

organizing and outlining

chapter 8

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introduction

Meg jaunted to the front of the classroom—her trusty index cards in one hand and her water bottle in the other. It was the mid-term presentation in her entomology class, a course she enjoyed more than her other classes. The night before, Meg had spent hours scouring the web for information on the Woody Adelgid, an insect that has ravaged hemlock tree populations in the United States in recent years. But when she made it to the podium and finished her well-written and captivating introduction, her speech began to fall apart. Her index cards were a jumble of unorganized information, not linked together by any unifying theme or purpose. As she stumbled through lists of facts, Meg—along with her peers and instructor—quickly realized that her presentation had all the necessary parts to be compelling, but that those parts were not organized into a coherent and convincing speech.

Giving a speech or presentation can be a daunting task for anyone, especially inexperienced public speakers or students in introductory speech courses. Speaking to an audience can also be a rewarding experience for speakers who are willing to put in the extra effort needed to craft rhetorical masterpieces. Indeed, speeches and presentations must be crafted. Such a design requires that speakers do a great deal of preparatory work, like selecting a specific topic and deciding on a particular purpose for their speech. Once the topic and purpose have been decided on, a thesis statement can be prepared. After these

chapter objectives:

After reading this chapter, you should be able to:

1. Select a topic appropriate to the audience and occasion.
2. Formulate a specific purpose statement that identifies precisely what you will do in your speech.
3. Craft a thesis statement that clearly and succinctly summarizes the argument you will make in your speech.
4. Identify and arrange the main points of your speech according to one of many organizational styles discussed in this chapter.
5. Connect the points of your speech to one another.
6. Create a preparation and speaking outline for your speech.

things are established, speakers must select the main points of their speech, which should be organized in a way that illuminates the speaker's perspective, research agenda, or solution to a problem. In a nutshell, effective public speeches are focused on particular topics and contain one or more main points that are relevant to both the topic and the audience. For all of these components to come together convincingly, organizing and outlining must be done prior to giving a speech.

This chapter addresses a variety of strategies needed to craft the body of public speeches. The chapter begins at

chapter outline:

- **Introduction**
- **The Topic, Purpose and Thesis**
 - Selecting a Topic
 - Formulating a Purpose Statement
 - Writing a Thesis Statement
- **Writing the body of your speech**
 - Selecting Main Points
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- **Organizational Styles**
 - Chronological
 - Topical
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- **Connecting Your Main Points**
 - Transitional Statements
 - Internal Previews
 - Summaries
- **Outlining Your Speech**
 - Outline Types
 - Outline Structure
 - Preparation Outline
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the initial stages of speechwriting—selecting an important and relevant topic for your audience. The more difficult task of formulating a purpose statement is discussed next. A purpose

Chaos is inherent in all compounded things. Strive on with diligence.

~ Buddha

statement drives the organization of the speech since different purposes (e.g., informational or persuasive) necessitate different types of evidence and presentation styles. Next, the chapter offers a variety of organizational strategies for the body of your speech. Not every strategy will be appropriate for every speech, so the strengths and weaknesses of the organizational styles are also addressed. The chapter then discusses ways to connect your main points and to draw links between your main points and the purpose you have chosen. In the final section of this chapter, one of the most important steps in speechwriting, outlining your speech, is discussed. The chapter provides the correct format for outlines as well as information on how to write a preparation outline and a speaking outline.

the topic, purpose statement and thesis

Before any work can be done on crafting the body of your speech or presentation, you must first do some prep work—selecting a topic, formulating a purpose statement, and crafting a thesis statement. In doing so, you lay the foundation for your speech by making important decisions about what you will speak about and for what purpose you will speak. These decisions will influence and guide the entire speechwriting process, so it is wise to think carefully and critically during these beginning stages.

I think reading is important in any form. I think a person who's trying to learn to like reading should start off reading about a topic they are interested in, or a person they are interested in.

~ Ice Cube

selecting a topic

Generally, speakers focus on one or more interrelated topics—relatively broad concepts, ideas, or problems that are relevant for particular audiences.

Questions for Selecting a Topic

- What important events are occurring locally, nationally and internationally?
- What do I care about most?
- Is there someone or something I can advocate for?
- What makes me angry/happy?
- What beliefs/attitudes do I want to share?
- Is there some information the audience needs to know?

The most common way that speakers discover topics is by simply observing what is happening around them—at their school, in their local government, or around the world. This is because all speeches are brought into existence as a result of circumstances, the multiplicity of activities going on at any one given moment in a particular place. For instance, presidential candidates craft short policy speeches that can be employed during debates, interviews, or town hall meetings during campaign seasons. When one of the candidates realizes he or she will not be successful, the particular circumstances change and the person must craft different kinds of speeches—a concession speech, for example. In other words, their campaign for presidency, and its many related events, necessitates the creation of various speeches. Rhetorical theorist Lloyd Bitzer (1968) describes this as the rhetorical situation. Put simply, the **rhetorical situation** is the combination of factors that make speeches and other discourse meaningful and a useful way to change the way something is. Student government leaders, for example, speak or write to other students when their campus is facing tuition or fee increases, or when students have achieved something spectacular, like lobbying campus administrators for lower student fees and succeeding. In either case, it is the situation that makes their speeches appropriate and useful for their audience of students and university employees. More importantly, they speak when there is an opportunity to change a university policy or to alter

the way students think or behave in relation to a particular event on campus.

But you need not run for president or student government in order to give a meaningful speech. On the contrary, opportunities abound for those interested in engaging speech as a tool for change. Perhaps the simplest way to find a topic is to ask yourself a few questions. See the textbox entitled “Questions for Selecting a Topic” for a few questions that will help you choose a topic.

There are other questions you might ask yourself, too, but these should lead you to at least a few topical choices. The most important work that these questions do is to locate topics within your pre-existing sphere of knowledge and interest. David Zarefsky (2010) also identifies brainstorming as a way to develop speech topics, a strategy that can be helpful if the questions listed in the textbox did not yield an appropriate or interesting topic.

Starting with a topic you are already interested in will likely make writing and presenting your speech a more enjoyable and meaningful experience. It means that your entire speechwriting process will focus on something you find important and that you can present



this information to people who stand to benefit from your speech.

Once you have answered these questions and narrowed your responses, you are still not done selecting your topic. For instance, you might have decided that you really care about conserving habitat for bog turtles. This is a very broad topic and could easily lead to a dozen different speeches. To resolve this problem, speakers must also consider the audience to whom they will speak, the scope of their presentation, and the outcome they wish to achieve. If the bog turtle enthusiast knows that she will be talking to a local zoning board and that she hopes to stop them from allowing businesses to locate on important bog turtle habitat, her topic can easily morph into something more specific. Now, her speech topic is two-pronged: bog turtle habitat and zoning rules.



formulating the purpose statements

By honing in on a very specific topic, you begin the work of formulating your **purpose statement**. In short, a purpose statement clearly states what it is you would like to achieve. Purpose statements are especially helpful for guiding you as you prepare your speech. When deciding which main points, facts, and examples to include, you should simply ask yourself whether they are relevant not only to the topic you have selected, but also whether they support the goal you outlined in your purpose statement. The **general purpose statement** of a speech may be to inform, to persuade, to inspire, to celebrate, to mourn, or to entertain. Thus, it is common to frame a **specific purpose statement** around

one of these goals. According to O’Hair, Stewart, and Rubenstein (2004), a specific purpose statement “expresses both the topic and the general speech purpose in action form and in terms of the specific objectives you hope to achieve” (p. 111). For instance, the bog turtle habitat activist might write the following specific purpose statement: *At the end of my speech, the Clarke County Zoning Commission will understand that locating businesses in bog turtle habitat is a poor choice with a range of negative consequences.* In short, the general purpose statement lays out the broader goal of the speech while the specific purpose statement describes precisely what the speech is intended to do.

Success demands singleness of purpose.

~ Vince Lombardi

writing the thesis statement

The specific purpose statement is a tool that you will use as you write your talk, but it is unlikely that it will appear verbatim in your speech. Instead, you will want to convert the specific purpose statement into a **thesis statement** that you will share with your audience. A thesis statement encapsulates the main points of a speech in just a sentence or two, and it is designed to give audiences a quick preview of what the entire speech will be about. The thesis statement for a speech, like the thesis of a research-based essay, should be easily identifiable and ought to very succinctly sum up the main points you will present. Moreover, the thesis statement should reflect the general purpose of your speech; if your purpose is to persuade or educate, for instance, the thesis should alert audience members to this goal. The bog turtle enthusiast might prepare the following thesis statement based on her specific purpose statement: Bog turtle habitats are sensitive to a variety of activities, but land development is particularly harmful to unstable habitats. The Clarke County Zoning Commission

should protect bog turtle habitats by choosing to prohibit business from locating in these habitats. In this example, the thesis statement outlines the main points and implies that the speaker will be arguing for certain zoning practices.



writing the body of your speech

Once you have finished the important work of deciding what your speech will be about, as well as formulating the purpose statement and crafting the thesis, you should turn your attention to writing the body of your speech. All of your main points are contained in the body, and normally this section is prepared well before you ever write the introduction or conclusion. The body of your speech will consume the largest amount of time to present; and it is the opportunity for you to elaborate on facts, evidence, examples, and opinions that support your thesis statement and do the work you have outlined in the specific purpose statement. Combining these various elements into a cohesive and compelling speech, however, is not without its difficulties, the first of which is deciding which elements to include and how they ought to be organized to best suit your purpose.

Good design is making something intelligible and memorable. Great design is making something memorable and meaningful.

~ Dieter Rams

The **main points** of any speech are the key pieces of information or arguments contained within the talk or presentation. In other words, the main points are what your audience should remember from your talk. Unlike facts or examples, main points are broad and can be encapsulated in just a sentence or two and represent the big ideas you want to convey to your audience. In general, speeches contain two to seven main points (Bower, 1990) that collectively lead to some understanding by the end of the speech. For informative speeches, main points might include historical details that advance a particular understanding of an event. For a persuasive speech, however, your main points may be your separate arguments that, when combined, help to make your case. When writing your main points, you may want to do so in parallel structure. **Parallel structure** refers to main points that are worded using the same structure, perhaps by starting with a common introductory clause (Verderber, Verderber, & Sellnow, 2008). Main points do not stand alone; instead, speakers must substantiate their main points by offering up examples, statistics, facts, anecdotes, or other information that contribute to the audience's understanding of the main points. All of these things make up the **sub-points**, which are used to help prove the main points. This is where all of your research and supporting information comes into play.

organizational styles

After deciding which main points and sub-points you must include, you can get to work writing up the speech. Before you do so, however, it is helpful to consider how you will organize the ideas. From presenting historical information in chronological order as part of an informative speech to drawing a comparison between two ideas in a persuasive speech to offering up problems and solutions, there are many ways in which speakers can craft effective speeches. These are referred to as organizational styles, or templates

for organizing the main points of a speech.



chronological

When you speak about events that are linked together by time, it is sensible to engage the chronological organization style. In a **chronological speech**, main points are delivered according to when they happened and could be traced on a calendar or clock. Arranging main points in chronological order can be helpful when describing historical events to an audience as well as when the order of events is necessary to understand what you wish to convey. Informative speeches about a series of events most commonly engage the chronological style, as do many demonstrative speeches (e.g., how to bake a cake or build an airplane). Another time when the chronological style makes sense is when you tell the story of someone's life or career. For instance, a speech about Oprah Winfrey might be arranged chronologically (see textbox). In this case, the main points are arranged by following Winfrey's life from birth to the present time. Life events (e.g., birth, her early career, her life after ending the *Oprah Winfrey Show*) are connected together according to when they happened and highlight the progression of Winfrey's career. Organizing the speech in this way illustrates the interconnectedness of life events.

*Doing the best at this moment
puts you in the best place for
the next moment.*

~ Oprah Winfrey

Oprah Winfrey (Chronological Arrangement)

Thesis: Oprah's career can be understood by four key, interconnected life stages.

- I. Oprah's childhood was spent in rural Mississippi, where she endured sexual abuse from family members.
- II. Oprah's early career was characterized by stints on local radio and television networks in Nashville and Chicago.
- III. Oprah's tenure as host of the *Oprah Winfrey Show* began in 1986 and lasted until 2011, a period of time marked by much success.
- IV. Oprah's most recent media venture is OWN: The Oprah Winfrey Network, which plays host to a variety of television shows including *Oprah's Next Chapter*.

topical

When the main points of your speech center on ideas that are more distinct from one another, a topical organization style may be engaged. In a **topical speech**, main points are developed separately and are generally connected together within the introduction and conclusion. In other words, the topical style is crafted around main points and sub-points that are mutually exclusive but related to one another by virtue of the thesis. It makes sense to use the topical style when elements are connected to one another because of their relationship to the whole. A topical speech about the composition of a newspaper company can be seen in the following textbox. The main points are linked together by the fact that they are all a part of the same business. Although they are related in that way, the topical style illustrates the ways in which the four different departments function apart from one another. In this example, the

Composition of a Newspaper Company (Topical Arrangement)

Thesis: The newspaper has four primary departments.

- I. The advertising department sells display advertisements to local and national businesses.
- II. The editorial department produces the written content of the newspaper, including feature stories.
- III. The production department lays out the pages and manages pre-press work such as distilling the pages and processing colors.
- IV. The business department processes payments from advertisers, employee paperwork, and the bi-weekly payroll.

topical style is a good fit because the four departments are equally important to the function of the newspaper company.



spatial

Another way to organize the points of a speech is through a **spatial speech**, which arranges main points according to their physical and geographic relationships. The spatial style is an especially useful organization style when the main point's importance is derived from its location or directional focus. In other words, when the scene or the composition is a central aspect of the main points, the spatial style is an

appropriate way to deliver key ideas. Things can be described from top to bottom, inside to outside, left to right, north to south, and so on. Importantly, speakers using a spatial style should offer commentary about the placement of the main points as they move through the speech, alerting audience members to the location changes. For instance, a speech about The University of Georgia might be arranged spatially; in this example, the spatial organization frames the discussion in terms of the

campus layout. The spatial style is fitting since the differences in architecture and uses of space are related to particular geographic areas, making location a central organizing factor. As such, the spatial style highlights these location differences.



University of Georgia (Spatial Arrangement)

Thesis: The University of Georgia is arranged into four distinct sections, which are characterized by architectural and disciplinary differences.

- I. In North Campus, one will find the University's oldest building, a sprawling tree-lined quad, and the famous Arches, all of which are nestled against Athens' downtown district.
- II. In West Campus, dozens of dormitories provide housing for the University's large undergraduate population and students can regularly be found lounging outside or at one of the dining halls.
- III. In East Campus, students delight in newly constructed, modern buildings and enjoy the benefits of the University's health center, recreational facilities, and science research buildings.
- IV. In South Campus, pharmacy, veterinary, and biomedical science students traverse newly constructed parts of campus featuring well-kept landscaping and modern architecture.

comparative

When you need to discuss the similarities and differences between two or more things, a comparative organizational pattern can be employed. In **comparative speeches**, speakers may choose to compare things a couple different ways. First, you could compare two or more things as whole (e.g., discuss all traits of an apple and then all traits of an orange). Second, you could compare these things element by element (e.g., color of each, smell of each, AND taste of each). Some topics that are routinely spoken about comparatively include different cultures, different types of transportation, and even different types of coffee. A comparative speech outline about eastern and western cultures could look like this.

Eastern vs. Western Culture (Comparison Arrangement)

Thesis: There are a variety of differences between Eastern and Western cultures.

- I. Eastern cultures tend to be more collectivistic.
- II. Western cultures tend to be more individualistic.
- III. Eastern cultures tend to treat health issues holistically.
- IV. Western cultures tend to treat health issues more acutely.

In this type of speech, the list of comparisons, which should be substantiated with further evidence, could go on for any number of main points. The speech could also compare how two or more things are more alike than one might think. For instance, a speaker could discuss how singers Madonna and Lady Gaga share many similarities both in aesthetic style and in their music.



problem-solution

Sometimes it is necessary to share a problem and a solution with an audience. In cases like these, the **problem-solution speech** is an appropriate way to arrange the main points of a speech. One familiar example of speeches organized in this way is the political speeches that presidential hopefuls give in the United States. Often, candidates will begin their speech by describing a problem created by or, at the very least, left unresolved by the incumbent. Once they have established their view of the problem, they then go on to flesh out their proposed solution. The problem-solution style is especially useful when the speaker wants to convince the audience that they should take action in solving some problem. A political candidate seeking office might frame a speech using the problem-solution style (see textbox).

The difference between what we do and what we are capable of doing would suffice to solve most of the world's problems.

~ Mahatma Gandhi

Presidential Candidate's Speech (Problem-Solution Arrangement)

Thesis: The US energy crisis can be solved by electing me as president since I will devote resources to the production of renewable forms of energy.

- I. The United States is facing an energy crisis because we cannot produce enough energy ourselves to sustain the levels of activity needed to run the country. (problem)
- II. The current administration has failed to invest enough resources in renewable energy practices. (problem)
- III. We can help create a more stable situation if we work to produce renewable forms of energy within the United States. (solution)
- IV. If you vote for me, I will ensure that renewable energy creation is a priority. (solution)

This example illustrates the way in which a problem-solution oriented speech can be used to identify both a general problem (energy crisis) and a specific problem (incumbent's lack of action). Moreover, this example highlights two kinds of solutions: a general solution and a solution that is dependent on the speaker's involvement. The problem-solution speech is especially appropriate when the speaker desires to promote a particular solution as this offers audience members a way to become involved. Whether you are able to offer a specific solution or not, key to the problem-solution speech is a clear description of both the problem and the solution with clear links drawn between



the two. In other words, the speech should make specific connections between the problem and how the solution can be engaged to solve it.

causal

Similar to a problem-solution speech, a **causal** speech informs audience members about causes and effects that have already happened. In other words, a causal organization style first addresses some cause and then shares what effects resulted. A causal speech can be particularly effective when the speaker wants to share the relationship between two things, like the creation of a vaccine to help deter disease. An example of how a causal speech about a shingles vaccine might be designed follows:

Shingles Speech (Cause-Effect Arrangement)

Thesis: The prevalence of the disease shingles led to the invention of a vaccine.

- I. Shingles is a disease that causes painful, blistering rashes in up to one million Americans every year. (cause)
- II. In 2006, a vaccine for shingles was licensed in the United States and has been shown to reduce the likelihood that people over 60 years old will get shingles. (effect)

As the example illustrates, the basic components of the causal speech are the cause and the effect. Such an organizational style is useful when a speaker needs to share the results of a new program, discuss how one act led to another, or discuss the positive/negative outcomes of taking some action.

Every choice you make has an end result.

~ Zig Ziglar

Choosing an organizational style is an important step in the speechwriting process. As you formulate the purpose of your speech and generate the main points that you will need to include, selecting an appropriate organizational style will likely become easier. The topical, spatial, causal, comparative and chronological methods of arrangement may be better suited to informative speeches, whereas the refutation pattern may work well for a persuasive speech. Additionally, Chapter 16 offers additional organization styles suited for persuasive speeches, such as the refutation speech and Monroe's Motivated Sequence (Monroe, 1949). Next, we will look at statements that help tie all of your points together and the formal mode of organizing a speech by using outlines.



connecting your main points

Since main points are discrete and interconnected ideas, and since every speech contains more than one main point, it is necessary to strategically make connections between one point and another. To link the ideas of your speech, you will need to develop

Transitional Statements to Show Similarity and Difference	
To Show Similarity Between Points:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "Similarly" ▪ "In the same way" ▪ "Also" ▪ "Likewise" ▪ "In other words"
To Show Difference Between Points:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ "However" ▪ "Unlike the last point" ▪ "On the other hand" ▪ "Conversely" ▪ "In opposition" ▪ "Another view is that"

signposts, "words and gestures that allow you to move smoothly from one idea to the next throughout your speech, showing relationships between ideas and emphasizing important points" (Beebe & Beebe, 2005, p. 204). There are several ways to incorporate signposts into your speech, and it is important to do so since these small signals keep listeners engaged and informed about where you are in the speech. Transitional statements, internal previews, and summaries are all signposts that can help keep your speech moving along.

If you cry 'forward', you must without fail make plain in what direction to go.

~ Anton Chekhov

One way to connect points is to include **transitional statements**. Transitional statements are phrases or sentences that lead from one distinct-but-connected idea to another. They are used to alert audiences to the fact that you are getting ready to discuss something else. When moving from one point to another, your transition may just be a word or short phrase. For instance, you might say "next," "also," or "moreover." You can also enumerate your speech points and signal transitions by starting each point with "First," "Second," "Third," et cetera. The textbox above offers a

short list of transitional statements that are helpful when you need to show similarity or difference between the points. You might also incorporate non-verbal transitions, such as brief pauses or a movement across the stage. Pausing to look at your audience, stepping out from behind a podium, or even raising or lowering the rate of your voice can signal to audience members that you are transitioning.



Another way to incorporate signposts into your speech is by offering **internal previews** within your speech. Internal previews, like the name implies, lay out what will occur during your speech. They tell the audience what to expect. Because audience members cannot flip back and forth between pages, internal previews help keep them on track and aware of what to be listening for and what to remember. Internal previews are similar to the preview statements you will learn about in the chapter on introductions and conclusions (Chapter 9), except that they appear within the

body of your speech and are more small-scale than the broad preview you should provide at the beginning of your speech. In general, internal previews are longer than transitional statements. If you were giving a problem-solution speech, you might include a variation of this internal preview: “Now that I have described the problems, let’s now discuss some ways that we can solve these issues.” The internal preview offers a natural segue from problems to solutions and makes audience members aware that another point is about to be made.

When speeches are longer than a few minutes and include complex ideas and information, speakers often include **summaries** within the body of their speech. Summaries provide a recap of what has already been said, making it more likely that audiences will remember the points that they hear again. Additionally, summaries can be combined with internal previews to alert audience members that the next point builds on those that they have already heard.



The speaker below has just finished discussing several reasons trout habitats need federal protection, and next he will discuss some ways that audience members can agitate for government action on these issues. His combined internal preview and summary would look something like this:

So, in review, trout habitats need federal protection because they bear a large pollution burden, they mostly exist on private property, and they are indicators of other environmental health issues. Next, I will discuss some ways that you can encourage the

federal government to protect these habitats

In this example, the speaker first reminds audience members of what he has already addressed and then tells them what he will talk about next. By repeating the main points in summary fashion, the speaker gives audience members another opportunity to consider his main ideas.

Good communication does not mean that you have to speak in perfectly formed sentences and paragraphs. It isn't about slickness. Simple and clear go a long way.

~ John Kotter

outlining your speech

Most speakers and audience members would agree that an organized speech is both easier to present as well as more persuasive. Public speaking teachers especially believe in the power of organizing your speech, which is why they encourage (and often require) that you create an outline for your speech. **Outlines**, or textual arrangements of all the various elements of a speech, are a very common way of organizing a speech before it is delivered. Most extemporaneous speakers keep their outlines with them during the speech as a way to ensure that they do not leave out any important elements and to keep them on track. Writing an outline is also important to the speechwriting process since doing so forces the speakers to think about the main points and sub-points, the examples they wish to include, and the ways in which these elements correspond to one another. In short, the outline functions both as an organization tool and as a reference for delivering a speech.

outline types

There are two types of outlines. The first outline you will write is called the **preparation outline**. Also called a working, practice, or rough outline, the

preparation outline is used to work through the various components of your speech in an inventive format. Stephen E. Lucas (2004) put it simply: “The preparation outline is just what its name implies—an outline that helps you prepare the speech” (p. 248). When writing the preparation outline, you should focus on finalizing the purpose and thesis statements, logically ordering your main points, deciding where supporting material should be included, and refining the overall organizational pattern of your speech. As you write the preparation outline, you may find it necessary to rearrange your points or to add or subtract supporting material. You may also realize that some of your main points are sufficiently supported while others are lacking. The final draft of your preparation outline should include full sentences, making up a complete script of your entire speech. In most cases, however, the preparation outline is reserved for planning purposes only and is translated into a speaking outline before you deliver the speech.

A **speaking outline** is the outline you will prepare for use when delivering the speech. The speaking outline is much more succinct than the preparation outline and includes brief phrases or words that remind the speakers of the points they need to make, plus supporting material and signposts (Beebe & Beebe, 2005). The words or phrases used on the speaking outline should briefly encapsulate all of the information needed to prompt the speaker to accurately deliver the speech. Although some cases call for reading a speech verbatim from the full-sentence outline, in most cases speakers will simply refer to their



speaking outline for quick reminders and to ensure that they do not omit any important information. Because it uses just words or short phrases, and not full sentences, the speaking outline can easily be transferred to index cards that can be referenced during a speech.

outline structure

Because an outline is used to arrange all of the elements of your speech, it makes sense that the outline itself has an organizational hierarchy and a common format. Although there are a variety of outline styles, generally they follow the same pattern. Main ideas are preceded by Roman numerals (I, II, III, etc.). Sub-points are preceded by capital letters (A, B, C, etc.), then

Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3, etc.), and finally lowercase letters (a, b, c, etc.). Each level of subordination is also differentiated from its predecessor by indenting a few spaces. Indenting makes it easy to find your main points, sub-points, and the supporting points and examples below them. Since there are three sections to your speech—introduction, body, and conclusion—your outline needs to include all of them. Each of these sections is titled and the main points start with Roman numeral I.

In addition to these formatting suggestions, there are some additional elements that should be included at the beginning of your outline: the title,

topic, specific purpose statement, and thesis statement. These elements are helpful to you, the speechwriter, since they remind you what, specifically, you are trying to accomplish in your speech. They are also helpful to anyone reading and assessing your outline since knowing what you want to accomplish will determine how they perceive the elements included in your outline. Additionally, you should write out the transitional statements that you will use to alert audiences that you are moving from one point to another. These are included in parentheses between main points. At the end of the outlines, you should include bibliographic information for any outside resources you mention during the speech. These should be cited using whatever citations style your professor requires. The textbox entitled “Outline Formatting Guide” provides an example of the appropriate outline format.

*If you do not change
direction, you may end up
where you are heading.
~ Lao Tzu*

Outline Formatting Guide

Title: Organizing Your Public Speech

Topic: Organizing public speeches

Specific Purpose Statement: To inform listeners about the various ways in which they can organize their public speeches.

Thesis Statement: A variety of organizational styles can be used to organize public speeches.

Introduction

Paragraph that gets the attention of the audience, establishes goodwill with the audience, states the purpose of the speech, and previews the speech and its structure.

(Transition)

Body

I. Main point

A. Sub-point

B. Sub-point

C. Sub-point

1. Supporting point

2. Supporting point

(Transition)

II. Main point

A. Sub-point

1. Supporting point

a. Example

b. Example

2. Supporting point

B. Sub-point

(Transition)

Conclusion

Paragraph that prepares the audience for the end of the speech, presents any final appeals, and summarizes and wraps up the speech.

Bibliography

preparation outline

This chapter contains the preparation and speaking outlines for a short speech. The author of this chapter gave about how small organizations can work on issues related to climate change (see appendices). In this example, the title, specific purpose, thesis, and list of visual aids precedes the speech. Depending on your instructor's requirements, you may need to include these details plus additional information. It is also a good idea to keep these details at the top of your document as you write the speech since they will help keep you on track to developing an organized speech that is in line with your specific purpose and helps prove your thesis. At the end of the chapter, in Appendix A, you can find a full length example of a Preparation (Full Sentence) Outline



speaking outline

In Appendix B, the Preparation Outline is condensed into just a few short key words or phrases that will remind speakers to include all of their main points and supporting information. The introduction and conclusion are not included since they will simply be inserted from the Preparation Outline. It is easy to forget your catchy attention-getter or final thoughts you have prepared for your audience, so it is best to include the full sentence versions even in your speaking outline.

using the speaking outline

Once you have prepared the outline and are almost ready to give your speech, you should decide how you want to format your outline for presentation. Many speakers like to carry a stack of papers with them when they speak, but others are more comfortable with a smaller stack of index cards with the outline copied onto them. Moreover, speaking instructors often have requirements for how you should format the speaking outline. Whether you decide to use index cards or the printed outline, here are a few tips. First, write large enough so that you do not have to bring the

cards or pages close to your eyes to read them. Second, make sure you have the cards/pages in the correct order and bound together in some way so that they do not get out of order. Third, just in case the cards/pages do get out of order (this happens too often!), be sure that you number each in the top right corner so you can quickly and easily get things organized. Fourth, try not to fiddle with the cards/pages when you are speaking. It is best to lay them down if you have a podium or table in front of you. If not, practice reading from them in front of a mirror. You should be able to look down quickly, read the text, and then return to your gaze to the audience.

Any intelligent fool can make things bigger and more complex... It takes a touch of genius - and a lot of courage to move in the opposite direction.

~ Albert Einstein

conclusion

If you have been using this chapter to guide you through the organizational stages of writing your speech, you have likely discovered that getting organized is very challenging but also very

rewarding. Like cleaning up a messy kitchen or organizing your closet, doing the more tedious work of organizing your speech is an activity you will appreciate most once it is done. From the very beginning stages of organization, like choosing a topic and writing a thesis statement, to deciding how best to arrange the main points of your speech and outlining, getting organized is one step toward an effective and engaging speech or presentation.

Had Meg, the student mentioned in the opening anecdote, taken some time to work through the organizational process, it is likely her speech would have gone much more smoothly when she finished her introduction. It is very common for beginning speakers to spend a great deal of their time preparing catchy introductions, fancy PowerPoint presentations, and nice conclusions, which are all very important. However, the body of any speech is where the speaker must make effective arguments, provide helpful information, entertain, and the like, so it makes sense that speakers should devote a proportionate amount of time to these areas as well. By following this chapter, as well as studying the other chapters in this text, you should be prepared to craft interesting, compelling, and organized speeches.



chapter review questions and activities

review questions

1. Name three questions you should ask yourself when selecting a topic.
2. What is the difference between a general and specific purpose statement? Write examples of each for each of these topics: dog training, baking a cake, climate change.
3. How does the thesis statement differ from the specific purpose statement?
4. Which speech organization style arranges points by time? Which one arranges points by direction? Which one arranges points according to a five-step sequence?
5. Which speech organization styles are best suited for persuasive speeches?
6. Define signpost. What are three types of signposts?
7. What is the correct format for a speech outline?

activities

1. Reverse outlining.

During a classmate's speech, pay special attention to the organization style that he or she employs. As they give their speech, try to construct an outline based on what you hear. If your classmate has followed many of the suggestions provided in this and other chapters, you should be able to identify and replicate the structure of the speech. Compare your "reverse" outline with the speaking outline. Discuss any areas of discrepancy.

2. Topic Proposal Workshop.

Often, selecting a topic can be one of the most challenging steps in developing a speech for your class. Prior to class, review the textbox "Questions for selecting a topic" on page 8-2. Answer these questions and choose a tentative topic. Write up a short paragraph about your topic that describes its importance, why it interests you, and what you would like to convey to an audience about your proposed topic. In class, meet with two or three additional students to discuss and workshop each of your topics. As you discuss your topic with others, jot down what questions they had, what aspects they seemed to find most interesting, and any suggestions your peers might have. Once the workshop is complete, proceed with narrowing your topic to something manageable.

glossary

Chronological Speech

A speech in which the main points are delivered according to when they happened and could be traced on a calendar or clock.

Comparative Speech

A speech in which two or more objects, ideas, beliefs, events, places, or things are compared or contrasted with one another.

Causal Speech

A speech that informs audience members about causes and effects that have already happened.

General Purpose Statement

The overarching goal of a speech; for instance, to inform, to persuade, to inspire, to celebrate, to mourn, or to entertain.

Internal Previews

Short descriptions of what a speaker will do and say during a speech; may be at the beginning and within the body of a speech.

Main Points

The key pieces of information or arguments contained within a talk or presentation.

Monroe's Motivated Sequence

An organization style that is designed to motivate the audience to take a particular action and is characterized by a five-step sequence: (1) attention, (2) need, (3) satisfaction, (4), visualization, and (5) action appeal.

Organizational Styles

Templates for organizing the main points of a speech that are rooted in traditions of public discourse and can jumpstart the speechwriting process.

Outline

Hierarchical textual arrangement of all the various elements of a speech.

Parallel Structure

Main points that are worded using the same structure.

Preparation Outline

A full-sentence outline that is used during the planning stages to flesh out ideas, arrange main points, and to rehearse the speech; could be used as a script if presenting a manuscript style speech.

Problem-Solution Speech

A speech in which problems and solutions are presented alongside one another with a clear link between a problem and its solution.

Refutation Speech

A speech that anticipates the audience's opposition, then brings attention to the tensions between the two sides, and finally refutes them using evidential support.

Rhetorical Situation

According to Lloyd Bitzer, "a complex of persons, events, objects, and relations presenting an actual or potential exigence which can be completely or partially removed if discourse, introduced into the situation, can so constrain human decision or action as to bring about the significant modification of the exigence" (1968, p. 6).

Signposts

According to Beebe and Beebe, "words and gestures that allow you to move smoothly from one idea to the next throughout your speech, showing relationships between ideas and emphasizing important points" (2005, p. 204).

Spatial Speech

A speech in which the main points are arranged according to their physical and geographic relationships.

Speaking Outline

A succinct outline that uses words or short phrases to represent the components of a speech and that is used during speech delivery.

Specific Purpose Statement

A sentence of two that describe precisely what the speech is intended to do.

Sub-Points

Information that is used to support the main points of a speech.

Summaries

Short recaps of what has already been said; used to remind the audience of the points already addressed.

Thesis Statement

A one- or two-sentence encapsulation of the main points of a speech, also called the central idea.

Topical Speech

A speech in which main points are developed separately and are generally connected together within the introduction and conclusion.

Transitional Statements

Phrases or sentences that lead from one distinct-but-connected idea to another.

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Appendix A

Example Preparation (Full Sentence) Outline

Title: For the Fish: Climate Work By and For Fishers

Specific Purpose: To persuade trout fishers that climate change is a threat to coldwater fisheries and that they should organize to create collective change to the environmental issues surrounding climate change.

Thesis: Trout fisheries are endangered by climate change, but fishers can (and should) work to mitigate these issues.

Visual Aids: PowerPoint presentation

Introduction

Most of you have heard about climate change and have wondered whether or how it might be affecting trout fisheries. Unfortunately, climate scientists' predictions about climate change seem to indicate that trout fisheries may bear a number of consequences if climate change continues to go unbridled. However, we also know that many of the worst effects of climate change can be mitigated if we engage in collective action now. In this speech, I will begin by offering a brief history of climate science, then describe how these issues affect trout fisheries, and finally offer some examples of how we can personally and collectively work to mitigate these issues.

Body

I. Climate change is not a recent invention of a few liberal scientists. On the contrary, scientists have been talking about climate change since the mid-1800s (Weart, 2009).

A. In 1859, Tyndall discovers some gases block infrared radiation. He believes this may cause a change in climate.

B. In 1896, Arrhenius publishes the first calculation of global warming from human CO₂ emissions.

C. From 1870-1920, the Second Industrial Revolution takes place.

D. In 1938, Callendar argues that CO₂ greenhouse global warming is under way.

[... *history lesson proceeds* ...]

(*Summary:* In short, this history lesson teaches us that Earth has been getting warmer.)

(*Preview:* Next, let's look at how climate change may be affecting trout fisheries.)

II. Climate change appears to have some serious consequences for trout fisheries. I will discuss four ways in which climate change may be said to negatively influence trout fisheries.

A. First, changing weather patterns brings more or less water to some parts of Earth.

1. Trout fisheries rely on a steady flow of clean, cold water. Too much or too little can quickly destroy trout habitats.

2. Some areas may experience severe droughts, another threat to trout fisheries.

B. Second, warming land and aquatic temperatures lead to a reduction in available trout habitat.

1. Changing temperatures influence predator/prey patterns.

2. Habitat reduction due to warmer temperatures may increase competition between cold- and warm-water fishes.

C. Third, stream flow patterns may change, affecting availability of aquatic insects.

And fourth, brook trout may be especially vulnerable.

1. Previous brook trout decimation has been related to habitat loss.

2. Climate change could exacerbate this by causing further habitat destruction.

(*Summary:* Although these challenges are large scale, there is some hope that we can mitigate these issues.)

(*Preview:* Next, I will discuss some ways that individuals and collectives can help reverse some of the issues caused by climate change.)

III. There are two key areas in which we can mitigate climate change: personal actions and collective actions.

A. Personally, individuals can make changes in their everyday lives (Sorenen, 2008).

1. Individuals can reduce CO2 emissions by driving less or not at all. Instead they could ride a bike or take public transit.

2. Individuals can also reduce energy consumption by changing usage patterns, like drying their clothes outside instead of using an electric dryer.

3. Individuals could help alleviate one of the largest contributors to climate change, overpopulation, by preventing unwanted births.

B. Collectively, there are several actions we can take to mitigate climate change (Cuomo, 2010).

1. Collectives should lobby policy makers to make serious changes:

a. Reduce fossil fuel consumption.

b. Create caps on industrial emissions.

c. Encourage and support renewable and sustainable energy.

2. U.S. should support Kyoto Treaty, which was passed in 2005.

Conclusion

It should be clear at this point that climate change is an issue that trout fishers will have to deal with in the future. Although the issues are large and daunting, I have provided some clear examples of how we can both personally and collectively mitigate these issues. I hope you will consider taking at least some of my advice today. I will leave you with something that Henrik Tikkanen once said: “Because we don’t think about future generations, they will never forget us.”

Appendix B

Example Speaking Outline (Excluding Introduction and Conclusion)

I. Climate science is not new (Weart, 2009).

- A. 1859 – Tyndall
- B. 1896 – Arrhenius
- C. 1870-1920 – Second Industrial Revolution
- D. 1938 – Callendar

[... *history lesson proceeds* ...]

(*Summary*: In short, this history lesson teaches us that Earth has been getting warmer.)

(*Preview*: Next, let's look at how climate change may be affecting trout fisheries.)

II. Climate change is bad for trout in four ways.

- A. Weather patterns
 - 1. Too much/little rain is bad
 - 2. Droughts
- B. Warming leads to habitat reduction
 - 1. Predator/prey patterns.
 - 2. Competition between cold- and warm-water fishes.
- C. Stream flow patterns may change
- D. Brook trout vulnerable
 - 1. Population decimated by habitat loss
 - 2. Exacerbated by climate change

(*Summary*: Although these challenges are large scale, there is some hope that we can mitigate these issues.)

(*Preview*: Next, I will discuss some ways that individuals and collectives can help reverse some of the issues caused by climate change.)

III. Personal and collective mitigation

- A. Personal (Sorenen, 2008)
 - 1. Reduce CO2 emissions
 - 2. Reduce energy consumption
 - 3. Birth control
- B. Collective (Cuomo, 2010)
 - 1. Lobby for:
 - a. Reduce fossil fuel consumption
 - b. Create caps on industrial emissions
 - c. Encourage and support renewable and sustainable energy
 - 2. Support Kyoto