

Public speaking, therefore, represents an opportunity to influence, to impart ideas, to enlist support, to gain recognition, and to unify group action.

Some public speaking occasions:

- An engineering presentation that builds rapport and trust.
- A company meeting that inspires loyalty and motivates new levels of performance.
- A toast at a wedding banquet that generates extra goodwill for the newlywed engineers.
- A debate at school or university.
- An engineering charity appeal that touches the listeners' deepest beliefs and encourages them to share their resources for an important cause.
- A speech at an international engineering conference.
- Perhaps the reason so many of us fear public speaking is because we recognize its potential power. Speaking to a crowd removes the individual feedback we typically get in one-on-one conversations. It's harder to read or adjust to each listener's reaction, leaving us feeling exposed. As a result, many people shy away from the stress of public speaking. However, success in public speaking is almost guaranteed if you're willing to learn the fundamental skills and invest the time and effort to practice.

2. How to Start a Good Speech

The best way to begin is by seizing every opportunity to speak in front of others: ask questions at public events, speak at a club meeting, or make presentations at work. Even if it's just for a few minutes, each moment "on stage" helps build your confidence.

Through these experiences, you start to learn how to gauge your listeners' reactions and develop the ability to adjust your message accordingly. As you gain confidence, you will eventually feel the same sense of connection and reassurance from your audience that you experience when having a one-on-one conversation.

The length of the presentation and the level of drama or formality appropriate for each will depend on the specific situation. Of course, each speaker has his or her own personal speaking style. By experimenting with different delivery methods, you will develop your own style and find a tone that fits – one that's comfortable for you and appropriate for the occasion.

Generally, speeches can be divided into three main categories:

- A speech to INFORM is a direct and straightforward talk that demands clarity and conciseness in delivery
- A speech to ENTERTAIN aims to engage and amuse the audience, often through personal anecdotes or humour
- A speech to PERSUADE or MOTIVATE seeks to inspire the audience to take action

Five effective speech openers (grabbers)

1. **The Shock Tactic introduction**

   Hugh wanted to shock and provoke in order to wake up an engineering R&D department that had fallen into a comfortable habit of taking things too easy. Careful! You have to know your audience well enough to calculate the risks of this method. He could also have started like this:

   Ladies and Gentlemen, there is a rumour that HQ will introduce lean management and might lay off 1,500 employees.

2. **The "That's-me" opening**

   What to do if there is no host to introduce you or if they have forgotten to do so? Use the "that's-me" opening and project a photo of a baby:

   That's me when I took my first degree. Let me tell you a bit about this baby.

3. **Rhetorical Question**

   It is one of the easiest, most common and most effective ways to open a speech. It creates a link between you and the listeners. It involves them because they immediately begin to frame an answer and then listen closely to see if their answer matches yours. Hugh could have started like this:

   What can we compare this department to? A chicken yard, an ant hill? A yard of chickens running around in all directions? Or a colony of ants, each with its own tasks but responsible for and dedicated to the good of the community?

4. **A Story**

   Imagine you had to speak before a group of marketing or salespeople. Wouldn't this story be a good start to illustrate how difficult it can be to recognise sales opportunities?

   Two shoe salesmen travelled on the same boat to West Africa, each representing a different shoe company. After landing, they looked around, and what struck them first was the fact that all the natives were barefoot. The first salesman cabled his head office: "Nobody here wearing shoes. Coming home by next ship." The second salesman cabled his boss: "Nobody here wearing shoes. Market is wide open."

5. **An Anecdote**

   The following story could be used as an opening in a training seminar. People tend to judge people by their appearance, which can be a mistake, as this story illustrates:

   One day, a shabby gentleman turned up at the National Gallery in London with a painting under his arm. He asked to see the director but was rudely turned away, and only after he had waited patiently and repeated his request was he allowed in. The old man tried to persuade the director to take a quick look, but he firmly refused and was on the verge of having him removed from the office when the covering fell off – revealing a masterpiece that the director had tried but failed to buy.

   "My name is Sir William Wallace", said the shabby gentleman, a well-known millionaire, quietly, "I came to offer this picture to the National Gallery."

3. The Main Elements of a Good Speech Preparation

Regardless of the type of speech you're delivering, there are two key stages in the process of creating an effective one:

- PREPARATION – researching and writing your speech
- PRESENTATION – rehearsing and delivering your speech

Preparation (Research and Writing)

A speech needs a clear, logical flow of ideas. If the speech becomes confusing or drifts from the topic, it is hard for the audience to follow. The speaker will lose the interest of the audience, almost everyone remembers a situation where someone has fallen asleep listening to a speech because they could not follow it and lost interest.

Planning and Organizing Your Speech

1. The five Ws

- **Why** are you giving this talk?
- **Who** are you giving it to? Analyze your audience.
- **What** are your objectives?
- **Where** are you giving it? Can you control the environment?
- **When** are you giving it? Tomorrow? No way! In a week? Yes!

2. Brainstorm your ideas

After you've brainstormed, do your research. By immersing yourself in the subject, you gain extensive knowledge and enthusiasm, which will go a long way toward controlling any nervousness you may have. Know the information backwards and forwards. The more expertise you have, the more excited you will be to talk about it with other people. That natural excitement makes for an interesting speech and compels people to listen. Write your ideas down – your brain often needs to be able to see the ideas on paper in order to organize them intelligently.

- Structure your intro, learn it by heart, and make it an eye-opener.
- Develop the main body of your talk and organize your key ideas logically. Consider incorporating one or two anecdotes to engage your audience. And most importantly, REHEARSE!!!
- Craft a powerful conclusion and memorize it.

- Always try it out beforehand in front of your colleagues or friends (or in front of the mirror). Listen to their opinions. If you have problems explaining a point, rewrite it.
- Prepare handouts if needed.

ALWAYS:

- Give verbal clues during the speech to keep the audience interested and to help them follow the points of the speech.
- Transitions are important in keeping good organization.

3. Grabbers

Grabbers are a crucial element in any speech, especially when opening. They capture the audience's attention and prepare them to engage with the message. Grabbers can also make the audience question what the speech is about, therefore luring them in. Grabbers make the speech easier to start, and the ideas from the grabber can be used throughout the speech so the audience can follow along.

The opening should really catch the readers' attention. It should include a grabber or some other way to get the reader interested. The opening paragraph should also include the thesis. Along with these two pieces, the opening paragraph should have an introduction to the topic and then a focus on the issue before stating the thesis.

The thesis is the core of the speech. It needs to be specific and arguable, which means you need ways both to support and oppose the thesis.

You need ample support for the thesis, and you should repeat it throughout the speech to keep the listener aware and to emphasize the thesis.

Here are some examples of clear, focused, and arguable theses:

- *All high schools should have police officers stationed in their buildings full-time because the police presence will reduce the number of teen crimes.*
- *Women in engineering companies must be allowed in all positions, including top management, without discussion.*

4. Language and Grammar Focus

Here are some points to remember:

- Watch out for the word "it." This word can confuse readers about what the "it" goes to. Try to limit yourself to one "it" or two. Doing this will help make your speech more focused.
- Try not to use unsupported generalizations, i.e. "most graduates," if there are no numbers to support the generalizations. Ask yourself, "How do you know?" If you can't answer that question, don't use the statement.
- Avoid using pronouns, which can confuse.

- Never end with a pronoun. This is a weak way to end a sentence, and the end should be a power position.
- Make sure your tenses are correct and clear.

5. Organization

Speeches require a clear and logical flow of ideas so that the audience can easily follow the message. Just because the ideas make sense in your head doesn't mean they'll be clear to the audience. If the speech becomes confusing, it will be much harder for listeners to stay engaged, and they may lose interest. You cannot have an unclear thought process; otherwise, the support and opposition of the thesis will not make any sense. It is a good idea to use a graphic organizer before writing the paper to get a clear flow of ideas.

6. Transitions

Transitions are essential for maintaining good organization in a speech, as they guide the audience through your ideas. They help listeners understand where you're headed next and how each point relates to the overall message. Topic sentences and clinchers are additional techniques that support the structure and flow of your speech. Be sure to use transitions to clarify the purpose of your speech and how each part ties back to your thesis.

Here are some helpful examples of transitions:

First, second, third, etc.	Therefore
However, but, etc.	On the other hand
Further	In conclusion
Finally	Thus
Overall, then	For instance
In fact	For example
Most important	Consequently

7. Clinchers

These are useful in summarizing support. Clinchers are also very important in summing up and giving more clues to the paragraph's purpose. You don't want the audience to be asking, "So? What's the point of that?" If they ask, then you have not done a good job of communicating the point.

Here's an example of a speech using transitions, focusing on the topic of eating disorders: *Without help, physical, emotional and behavioural damages will not improve, and the victim will move closer and closer to death with each passing day* (Courtesy of Shannon Bradford).

8. Conclusions

Conclusions should include the thesis and a bit of a commentary about the thesis and main idea. This signals to the reader that the paper is coming to a close. Don't put new ideas in the conclusion. This opens up new paths that won't be addressed if the speech is at an end.

You could, on the other hand, add a commentary or a summary of your personal explanation or interpretation of the thesis. A commentary can also be used at the end of the opposition and support sections of the essay.

A great technique is to revisit the opening example (if the speech includes one) in the conclusion. This approach not only reinforces the significance of the opening but also signals to the audience that the speech is drawing to a close. It creates a sense of full circle, bringing the audience back to where you began and adding depth to the message you've shared.

Example

Intro – *Imagine a man named Joe is given an engineering project to complete in a group at work and does not understand why one of the group members does not show up for a meeting because of a religious holiday....*
Conclusion – *...If Joe had acquired this knowledge, he would have a better understanding of his engineering co-workers.*

9. Metaphors

Metaphors are a great way to relate the thesis to something to help the reader understand the thesis and give the paper a nice twist. Metaphors can be used in a conclusion to end a paper, and parts of the metaphor can be used in the beginning as a grabber.

A metaphor is a comparison between two things based on a similarity. Similes are the same thing. However, similes use "like" or "as" in the comparison, whereas metaphors do not. A metaphor is a great way to end a speech. It brings home the point, and since the metaphor relates the topic to something, it may create a better understanding for the audience.

Writing effective metaphors involves several steps. Here's a guide to help you create clear and impactful metaphors:

- Choose a noun or phrase from your topic and thesis.
- Ask yourself, "What different things can I compare it to?"
- If you need to, write out a simile first, then think about how to rearrange the words.
- Write your metaphor.

Examples

- *Childhood is like a house built on the sand. Without a strong foundation, it will give in to the pressures of the world; the parents need to be the strong foundation upon which childhood depends.*
- *The doctor inspected the rash with a vulture's eye.*
- *The teacher descended upon the exams, sank his talons into their pages, ripped the answers to shreds, and then, perching in his chair, began to digest.*

10. Arguments

When preparing arguments, try to achieve these two goals:

Persuade the audience towards your stance on an issue.

- Present compelling reasons and evidence that support your position. Make sure your argument is logical, well-structured, and addresses the key points clearly. Appeal to the audience's values, emotions, and intellect to effectively persuade them to adopt your point of view.
- See the issue in its entirety so your stance has an ethical consideration of conflicting views.

  Acknowledge and understand the conflicting viewpoints surrounding the issue. By demonstrating that you've considered all perspectives, you show respect for differing opinions, which strengthens your credibility and the ethical integrity of your argument. This not only makes your stance more convincing but also positions you as a thoughtful, fair-minded individual who is willing to engage with opposing views while still defending your position.

NOTE: Ethical considerations are extremely important, which is why we include an extra Annex on Ethics at the end.

Ways to improve your writing process:

- Have a starting point/issue that you may be undecided about. Ask who would be interested, who would disagree and why, and who needs to be persuaded.
- Research the issue carefully to get as much information as possible, and try to understand both sides of the argument.
- Make some sort of map or chart with all the points of the argument to get a nice flow of ideas and to see what's missing.
- Write a first draft to get down all the ideas you have and to get an idea of how much information you really have.
- Revise and edit for content and then for grammar and style to create the perfect argument.

The Believer/Doubter Game is a helpful strategy for refining your argument and understanding the complexity of an issue. As a believer, you are open-minded to all the ideas presented, which you listen fully to, and suspend any disbelief. As the doubter, you are critical and judgmental, finding all the flaws in the argument, support, and any other ideas presented.

The logical structure of arguments is crucial for presenting a clear, coherent, and persuasive case:

- Has a claim and a reason or an assumption.
- Claims are supported with reason. The reason is usually stated with a "because"clause attached to the claim.
- To create a complete logical structure, an unstated assumption must be expressed in addition to the claim and reason.
- The assumption, or warrant, should be a belief, value, or principle that the audience grants.

- The stated reason should have grounds, which is the supporting evidence that goes with the claim. The grounds answer the question, "How do you know that ...?" The warrant also needs support, which is called the backing. The backing answers the question, "Why do you believe that ...?"
- The grounds and backing also should be argued since there may be a resistant audience that might try to refute the argument. These are the conditions of rebuttal, which would be the grounds and backing for the antithesis of your argument.

Do these points sound familiar? They should, because they focus on building a strong argument, but they emphasize the audience-based model rather than just formal logic.

11. Evidence in Arguments

These are excellent sources of evidence that can help strengthen your argument. Each type of evidence can serve a different purpose depending on your topic, audience, and the level of persuasion you need. Here's a breakdown of how you might use each type of evidence:

- Personal experience data collected from memory.
- Personal experience data collected from observations.
- Conducting interviews.
- Using surveys or questionnaires.
- Facts and examples from reading.
- Summaries of research.
- Testimonies.
- Numerical data represented through tables, graphs and charts.
- Using statistics.
- Using graphics

Using evidence persuasively is key to building a strong argument. Below are some effective strategies for presenting evidence in a way that engages and convinces your audience:

- When possible, select the data from sources your readers or listeners can trust.
- Increase persuasiveness of factual data by ensuring recency, representativeness, and sufficiency.
- When citing evidence, distinguish between the facts and inferences or opinions.

12. Moving Your Audience

The impact of the argument on the audience depends on the audience's acceptance of the underlying assumptions, beliefs, or values. To move your audience, find enthymemes that have reasons deeply rooted in the values of the audience.

ONCE AGAIN, CONSIDER THE FOLLOWING questions:

- What is my goal?

- Who is your audience?
- How much does your audience know or care about your issue?
- What is your audience's current attitude toward your issue?
- What will be your audience's objections to your argument?
- What assumptions, values, or beliefs do your audience and you share?

How to create an effective ethos (appeal to credibility):

- Be knowledgeable about your issue.
- Be fair and courteous to alternative views.
- Build your grounding with shared assumptions with the audience to enhance your image as a trustworthy person.

How to create pathos (appeal to emotions):

- Use concrete language to increase the liveliness of the argument.
- Use specific examples and illustrations to bring even more life to the argument.
- Choose words, metaphors, and analogies with appropriate connotations. Be careful of the words you choose; they may give a bad view of your argument.
- Use visual aids, such as photographs, magazine or newspaper clippings, objects, or anything to appeal to the audience's emotions. Visual aids might spark something in the audience to not only engage them but possibly get them to agree.

13. Accommodating Your Audience

This is crucial for making your message more effective and ensuring that it resonates with the people you're addressing. One way to persuade your audience is to determine the audience's resistance to your views.

If you are appealing to a **supportive audience**, you can use a one-sided argument. A one-sided argument only expresses the views of the writer or speaker without summarizing and responding to the opposition. If you are appealing to a **neutral or undecided audience**, you can use a classical or multisided argument. A multisided argument is one that presents the writer or speaker's position but also summarizes and responds to any objections the audience might have. The writer or speaker would want to respond to the opposition to get the audience to be supportive of his or her views. To appeal to a **resistant audience**, a different type of multisided argument can be used. A resistant audience would be untouched by a classical argument because it attacks their views too quickly. For resistant audiences, it might be better to keep the issue open and delay revealing your position until the end.

This type of argument usually begins with the writer or speaker exploring the common ground between himself and the audience. In exploring common ground, the writer/speaker tries to state the audience's side fairly and objectively. In the body of the argument, the writer/speaker gives an objective look at his or her position, avoiding loaded language. The conclusion is where the thesis lies, phrased so that it seems the writer/speaker made concessions towards the audience's views but shows that his or her view is acceptable.

4. The Main Elements of a Good Speech – Presentation

Practicing and Delivering

Now that your speech is written, it's time to focus on your presentation skills. How you deliver your message is just as important as the message itself.

Speeches should be delivered in a manner called "heightened conversation". This approach sounds like everyday speech but with added energy, better organization, and more thoughtful structure. In our case, a speech is a planned talk presented by the speaker to an audience, either in person or online. Effective presentation pre paration requires careful planning.

1. "Special Delivery"

The delivery of your speech is likely the most impactful factor in leaving a lasting impression on your audience. Here are some tips for delivering it effectively:

- Make sure you are easily heard. Not only do you have to be loud, but you also have to speak clearly – no mumbling.
- Look more at the audience than anywhere else. Scan the audience, trying to look at every member.
- Keep upright and balanced. Don't slouch or lean over the podium. Make sure to stand on both feet. This will make you look more professional and confident about your speech.
- Control arm movements. Try to keep your arms down and only use them to emphasize parts of the speech. Too much arm movement can be distracting, but too little makes you seem less confident and not involved in the speech.
- Watch the emphasis on your voice. Do not speak in a monotone. Pause at key moments in the speech to stress certain points or to move along to the next thought or ending.
- Refrain from using fillers like "*um*", "*ah*", or "*like*". These detract from the power of your speech and give the impression that you're unsure of what you're saying.

Vary the pace of your speech from time to time to maintain the audience's attention.

KEEP IN MIND:

- Ensure that your speech has a clearly defined duration, and make this time frame known to the audience.
- If it is a team speech, make sure it is INTERACTIVE, and it should not look like a series of individual talks. DEVELOP A STRATEGY HERE TO MAKE SURE IT IS INTERACTIVE. Please PRESENT – do not read!

- If you are using PowerPoint as a tool, be sure to cite internet sources on the individual slide and include a bibliography at the end of the presentation. If you use videos, avoid embedding the clips to prevent potential buffering issues.
- Slides are free, so do have a title slide, a list of team members' slides, a contents page slide and a slide stating the presentation objective. Clearly show what each member of the team is presenting. USE EASY-TO-READ SLIDE NUMBERS for easy reference.
- Slides should have lots of colour and photos – make it VISUAL.
- If you need to use specialized engineering terminology that the audience may not be familiar with, include a footnote at the bottom of the slide and provide an explanation in plain English. Avoid excessive jargon.
- If it is a group presentation with colleagues preparing their own parts, do use a standard, agreed font size and template before you start.
- When involved in a group presentation, make sure to assign one person as a "presentation group coordinator" who will focus on coordinating and ensuring deadlines are reached (time management), contacting group members, and doing an overall check on the final presentation (for example, spell check, ensuring font size is standard, etc.).
- Again – clearly state how long the presentation will take and when participants can ask questions.

NOTE: REMEMBER AS MUCH AS POSSIBLE – **K**eep **I**t **S**hort and **S**imple (**KISS PRINCIPLE**).

- Use a strong, clear voice. Speak at a steady pace, and be sure to vary your pitch and tone.
- Never speak down to an audience. Be kind. Talk **to** people, **not at** them.
- If necessary, use index/note/palm/cue cards with large keywords to help you during your presentation. Make sure you can read them & do number them!

Other Points

- Avoid apologizing too much if something goes wrong. Once is enough.
- Don't read from your slides – engage with your audience.
- Always tell the truth. Someone will know if you don't.
- Be prepared for questions, and decide whether to take them during or after your presentation.
- Use visual aids to enhance your message.
- The first three minutes are crucial – this is when you can captivate or lose your audience.
- Keep calm, be in touch with your power, and use your nervous energy positively. Breathe out before you speak – it helps reduce stress!
- Involve the audience by using rhetorical questions and by referring to their experiences.
- Smile.
- Don't go over your time.

Recommended Structure

First, outline what you're going to say, then deliver your message, and finally, briefly summarize what you've said.

- **Greeting**

  Good morning / afternoon / evening, ladies and gentlemen. I'd like to thank you for being present today. etc.

- **Introduce yourself**

  My name is ..., and I am responsible for / head of engineering QA ...

- **Introduce your talk**

  My/our objective/task today is to discuss/review, give an overview of, and talk about ...

- **State how long it will take** and don't go over the time.

  It will last about 35 minutes .... It is/will be divided into ... parts.

- **Outline**

  To start with, I would like to (not *want to)* talk about... / I'd like to describe ...

  I'll then cover ...

  After that, I will ...

  Then, I will outline ...

  Finally, I will sum up the main points covered in ...

- **Then present the main sections and divide them into parts 1, 2, 3 etc.**

  So, the first part is ...

  Turning to part 2. Now to part 3.

  That is the end of part 3. So let's move on to ...

  The fourth part / Part 4 is concerned with ...

  Let's spend the next few minutes discussing ..., which is my fifth part.

  That brings me to my next/final part, which is ...

- **Summarize the main points**

  In conclusion, I would now like to briefly go over the main points of my talk/presentation.

  Let me summarize/go through the main points.

  First of all, ... Secondly, ..., etc.

THEN ...

- **Thank the audience for being so attentive and/or responsive**

  That is the end of my presentation. Thank you for listening/being such an attentive audience.

- **Invite questions.**

  So, if you have any questions, I'll be glad to answer them.

NOTE:

- Some presenters accept questions during a presentation? If you have any questions, please feel free to interrupt.

  Others prefer the audience to wait until the end If you have any questions, I'll be glad to answer them at the end of my talk/presentation.

- When asking someone to distribute handouts? Can/could you please give out/pass around the handouts?

Speech Day

- Arrive early. Walk the land. Check the seating, audio-visual equipment, lighting, etc. If it's online, make sure you have everything ready to go. Confirm that participants have been invited and remind them to mute their microphones unless speaking to avoid background noise.
- Be energetic. Love your topic. Don't distract or send your audience to sleep.
- Avoid overloading your audience with jargon or excessive data.
- Use eye contact. Don't just look at your audience, see them.
- If you use visual aids, adopt the aforementioned KISS principle.
- Utilize pauses – they can be very powerful!
- Smile!
- Visualize success!

MOST IMPORTANTLY: REHEARSE!!!!!

And remember, thorough preparation and practice help reduce nervousness when it's time to deliver your speech.

5. Active Public Speaking Practice: Debating

Debating is a very important element of public speaking, including in the engineering field, when communicating effectively with clients, the public, and government (local, regional, etc.). It can be considered as "A discussion in which people or groups state different opinions about a subject" (Source: Macmillan English Dictionary).

Here are some points to remember when talking about public speaking:

- The focus is the motion (a proposition in the form of a statement, for example, "*This house believes we should ban mobile phones for kids*"), which is debated by two opposing sides.
- Each team defends (or attacks) the motion.
- Debaters speak in turn. The first speaker makes a proposition, and then the first speaker of the opposition responds. Then the second of each speaks, then the third. After this, one person from each group makes a closing comment (the first or second speaker, without interrupting the Point of Information (POI – see below).
- A debate is interactive and involves teamwork and is not a series of monomaniac individuals making their own special pleas/argumentations.
- Before beginning the debate, you need to define a speaking time (for example, 5 minutes for every speaker, but you can also speak for a longer or shorter time, this is just a guideline).

During the debate, each participant and each celestial element are assigned specific tasks and responsibilities, which are definitely worth following.

The Chairperson:

- Preferably an impartial, experienced debater, who will open the debate, read out the motion, introduce the speakers in turn, supervise the debate, check the time and announce the results at the end.
- Will knock on the table after the first minute of each speaker has passed and before the last minute begins . So, here, the speakers on the other side can see when they can bring in POIs (Points of Information). The Chair records the amount of time each participant speaks for.

Points of Information:

- POIs encourage "thinking on your feet".
- Any debater of the other side may stand up during a speech (except the first and the last minute of a speech) and ask to be allowed to ask a POI – a short statement or question no longer than 15 seconds.

- Each speaker can accept or decline POIs, but the speaker might be penalized if he/she doesn't accept at least one or two per speech or ask at least one/two during the speech of the opposing speaker.
- The purpose of POIs is not to elicit any truth or real information but to disconcert the speaker and partly to show that the opposing debaters are critical of the arguments being made.
- For example: The person who wants to bring a POI stands up during the speech (only of the other side!) and asks: "*Point of information?"* The speaker can say "*yes"* or "*no"*. The person who asked for the POI has to make the speaker unsure, for example, "*Have you ever thought of what happens if children are in an emergency situation and have no phone?"*
- An odd number of impartial judges (always 3, 5, 7 …) who allot points for style, content and strategy, so a debate with three judges will be won or lost 3 : 0 or 2 : 1.
- Judges base their decision on how the debate has been argued and not on their own personal opinions on the subject.

Speeches:

- Speeches are delivered, not read out.
- Debaters have no manuscript before them.
- We encourage palm cards: note paper the size of one's hand with a few notes on them.
- The eye contact with the audience needs to be maintained
- Each speaker (except the very first) tries to rebut (e.g. to argue against) the arguments of the other side's previous speaker(s).
- The third speaker has to do a major rebuttal, (s)he has to write down all the arguments of the other side and reply to them.
- Each debating team needs to prepare and decide what each speaker will focus on in order to avoid duplication (ca. 15 min. preparing time).

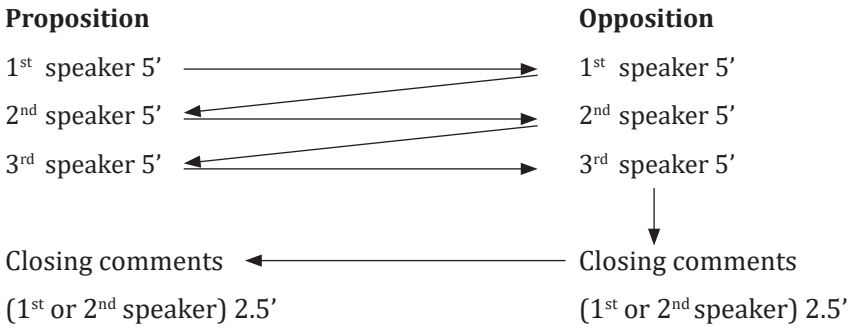
Replying to Speeches/Closing comments:

- To leave one final impression, each team makes a reply speech, which is half the length of the first speeche.
- They contain no new information or arguments but summarize what each side has already said and clarify the issues that have been brought up.
- The reply speeches are done by the first or second speaker of the team, and there are no Points of Information in this phase.
- You have to draw pictures, for example: "*Imagine the world of the other side, a world without mobile technology, without joy and happiness… and now imagine our world, a world with informed people using technology carefully…"*

The Order:

- Chairperson greets the audience, reads out the motion and introduces the speakers ("*Dear All, welcome to today's debate on the motion: This house should ban mobile phones for kids. Let's welcome the first speaker of the proposition side…*").
- The first speaker of the proposition side delivers his/her speech; the chairperson knocks after the first and before the last minute on the table, checks the time and tells it after the speech to the judges (*speaking time was 3 min. 54 sec.*).
- The first speaker of the opposite side delivers his speech; in the first part (s)he tries to rebut the arguments of the proposition side speaker, and afterwards (s)he continues with his/her own.
- The chairperson thanks the speakers and says goodbye to the audience.
- Don't forget the POIs after the first and before the last minute!

Visualization of the debate order



Practical examples: POSSIBLE DEBATING TOPICS (CREATED BY ENGINEERING STUDENTS OF TU DRESDEN).

SIMPLE
This house believes (THB) that:

- Electrical engineers are better than mechanical engineers, or vice versa.
- Chemical engineers are more important than civil engineers, or vice versa.
- Cats are better than dogs, or dogs are better than cats.

MORE CHALLENGING:
This house believes (TBH) that:

- Engineers make the world a better place.
- That surrogacy is objectionable on ethical and religious grounds and should be banned.
- The only Amazon people really care about is the one that offers same-day delivery.

22

- Graffiti is art, not vandalism.
- Progress can only be made through engineering.
- Generation Snowflake is, as it is supposed, millennials with an inflated sense of uniqueness, an unwarranted sense of entitlement, overly emotional, easily offended, and unable to deal with opposing opinions.
- Referring to younger people as Generation Snowflake is simplistic and unfair.
- Payments by cash should be abolished.
- Our sex, which is physical – male or female – is distinct from our gender, which is psychological and social.
- Every engineering company should implement a gender quota for management positions / It is not a cure-all but a discriminatory measure.
- The practice of religion is good for you (www.religiouspractice.ie).
- Trump is making the US great action/all action – no words.
- Hard drugs should be legalized.
- Unpaid engineering internships are unethical.
- Alcohol consumption in Germany should be restricted to those over 21.
- Hatred is so much easier than reconciliation – no sacrifices or compromises are needed.
- Germany is still the country that produces the best engineers!
- Animals have no rights.
- Senior citizens should be deprived of their licence at 75.
- Wearing scarves in public should be forbidden.
- Climate change is now irreversible / Global warming is not as serious as it is being portrayed.
- Turkey must be allowed to join the EU.
- Capital punishment for very serious cases is OK.
- 16-year-olds should have the right to vote in the political sphere.
- Abortion is a basic human right.
- Social Media is killing human relations.
- Political demonstrations and protests are absolutely necessary to shape democracy.
- Open borders are the best way to destroy a country.
- Religion should not be part of the state educational system.
- School kills creativity.
- Engineering education is too theoretical.

- It is not good to give aid to Africa / Trade instead of Aid for Africa.
- Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (drones) should be used in warfare.
- Fracking should be permitted.
- Discrimination in the engineering sector is still a reality.
- Government agencies should be permitted to survey/observe Internet communication for society's benefit.
- Democracy has failed.
- Prostitution should be considered as a normal occupation worldwide / should be legal.
- Nuclear energy is less dangerous than coal, which is the main agent of climate change.
- German troops should be stationed overseas / Germany should become more directly involved in military interventions.
- Animal testing is OK.
- A Minimum Income for All is a Must.
- Xmas gifts are wasteful and useful / Xmas has become a purely consumer affair.
- Daylight saving time should be banned.
- Extremist parties in the EU should be banned.
- The death penalty (Capital Punishment) should be reintroduced.
- Our world is being destroyed by consumerism / The world's greatest disaster – consumerism.
- We have no right to interfere in other countries' human rights or lack of.
- Nationality is an old-fashioned concept in our society.
- Public transport should be free for all.
- If terrorists hijack a plane, it should be legally shot down.
- Modern media is killing human relations.
- Gay persons should have the right to marry and adopt children.
- LBGT should be taught in primary schools.
- Medically assisted suicide should be permitted NOW in Germany.
- Countries have the right to introduce laws in accordance with their cultural or religious customs.
- Populism is a serious and growing threat.
- All Art is quite useless (Oscar Wilde).
- Depression is anger without enthusiasm.
- The downfall of religion has had a positive impact on society.

- Nuclear waste problems, cost and safety are trivial compared with the threat of global warming.
- The traditional family consists of a man, a woman and children.
- We are three meals away from Anarchy.
- The torture of terrorists is acceptable.
- Religion has created only problems and should be abolished.

TIPS TO IMPROVE YOUR DEBATING SKILLS

The following phrases are useful for starting a debate on how to convince, plus giving possible conclusions and expressing modes of address.

Ways to open a debate

- To set the framework for our motion, we believe it is necessary to propose the following definitions….
- We would like to introduce our stand by giving the following definitions….
- By giving this definition, a number of key issues arise from this problem which merit closer examination.
- In the first place, we would like to make clear that….
- The main argument focuses on….

How to convince in a debate

- The opposition has tried to make some good points. However, they forgot to think about some very important issues, namely….
- We hear what the opposition is saying, but we do not agree. We will prove to you ….
- That's one way to think about it, however, ….
- Not to play the Devil's Advocate, but we will prove to you exactly the opposite.
- The proposition's motion may seem plausible at first glance; however, we, as the opposition, would like to remind you of recent developments in this area. According to ….
- At first sight, the proposition's argument seems to be true. But ….
- We have thought about the proposition's proposal; however, research findings strongly support our motion of …
- The proposition, unfortunately, failed to reveal the truth of the matter, ….
- It is easy enough to make broad generalisations about ..., like the opposition just did, but in reality, it is a very complex issue.

- The arguments presented by the proposition are by no means sufficient enough to back up the claim that ….
- One must take into account that ….

Possible conclusions

- To conclude, we must emphasise our motion of …, hence the opposition's point of view can no longer be supported.
- This debate has made obvious that the opposition's motion cannot stand since ….
- The simple truth is ….
- The proposed arguments lead us to the irrefutable conclusion that ….
- To draw a line under this debate, ….
- After careful consideration, we must conclude that ….

Modes of Address

- Point of Information, Sir/Madam!
- Is the Speaker aware that ...
- Mr/Madam Chairman, ...
- I request the floor ...
- Is the Chair/ the Speaker (not) aware that ...?
- Does the Speaker (not) agree that ...?

Regarding **assessment** of the debating performance, the individual speaker and team (plus judges) should be aware of three areas: ***matter, method, and manner.***

Matter (content) is the substance of a speech, divided into arguments and examples. An argument is a statement that could be supported by a fact or piece of evidence. The speaker should avoid presenting long lists of examples or facts and just focus on some impressive facts to underpin the statement. The impact of the statement in terms of the case has to be clear.

Method (strategy) describes the structure of a speech. By obtaining beforehand a clear idea of arguments and examples the team can structure them in a useful way. Examples or facts need specificity rather than general explanations. Concrete items help to underpin an argument. The argument itself should be logically comprehensible with a clear link to the team line. A clear division between arguments, the so-called sign-posting, enhances the impact of a speech very much. Self-evidently a speech should be organized well in terms of time. Practising beforehand makes speakers more experienced and relaxed, although there are always points where there is a danger of lingering too long (ACT 2011). Likewise and related to the next point, the speaker enhances his or her credibility if the audience regards him or her as an authority due to rhetorical experience and/or expertise in the field (SpeechGems 2021).

The third important point of a speech is the way how a speaker presents his or her arguments: the **manner (style).** It is important to develop a manner style that is natural and not just fitted. Cue cards should only be used for reference and not for reading a whole speech. Related to this is the point of eye contact. Instead of looking at cue cards, looking at the audience holds their attention and makes it more likely that the speech will convince them. Furthermore, nervous habits should be avoided as they may distract the audience very fast and do not enhance the image of a self-confident speaker. Voice and body language are crucial for good speech and represent a rhetorically skilled person. However, everybody has to develop his/her own style on this question. It is important to become a self-confident speaker, as this is expressed by voice and body language. Practice is important, and playing with different situations, like speaking silently or with an exalted voice at convenient moments of a speech, are useful exercises.

The Wales Debating Federation gives some useful recommendations for judges relating to manner (style), matter (content) and method (strategy):

Style

Style is the way you present your arguments to the audience. Good techniques include:

- Making eye contact with your audience.
- Not reading directly from a pre-prepared speech.
- Varying your speaking tone.
- Not speaking too quickly or too slowly.
- Speaking clearly so that you can be heard by all.
- Using humour.

Content

Content is what you say – the arguments and examples that support your side of the motion. A good debater will:

- Provide a clear analysis of the motion.
- Use relevant arguments, logically explained.
- Employ good examples to back up the arguments.
- Work as a team with his/her partner.
- Provide arguments and evidence to show how the other side is wrong.
- Use points of information effectively.

Strategy

Strategy is how you put your arguments together and use the time you have to marshal the most effective points without wasting time on trivia. A good strategy is:

- Using a clear structure for your speech.

- Using all of your time, not stopping too soon or going on too long.
- Identifying the key issues in the debate.
- Allocating the most time to the most important issues in the debate.
- Not contradicting your partner.

6. Ethics in Public Speaking

The field of ethics, also called moral philosophy, involves systematizing, defending, and recommending concepts of right and wrong behaviour and is relevant to all engineers. Philosophers today usually divide ethical theories into three general subject areas: metaethics, normative ethics, and applied ethics.

Metaethics investigates where our ethical principles come from and what they mean. Are they merely social inventions? Do they involve more than expressions of our individual emotions? Metaethical answers to these questions focus on the issues of universal truths, the will of God, the role of reason in ethical judgments, and the meaning of ethical terms themselves.

Normative ethics takes on a more practical task, which is to arrive at moral standards that regulate right and wrong conduct. This may involve articulating the good habits that we should acquire, the duties that we should follow, or the consequences of our behaviour on others.

Finally, applied ethics involves examining specific controversial issues, such as abortion, infanticide, animal rights, environmental concerns, homosexuality, capital punishment, or nuclear war. By using the conceptual tools of metaethics and normative ethics, discussions in applied ethics try to resolve these controversial issues. The lines of distinction between metaethics, normative ethics, and applied ethics are often blurry. For example, the issue of abortion is an applied ethical topic since it involves a specific type of controversial behaviour. But it also depends on more general normative principles, such as the right of self-rule and the right to life, which are litmus tests for determining the morality of that procedure. The issue also rests on metaethical issues such as "Where do rights come from?" and "What kind of beings have rights?"[1]

We enclose this important addition on ethics as it is key in public speaking to comply with Equality, Diversity and Inclusion (EDI) – a key performance indicator at the HEI level.

a. Metaethics

The term "meta" means after or beyond, and, consequently, the notion of metaethics involves a removed or bird's eye view of the entire project of ethics. We may define metaethics as the study of the origin and meaning of ethical concepts. When compared to normative ethics and applied ethics, the field of metaethics is the least precisely defined area of moral philosophy. Two issues, though, are prominent: (1) metaphysical issues concerning whether morality exists independently of humans and (2) psychological issues concerning the underlying mental basis of our moral judgments and conduct.

[1] Internet Encyclopedia of Philosophy, Ethics: https://www.asset-scienceinsociety.eu/pages/ethics

Metaphysical Issues: Objectivism and Relativism

Metaphysics is the study of the kinds of things that exist in the universe. Some things in the universe are made of physical stuff, such as rocks; and perhaps other things are nonphysical in nature, such as thoughts, spirits, and gods. The metaphysical component of metaethics involves discovering specifically whether moral values are eternal truths that exist in a spirit-like realm or simply human conventions. There are two general directions that discussions of this topic take, one other-worldly and one this-worldly. Proponents of the "other-worldly" view typically hold that moral values are objective in the sense that they exist in a spirit-like realm beyond subjective human conventions. They also hold that they are absolute, or eternal, in that they never change, and also that they are universal insofar as they apply to all rational creatures around the world and throughout time.

The most dramatic example of this view is Plato, who was inspired by the field of mathematics. When we look at numbers and mathematical relations, such as 1 + 1 = 2, they seem to be timeless concepts that never change and apply everywhere in the universe. Humans do not invent numbers, and humans cannot alter them. Plato explained the eternal character of mathematics by stating that they are abstract entities that exist in a spirit-like realm. He noted that moral values also are absolute truths and thus are also abstract, spirit-like entities. In this sense, for Plato, moral values are spiritual objects. Medieval philosophers commonly grouped all moral principles together under the heading of "eternal law", which were also frequently seen as spirit-like· objects. 17th-century British philosopher Samuel Clarke described them as spirit-like relationships rather than spirit-like objects. In either case, though, they exist in a sprit-like realm.

A different other-worldly approach to the metaphysical status of morality is divine commands issuing from God's will. Sometimes called voluntarism, this view was inspired by the notion of an all-powerful God who is in control of everything. God simply wills things, and they become a reality. He wills the physical world into existence; he wills human life into existence and, similarly, he wills all moral values into existence.

Proponents of this view, such as medieval philosopher William of Ockham, believe that God wills moral principles, such as ''murder is wrong", and these exist in God's mind as commands. God informs humans of these commands by implanting us with moral intuitions or revealing these commands in scripture.

The second and more this-worldly approach to the metaphysical status of morality follows in the sceptical philosophical tradition, such as that articulated by Greek philosopher Sextus Empiricus, and denies the objective status of moral values. Technically, sceptics did not reject moral values themselves but only denied that values exist as spirit-like objects or as divine commands in the mind of God. Moral values, they argued, are strictly human inventions, a position that has since been called moral relativism.

There are two distinct forms of moral relativism. The first is individual relativism, which holds that individual people create their own moral standards. Friedrich Nietzsche, for example, argued that the superhuman creates his or her morality distinct from and in reaction to the slave-like value system of the masses. The second is cultural relativism, which maintains that morality is grounded in the approval of one's society – and not simply in the preferences of individual people. This view was advocated by Sextus and in more recent centuries by Michel Montaigne and William Graham Sumner. In addition to espousing skepticism

and relativism, "this-worldly" approaches to the metaphysical status of morality deny the absolute and universal nature of morality and hold instead that moral values, in fact, change from society to society throughout time and throughout the world. They frequently attempt to defend their position by citing examples of values that differ dramatically from one culture to another, such as attitudes about polygamy, homosexuality and human sacrifice.[2]

Psychological Issues in Metaethics

A second area of metaethics involves the psychological basis of our moral judgments and conduct, particularly understanding what motivates us to be moral. We might explore this subject by asking the simple question, "Why be moral?" Even if I am aware of basic moral standards, such as don't kill and don't steal, this does not necessarily mean that I will be psychologically compelled to act on them. Some answers to the question "Why be moral?" are to avoid punishment, to gain praise, to attain happiness, to be dignified, or to fit in with society.

Egoism and Altruism

One important area of moral psychology concerns the inherent selfishness of humans. 17th-century British philosopher Thomas Hobbes held that many, if not all, of our actions are prompted by selfish desires. Even if an action seems selfless, such as donating to charity, there are still selfish causes for this, such as experiencing power over other people. This view is called psychological egoism and maintains that self-oriented interests ultimately motivate all human actions.

Closely related to psychological egoism is a view called psychological hedonism, which is the view that pleasure is the specific driving force behind all of our actions. 18th-century British philosopher Joseph Butler agreed that instinctive selfishness and pleasure prompt much of our conduct. However, Butler argued that we also have an inherent psychological capacity to show benevolence to others. This view is called psychological altruism and maintains that at least some of our actions are motivated by instinctive benevolence.[3]

Emotion and Reason

A second area of moral psychology involves a dispute concerning the role of reason in motivating moral actions. If, for example, I make the statement "abortion is morally wrong", am I making a rational assessment or only expressing my feelings? On one side of the dispute, 18th-century British philosopher David Hume argued that moral assessments involve our emotions and not our reason. We can amass all the reasons we want, but that alone will not constitute a moral assessment. We need a distinctly emotional reaction in order to make a moral pronouncement. Reason might be of service in giving us the relevant data, but, in Hume's words, "reason is, and ought to be, the slave of the passions." Inspired by Hume's anti-rationalist views, some 20th-century philosophers, most notably A. J. Ayer, similarly denied that moral assessments are factual descriptions. For example, although the statement "it is good to donate to charity" may, on the surface, look as though it is a factual description of charity, it is not. Instead, a moral utterance like this involves two things.

---

[2] https://abhipedia.abhimanu.com/Res_page.aspx?ID=3783

[3] Human Ethics: https://abhipedia.abhimanu.com/Article/IAS/Mzc4MgEEQQVVEEQQVV/Psychological-Issues-in-Metaethics-Ethics-Integrity-and-Aptitude

First, I (the speaker) am expressing my personal feelings of approval about charitable donations, and I am, in essence, saying "Hooray for charity!" This is called the emotive element insofar as I am expressing my emotions about some specific behaviour. Second, I (the speaker) am trying to get you to donate to charity and am essentially giving the command, "Donate to charity!" This is called the prescriptive element in the sense that I am prescribing some specific behaviour. From Hume's day forward, more rationally-minded philosophers have opposed these emotive theories of ethics and, instead, argued that moral assessments are indeed acts of reason. 18th-century German philosopher Immanuel Kant is a case in point. Although emotional factors often do influence our conduct, he argued, we should nevertheless resist that kind of sway. Instead, true moral action is motivated only by reason when it is free from emotions and desires.[4]

A recent rationalist approach, offered by Kurt Baier, was proposed in direct opposition to the emotivist and prescriptivist theories of Ayer and others. Baier focuses more broadly on the reasoning and argumentation process that takes place when making moral choices. All of our moral choices are, or at least can be, backed by some reason or justification. If I claim that it is wrong to steal someone's car, then I should be able to justify my claim with some kind of argument. For example, I could argue that stealing Smith's car is wrong since this would upset her, violate her ownership rights, or put the thief at risk of getting caught. According to Baier, then, proper moral decision making involves giving the best reasons in support of one course of action versus another.[5]

Male and Female Morality

A third area of moral psychology focuses on whether there is a distinctly female approach to ethics that is grounded in the psychological differences between men and women. Discussions of this issue focus on two claims: (1) traditional morality is male-centred, and (2) there is a unique female perspective of the world, which can be shaped into a value theory. According to many feminist philosophers, traditional morality is male-centred since it is modelled after practices that have been traditionally male-dominated, such as acquiring property, engaging in business contracts, and governing societies.

The rigid systems of rules required for trade and government were then taken as models for creating equally rigid systems of moral rules, such as lists of rights and duties. Women, by contrast, have traditionally had a nurturing role by raising children and overseeing domestic life. These tasks require less rule-following, and more spontaneous and creative action. Using the woman's experience as a model for moral theory, then, the basis of morality would be spontaneously caring for others as would be appropriate in each unique circumstance. In this model, the agent becomes part of the situation and acts caringly within that context. This stands in contrast with male-modelled morality, where the agent is a mechanical actor who performs his required duty but can remain distanced from and unaffected by the situation.

---

[4] Human Ethics: https://abhipedia.abhimanu.com/Article/IAS/Mzc4MgEEQQVVEEQQVV/Psychological-Issues-in-Metaethics-Ethics-Integrity-and-Aptitude

[5] Human Ethics: https://abhipedia.abhimanu.com/Article/IAS/Mzc4MgEEQQVVEEQQVV/Psychological-Issues-in-Metaethics-Ethics-Integrity-and-Aptitude

A care-based approach to morality, as it is sometimes called, is offered by feminist ethicists as either a replacement for or a supplement to traditional male-modelled moral systems.[6]

b. Normative Ethics

Normative ethics involves arriving at moral standards that regulate right and wrong conduct. In a sense, it is a search for an ideal litmus test of proper behaviour. The Golden Rule is a classic example of a normative principle: we should do to others what we would want others to do to us. Since I do not want my neighbour to steal my car, then it is wrong for me to steal her car. Since I would want people to feed me if I was starving, then I should help feed starving people. Using this same reasoning, I can theoretically determine whether any possible action is right or wrong. So, based on the Golden Rule, it would also be wrong for me to lie to, harass, victimize, assault, or kill others. The Golden Rule is an example of a normative theory that establishes a single principle against which we judge all actions. Other normative theories focus on a set of foundational principles or a set of good character traits. The key assumption in normative ethics is that there is only one ultimate criterion of moral conduct, whether it is a single rule or a set of principles. Three strategies will be noted here: (1) virtue theories, (2) duty theories, and (3) consequentialist theories.

1. Virtue Theories

Many philosophers believe that morality consists of following precisely defined rules of conduct, such as "don't kill" or "don't steal". Presumably, I must learn these rules and then make sure each of my actions live up to the rules. Virtue theorists, however, place less emphasis on learning rules and instead stress the importance of developing good habits of character, such as benevolence. Once I've acquired benevolence, for example, I will then habitually act in a benevolent manner.

Historically, virtue theory is one of the oldest normative traditions in Western philosophy, having its roots in ancient Greek civilization. Plato emphasized four virtues in particular, which were later called cardinal virtues: wisdom, courage, temperance, and justice. Other important virtues are fortitude, generosity, self-respect, good temper, and sincerity. In addition to advocating good habits of character, virtue theorists hold that we should avoid acquiring bad character traits, or vices, such as cowardice, insensibility, injustice, and vanity.

Virtue theory emphasizes moral education since virtuous character traits are developed in one's youth. Adults, therefore, are responsible for instilling virtues in the young. Aristotle argued that virtues are good habits that we acquire, which regulate our emotions. For example, in response to my natural feelings of fear, I should develop the virtue of courage, which allows me to be firm when facing danger.

Analyzing 11 specific virtues, Aristotle argued that most virtues fall at a mean between more extreme character traits. With courage, for example, if l do not have enough courage, I develop the disposition of cowardice, which is a vice. If I have too much courage, I develop the disposition of rashness, which is also a vice. According to Aristotle, it is not an easy task to find the perfect mean between extreme character traits. In fact, we need assistance

[6] Human Ethics: https://abhipedia.abhimanu.com/Article/IAS/Mzc4MgEEQQVVEEQQVV/Psychological-Issues-in-Metaethics-Ethics-Integrity-and-Aptitude

from our reason to do this. After Aristotle, medieval theologians supplemented Greek lists of virtues with three Christian ones, or theological virtues: faith, hope, and charity. Interest in virtue theory continued through the Middle Ages and declined in the 19th century with the rise of alternative moral theories described below.

In the mid-20th century, virtue theory received special attention from philosophers who believed that more recent approaches to ethical theories were misguided for focusing too heavily on rules and actions rather than on virtuous character traits. Alasdair Macintyre defended the central role of virtues in moral theory and argued that virtues are grounded in and emerge from within social traditions.[7]

2. Duty Theories

Many of us feel that there are clear obligations we have as human beings, such as to care for our children and to not commit murder. Duty theories base morality on specific, foundational principles of obligation. These theories are sometimes called deontological, from the Greek word dean or duty, in view of the foundational nature of our duty or obligation. They are also sometimes called non-consequentialist since these principles are obligatory, irrespective of the consequences that might follow from our actions. For example, it is wrong to not care for our children even if it results in some great benefit, such as financial savings.

There are four central duty theories.

The first is that championed by 17th-century German philosopher Samuel Pufendorf, who classified dozens of duties under three headings: duties to God, duties to oneself, and duties to others. Concerning our duties towards God, he argued that there are two kinds: (1) a theoretical duty to know the existence and nature of God and (2) a practical duty to both inwardly and outwardly worship God. Concerning our duties towards oneself, these are also of two sorts: (1) duties of the soul, which involve developing one's skills and talents, and (2) duties of the body, which involve not harming our bodies, as we might through gluttony or drunkenness, and not killing oneself. Concerning our duties towards others, Pufendorf divides these between absolute duties, which are universally binding on people, and conditional duties, which are the result of contracts between people. Absolute duties are of three sorts: (1) avoid wronging others; (2) treat people as equals; and (3) promote the good of others. Conditional duties involve various types of agreements, the principal one of which is the duty to keep one's promises.

A second duty-based approach to ethics is rights theory. Most generally, a "right" is a justified claim against another person's behaviour – such as my right not to be harmed by you. Rights and duties are related in such a way that the rights of one person imply the duties of another person. For example, if I have a right to payment of $10 by Smith, then Smith has a duty to pay me $10. This is called the correlativity of rights and duties. The most influential early account of rights theory is that of 17th-century British philosopher John Locke, who argued that the laws of nature mandate that we should not harm anyone's life, health, liberty or possessions. For Locke, these are our natural rights, given to us by God. Following Locke, the United States Declaration of Independence, authored by Thomas Jefferson, recognizes three foundational rights: life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Jefferson and

[7] James Fieser, Normative Ethics, Internet Encyclopedia of Philosophy, at https://www.iep.utm.edu/ethics/

other rights theorists maintained that we deduce other more specific rights from these, including the rights of property, movement, speech, and religious expression.

There are four features traditionally associated with moral rights:

- Rights are natural insofar as they are not invented or created by governments.
- They are universal insofar as they do not change from country to country.
- They are equal in the sense that rights are the same for all people, irrespective of gender, race, or handicap.
- They are inalienable, which means that I do not hand over my rights to another person, such as by selling myself into slavery.

A third duty-based theory is that by Kant, which emphasizes a single principle of duty. Influenced by Pufendorf, Kant agreed that we have moral duties to ourselves and others, such as developing one's talents and keeping our promises to others. However, Kant argued that there is a more foundational principle of duty that encompasses our particular duties. It is a single, self-evident principle of reason that he calls the "categorical imperative." A categorical imperative, he argued, is fundamentally different from hypothetical imperatives that hinge on some personal desire that we have, for example, "If you want to get a good job, then you ought to go to college". By contrast, a categorical imperative simply mandates an action, irrespective of one's personal desires, such as "You ought to do X."

Kant gives at least four versions of the categorical imperative, but one is especially direct: "Treat people as an end and never as a means to an end". That is, we should always treat people with dignity and never use them as mere instruments. For Kant, we treat people as an end whenever our actions toward someone reflect the inherent value of that person. Donating to charity, for example, is morally correct since this acknowledges the inherent value of the recipient. In contrast, we treat someone as a means to an end whenever we treat that person as a tool to achieve something else. It is wrong, for example, to steal my neighbour's car since I would be treating her as a means to my own happiness. The categorical imperative also regulates the morality of actions that affect us individually. Suicide, for example, would be wrong since l would be treating my life as a means to the alleviation of my misery. Kant believes that the morality of all actions can be determined by appealing to this single principle of duty.

A fourth and more recent duty-based theory is that by British philosopher W. D. Ross, which emphasizes prima facie duties. Like his 17th and 18th-century counterparts, Ross argues that our duties are "part of the fundamental nature of the universe." However, Ross' list of duties is much shorter, which he believes reflects our actual moral convictions:

- Fidelity: the duty to keep promises
- Reparation: the duty to compensate others when we harm them
- Gratitude: the duty to thank those who help us
- Justice: the duty to recognize merit
- Beneficence: the duty to improve the conditions of others

- Self-improvement: the duty to improve our virtue and intelligence
- Non-maleficence: the duty to not injure others

Ross recognizes that situations will arise when we must choose between two conflicting duties. In a classic example, suppose I borrow my neighbour's gun and promise to return it when he asks for it. One day, in a fit of rage, my neighbour pounds on my door and asks for the gun so that he can take vengeance on someone. On the one hand, the duty of fidelity obligates me to return the gun; on the other hand, the duty of nonmaleficence obligates me to avoid injuring others and, thus, not return the gun.

According to Ross, I will intuitively know which of these duties is my actual duty and which is my apparent or prima facie duty. In this case, my duty of nonmaleficence emerges as my actual duty, and I should not return the gun.

3. Consequentialist Theories

It is common for us to determine our moral responsibility by weighing the consequences of our actions. According to consequentialist normative theories, correct moral conduct is determined solely by a cost-benefit analysis of an action's consequences. Consequentialism, by a definition, is an action that is morally right if the consequences of that action are more favourable than unfavourable.

Consequentialist normative principles require that we first tally both the good and bad consequences of an action. Second, we then determine whether the total good consequences outweigh the total bad consequences. If the good consequences are greater, then the action is morally proper. If the bad consequences are greater, then the action is morally improper. Consequentialist theories are sometimes called teleological theories, from the Greek word telos or end, since the end result of the action is the sole determining factor of its morality.

Consequentialist theories became popular in the 18th century by philosophers who wanted a quick way to morally assess an action by appealing to experience rather than by appealing to gut intuitions or long lists of questionable duties. In fact, the most attractive feature of consequentialism is that it appeals to publicly observable consequences of actions.

Most versions of consequentialism are more precisely formulated than the general principle above. In particular, competing consequentialist theories specify which consequences for affected groups of people are relevant.

Three subdivisions of consequentialism emerge:

- Ethical Egoism: An action is morally right if the consequences of that action are more favourable than unfavourable only to the agent performing the action.
- Ethical Altruism: An action is morally right if the consequences of that action are more favourable than unfavourable to everyone except the agent.
- Utilitarianism: An action is morally right if the consequences of that action are more favourable than unfavourable to everyone.

All three of these theories focus on the consequences of actions for different groups of people. But, like all normative theories, the above three theories are rivals of each other. They

also yield different conclusions. Consider the following example. A woman was travelling through a developing country when she witnessed a car in front of her run off the road and roll over several times. She asked the hired driver to pull over to assist, but, to her surprise, the driver accelerated nervously past the scene. A few miles down the road, the driver explained that in his country, if someone assists an accident victim, then the police often hold the assisting person responsible for the accident itself. If the victim dies, then the assisting person could be held responsible for the death. The driver continued explaining that road accident victims are, therefore, usually left unattended and often die from exposure to the country's harsh desert conditions.

On the principle of ethical egoism, the woman in this illustration would only be concerned with the consequences of her attempted assistance as she would be affected. Clearly, the decision to drive on would be the morally proper choice.

On the principle of ethical altruism, she would be concerned only with the consequences of her action as others are affected, particularly the accident victim. Tallying only those consequences reveals that assisting the victim would be the morally correct choice, irrespective of the negative consequences that result for her.

On the principle of utilitarianism, she must consider the consequences for both herself and the victim. The outcome here is less clear, and the woman would need to precisely calculate the overall benefit versus disbenefit of her action.

Types of Utilitarianism

Jeremy Bentham presented one of the earliest fully developed systems of utilitarianism. Two features of his theory are noteworthy. First, Bentham proposed that we tally the consequences of each action we perform and thereby determine on a case-by-case basis whether an action is morally right or wrong. This aspect of Bentham's theory is known as act-utilitarianism. Second, Bentham also proposed that we tally the pleasure and pain which result from our actions. For Bentham, pleasure and pain are the only consequences that matter in determining whether our conduct is moral. This aspect of Bentham's theory is known as hedonistic utilitarianism.

Critics point out limitations in both of these aspects. First, according to act-utilitarianism, it would be morally wrong to waste time on leisure activities such as watching television since our time could be spent in ways that produce a greater social benefit, such as charity work. But prohibiting leisure activities doesn't seem reasonable.

More significantly, according to act-utilitarianism, specific acts of torture or slavery would be morally permissible if the social benefit of these actions outweighed the disbenefit. A revised version of utilitarianism called rule-utilitarianism addresses these problems. According to rule-utilitarianism, a behavioural code or rule is morally right if the consequences of adopting that rule are more favourable than unfavourable to everyone.

Unlike act-utilitarianism, which weighs the consequences of each particular action, rule-utilitarianism offers a litmus test only for the morality of moral rules, such as "stealing is wrong." Adopting a rule against theft clearly has more favourable consequences than unfavourable consequences for everyone. The same is true for moral rules against lying or murder.

Rule-utilitarianism, then, offers a three-tiered method for judging conduct. A particular action, such as stealing my neighbour's car, is judged wrong since it violates a moral rule against theft. In turn, the rule against theft is morally binding because adopting this rule produces favourable consequences for everyone. John Stuart Mill's version of utilitarianism is rule-oriented. Second, according to hedonistic utilitarianism, pleasurable consequences are the only factors that matter, morally speaking. This, though, seems too restrictive since it ignores other morally significant consequences that are not necessarily pleasing or painful. For example, acts which foster loyalty and friendship are valued, yet they are not always pleasing. In response to this problem, G. E. Moore proposed ideal utilitarianism, which involves tallying any consequence that we intuitively recognize as good or bad (and not simply as pleasurable or painful).

Also, R. M. Hare proposed preference utilitarianism, which involves tallying any consequence that fulfils our preferences.

Ethical Egoism and Social Contract Theory

We have seen that Thomas Hobbes was an advocate of the metaethical theory of psychological egoism – the view that all of our actions are selfishly motivated. Upon that foundation, Hobbes developed a normative theory known as social contract theory, which is a type of rule-ethical egoism. According to Hobbes, for purely selfish reasons, the agent is better off living in a world with moral rules than one without moral rules. For without moral rules, we are subject to the whims of other people's selfish interests. Our property, our families, and even our lives are at continual risk. Selfishness alone will, therefore, motivate each agent to adopt a basic set of rules which will allow for a civilized community. Not surprisingly, these rules would include prohibitions against lying, stealing and killing. However, these rules will ensure the safety of each agent only if the rules are enforced. As selfish creatures, each of us would plunder our neighborus' property once their guards were down. Each agent would then be at risk from his neighbour. Therefore, for selfish reasons alone, we devise a means of enforcing these rules: we create a policing agency which punishes us if we violate these rules.

c. Applied Ethics

Applied ethics is the branch of ethics which consists of the analysis of specific, controversial moral issues such as abortion, animal rights, or euthanasia. In recent years applied ethical issues have been subdivided into convenient groups such as medical ethics, business ethics, environmental ethics, and sexual ethics. Generally speaking, two features are necessary for an issue to be considered an "applied ethical issue."

First, the issue needs to be controversial in the sense that there are significant groups of people both for and against the issue at hand. The issue of drive-by shooting, for example, is not an applied ethical issue since everyone agrees that this practice is grossly immoral. By contrast, the issue of gun control would be an applied ethical issue since there are significant groups of people both for and against gun control.

The second requirement for an issue to be an applied ethical issue is that it must be a distinctly moral issue. On any given day, the media presents us with an array of sensitive issues

such as affirmative action policies, gays in the military, involuntary commitment of the mentally impaired, capitalistic vs. socialistic business practices, public vs. private health care systems, or energy conservation. Although all of these issues are controversial and have an important impact on society, they are not all moral issues. Some are only issues of social policy. The aim of social policy is to help make a given society run efficiently by devising conventions, such as traffic laws, tax laws, and zoning codes.

Moral issues, by contrast, concern more universally obligatory practices, such as our duty to avoid lying, and are not confined to individual societies. Frequently, issues of social policy and morality overlap, as with murder which is both socially prohibited and immoral. However, the two groups of issues are often distinct. For example, many people would argue that sexual promiscuity is immoral but may not feel that there should be social policies regulating sexual conduct or laws punishing us for promiscuity.

Similarly, some social policies forbid residents in certain neighbourhoods from having yard sales. But, so long as the neighbours are not offended, there is nothing immoral in itself about a resident having a yard sale in one of these neighbourhoods. Thus, to qualify as an applied ethical issue, the issue must be more than one of mere social policy: it must be morally relevant as well. In theory, resolving particular applied ethical issues should be easy. With the issue of abolition, for example, we would simply determine its morality by consulting our nonnative principle of choice, such as act-utilitarianism. If a given abortion produces greater benefit than disbenefit, then, according to act-utilitarianism, it would be morally acceptable to have the abortion.

Unfortunately, there are perhaps hundreds of rival nonnative principles from which to choose, many of which yield opposite conclusions. Thus, the stalemate in nonnative ethics between conflicting theories prevents us from using a single decisive procedure for determining the morality of a specific issue. The usual solution today to this stalemate is to consult several representative normative principles on a given issue and see where the weight of the evidence lies.

Normative Principles in Applied Ethics

Arriving at a short list of representative normative principles is itself a challenging task. The principles selected must not be too narrowly focused, such as a version of act-egoism that might focus only on an action's short-term benefit.

The principles must also be seen as having merit by people on both sides of an applied ethical issue. For this reason, principles that appeal to duty to God are not usually cited since this would have no impact on a nonbeliever engaged in the debate. The following principles are the ones most commonly appealed to in applied ethical discussions:

- Personal benefit: Acknowledge the extent to which an action produces beneficial consequences for the individual in question.
- Social benefit: Acknowledge the extent to which an action produces beneficial consequences for society.
- Principle of benevolence: Help those in need.
- Principle of paternalism: Assist others in pursuing their best interests when they cannot do so themselves.

- Principle of harm: Do not harm others.
- Principle of honesty: Do not deceive others.
- Principle of lawfulness: Do not violate the law.
- Principle of autonomy: Acknowledge a person's freedom over his/her actions or physical body.
- Principle of justice: Acknowledge a person's right to due process, fair compensation for harm done, and fair distribution of benefits.
- Rights: Acknowledge a person's rights to life, information, privacy, free expression, and safety.

The above principles represent a spectrum of traditional normative principles and are derived from both consequentialist and duty-based approaches. The first two principles, personal benefit and social benefit are consequentialist since they appeal to the consequences of an action as it affects the individual or society.

The remaining principles are duty-based. The principles of benevolence, paternalism, harm, honesty, and lawfulness are based on duties we have toward others. The principles of autonomy, justice, and the various rights are based on moral rights. An example will help illustrate the function of these principles in an applied ethical discussion. In 1982, a couple from Bloomington, Indiana, gave birth to a severely retarded baby. The infant, known as Baby Doe, also had its stomach disconnected from its throat and was thus unable to receive nourishment. Although this stomach deformity was correctable through surgery, the couple did not want to raise a severely retarded child and therefore chose to deny surgery, food, and water for the infant. Local courts supported the parents' decision, and six days later, Baby Doe died.

Should corrective surgery have been performed for Baby Doe? Arguments in favour of corrective surgery derive from the infant's right to life and the principle of paternalism, which stipulates that we should pursue the best interests of others when they are incapable of doing so themselves.

Arguments against corrective surgery derive from the personal and social disbenefit which would result from such surgery. If Baby Doe had survived, its quality of life would have been poor, and in any case, it probably would have died at an early age. Also, from the parent's perspective, Baby Doe's survival would have been a significant emotional and financial burden.

When examining both sides of the issue, the parents and the courts concluded that the arguments against surgery were stronger than the arguments for surgery. First, foregoing surgery appeared to be in the best interests of the infant, given the poor quality of life it would endure. Second, the status of Baby Doe's right to life was not clear, given the severity of the infant's mental impairment. For, to possess moral rights, it takes more than merely having a human body: certain cognitive functions must also be present. The issue here involves what is often referred to as moral personhood and is central to many applied ethical discussions.

Issues in Applied Ethics

As noted, there are many controversial issues discussed by ethicists today, some of which will be briefly mentioned here. Biomedical ethics focuses on a range of issues which arise in clinical settings. Healthcare workers are in an unusual position of continually dealing with life-and-death situations. It is not surprising then that medical ethics issues are more extreme and diverse than other areas of applied ethics. Prenatal issues arise about the morality of surrogate mothering, genetic manipulation of fetuses, the status of unused frozen embryos, and abortion.

Other issues arise about patient rights and physician's responsibilities, such as the confidentiality of the patient's records and the physician's responsibility to tell the truth to dying patients. The AIDS crisis raised the specific issues of the mandatory screening of all patients for AIDS and whether physicians can refuse to treat AIDS patients.

Additional issues concern medical experimentation on humans, the morality of involuntary commitment, and the rights of the mentally retarded. Finally, end-of-life issues arise about the morality of suicide, the justifiability of suicide intervention, physician-assisted suicide, and euthanasia. The field of business ethics examines moral controversies relating to the social responsibilities of capitalist business practices, the moral status of corporate entities, deceptive advertising, insider trading, basic employee rights, job discrimination, affirmative action, drug testing, and whistle-blowing. Issues in environmental ethics often overlap with business and medical issues.

These include the rights of animals, the morality of animal experimentation, preserving endangered species, pollution control, management of environmental resources, whether ecosystems are entitled to direct moral consideration, and our obligation to future generations. Controversial issues of sexual morality include monogamy vs. polygamy, sexual relations without love, homosexual relations, and extramarital affairs. Finally, there are issues of social morality, which examine capital punishment, nuclear war, gun control, the recreational use of drugs, welfare rights, and racism.

7. A Public Speaking Structure Template

OVERVIEW

- Topic:
- Length:
- Location:
- Purpose:

KEY PLAYERS

	Topic	Presenter
_____	◯	◯
_____	◯	◯
_____	◯	◯

INTEREST AND RELEVANCE

Talk about you and your interests, and you bore me.

Talk about me and my interests, and you fascinate me.

BENEFITS

Put yourself in your audience's shoes.

What do they get out of this?

ACTION

As a result of this talk (speech), the key players will…

1.1 Plan your Speech

My topic is: _____

My basic purpose is:

◯ to inform ◯ to persuade/motivate ◯ to entertain

My end product is (complete the sentence):

As a result of my speech, the audience will _____

_____

_____

My main message is (write your conclusion here): _____

_____

_____

_____

Who are your key decision-makers or key players in the audience? Ask yourself:

What do they already know?

What are they capable of knowing in the time frame I have?

What is their interest towards the topic?

What is their attitude towards the topic? …and you?

My key points are:

1. _____

_____

2. _____

_____

3. _____

_____

My title is: _____

Your View

Supporting arguments	Evidence

Anticipated objections

Counter-arguments	Evidence

Possible compromises

NB: Note on Using Visual Aids

Many speakers avoid using visual aids. For those excellent storytellers, visual aids prove to be more of a distraction than an enhancement. However, visual aids can be practical and effective, and especially for nonprofessional speakers, they can enhance a presentation. If the purpose of your talk is to inform, visual aids can help your audience learn and remember your main points.

Visual aids can help you organize and remind you of key points; they can substitute for complicated descriptions, and they can simplify complex data or instructions, but they're a weak substitute for a wellplanned, personal presentation. Use them to enhance your speech, not as a substitute.

PowerPoints are useful for the presentation of colour graphics, charts and tables. They maintain interest and emphasize teaching points during a long, technical or academic talk.

But you should be aware that too much text or too many diagrams, graphs and/or tables can distract the audience. But a varied presentation with a PowerPoint maintains interest and emphasizes your points during a long technical or academic talk.

8. Your Public Speech Assessment

	Poor	OK	Good	WOW!	Comments
Start					
Signposting					
Structure					
Link to objective					
Delivery					
Jargon and terminology explained?					
Visual aids					
Techniques					
Positive and dramatic					
Loved the audience/ Did they love you?					
Dealing with discussion and questions					
Finish					
Project sold?					
If it's a joint speech, how was the interaction?					

9. Useful Vocabulary

Screen

Flip charts

Handouts (remember to include a word list where appropriate!)

Pointer

Pens

Whiteboard

Microphone

Notes

Podium

Extension lead/cable

USB stick/flash card

DVD player

Camera/camera function

Recording/video clip

Overhead projector (OHP) or slide projector & slides

Overhead transparencies (OHT) on the overhead projector (OHP)

10. A Final Public Speaking Checklist

Step 1

Know your Audience

- Who and how large will your audience be?
- What are the age and educational ranges of your audience?
- What are the chief social and financial concerns of your audience?
- Will your listeners be predominantly men or women, or both?
- What types of employment do your listeners have?
- What types of hobbies or other interests do your listeners have?
- Why does this group meet? What common interests bring the members together?
- What other characteristics typify this audience?

Step 2

Know the Occasion

- Is the occasion solemn, formal, or casual?
- Is an event being celebrated?
- Does the audience hope to be informed, entertained, or inspired? Or do they hope for some combination of the three?
- Will there be other speakers, and if so, in what order will you speak?
- How important is your role? Are you the featured speaker?
- How long a speech does the program chairperson expect?

Step 3

Create Your Arguments

- What information do you have that would provide the most benefit to the group members?
- What information do you have which you are most enthusiastic about sharing with the audience?
- Why did the group ask you to speak?
- How can you adapt your special knowledge so that it will both fulfil the expectations of the audience and appeal to their special interests?
- Is your purpose to inform, persuade, entertain, or inspire? Or is it a combination of the above?

Step 4

Brainstorm

- Have you included stories, examples, illustrations, and factual evidence?
- Have you included illustrations from your personal experience?
- Have you developed more ideas than you will actually need for your speech?

Step 5

Do Your Research

- Have you assembled the necessary facts and statistics to make your case convincing?
- Have you assembled quotes from respected sources who agree with you?
- Have you made use of the materials your own?
- Have you called friends or trade organizations that might have currently updated information?
- Have you made use of reference textbooks and the Internet?
- Have you absolutely assured yourself that all your facts and statistics are accurate and current?

Step 6

Prepare a Draft of Your Speech

- Is your introduction dramatic, humorous, or unusual enough to grab your audience's attention?
- Does your introduction include a single sentence that clearly states your topic?
- Does your introduction conclude with a clear and simple statement of your point of view?
- Is your language clear and vivid enough to assure your audience that your speech will be entertaining and well-organized?
- Does the discussion section of your speech provide the necessary evidence for your audience to agree with your point of view?
- Does your discussion concentrate on developing a few points clearly and precisely?
- Have you organized your discussion section so that your main points develop in a logical sequence or so that the dramatic level builds?
- Have you used anecdotes, stories, humorous observations, or illustrations to help your audience visualize the meaning of facts and statistics?

Conclusion

- Have you cued your audience that your conclusion is forthcoming?
- Have you briefly summarized the most important points of your presentation?

- Have you clearly and explicitly stated exactly what actions you would like your listeners to take?
- Have you left your audience with a dramatic flourish that makes your speech memorable?

Step 7

Have You Transferred Your Speech to Note/Index/Palm or Cue Cards

- Have you included one word, short phrase, symbol, or letter to remind you of each section of your speech?
- Have you avoided the temptation to include sentences or whole segments of your speech?
- Have you made your notes easy to read, with big lettering and plenty of open space?
- Have you clearly numbered each card or sheet?
- Have you written out all statistics or quotes which need to be cited exactly?

Step 8

Rehearse (individually or with your team in a group speech)

- Have you created conditions as similar as possible to your actual speaking environment?
- Have you practised varying your eye contact among four or five locations distributed throughout the room and holding your eye contact for several seconds at each location?
- Have you exaggerated variations in the pitch, rate, and volume of your speaking during practice sessions?
- Have you exaggerated your gestures and consciously used them during your practice sessions, developing natural motions that are not excessive?
- Have you recorded yourself on video or audio and evaluated your performance?
- Have you practised before an audience of at least one?
- Have you practised to the point where your notes are virtually unnecessary?

GO FOR IT!!!!

AND REMEMBER: FAIL TO PREPARE – PREPARE TO FAIL!!!

11. Sources

Online References

1. How to avoid making a Useless Speech
   https://benjaminball.com/blog/top-10-public-speaking-mistakes-and-how-to-avoid-them/
2. How to start a Good Speech
   https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7tzentBmmUc
3. The main Elements of a Good Speech
   https://www.bestcommunicationsdegrees.com/lists/5-components-of-a-good-speech/
4. Presenting your Speech
   https://library.madonna.edu/publicspeaking/presentation
5. Practice through Debating
   https://virtualspeech.com/practice/debating-skills
6. Ethics in Public Speaking
   https://study.com/academy/lesson/being-an-ethical-speaker.html
7. Assessing your public speaking
   https://stevendcohen.net/assessing-and-improving-your-public-speaking-skills/
8. A Final Public Speaking Checklist
   https://publicwords.com/2009/07/27/the-public-speaking-checklist-10-points-to-check-before-you-speak/

General Bibliography

1. Beavan-Marks K, *How to Communicate More Effectively.* Create Space Independent Publishing. 2018
2. Public Speaking for Engineers: Communicating Effectively with Clients, the Public, and Local Government (ASCE Press), 2017
3. Bewes, R., *Speaking in Public Effectively*. Christian Focus Publications Ltd., 2005
4. Borthwick, D., *How to Speak Effectively Without Fear.* 2023. ISBN 979 8366477314
5. Emil-Benke K., *The Technique of Good Speech.* J Curwen & Sons London 2016
6. Greene, R. L., *Debating to Win Arguments.* 2017 ISBN 0998793655
7. Kindersley, D., *Simply Philosophy.* DK Books, 2021
8. Nilsen, T. R., Ethics of Speech Communication – 1 April 1974, MacMillan

9. Nolan, R., *Living Issues in Ethics.* iUniverse 2000. ISBN 9780595000426
10. Peabody, G. E., *How to Speak Effectively*. Kessinger Publishing LLC 2008
11. Robinson, D., *A Practical Guide to Ethics for Everyday Life.* Icon Books 2012