MODULE 2 WRITING ACTIVITIES

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UNIT 1 WRITING STAGES

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous module, our discussion centered on communication and speech. It is now time to go to speechwriting proper. We shall begin by examining the stages involved in writing. This is targeted toward making the speechwriting endeavour meaningful and easy. In this unit, you will be exposed to the activities involved in writing meaningful speeches.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- identify the writing stages;
- discuss the activities involved in each stage;
- explain what an outline is; and
- write an outline.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.

d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Writing

Writing is an acquired skill. It is an art, which involves great efforts. A scholarly paper goes beyond scribbling anything down; it needs the ability to present ideas, findings, and views in a clear and an unambiguous way. For the audience to be able to decode the writer's message, some mechanics and techniques are essential. Some writers write what they do not mean. This has sometimes resulted in misconstruction, misrepresentation, and misunderstanding. It is sad that some people have brilliant ideas but they do not know how to present them. This, to some extent, hampers individual and societal development, as some useful and innovative ideas lie dormant.

3.2 Stages in Writing

The stages involved in writing could be broadly categorised into three: **pre-writing, writing,** and **post-writing.** Each of the stages is discussed below.

Pre-writing Stage
The pre-writing stage involves many activities. One of such activities is finding a subject, that is, what to write on. There are different types of subjects.

- Assigned subjects
- Subjects developed from reading
- Subjects which find the writer; this could be through dream, thinking intuition, etc.

The next step is to focus or narrow the subject, if it is too broad. Note that you do not necessarily need to do this before you start writing; it may be midway into the writing or even after the first draft.
After this step, you then need to gather materials. This could be done in different ways, such as:

- Reading
- Consulting some experts
- Observation
- Personal feelings
- Personal experiences

- Feelings and experiences of others
- Experiment/Research
- The audience

Planning
This stage involves organising the materials to be used in writing in the order and manner in which they are to be presented. Preparing an outline will make writing easy. It is not in all cases that a writer should make an elaborate outline. It is not also compulsory to adhere strictly to the outline. The outline can provoke better ideas; there may be the need to add or delete any item in the outline. The outline could be either sentence or topic type. We shall discuss outline further in the subsequent section.

Choosing a Topic
In case you are given the liberty to choose a topic for speech, you need to do some brainstorming in relation to the general purpose of the occasion. Put down all topics that come to your mind; do not discard any topic. Even if you do not use a topic today, you may need it later. Ideas are volatile; you can tie them down by writing them down. The following guidelines should be followed when choosing a topic.

- Select one that relates more closely to the occasion
- If it is broad, narrow it down
- Relate it to the occasion

Whichever topic you choose, let it be one you are interested in and one that will also interest the audience.

Outlining
An outline is like a building plan. To achieve success in building a house, a plan is essential. It serves as a guide to the nature of the building and stages to be followed in the building process. Similarly, to have a good and meaningful speech, you need to have an outline. A good outline should possess the following features.

- Brevity
- Focus on the audience
- Show paragraph division

Brevity
An outline is neither a speech nor a pseudo-speech. It is not expected to be another speech. Present the points in words or phrases.

Focus on the Audience
The outline is expected to guide you systematically in the writing process. If you spend quality time to prepare the outline, writing speech will not be cumbersome. Ensure that the outline addresses all the major points of the speech.

Show Paragraph Division
The major essence of the outline is to show you each stage in writing. This is why it is advisable that the major divisions represent a paragraph. This will make your speech to achieve coherence. If the outline is properly done, the problem of irrelevance would have been eliminated.

Let us consider how a typical outline should be for the topic: "How to Achieve Electoral Sanity in Nigeria."

Outline
Topic: How to Achieve Electoral Sanity in Nigeria

1. Introduction
    - 1.1 Definition of election
    - 1.2 What sanity means
    - 1.3 How elections have been in Nigeria

2. Steps to achieving electoral sanity
    - 2.1 Making appropriate laws
        - 2.1.1 Laws on the conduct
        - 2.1.2 Laws handling post-electoral issues
        - 2.1.3 Repackaging existing laws
    - 2.2 Punishing electoral offenders
        - 2.2.1 Jail
        - 2.2.2 Banishment from future elections
        - 2.2.3 Confiscating their ill-gotten wealth
    - 2.3 Empowering and re-orientating law enforcement agencies
        - 2.3.1 Civic education
        - 2.3.2 Introduction of electoral studies at all levels of education
        - 2.3.3 Awareness through the media
    - 2.4 Reviewing public office holders' remuneration
        - 2.4.1 Downward review
        - 2.4.2 No pension
        - 2.4.3 Rewarding honesty in all spheres of the nation

3. Conclusion
    - 3.1 Taking urgent actions on the step

This is just a prototype outline. There could be different contents, depending on the perspective of the writer. Instead of using the Arabic numerals, you could use Roman figures. Just ensure that sub-topics are indented to show their connection to some other aspects of the writing. If you want to use letters or a combination of letters for the outline, use different cases. You can also use dashes or bullets. Be as flexible as possible. Just ensure that the points are clear for you to understand and decode easily. If you want to use other patterns, take note of the samples below. We shall use 2 and 2.1 above to illustrate.

(i) B. Steps to achieving electoral sanity
  I. Making appropriate laws
    i. Laws on the conduct
    ii. Laws handling post-electoral issues
    iii. Packaging existing laws

(ii) Steps to achieving electoral sanity
- Making appropriate laws
- Laws on the conduct
- Laws handling post-electoral issues
- Packaging existing laws

(iii) Steps to achieving electoral sanity
- Making appropriate laws
- Laws on the conduct
- Laws handling post-electoral issues
- Packaging existing laws

The introduction and the conclusion are usually one paragraph each. The body of the speech could be approached from different perspectives, depending on the amount of information you want to pass across. For instance, you may discuss everything under 2.1 (2.1.1-2.1.3) in one paragraph or take each component of 2.1 to be a paragraph each.

Writing stage

Starting a piece of writing is not all that easy. Some people claim that they need to be inspired before writing. However, the reality of the situation is that such inspiration may not come at all or may not come when it is most needed. A good way of overcoming inertia is by just writing anything related to the subject. This could be re-ordered later. Another method is using a tape recorder to go through what Winterowd (1975:29) calls the **talk-retalk-write-rewrite** process. This means that you talk into the tape, listen to it; then talk into it again to add new ideas; then you write out what you have recorded; lastly, you rewrite the speech to ensure that the ideas are coherent.

Post-writing stage

This is typically the revision stage. However, revision takes place at every stage of writing; it is a continuous process. The stage involves editing the entire piece of writing. You may give the write-up to other people for editing of ideas, logic, and language. However, you must accept full responsibility for the write-up.

While revising, note that the write-up is not inconclusive; it must achieve the purpose for which it is meant.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. What are the stages of writing?
ii. What is an outline?

4.0 CONCLUSION

Writing involves some forward and backward movements; it involves writing and rewriting. It is a composite process. The writer gets ideas from different sources and weaves them together to present something new. All the three stages discussed above are crucial to the overall effect of the speech. You should not jump any of them or treat any of them as trivial. A meticulous execution of the stages will make your speech an object of admiration to the audience.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, stages involved in writing speech were discussed. This unit highlighted the need to carefully plan your speech before writing it. The unit also presented a summary of the activities involved in writing. Some of the issues raised here will be expatiated on in subsequent units.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Prepare an outline on “How to Curb Incessant Strike Actions in Nigeria”
ii. List the possible sources of topic of speech.
iii. Discuss how to gather information for speech writing.
iv. Explain what the pre-writing stage entails.
v. Discuss the basic activities at the writing stage.
vi. How important is the post-writing stage?
vii. What are your impressions about writing?

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UNIT 2 SOURCING FOR INFORMATION

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

We discussed how to gather information for writing a speech in the previous unit. There, we only listed some sources, like reading, observation, and personal observation. Getting a topic is not enough. You need to get current and useful information. Because of the strategic position sourcing for information occupies in speech writing, this unit examines in some details how to source for information.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able:

- list sources of information for writing;
- highlight library resources;
- explain e-resources; and
- explain how to use sources effectively.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Sources of Information

Information for writing a speech can be obtained from many sources. The schema below shows the primary sources of gathering information.

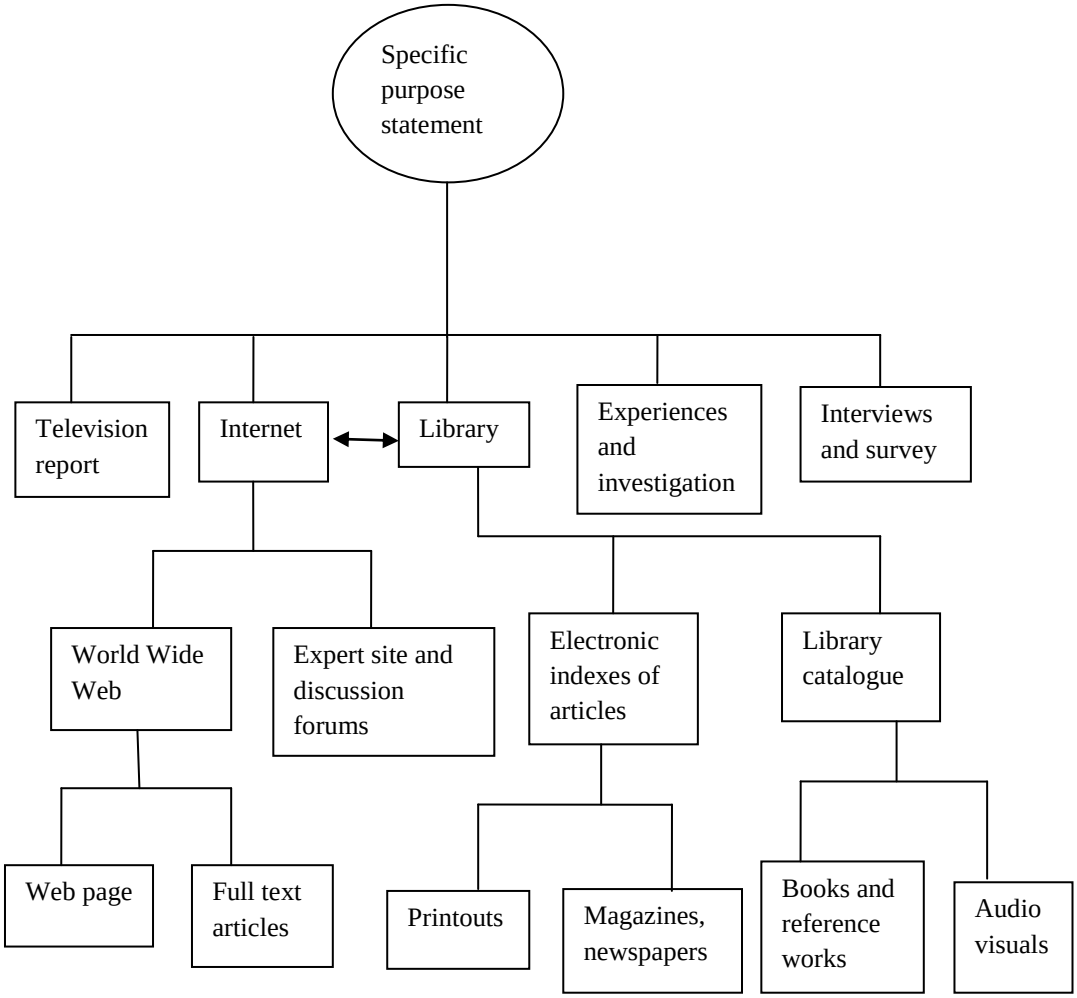

Fig. 3: Sources of information
(Source: Lucas, 2002:117)

The bi-directional arrow between Internet and libraries shows that many libraries provide access to the Internet, while the Internet can also be used to gain access to some libraries.

3.2 Using the Library

The library is a repository for storing information.

3.2.1 Major Types of Library Resources

The Card Catalogue
This is a list of all books and major reference works in the library (Powers, 1993:270). Card catalogue is arranged alphabetically by **author**, **title** and **subject**. Any of these access points can be used to get the necessary material from the library collection.

The Periodical/Serial Catalogue
This is a master list of all the magazines and professional journals, which the library currently has (Powers, 1993:270). It is arranged based only on title rather than by subject.

General and Specialised Encyclopaedias
An encyclopedia is a collection of articles summarising the general knowledge on some area of study. There are two major types: general and specialised. The former surveys important topics from all areas of human knowledge; the latter focuses on a narrower area of specialisation with greater depth. The articles in both are arranged alphabetically.

Examples of General Encyclopaedia

- Encyclopedia Britannica
- World Book Encyclopaedia
- Encyclopaedia Americana
- Collier's Encyclopaedia
- New Columbia Encyclopaedia
- Catholic Encyclopaedia
- Encyclopaedia of Philosophy
- Encyclopaedia of Education
- Encyclopaedia of Popular music
- Encyclopaedia of World History
- Encyclopaedia of Banking and Finance
- Encyclopaedia of World Art

The articles in encyclopedia should not be seen as sufficient. They should be supplemented with other sources. At least, they give direction of further research.

General and Specialised Indexes and Abstracts
These are lists of recent magazine and journal articles, organised alphabetically by subject matter and author (Powers, 1993:271). They are useful means of knowing the state of knowledge on a subject matter. Since encyclopedias are not often revised every year, it is difficult to know the latest information on subject matters through them. This is why it is helpful to consult indexes and abstracts. Through them, you

will access the titles of all the articles in the periodicals covered, organised according to the topics covered in the article.

General indexes survey mainly popular magazines, which contain articles that have broad appeal. **Specialised indexes** list articles that appear only in professional journals for the discipline covered by the index.

Examples:

- Communication Abstract
- Social Science Citation Index
- Humanities Index
- Psychological Abstracts
- Sociological Abstracts

Bibliographies
Bibliographies are published lists of articles, chapters, and books on highly specialized or widely studied topics. Examples are *A World Bibliography of Bibliographies* and an index called *The Bibliographic Index* (Powers, 1993:272).

Almanacs and Yearbooks
These are summaries of statistical and general facts published yearly. Because of the subject areas they cover, they change frequently:

Examples:

- Whitaker's Almanac
- Catholic Almanac
- Britannica Book of the Year
- Statistical Abstract of the United States

Biographical Collections
These are brief biographies of notable persons.

Examples:

- Makers of Modern Africa
- International Who's Who
- Who's Who in America

Computerized Search Services
These are automated bibliographic research aids. They save time and could generate extensive bibliographies in a short time by using key

terms as a guide to do electronic search of the published indexes in related fields (Powers, 1993:272).

3.3 Locating Materials

There are some strategies you can employ to get adequate materials for writing a speech. Gregory (2002:117) suggests the following steps.

1. Start research far in advance
2. Begin with purpose statement
3. Establish a research strategy
4. Stay focused

Start research far in advance
A stitch in time saves nine. Gathering research materials for a given topic well on time saves you problem of writing a poor speech. Note that the quality of your material determines, to some extent, the quality of your speech.

Begin with purpose statement
You need to be focused when gathering materials for your speech. A quick way to do that is to identify your purpose. This should be your guide in selecting the materials that come your way. Make explicit your purpose statement.

Establish a research strategy
Since there are many things competing for your time and attention, among which is your speech writing, have a schedule for the gathering of materials for your writing. Try to stick to the schedule.

Stay focused
Being focused will help you a lot. When there are many materials beckoning for your attention, you need to set priorities right so that you will not waste precious time. Many people waste time, without planning to do so, when surfing the Internet. The best solution is to stay focused and ignore some other materials that are not of immediate relevance to the topic on which you are searching for materials.

3.4 Catalogues

Catalogues are the indexes of library resources; it contains the lists of library collection. They are directional **signposts** for retrieving materials. They contain bibliographic information like physical and subject descriptions (Ola, 2010:169).

Special catalogues
These refer to catalogues, which serve as indexes to specific/special collections of distinct features and characteristics in the library. Maps and manuscript, theses, government documents and publications ordinance exemplify these (Ola, 2009:173).

Classified/Shelf List Catalogue
This is mainly used by librarians. It is arranged based on the classification marks used to organise the materials (Ola, 2009:173).

Dictionary Catalogue
In a dictionary catalogue, the author, subject and title entries are collapsed into a single filling/listing and are arranged alphabetically. This is usually done in libraries with small collection (Ola, 2009:173).

Union Catalogue
This card shows where a particular material could be found in the collaborating libraries. In other words, it is used by more than one library. The libraries collaborating may be independent or branches of a main library. A major advantage of this catalogue is that it narrows down the search area of the user (Ola, 2009:173).

3.5 E-resources and Databases

These are materials packaged in electronic format. Ola (2009:176) gives examples of CD-ROM (Compact Disc Read Only Memory) databases to include

- Applied Science and Technology Abstract
- Commonwealth Agriculture Bureau (CAB) Abstract
- ERIC (Education Resource Information Centre
- Humanities Abstract
- Life Sciences
- Social Science Index

Some electronic databases that provide full texts instead of abstracts and bibliographic information include:

- AGORA (Access of Global Online Resources in Agriculture
- AJOL (African Journal Online)
- BIOMED
- EBSCOHOST
- E-Granny Digital Library
- HINARI (Health Information Network and Research initiative
- JSTOR (Joint System To Order Resources)

- Lan TEEAL (Local area network version of The Essential Electronic Agricultural Library)
- OARE (Online Access to Research Environment)
- Online Public Access Catalogue (OPAC)

(cf. Ojo, 2010:51-52)

OPAC is the electronic counterpart of the card catalogue. There are author and subject search options in it. An advantage, which it has over the card catalogue, is that it gives more field options for searching. A card catalogue cannot accommodate more than three authors in a single entry, whereas a book with more than three authors can be retrieved under any of the authors in OPAC (Ola, 2009:177).

Websites

A website is a global Internet system for delivering and displaying documents, which may contain images, sound, video and text. It is a linkage of thousands of far-flung sites. Each site contains web pages or documents, that is, the file seen on the screen when visiting a website. A website is a location on the World Wide Web, but some people use it interchangeably with Web page. You can be transported from one Web page to another related Web page through *Hyperlinks* (Gregory, 2002:120).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE

i. Draw the chart of sources of information.
ii. List six electronic databases that give full text.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The speechwriter has so many sources from which to derive materials to use. A careful selection of these sources and a productive use of them will enhance the quality of the speech. A thorough research on the topic is the beginning of success in speech writing. Harness all the resources at your disposal to enrich your speech. Try to crosscheck the information you have from one source with the one from other sources. As mentioned earlier, speech writing is a demanding activity. However, it is a worthwhile endeavour.

5.0 SUMMARY

In this unit, we have considered sourcing for information. More will be said about the Internet in the next unit. The major sources of information and their usefulness have been examined. Since the major aim of a speech is passing information, a speechwriter needs to make a thorough research so that the audience will be furnished with appropriate information. This is the beauty of speech writing.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

1. What is a website?
2. What is hyperlink?
3. Discuss four sources of information.
4. Explain four major types of library resources
5. How do you find materials efficiently?

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UNIT 3 THE INTERNET AND SPEECH WRITING

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Scientific development has brought many meaningful changes to the world. The computer and the Internet are innovations that have turned the world over for good. There are different aspects of the Internet that could be explored to facilitate speech writing. In this unit, we shall consider some of the aspects of the Internet that a speechwriter can used to have a good output. Some of the issues that engage the attention of this unit are useful for other researchers too. A proper understanding of the Internet and its resources will definitely add value to your speech.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define the Internet;
- explain how to access the Internet;
- define search engine;
- highlight search engines;
- discuss how to evaluate Internet materials; and
- explain the features of Internet resources.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.

d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 The Internet

The Internet is a global super network, which links thousands of computers in order to get information. The Internet has become a popular means of getting information all over the world. There are also social networks, such as Twitter and Facebook, through which current information about individuals and organizations can be got.

The Internet contains any imaginable kind of information. However, some people have taken this to mean that the Internet is a replacement of traditional library resources, particularly, hard copies of materials. The Internet can never replace the traditional library. Lucas (2002:119-120) captures it succinctly thus:

> Printed materials in libraries are superior to the Internet in many ways. Take books, for example. The Internet has a relatively small number of books, most of them literary classics whose copyrights have expired; the novels of Jane Austen, the plays of William Shakespeare … Libraries, in contrast, have thousands of books, including expensive reference works, that are not on the Internet. Books offer greater depth and elaboration than you can find on the Internet…
> The Internet also lags behind libraries in the availability of articles, while it is true that many newspaper and journal articles are available on the internet, most publications do not place all of their printed material on the Internet. To do so might put them out of business.

Besides, do not think that once you have a personal computer and Internet access, you do not need the electronic services of a library. This is because there are some electronic materials that only libraries could get under terms of contract. Only library users are allowed to use such through an access code (Lucas, 2002:120).

3.2 Basic Steps for Accessing the Internet

To access the Internet, take the following steps.

1. Connect to the Internet.

2. Click on the "Open" button and type in an address, the **URL** (Uniform Resource Locator). When typing the URL, you do not need to add spaces. You should not use capital letters if they are not part of the address. An example is the website of the National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) – www.nou.edu.ng (old) or www.noun.edu.ng (new).

3. If you do not know the address, use a **search engine**. This allows you search for keywords on web pages throughout the world. The results it displays are called **hits**. Click on one of the hits to get transported to it. Most sites offer **basic** and "**refined**"/"**advanced**" searches. In the former, you just enter a keyword without sifting through any pull down menus of additional options. The latter allows search on more than one word, to give more weight to one search term than another, and to exclude words that are likely to make the results muddy. It also allows searching proper names, phrases and words that are close to other search terms. Examples of search engines are:

   - Google (http://www.google.com)
   - Yahoo (http://www.yahoo.com)
   - Google scholar (http://www.googlescholar.com)
   - Looksmart (http://www.looksmart.com)
   - Ask Jeeves (http://www.askjeeves.com)
   - Webcrawler (http://www.webcrawler.com)
   - Excite (http://www.excite.com)
   - Atla Vista (http://www.altavista.com)
   - InfoSeek (http://www.infoseek.go.com)
   - About.com (http://www.about.com)
   - Northern Light (http://www.northernlight.com)
   - FastSearch (http://www.alltheweb.com)
   - HotBot (http://www.hotbot.com)
   - (cf. Gregory 2002:125; Ola 2009:178; Ojo 2010:29)

There are also **metasearch engines**. These search engines send a researcher's request to several search engines at the same time

Examples

- Dogpile (http://www.dogpile.com)
- Inference Find (http://www.infind.com)
- InvisibleWeb (http://www.invisibleweb.com)
- lxquick Metasearch (http://www.lxquick.com)
- MetaCrawler (www.metacrawler.com)
- SavySearch (www.savyserach.com)
- ProfuFusion (http://www.profusion.com)
- Cyber 411(http://www.cyber411.com)
  (cf. Lucas, 2002: 138)

4. To visit sites of related interest, look for **hyperlinks**. Hyperlinks are always underlined and sometime printed in a colour that is different from that of the surrounding text.

5. To return to Web pages that you have just visited, click on the "Back" button at the top of your screen. Click on the "Forward" button to move to the Web page visited before you clicked the "Back" button.

6. To create a permanent list of sites that you like and may want to visit again **bookmark** them. To do this, go to the "Bookmarks" or "Favourites" menu at the top of your screen and click on add Bookmark (or Add to favourites).

7. Choose "Print to File" under the print menu do download pages onto a hard drive or a flash drive. If it is graphic, click on it and choose "Save as …"from the file menu

(Gregory 2002:120-121).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

i. What do you understand by the Internet?
ii. List the basic steps you need to take to access the Internet.

3.2.1 Some Other Sites

Expert sites: An expert site is a website that offers expertise on requested topics.

Examples

- Ask Me Com (www.askme.com)
- Abuzz (www.abuzz.com)
- Yahoo (www.yahoo.com)
  (Gregory 2002:124).

Discussion Forum
This is a message centre for people that have a common interest.

Examples

- Google Groups (www.googlegroups.com)
- Yahoo! Groups (www.yahoogroups.com)
  (Gregory 2002:124).

The Invisible Web
The **invisible web** is the part of the Internet that search engines could not reach. This includes specialized resources, for example immigration law, and collection of full-text articles. Some of the addresses that could be used to access these resources include.

1. Libraries index to the internet (created by librarians at the University of California. (www.lii.org)
2. Internet Public Library (Operated at the University of Michigan (www.i.pl.org/ref)
3. Virtual library – a catalogue run by volunteers in areas such as science and engineering (www.vlib.org).
   (Gregory, 2002:125, 128)

Virtual Libraries

A **virtual library** is "a search engine which combines Internet technology with traditional library methods of cataloguing and accessing data" (Lucas, 2002:138).

Examples:

- Librarian's Index to the Internet (http://lii.org)
- Infomine (http://infomine.ucr.edu)
- Argus Clearing house (http://www.clearinghouse.)
- Internet Public Library (http://www.ipl.org)
- Social Science Information Gateway (http://www.soisg.ac.uk)
- Britannica.com (http://www.britannica.com)
- Virtual library (www.vlib.org)

3.3 Evaluating Internet Resources

It is advisable to evaluate the Internet resources as some of them could contain inaccurate information. Crosscheck the material you find with some other reliable sources.

There are some websites designed to be intentionally misleading. However, there are also some websites addressing the issue of misleading information. Examples given by Ojo (2010:31-32) include:

- Snopes – the best source for factual information about rumours
- Hoaxbusters
- Hoax-slayer – email hoaxes and current Internet scams
- Urban Legend and Folklore
- Truth or Fiction – for checking email before sending it out
- Straight Dope – focuses on fighting ignorance.

In order to evaluate the information from the web, Ojo (2010:32-33) suggests checking the information for the listed characteristics.

1. Authority
2. Objectivity
3. Authenticity
4. Reliability
5. Timeliness
6. Relevance
7. Efficiency

Authority
Try to find out the credibility of the author. Determine whether the author is stating his/her opinion or a fact. You may not take seriously an author that does not recognise the opinion of others.

Objectivity
Check if the information contained is prejudiced. Find out if the sponsorship influences the perspective of the information, because some sites promote only the interest of their sponsors.

Authenticity
You should find out the origin of the information. Part of what to do here is to see if the information has been reviewed, and if original sources are documented. Also, check if the site is a primary or secondary source of information.

Reliability
The reliability of the information could be determined by finding out the sponsors of the publication, a school, business, company, government agency and so on.

Timelessness
This has to do with how current the information is. To do this, find out the date the information was published and the recency of the sources cited.

Relevance
Ask if the information contained in it is relevant to your need.

Efficiency
Ask yourself if the information is quick to access and if it is well organised.

In all, you should separate scholarship from propaganda. The two are completely different and serve different ends. The major differences between them, as identified by Ojo (2010:36), are examined below.

1. Scholarship describes limits of research data, while propaganda claims certainty excessively.
2. While scholarship presents accurate description of alternative viewpoints, propaganda relies on personal attacks and ridicule.
3. Scholarship encourages debate, discussion and criticism, whereas propaganda uses inflammatory language.
4. Propaganda devalues critical appraisal but scholarship encourages it.
5. Propaganda transforms words and statistics to suit purpose, while scholarship admits ignorance.
6. Scholarship uses generally accepted parameters for evaluating data, while propaganda suppresses contrary views.
7. Scholarship seeks counter-examples but propaganda appeals to popular prejudices.
8. While scholarship relies on critical thinking skills, propaganda presents information out of context.

As a good speechwriter, strive to be scholarly in your presentation. This earns you the respect of your audience.

3.3.1 Evaluating Website Sponsor

You can also evaluate Internet resources by browsing on the integrity of the website sponsor. You can do this by clicking on “About” link. If everything else fails, go to Allwhois.com (www.allwhois.com); type in the URL but do not include ‘www’. The name, address and phone number of the person or organisation that registered the Website will be found (Lucas, 2002: 138).

3.3.2 Determining Objectivity and Motivation of Domains

You can determine the objectivity and motivation of a domain by checking the domain name. A **domain** is a group of computers on a network that operates under common rules. The suffix at the end of the name shows the “top-level domain,” which indicates the owner of the address. Commercial web pages (.com) appear to be the least object

domain. However, this does not mean that all.com addresses are unreliable. Other domains are:

- .org non-profit organisation
- .net networks
- .gov government
- .edu educational and research institutions

(Lucas, 2002)

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

i. Differentiate between scholarship and propaganda.
ii. What is a domain?

4.0 CONCLUSION

It is evident from our discussion so far that the Internet is a plus to scholarship. The resources that the Internet provides are meant to make speech writing easier. However, caution must be exercised while using the Internet. It is meant to complement other resources that have been mentioned earlier. You also need to monitor the amount of time you spend on Internet search, hence you end up wasting precious time on gathering materials while you are left with little time to do the writing.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has introduced you to the Internet. There is more to the Internet than what has been considered here. However, what you have been exposed to here is enough to meet your basic needs. By constant use of the Internet, you will discover other interesting things about the Internet. Just ensure that you take note of whatever you see in the dialogue boxes that come to the screen of the computer.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Discuss the advantages a speechwriter can gain from the Internet.
ii. How can a speechwriter sieve the resources got from Internet search?
iii. Write explanatory notes on the following:
    a. bookmark
    b. virtual library
    c. hyperlink
iv. How do you ascertain the objectivity of a domain?
v. Discuss the peculiarities of search engines.

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UNIT 4 LOGICAL ISSUES IN SPEECH WRITING

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
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  3.2 Reasoning in Speechwriting
    3.2.1 Types of Reasoning
  3.3 Fallacies
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5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Writing involves reasoning. The way the writer's ideas are arranged and presented influences the subject matter of the speech and how it is received by the audience. If the language of a writer is impeccable but his/her ideas are illogically presented, the outcome of his/her effort will be worse than that of the one who is deficient in language skills but logical in his/her presentation. In this unit, we shall examine how ideas can be logically presented so that the speech will achieve its purpose.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define evidence;
- explain how to use evidence in speechwriting;
- list types of reasoning;
- define fallacy; and
- explain the roles of fallacy in speechwriting.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Use of Evidence in Speechwriting

Evidence is any supporting material used in a speech, particularly in a persuasive speech. This could be statistics, examples, or testimony (Lucas 2001:407). In using evidence, take note of the following points.

Use New/Current Evidence
The audience expects more than what they already know. You have done nothing significant if you supply them with what they already know. Therefore, use novel and accurate evidence to buttress your points. As much as possible, give them up-to-date information – the most current information on the topic.

Use Reliable Sources
Do not depend on hearsay. It is not enough to give current information; credibility of the source of your information is also important. If it is a national data, it is more reliable to cite information of the federal government. For instance, if it is figures related to population of Nigeria, the most reliable source is the National Population Commission's figures. You can also rely on international agencies, like the United Nations (UN), World Health Organization (WHO), United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Transparency International, and so on, for figures that relate to nations of the world.

Relate the Evidence to your Thesis
Ensure that your evidence points clearly and unambiguously to the point you are making. Any irrelevant material will mar your speech and distract the audience rather than enhance the quality of your speech.

3.2 Reasoning in Speechwriting

Aristotle calls the logical appeal of a speaker and, by extension, writer ***logos***. It has two elements, namely ***evidence*** and ***reasoning***. The second aspect is often erroneously associated with philosophers. This is not correct. Every one of us gets involved in reasoning daily, as **reasoning is the process of drawing a conclusion based on evidence** (Lucas, 2001:409).

3.2.1 Types of Reasoning

Lucas (2001:406-422) identifies four main types of reasoning relevant to speechwriting/speechmaking

1. Reasoning from specific instances/inductive reasoning

2. Reasoning from principle/deductive reasoning
3. Causal reasoning
4. Analogical reasoning

Reasoning from Specific Instances/Inductive Reasoning

This involves progressing from some particular facts to a general conclusion. It is also known as inductive reasoning. General conclusions such as Yoruba cities are neat; Nigerian politicians are corrupt; our leaders are insensitive; dogs are reliable companions, are all instances of such reasoning. They are derived from some facts. Let us consider the examples below:

- Fact 1: Ibadan is neat.
- Fact 2: Lagos is neat.
- Fact 3: Osogbo is neat.

Conclusion: Yoruba cities are neat.

- Fact 1: Biology is difficult.
- Fact 2: Mathematics is difficult.
- Fact 3: Chemistry is difficult.
- Fact 4: Physics is difficult.

Conclusion: Science subjects are difficult.

- Fact 1: He slept throughout yesterday.
- Fact 2: He has never done any assignment given to him.

Conclusion: Therefore, he is an unserious person.

In reasoning from specific instances, avoid hasty generalisations; avoid jumping to conclusion without sufficient evidence. Lucas (2001) advises that you need to "make sure your sample of specific instances is large enough to justify your conclusion. Also make sure the instances you present are fair, unbiased, and representative." Often times, you hear people say "women are not trustworthy", "men are wicked", "lawyers are liars" and the like. If you ask people who make such statements the number of women, men, and lawyers, that they sampled before coming to such conclusions, they might not be able to tender basis for their conclusion. In most cases, they base their conclusions on one or few instances that fit into their stereotypes. You need to watch out for the kind of conclusions that you make when you write. If you are not sure of your conclusions, word your expressions carefully. You can say: "As it is often said by some…", As we can see…" Be careful with the use of quantifiers, such as "most", "all", "some", "many", "majority", and so on.

A more rewarding approach is to use specific and authentic statistics or testimony. This will show how genuine your claims are.

There are two ways of using this type of reasoning in speech. First, you can state your conclusion and then give the specific instances on which such is based. Second, you can give the specific instances and then draw your conclusion (Lucas, 2001: 412).

Reasoning from Principle/ Deductive Reasoning

According to Lucas (2001:412), reasoning from principle is reasoning that moves from a general principle to a specific conclusion. It is the opposite of reasoning from specific instances. It is from general to particular. It is otherwise known as deductive reasoning. Let us consider these examples:

- Fact 1: All dogs bark.
- Fact 2: Bingo is a dog.

Conclusion: Therefore, Bingo barks.

- Fact 1: No man is immortal.
- Fact 2: George is a man.

Conclusion: George is mortal.

It could also be in this form: "All dogs bark that is why Bingo barks."

The effectiveness of this reasoning pattern lies in the general principle. It must be faultless, that is without exception. If the general principle you are using needs evidence, endeavour to give it.

Causal Reasoning

This type of reasoning seeks to establish the relationship between causes and effects (Lucas, 2001:414). In using this reasoning pattern, be sure that the cause and the effect are naturally linked. This link is not always a matter of temporal sequence. It is not in all cases that an event is always caused by what precedes it. The error that arises from this non-connectedness is called *post hoc, ergo procter hoc,* that is "after this, therefore because of this".

Analogical Reasoning

This involves comparing two similar cases and inferring that what is true for the first case is true for the second one (Lucas, 2001:415). In essence, it involves drawing analogy. Once the two cases being compared are not essentially alike, the analogy is invalid. Analogical reasoning is particularly useful when handling topics that have to do with defending a new policy. A former president of Nigeria, in justifying the increase in the pump price of petrol, compared the proposed price of petrol with the price of a bottle of Coke, since both of them were almost the same. He reasoned that if Nigerians could buy a bottle of Coke at the said price, it should not be difficult for them to buy a litre of petrol at his proposed price.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

i. List four types of reasoning.
ii. What is evidence?

3.3 Fallacies

A fallacy refers to an error in reasoning. There are many fallacies identified by logicians. The basic ones that relate to our present purposes will be examined here:

1. **Hasty generalisation**: This is a conclusion that is based in inadequate evidence and is too broad to be fair.

2. **Invalid/false analogy**: This is a type of reasoning in which the analogy is not logically connected to the issue at hand.

3. **False cause**: This is a situation in which the cause has no link with the effect.

4. **Bandwagon**: This fallacy assumes that because something is popular, it is therefore good, correct, or desirable.

5. ***Argumentum ad hominem***: *Ad hominem* is a Latin expression, which means "against the man." This refers to attacking the person rather than focusing on the real issue. This is often noticed in political discourses.

6. **Red herring**: This is a fallacy, which introduces an extraneous issue to divert attention from the subject matter under discussion. This trick is common in political debates. Some legal practitioners too use it and some of them could win cases through this.

7. **Either-or**: This fallacy refers to a situation in which the speaker/writer forces listeners/readers to choose between two alternatives when more than two alternatives exist.

8. **Slippery slope**: This fallacy assumes that taking a first step will lead to subsequent steps that cannot be prevented.

9. **Straw man**: A straw man is a ridiculous caricature of what the opponents believe. This is done to make it easy for them to argue against such a belief.

(cf. Gregory, 2002:412-415).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

Discuss five forms of fallacies.

4.0 CONCLUSION

Evidence is an important component of speechwriting. An effective use of evidence in a speech makes the message of the speech clear. It is good for a writer to pay adequate attention to logic in his/her speech. Failure to do so may make the audience to misconstrue the message of the speech. Logical errors could be avoided or reduced by going over the speech several times after it has been written. You can also give it to some people, who will pay particular attention to your reasoning. If there is any issue that reads differently from what you intend it to read, try to reword it. Make necessary efforts to make your speech clear in message, apt in language, and logical in reasoning. The reward of such efforts is great.

5.0 SUMMARY

This unit has been preoccupied with logic in speech writing. It has considered how your reasoning can be presented in a convincing way. The unit has also considered common fallacies in speaking and writing. Some of these must be avoided but some of them could be stylistically used in some situations to achieve some effects.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Examine the relevance of evidence in speech
ii. Discuss three reasoning types.
iii. Explain the effects of fallacy on speech.
iv. How can evidence be judiciously used in speech writing?
v. How does reasoning aid the audience in decoding the message of a speech?

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UNIT 5 THE INTRODUCTION

CONTENT

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
  3.1 Description of the Introduction
  3.2 Guidelines for writing Introduction
  3.3 Hints on How to Write the Introduction
4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
6.0 Tutor-Marked Assignment
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

We now turn to writing specific segments of the speech. The speech is one but it has many parts. There must be some synergy among the constituting parts for the speech to achieve its goals. This unit is devoted to the first part of the speech that is introduction. Here we shall consider the effective ways of writing the introduction.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain what introduction is; and
- discuss introduction strategies.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.
e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Description of the Introduction

Immediately after the title of the speech, the next item in a speech is the introduction. It is a window through which the audience can peep into

the entire speech. It is at this point that the writer can either win or lose the interest and attention of the audience.

3.2 Guidelines for writing Introduction

There is no rigid pattern of introducing a speech; the ingenuity of each writer determines the quality of the introduction. However, there are basic components of the introduction. A good speechwriter will not disregard the following points when writing an introduction.

- Make it inviting.
- Make it pungent.
- Avoid unnecessary preamble.
- Make your focus clear.
- Let it lead to the body of the speech.
- Create rapport between you and the audience.
- Establish your credibility and competence to handle the topic.
- Give necessary background information.
- Give some hints on the structure of the speech.
- Relate the topic to the audience.

Make it inviting
Without the audience, your speech cannot achieve its purpose. The speech is prepared to be read to an audience or by an audience. Whatever the nature of the audience, your introduction should be like the aroma of a meal, which invites the passers-by. If you believe that it is until they have tasted the meal that they will enjoy it, they may not even have the patience to taste it. Let the aroma invite them to taste the food.

Make it pungent
After securing the attention of the audience, you need to sustain it. One of the ways of doing this is to make sharp and pungent comments that will engage the thinking faculty of the audience, a form of suspense that will soon be unfolded.

Avoid unnecessary preamble
Your attempt to make the introduction inviting and pungent should not lead to unnecessary preamble. Any material that does not have direct bearing on the subject should not be included. The introduction should not take more than 10% of the entire speech.

Make your focus clear
The essence of the introduction is to set the tone for the work. You should not be carried away by your attempt to capture the attention of the audience and forget to state what your aim in the speech is. All

components of the introduction should lead to making clear the ultimate goal of the speech.

Let it lead to the body of the work
The introduction is a part of a whole and the speech itself is an organism. This means that the various parts of the speech should complement one another. The introduction should lead naturally to the body of the speech. In other words, there should be coherence in the speech.

Create a rapport between you and the audience
Since a good speechwriter should be audience-centred, you need to create good rapport with your audience right from the outset. Identity with them; do not distance yourself from them. Enter into their world while the speech lasts. However, you have to begin this right from the introduction.

According to Powers (1993:117), this quality is also called goodwill bond, common ground, and audience identification. They all emphasise making mental contact with the audience, howbeit in different ways. **Goodwill bond** stresses the positive nature of the feeling one seeks to create; **common ground** stresses searching for a shared starting point between the writer and the audience; **identification** is concerned with the need for developing a common way of thinking about the topic; and **rapport** focuses on the similarity between the writer and the audience.

Establish your credibility and competence to handle the topic
The introduction is an avenue to sell your credentials to the audience. From the introduction, the audience should know that you are qualified to handle the topic. If they discover that you are not more qualified than they are, they may not give you the required attention. This does not mean you should appear arrogant before the audience, as this may put them off.

Give necessary background information
If the topic requires that you intimate the audience with some background information, do not hesitate to do so in the introduction. This will prepare their minds for what is to come in the rest of the speech.

Give some hints on the structure of the speech
Giving some hints on the structure of the speech is an appetizer. Let the audience know how the speech is structured. This will make them flow with your style.

Relate the topic to the audience
The audience has interests and needs. They will want to pay attention to a speech that meets such interests and needs. Right from the introduction, indicate that the speech adequately caters for these things.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

i. What is the introduction?
ii. List six things a speechwriter should take note of while writing the introduction.

3.3 Hints on How to Write the Introduction

Some common approaches to the introduction are still relevant. The major ones are discussed below.

1. Ask questions
2. Tell a story/an anecdote
3. Give proverbs/idioms
4. Give statistical facts/figures
5. Quote a reputable source
6. Make analogy
7. Define some concepts

Ask Questions

Asking question is a veritable means of engaging the audience in the discourse. If you open the speech with questions, the audience will be made to connect to the speech. Any or a combination of question types could be employed; each has its own merits and limitations.

"Wh"-question

This is a question that begins with a "wh" element, such as what, when, where and why, for example, "Why are women educationally endangered?" This kind of question does not require a yes or a no response. Some of its advantages are:

1. It makes the audience to start thinking of possible answer(s).
2. It does not require a uniform or definite answer; and so allows both parties to express their opinions.

Polar (yes/no) question

This type of question requires either a yes or a no response. For example:

- Do the masses have hope?
- Are we obligated to pray for corrupt leaders?

This type of question has the following effects:

1. It makes the audience to wittingly or unwittingly respond aloud or through shaking their heads or other para-lingusitic manners.
2. It ensures a definite response, which makes them take a position before the writer make known his/her own views. The writer then has the task of reinforcing their response or debunking it.

Rhetorical question
This is a question asked only for dramatic or emphatic purposes; it is not meant to elicit any response. It is a way of affirming what is a generally accepted fact. It achieves the following effects:

1. It shows that you identify with the feeling and interest of the audience.
2. It establishes what the audience already knows.

Tell a story/an anecdote
Stories have the power to touch the minds of humans. Beginning your speech with a story/an anecdote could adjust the minds of the audience to the message of the speech. Nevertheless, caution must be exercised in doing this. The story should be short and straight to the point. It should also relate to the topic for it to be effective. Commenting on the relevance of story as an introductory strategy, Powers (1993:123) avers that:

> Everyone has a story to tell, a story that can be used to make a point. Opening your speech with a story accomplishes many things. It humanizes your topic (a story has characters); it's (sic) activates your speech (a story has plot: starting, rising, culminating, and closing action); it essentialises your speech's content (a story has a central theme or point).

Give proverbs/idioms
Because they are witty expressions, proverbs and idioms could give the summary of what your speech addresses. Another major advantage of this opening style is that it shows your thoroughness and versatility.

Give statistical figures
Statistical figures help authenticate whatever claim you want to make, especially if they are from reliable sources. Powers (1993:85-89) gives the following uses of statistics.

1. They are used to report absolute magnitude.
2. They are used to make quantitative comparisons.
3. They are used to chart trends of events.
4. They are used to suggest relationship between magnitudes of two or more different phenomena.
5. They are used to report averages.

However, your statistics should not confuse the audience. You should try to interpret the statistics and relate it to the topic and the audience.

Quote a reputable source

Quotations refer to the expressions of another person used in a piece of writing without editing it. The introduction can begin by quoting a reputable source. Such a person should be an authority in the topic you are discussing. This is a way of lending credibility to your views. It also shows to the audience that you have done a thorough research before your writing. Ensure that you do not quote the person out of context. Also, make sure that you relate the quote to your topic. Beginning a speech with a quotation is a way of arresting the attention of the audience, particularly if that source is somebody well known to the majority of the audience.

Make analogy

Analogy is the use of an incident or an occasion related to another one to draw inference and establish a link between them. It is often most appropriate when the concept for which analogy is to be used is strange or complex. It is what the audience is familiar with or could relate easily with that should be used as analogy. For an analogy to be effective, make sure that the link is not far-fetched. Using analogy in the introduction sets the right tone for the speech and creates a permanent image in the minds of the audience. It is good that the analogy relates directly to the topic, as people tend to remember analogies faster than the things they are meant to illustrate. If the analogy relates well to the topic, they will be able to remember the message as soon as they remember the analogy. However, ensure that the analogy does not take the place of the speech; it is meant to play introductory roles alone.

Define some concepts

You can also begin the speech by operationalising some concepts. This is a way of simplifying the speech and ensuring that the audience does not rack their brains unnecessarily on some concepts. Defining can be done in the following ways, according to Powers (1993:79):

1. Classification and differentiation
2. Example
3. Comparison and contrast
4. Synonym and antonym

5. Etymological origins
6. Negation

Classification and Differentiation
This is otherwise called "logical" method. It involves three phases

1. *Mention* the word to be defined.
2. *Identify* the general class it belongs to.
3. *Distinguish* it from other members of the class.

This approach involves giving tokens that illustrate the particular concept being defined. From these examples, the meaning of the concept can be gleaned.

Comparison and Contrast
This type of definition reveals the similarities and the differences between the concept being defined and other related concepts. This approach is useful especially when handling concepts that are apparently strange to the audience, concepts that are often mistaken for one another, or when a word has other meaning attached to it.

Synonym and Antonym
Synonyms are words that are similar in meaning or have the same sense relation. However, there are no two words that are exactly the same or that can replace each other in a given. An antonym is a word that means the opposite of another word. By using synonyms and antonyms in definition, you show the relationship between a particular word and other more familiar words. Use this approach when the word to be defined is relatively unfamiliar to the audience.

Etymological Origins
This approach traces the root of a word. At times, a word that now has positive connotation might have had a negative connotation along the line of its development and vice-versa. This approach is historical. One of the advantages of defining a word using its etymological origin is that it enriches the audience's understanding of the word and makes the task of explaining the word easier. It is a useful means of clearing doubts as to the actual meaning of a word and the meaning now associated with it.

Negation
This method tells what a thing is not. It is a stylistic way of arguing some points on the entity being defined. You may want to emphasise the opposite of a concept as a way of making some points. Consider this definition of democracy.

> Democracy is not demonstration of craze. It is not attacking the person and not the issue when campaigning. It is equally not playing on the weakness of the electorate to siphon public funds. I mean democracy is not enriching oneself at the expense of the masses.

This definition focuses on what many Africans have taken democracy to mean. This definition is an attempt to lambast those who are fake democrats. The audience is being called upon to see democracy as the opposite of what is presented in this definition.

In essence, the introduction is a fourfold process.

- Announcing the subject
- Limiting the subject
- Indicating the play of the paper
- Engaging the reader's interest or attention

(Kane & Peters 1966:73)

However, this is not a fixed order.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

i. List four ways of writing an introduction.
ii. Discuss what you think analogy means.

4.0 CONCLUSION

The importance of introduction to the speech has been stressed in this unit. The introduction can determine whether the audience will continue their engagement with the speech or not. This is why a speechwriter needs to give the introduction full attention. A good writer will vary his/her pattern of introduction in different speeches, depending on the audience, among other factors. The points raised in this unit are just meant to guide the writer. Each writer could design the introduction that best suits his/her purpose.

5.0 SUMMARY

The peculiarities of the introduction have been examined in this unit. This is intended to expose you to how to lay a good foundation for the speech. In the next unit, we shall consider the other segments of the speech. This will equip you with basic information on the way to present each of these segments.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Why does the writer need to create rapport with the audience?
ii. Explain four ways of writing the introduction.
iii. Discuss five ways defining can be used for the introduction.
iv. Discuss the things to take note of while writing the introduction.
v. What is the usefulness of negation in writing the introduction?
vi. Explain the relevance of the question approach to writing the introduction.
vii. Use three different patterns to write the introduction for this topic: "Lessons from the 2007 General Elections in Nigeria."

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Beebee, S. A & BeeBee, J.B. (1994). *Public Speaking: An audience-Centered approach.* Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Dimbleby, R. & Burton, G. (1998). *More than Words: An introduction to communication.* New York: Routledge.

Gregory, H. (2002). *Public Speaking: For Colleges and Career.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Kane, T. S. & Peters, L. J. (1966). *A Practical Rhetoric of Expository Prose.* Oxford University Press.

Lucas, S.E. (2001). *The Art of Public Speaking.* Boston: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Powers, J. H. (1993). *Public Speaking: The Lively Art.* New York: Harper Collins College Publishers.

UNIT 6 OTHER PARTS OF THE SPEECH

CONTENTS

1.0 Introduction
2.0 Objectives
3.0 Main Content
  3.1 Organising the Body of the Speech
    3.1.1 Thought-flow Pattern
    3.1.2 Assisting the Reader
  3.2 The Conclusion
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4.0 Conclusion
5.0 Summary
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7.0 References/Further Reading

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Each segment of the speech is unique, although there are some features that cut across some segments. In this unit, we shall examine the other segments of the speech. These are the body, the conclusion, and the works cited (title and introduction were examined in the previous unit). The manner in which each of these is to be handled will be discussed so that you will have a broad knowledge of the speech as an entity.

2.0 OBJECTIVES

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain techniques of writing the body of the speech;
- discuss thought-flow patterns/orders;
- explain how to assist the reader;
- discuss the features of the conclusion;
- mention different style sheets; and
- document different materials using both the APA and MLA style sheets.

HOW TO STUDY THE UNIT

a. Read this unit as diligently as possible.
b. Find meaning of unfamiliar words in the unit using your dictionary.
c. As you read, put major points down in a piece of paper or jotter.
d. Do not go to the next section until you have fully understood the section you are reading now.

e. Do all the Self-Assessment exercises in the unit as honestly as you can. In some areas where it is not feasible to provide answers to Self-Assessment exercises, go to the relevant sections of the unit to derive the answers.

3.0 MAIN CONTENT

3.1 Organising the Body of the Speech

All other paragraphs after the introduction excluding the conclusion constitute the body of the speech. The body contains a full discussion of the focus of the subject matter. There is no limit to the number of sentences that should constitute the body of a speech. The purpose of the speech and the time allotted to the speech are among the major determinants of the length of the body of a speech.

3.1.1 Thought-flow Pattern/Order

The way the ideas in the mind of the speechwriter are presented is termed thought-flow pattern/order. There are different thought flow patterns that could be employed to enrich the speech. The basic ones are:

1. Chronological order
2. Spatial Order
3. Topical Order
4. Cause-to-Effect Order
5. Simple-to-Complex Order
6. Comparison and Contrast Order

Chronological Order: This arranges events sequentially, that is the order of their occurrence in turn. This is very useful when explaining how to do something, such as a process or a recipe or a historical happening, how to make an instrument. Powers (1993:98) avers that:

> Using chronological order effectively involves at least two steps: dividing the continuum of events into from two to five major time periods, and ordering those major events so that they seem to exhibit the events so that they seem to exhibit the qualities of internal preparation, forward motion, climax, and closure.

Doing the above involves identifying the peaks of the activity being discussed. These peaks can be grouped into four periods.

- Preparatory events
- Developmental events
- Culminating events
- Concluding events

Spatial Order: This is the presentation of the relative location of things in comparison to one another. This is used for giving direction or describing a place. There are principles involved in this order. Powers (1993:101) gives the following principles.

1. North to south; east to west, and so forth
2. Right, centre, left
3. Near to far; far to near
4. Front to back; back to front
5. Top, middle, bottom, middle, top
6. Around a circle or semicircle

Topical Order: This involves organising the speech around some set of categories that are the required or standard for the topic or the one that is suitable for the occasion. It involves breaking the speech into significant sections. This approach is useful for overview of a subject. Topical order is painstaking, involving **analysis** and **classification**. The former is breaking a subject into its component parts. The latter involves grouping the parts into meaningful units, a kind of sorting to see topics that are closely related (Powers, 1993:101). The analysis and classification should be systematically done, considering the subject. The classification should cater for all possible and related topics. It must also exclude all forms of redundancy. Items that are mutually exclusive should be well catered for.

Cause-to-Effect Order: This involves giving the causes of a particular event and stating the effects. It involves stating why something occurred. However, not just any cause should be given. The effect must naturally be linked to the cause. The logicality of the cause and the effect should be ensured. It is not only what has happened that this order is suitable for. It can also be employed for policies that are yet to be adopted. You can state the likely effects a particular course of action would precipitate, even if such cause does not seem to have any effect at present.

Simple-to-Complex Order: This order first presents the simple part of a concept before going to the complex part. The intention is to elucidate the concept and make it easy for the audience to comprehend. This is particularly useful for treating principles or devices.

Comparison and Contrast Order: This order involves organising the speech in such a way that the similarities and/or differences between some concepts are presented. This is particularly useful when discussing new concepts or when justifying a particular idea to make the audience takes a definite position. Powers (1993:105) claims that there are at least two ways of using this order. First, the similarities (comparisons) are

first discussed, followed by the differences (contrasts). Second, the similarities and the differences are presented simultaneously.

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 1

i. What is thought flow pattern?
ii. List four thought- flow order/pattern.

3.1.2 Assisting the Reader

You can help the reader follow your speech with these techniques:

- Leitmotifs
- Signposts
- Inter-paragraph transition

(Kane & Peters, 1966:97)

Leitmotifs
This is a term was borrowed from music. It means a recurrent pattern that is important to the subject. Repeating some structures helps the speech to achieve unity. However, leitmotifs do not usually reveal very much about the organization of the speech (Kane & Peters 1966:98).

Signposts
There are words and structures that point to the structure of the speech. They tell the reader what the writer has just done, is about to do next, or will do later on. They are different from topical development. While **topical development** asserts something about the subject, **signposts** reveal something about the organization of the speech (Kane & Peters, 1966:98).

Signposts could be extrinsic or intrinsic. The **extrinsic** type includes table of contents and paragraphing indicators, subsections and numbering of paragraphs. These are not part of the actual speech; this is why they are described as extrinsic. The **intrinsic** type, on the other hand, refers to actual expressions that are incorporated into the speech. They remind the audience of the plan of the speech suggested in the introduction. Signposts could also anticipate later section of the speech (Kane & Peters, 1966:101). Examples include listing strategy such as “first(ly)”, “second(ly);” and expressions like ‘in addition to”, “moreover”, “furthermore”, “so”, “besides”, and so on.

Inter-paragraph Transitions
These are expressions that link successive paragraphs. Most of them occur at the beginning of the new paragraph. Transitions could be **full** or **partial**. The former has three elements

- A summary of the old topic
- An introductory statement of the new
- An indication of the relationship between the two topics

The relationships in the thought a writer expresses are of three main types, according to Kane and Peters (1966:106):

- Adversative
- Causal
- Addictive

Adversative
This occurs when a paragraph contradicts or qualifies the topic or the focus of the preceding one. This often involves using adverbs of concession, such as *although*, *even though*, *though*, *however*, *but*, *in spite of*, and *despite.*

Causal
This involves showing that what a paragraph expresses is a result of what is expressed in the preceding paragraph. This may be achieved by using two main clauses. The first one sums up, while the second one is introduced by adverbs like *therefore*, *thus, hence, consequently,* and *as a result* (Kane & Peters, 1966:108).

Additive
In this logical relationship, the new topic may be similar to or parallel with the one expressed earlier. Its signals include: "not only … but also", "similarly", "besides", "likewise" and so on.

In **partial** transition, the new topic may be introduced without giving summary of the old topic. Another approach is to pick up a key concept at the end of a preceding paragraph and repeat it at the beginning of the new one (Kane & Peters, 1966:111).

3.2 The Conclusion

The conclusion is as equally important as the introduction and the body of the speech. The conclusion should do, among others, the following:

1. Summarise the main points;
2. Suggest solutions or new directions;

3. Move the audience to action; and
4. Be related to the topic

Summarise the main points
The conclusion can summarise the main points in the speech without necessarily repeating them. This approach helps the audience to remember what the speech centres on.

Suggest solutions or new directions
A speech is like a research, which is expected to solve a particular problem. Depending on the topic, you may conclude by suggesting some solutions to the problem addressed in the speech. Whatever the topic, you can give new directions on the topic.

Ask thought-provoking questions
You can conclude by asking the audience some thought-provoking questions. These questions should b e tied to the issues raised in the speech. By doing this, the audience can process in their minds the ideas raised in the speech.

Move the audience to action
In the Classical times, speech was an important means of propelling the populace to action. Even in the contemporary times, some people have used speech to instigate people to action. The conclusion of your speech is expected to make the audience take some actions either immediately or later. The action can be toward themselves or others.

Be relevant to the topic
The conclusion, just like the introduction, should not be detached from the other parts of the speech. It is supposed to be a unifying portion. All the loose ends of the speech should be tied together by the conclusion. Even if the audience has not been able to make much sense of the speech, the conclusion could be a way of reiterating the kernel of the speech.

The points discussed above are just some of the basic functions the conclusion is expected to perform. There is no fixed formula to ending a speech. In fact, some of the strategies employed in the introduction can be used for the conclusion. Just allow ideas to flow naturally. The conclusion should follow from the preceding paragraph.

3.2.1 Further Hints on the Conclusion

The conclusion could achieve its major aims of summarising, judging and guiding to action in these four main ways:

1. Terminal words
2. Cyclic return
3. Rhythmic variation
4. Built-in closing

(Kane & Peters, 1966:121)

Terminal words

These words signal closing. The signposts include i*n conclusion, lastly, finally, concluding, to conclude, to in sum, then, and so, thus*

Cyclic Return

In this strategy, the writer repeats an important expression mentioned in the introduction. However, such expressions must have been mentioned again sometime in the speech so that the audience will be able to link the word to the conclusion. Such expression also needs to relate directly to the focus of the speech.

Rhythmic variation

Kane and Peters (1966:124) sum up the essence of this approach thus:

> …such a variation often takes the form of a slowing down and regularizing of the rhythm of the last sentence. The closing sentence is likely to contain interrupting constructions; its stressed syllable will be somewhat more regularly spaced; and the five or six last syllables may fall into one of the rhythmic patterns called "cursus"…

They identify some other ways of achieving rhythmic variation:

> Thus by repeating connectives and modifiers, by using the same syntactic patterns, employing cursus, spacing stressed syllables more regularly, and inserting interrupters, a writer can slow down and regularize the movement of his final sentence and so say to the reader: "This is all". Less commonly he may take the opposite tack and signal closing by making the final sentence relatively quick and straightforward (p. 125).

SELF-ASSESSMENT EXERCISE 2

i. Mention some ways the writer can assist the audience to understand the message of the speech.
ii. What are the features of the conclusion?

3.3 References

There are different widely used style sheets. Some of them are APA (American Psychological Association), MLA (Modern Language Association), Chicago Manual of Style, CSE (Council of Science Editors) Style, ASA (American Sociological Association) Style, AAA (American Anthropological Association) Style, and so on. You can visit the website of each of the manual of style to get more information on citation. For our purpose in this book, we will only consider the APA and the MLA styles, which appear to be the most commonly used styles across disciplines.

1. Book with one author

APA:

Giegerich, H.J. (1992). *English phonology: An introduction.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

MLA:

Giegerich, Heinz J. *English Phonology: An Introduction.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1992.

2. Book with more than one author

APA:

Goodglass, H. & Kaplan, E. (1983). *The assessment of aphasia and related disorders.* Philadelphia: Lea.

MLA:

Goodglass Harold and Edith Kaplan. *The Assessment of Aphasia and Related Disorders.* Philadelphia: Lea, 1983.

3. Edited book

APA:

Malmkjær, K. Ed. (2002). *The linguistic encyclopedia*. London and New York: Routledge.

MLA:

Malmkjær, Kirsten, Ed. *The Linguistics Encyclopedia*. London and New York: Routledge, 2002.

4. Article in encyclopedia

APA

Liberman, P. (1997). "Speech." *Collier's Encyclopedia.* 17. 430-432.

MLA

Liberman, Prince. " Speech". *Collier's Encyclopedia.* 17: 430-432.

5. Magazine/newspaper article

APA:
Nwachukwu, C. (2007 September) "Much ado about new Fuji king". *The Guardian,* p.39.

MLA:
Nwachukwu, Cletus. "Much Ado about New Fuji King" *The Guardian,* 1 September 2007:39.

6. Scholarly journal article

APA:
Sunday, A.B. (2011) "Verbal assault in Fuji music. The case of Sikiru Ayinde Barriser and Kolilington Ayinla" *Journal of Pragmatics,* 43:5; 1403-1421

MLA:
Sunday, Adesina B. "Verbal Assault in Fuji Music: The Case of Sikiru Ayinde Barrister and Kollington Ayinla." *Journal of Pragmatics* 43:5 (2011): 1403-1421.

7. Articles with no author listed

APA:
Earth movement (2008, July 12). *The Nation. 7*

MLA:
"Earth movement" *The Nation* 12 July 2008:7

8. Article reproduced in CD-ROM database

APA:
Chambers, V. (2000, July). "The secret latina," *Essence* (p. 102 in original publication). Retrieved January 20, 2001 from EBSCO Host CD-ROM database.

MLA:
Chambers, Veronica. "The Secret Latina" *Essence* July 2000 (p.102 in original publication) EBSCO Host CD-ROM database. Retrieved 20 Jan. 2001.
(Adapted from Gregory 202:145).

9. Article in electronic journal

APA:

Sunday A.B. (2009) "Ideologies on display: A Nigerian Election Petition Tribunal ruling". *California Linguistic Notes.* Volume xxxiv No. 2 Spring. Pp 1-21.(California State University, U.S.A)

MLA:

Sunday A.B. "Ideologies on Display: A Nigerian Election Petition Tribunal Ruling." *California Linguistic Notes.* Volume xxxiv No. 2 Spring. (2009) 1-21. 15. Feb. 2011 http://hss.fullerton.edu/linguistics/cln/.

10. Chapter in edited book

APA:

Bamgbose, A. (1995). "English in the Nigerian environment." In A.Bamgbose, A. Banjo, A. Thomas. Eds. *New Englishes: A West African Perspective*. Ibadan: Mosuro, 1995.9-33.

MLA:

Bamgbose, Ayo. "English in the Nigerian Environment." *New Englishes: A West African Perspective*. A. Bamgbose, A. Banjo, A. Thomas. Eds. Ibadan: Mosuro, 1995.9-33.

11. Personal interview

APA:

Oyeleye, Lekan. (2011 Jan.17).Personal Interview.

MLA:

Oyeleye, Lekan. Personal Interview. Jan.17 2011.

12. Dissertation and Thesis

APA:

Akinjobi, A. (2004). "A phonological investigation of vowel weakening and unstressed syllable obscuration in Educated Yoruba English". Ph.D. Thesis. Department of Linguistics and African Languages. University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

MLA:

Akinjobi, Adenike. "A phonological investigation of vowel weakening and unstressed syllable obscuration in Educated Yoruba English." Ph.D. Thesis. Department of Linguistics and African Languages. University of Ibadan, Ibadan, (2004)

4.0 CONCLUSION

Speech writing is not a casual activity. For the message to be well passed to the audience, the writer has to incorporate different techniques. There is no aspect of the speech that is not important. The same vigour should be expended on all the segments. If an aspect of the speech is neglected, it may mar the other aspects of the speech. When documenting the materials that you have used in the speech, try to be consistent in the manual of style you use. If the occasion demands a particular style sheet, adhere to it strictly. If it is a style sheet that you are not familiar with, make adequate research on it, to use it correctly.

5.0 SUMMARY

With this unit, we have come to the end of our discussion on all the major segments of the speech. You will learn more about these segments by practice writing essays and speeches even when you do not have occasions to deliver them. You learn to write by writing. In the next module, you will learn about some steps to take to perfect your speech.

6.0 TUTOR-MARKED ASSIGNMENT

i. Use both the APA and the MLA styles to document five different materials.
ii. Discuss the major techniques of writing the conclusion.
iii. State different ways in which the writer assists the audience in understanding the body of the speech.
iv. Explain five thought-flow patterns.
v. Identify some of the techniques for the body and the conclusion that can be used for the introduction.
vi. Use three different thought flow pattern to write a paragraph on "The evil in money laundering"

7.0 REFERENCES/FURTHER READING

Gregory, H. (2002). *Public Speaking: For Colleges and Career*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lucas, S. E. (2001). *The Art of Public Speaking.* Boston: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Powers, J. H. (1993). *Public Speaking: The Lively Art.* New York: HarperCollins College Publishers

Winterowd, W. R. (1975). *The Contemporary Writer*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Oyeleye, A. L. (2009). "Academic Style Guidelines and the Gathering of Research Information". In *Oyeleye L. Ed. Use of English: A tertiary coursebook*: Ibadan: Agbo Areo Publishers. Pp 125-133.