1989

A descriptive study of the procedures and practices used by presentation skills trainers in the Silicon Valley

Shelly K. Stein
San Jose State University

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.sjsu.edu/etd_theses

Recommended Citation

Stein, Shelly K., "A descriptive study of the procedures and practices used by presentation skills trainers in the Silicon Valley" (1989). *Master's Theses*. 3229.
DOI: <https://doi.org/10.31979/etd.wmf5-9q22>
https://scholarworks.sjsu.edu/etd_theses/3229

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Master's Theses and Graduate Research at SJSU ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Master's Theses by an authorized administrator of SJSU ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact scholarworks@sjsu.edu.

INFORMATION TO USERS

The most advanced technology has been used to photograph and reproduce this manuscript from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

University Microfilms International
A Bell & Howell Information Company
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
313/761-4700 800/521-0600

Order Number 1339655

**A descriptive study of the procedures and practices used by
presentation skills trainers in the Silicon Valley**

Stein, Shelly Katherine, M.A.

San Jose State University, 1989

U·M·I

300 N. Zeeb Rd.
Ann Arbor, MI 48106

A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF THE PROCEDURES AND PRACTICES USED BY
PRESENTATION SKILLS TRAINERS IN THE SILICON VALLEY

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department of Communication Studies
San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts

By

Shelly K. Stein

December, 1989

APPROVED FOR THE DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION STUDIES

Dr. Jo Sprague

Dr. Timothy Hegstrom

Dr. James Stull

APPROVED FOR THE UNIVERSITY

Abstract

The importance of presentation skills as a component of human communication is reflected in the amount of research devoted to studying public speaking in the classroom. Public speaking is one of the most important communication skills for individuals in business and industry where much presentation skills instruction takes place. The literature on presentation skills training reveals that there is a lack of understanding of what skills are needed and what methods of instruction are most effective. This research is undertaken as a step toward establishing a base of knowledge and understanding of what methods are most effective in presentation skills training.

In this study, data were collected on how such training is conducted and what similarities and differences exist between teaching and training. Interviews of professionals in the San Francisco/San Jose bay area included persons involved in academia as well as communication trainers in organizations. Data are presented in categories according to academic/nonacademic affiliation, experience, and current presentation skills training activities. From the interviews, several training programs were selected as representative. From these programs, an archetype of a typical presentation skills program was produced. A detailed content outline is provided along with a modified version of a typical program evaluation form.

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my gratitude to my friend and mentor, Jo Sprague, and to my other committee members, Tim Hegstrom and Jim Stull. I would also like to thank Jan Kelly, Beth VonTill, Phil Wander, and the many others in the Communication Studies department who supported my efforts. Acknowledgements are also extended to the many training professionals who gave their time and assistance in my thesis work.

I am especially thankful for and grateful to my husband, Mark, and to my parents whose patience, support, encouragement, and love know no end.

Table of Contents

Chapter

1	Introduction	2
	Review of the Literature	6
	The Basic Course	6
	Theory and performance	7
	Description of performances	9
	Principles of effective speaking	9
	Methods of instruction	10
	Communication apprehension	13
	Feedback and evaluation of effective performances	15
	Problems with research in speech communication	19
	Career Education	21
	Communication skills needed by persons in business and industry	22
	Adult education and career education	24
	Problems with research in career education	25
	Communication Skills Training in Organizations	26
	Methods of instruction	28
	Problems with research in communication skills training	28
	Similarities and Differences between Teaching and Training	29
	Statement of the Problem	32
	Purpose of the Study	34
2	Method	37
	Interview Schedule	38
	Respondents	40
	Procedure	41
	Analysis of the Data	42
	Detailed Content Outline	44

3	Results	46
	Background	46
	Education	46
	Employment	47
	Career path to training	49
	Training experience	49
	Types of organizations in which trainers were employed	50
	Number of organizations in which trainers were employed	52
	Number of organizations in which trainers were employed in the past year	52
	Number of days training during the past year	53
	Presentation Skills Training Practices . .	54
	Needs assessment	54
	Presentation skills taught	59
	Format	70
	Size	70
	Length	71
	Number of trainers	72
	Responsibilities of trainers	73
	Exercises	74
	Ratio of lecture to exercise	77
	Number of presentations	78
	Types of presentations	78
	Topics of presentations	79
	Length of presentations	80
	Materials used in training	80
	Logistics	82
	Other requirements	83
	Feedback	84
	Training success	87
	Evaluation	88
	Problems	91
	Philosophy	91
	Training versus Teaching	93
	Differences in general	93
	Presentation skills training versus university course	94
	Concepts from the university course that apply to training	96
	Concepts from training that apply to university courses	97

	Useful aspects of presentation skills training that apply to teaching	99
	Useful aspects of teaching speech communication that apply to training	100
	Training and Academic Life	101
	Departmental policy	101
	Promotion of training	102
	Promotion of academic advancement	102
	Helpfulness of training to teaching	102
	Helpfulness of training to research	103
	Reasons for training	104
	Advice concerning presentation skills training	105
	Advice concerning teaching and training	106
	Detailed Content Outline	109
4	Discussion	115
	Summary of the Results	115
	Instructional objectives	116
	Preassessment of the needs of learners	118
	Instructional procedures	119
	Evaluation	122
	Limitations of the Study	127
	Recommendations for Future Research	128
	Recommendations and Implications for Practitioners	133
	Benefits to faculty	134
	Benefits to student	135
	Benefits to colleges and universities	136
	Benefits to research in the field	137
	Conclusion	139
	References	141
	Appendix A	149
	Appendix B	153
	Appendix C	155

List of Tables

Table

1	Training Experience	50
2	Types of Organizations in Which Trainers Were employed	52
3	Number of Organizations in Which Trainers Were Employed	53
4	Days Spent Training During the Past Year . .	54
5	Needs Assessment	56
6	Presentation Skills Taught	67
7	Ratio of Lecture to Exercise	77

Chapter 1

Introduction

Someone, somewhere will always need advice on how to say things. They will need such advice as long as there are things to be said and people to whom to say them. . . . So the teaching of speech communication will always be with us--in some honored or fugitive place--just as it has been with us for twenty centuries or more. (Hart, 1986, p. 1)

The classical Greeks were the first to observe and codify the principles of effective speaking. The Sophists or "wisdom-bearers" of the fifth century B.C. were the first of these ancient Greeks to attempt teaching others how to develop the talents of wisdom and eloquence. Some teachers in the Athens tradition, such as Socrates, focused on teaching students how to attain wisdom itself through rhetorical discourse. Plato, a well-known pupil of Socrates, carried on the rhetorical tradition by engaging students in dialogue to ascertain the strength of an argument or an opinion through questioning. Other rhetoricians of this era, such as Gorgias, focused on mere eloquence in language (Murphy, 1983). Gorgias believed that particular stylistic features would make his prose-like discourse persuasive to listeners. What has carried on in the tradition of rhetorical discourse and speech communication has been a usable combination of both wisdom and eloquence, as first taught by Isocrates.

Isocrates believed that talent, education, and

practice were the foundation of a great orator or statesman. He and other rhetoricians from ancient Greece and Sicily believed their pupils would become "better men" and learn virtue by having studied rhetoric. The notions of teaching "the good man speaking well" and educating the "citizen-orator" reflect the relationship pedagogy shared with rhetoric in classical times.

From the Middle Ages until the present, rhetoric has been included in the core curriculum in Western education serving as part of the foundation for a liberal and professional education. Currently, teachers of public speaking courses and authors of public speaking textbooks derive much of their theory of effective speaking from the study of rhetorical discourse in the Classical period. In 1914, the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking attempted to affirm the viability of public speaking as a discipline apart from departments of English and Theatre where communication courses such as rhetoric were most commonly taught (Rarig & Greaves, 1954). The result of the efforts of the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking was the eventual formation of the Speech Communication Association. The term "public speaking" is now used as synonymous to rhetoric. There now exist departments of speech communication or departments of communication studies in many U.S. colleges and universities. King (1972) notes, "the course

in public speaking is historically one of the prime reasons for the birth and development of [speech communication] departments and continues to be one of our most important offerings" (p. 143).

Today, the public speaking orientation to the basic communication courses in U.S. colleges and universities reflects the vital importance of public speaking to the field of speech communication. Previous research has examined the nature of the basic communication course in community colleges, colleges, and universities in detail. The content of the "basic course" as it has been established is a fundamental part of the general education of the undergraduate student in academic institutions across the nation. An early study by Gibson, Gruner, Brooks and Petrie (1970) found that regardless of the stated emphasis or title of the basic course, the content centered around public speaking.

Enrollment in the basic communication course continues to flourish. The steady growth in a public speaking approach to the basic course reflects "a societal trend to prepare students for skilled oral presentation of ideas in a competitive society" (Gibson, Hanna & Huddleston, 1985, p. 290). Wolvin and Corley (1984) assert that the performance skills addressed in the basic course are recognized as major skills to be developed by individuals who enter professional career positions (p. 83). A recent trend in

communication education in the basic course is toward a focus on skills needed by students for their careers. In 1980, DiSalvo conducted a comprehensive review of the literature supporting the need for communication skills in organizations. The study concluded that the most important communication skills needed by individuals for acquiring entry-level positions in organizations are listening, writing, oral reporting, motivating/persuading, interpersonal skills, informational interviewing, and small group problem-solving (p. 289). Studies such as this show that speech communication educators are interested in what skills are needed by students once they enter the competitive workplace.

Public speaking education is not limited to the traditional classroom. There has been, especially in the past decade, much activity in communication skills training in the workplace. Specifically, presentation skills or public speaking skills have been included in the vast majority of communication education and training programs in organizations. In addition, support groups that specialize in platform speaking, such as Toastmasters International and the Dale Carnegie Foundation, have been popular in many of the major organizations throughout the United States (Toastmasters International, 1986).

A recent survey conducted by Training: The Magazine for Human Resource Development, focusing on training in

U.S. organizations of 50 or more employees, supports the claim of activity in presentation skills training in organizations. Of 1,297 companies surveyed, over one-third reported that presentation skills or public speaking training was included in employee education. One-fourth of those who conduct public speaking training design and deliver the programs using only in-house staff. Another one-fourth reported that training of that type is designed and delivered by a combination of in-house staff and outside vendors. One-half of the organizations that report offering presentation skills as a specific type of training said that such training is designed and delivered exclusively by outside consultants or vendors (Lee, 1987). These results indicate there is some presentation or public speaking education taking place within organizations as part of the in-house training curriculum, but that a majority of organizations use outside individuals as a primary means of delivering presentation skills training.

There has been a wealth of information reported on what is taught in the basic academic public speaking course. Relatively little has been written on how public speaking is taught outside of colleges and universities. The literature on presentation or public speaking skills in organizations has been mainly prescriptive or descriptive and there has been no attempt at a comparison between the methods and practices of presentation skills training in

academia and in business and industry.

This chapter contains a review of the literature on public speaking instruction in three contexts. First, the literature and research on the basic course will be discussed focusing on the methods of instruction. Second, the literature on career perspectives for the speech communication curriculum will be examined. Finally, communication education and training in organizations will be discussed in light of previous literature. The reviews will provide an insight into what is known about presentation skills training and point out some deficiencies in research and literature as they apply to presentation skills education in academia and in organizations.

Review of the Literature

The Basic Course

Research in communication and instruction of the basic course covers a vast number of interests and concerns. There are several national journals and publications published by the Speech Communication Association and the International Communication Association alone that feature research articles on various aspects of the relationship between communication and instruction in communication. The importance of presentation skills to the basic speech communication curriculum is reflected in the literature and research on public speaking instruction in the basic speech course. Following is a summary of literature and research

on the basic course with an emphasis on public speaking instruction. By no means is this summary an exhaustive review of the literature on the basic course. Rather, the summary provides a sampling of what research interests have been pursued in the field of speech communication that pertain to the public speaking orientation to the basic speech course.

Theory and performance. The organization of the contemporary public speaking course reflects the approach of Isocrates in which instruction in principles of effective public speaking is applied by students during in-class performance. However, speech communication educators argue over how much in-class performance as opposed to discussion of theory is necessary for students to master the skill of effective speaking. The weighting of performance over theory has been an issue for speech communication educators for many years. Patterson (1969) claimed that an emphasis on performance over theory is effective in the acquisition of knowledge and skill in addition to stimulating critical and creative thinking (p. 227). Faules, Littlejohn, and Ayres (1972) tested three approaches to the public speaking course and found a significantly higher rate of improvement in students in a performance-oriented course over students in a class which included only theory. The results showed that students from the third group, a control group which received no instruction

in communication, were not significantly different in speaking skills than those in the theory course (p. 50).

The results of four studies conducted over five-year intervals initiated by the Undergraduate Instruction Interest Group of the Speech Association of America reflect the trend of the instructional methods used to teach the basic course (Gibson, et al., 1970; Gibson, Kline & Gruner, 1974; Gibson, et al., 1980; Gibson, Hanna & Huddleston, 1985). In the most recent study (1985) the theory-performance ratio in the basic course in U.S. colleges and universities showed a strong emphasis toward a performance orientation. Over one-half of the respondents reported that instruction consists of only 30% to 40% theory (lecture, discussion, films, exams and their discussion) while 19% reported a 50:50 ratio of theory to practice ("students overtly involved in giving speeches, debating, involved in dialogue, etc."). Fourteen percent of the respondents reported a 20:80 ratio of theory to practice. Taken together these ratios clearly suggest that the basic course can be reasonably referred to primarily as a skills course (p. 285). Although research and literature show that a combination of theory and performance is favored and practiced in the basic course, educators cannot decide upon the most effective ratio of theory and performance.

Description of performances. The survey of the Speech Communication Association by Gibson et al. (1985) also revealed that 70% of schools with a public speaking orientation reported from 1 to 3 performance assignments. About 16% reported from 7 to 10 performance assignments; 4% reported more than 10 performance assignments, and 6% said they did not have any performance assignments in the basic course (p. 284).

Along with the number of performances given in the basic course, another topic of interest to educators in the basic course is the type of performances given. In a 1980 survey, Gibson et al. found that over 91% of the schools with a public speaking emphasis included informative speaking and 88% included persuasive speaking in their performance assignments. Other types of performances included speaking to entertain (14%), oral interpretation (10%) and manuscript speaking (7%).

Principles of effective speaking. The topics consistently discussed in public speaking texts are derived from rhetorical tradition and the shared experiences of instructors. Some common topics discussed in public speaking texts include research skills, speech preparation, audience analysis, argumentation, organization and outlining, delivery, use of language, motivation, listening, credibility, use of supporting and clarifying material, ethics, and so on. The principles of effective speaking taught in public

speaking sources are composed primarily of the "norms" of the discipline (Mehrley & Backes, 1972). Authors of public speaking texts often choose to incorporate different philosophical orientations to their public speaking texts. Fisher (1970) set up a classification scheme consisting of three continua of orientations that would reflect an author's philosophical perspective. The first continuum has traditional and modernistic polar positions reflecting the source of authority from which the principles of the text are derived. The second continuum shows the nature of the knowledge about public speaking included in the text in relation to humanistic and scientific polar positions. The third continuum reflects the instructional approach emphasized in the text with polar positions of content-oriented and performance-oriented approaches. Fisher points out that a given text could contain a diversity of orientations. According to Fisher, variety in contemporary public speaking texts and of principles in public speaking results from the diverse rhetorical traditions and philosophical orientations in which instructors have been trained (p. 209).

Methods of instruction. One of the central concerns of a public speaking instructor is selecting an appropriate method of instruction. Studies of teaching strategies comprise perhaps the most comprehensive body of research relating to the basic course. Studies focused on stra-

tegies and methods of instruction have examined ideas as basic as the use of various exercises (Jones, 1981; Weaver, 1970) and the comparison of traditional methods of instruction with programmed instruction (Amato, 1964; Hanna, 1974). Other studies have reported Personalized System of Instruction (PSI) (Seiler, 1983) and other mastery approaches (Staton-Spicer & Bassett, 1980) as well as learning contracts (King, 1972; Stelzner, 1975).

While describing specific procedures and practices of instruction, speech communication faculty have reported that performance assignments focused on different modes of delivery and types of speeches which are geared toward helping students achieve effective speaking skills. The type of assignment that is successful in the basic course has been examined from a number of educational perspectives. For example, Bohlken (1971) and Rodman (1977) reported a performance assignment in which students presented informative speeches in topics related to speech communication theory. Miles (1977) reported the use of extemporaneous speech format for the final exam in a public speaking class. The notion of using visual imagery to help students develop speeches was described by Fetzer (1977). An assignment where students described geometric shapes to develop a lessened sense of self-consciousness in speaking was examined by Hansen (1982). Rossiter (1973) allowed students to develop topics for speeches in groups in order

to provide a more realistic speaking situation and to give them knowledge of audience interest in their topic. These examples of assignments used to develop effective speaking skills show that the potential for different types of performance assignments is limitless.

Various other methods for teaching public speaking have been examined. One method of teaching was explored by Black and Martin as they derived a model for teaching public speaking by placing students in certain categories based on behavioral evaluation. The authors used three main components of a public speaking training package to assess public speaking behaviors over time, across settings, and across behaviors. Written instruction and training led to the students' acquisition of high skills levels. Follow-up evaluations revealed that audience ratings and self-confidence ratings remained at high levels after the method of instruction was employed (Black & Martin, 1980).

The skills involved in use of visual aids in performance assignments is an example of one of the specific components that comprises research in methods of teaching the basic course. An example of this is Bohn and Jabusch's study of the effect of four methods of instruction that involved students using visual aids in speeches (1982). Even the use of humor as a strategy for teaching the basic course has not been overlooked. There have been examina-

tions of the patterns of humor usage in college classrooms and textbooks (Bryant, Comisky & Zillman, 1979; Bryant, Gula & Zillman, 1980).

Strategies to reduce communication apprehension or stage fright have received a great deal of attention in the field of speech communication. Typical of the studies that deal with strategies aimed at reducing communication apprehension are those that address the effects of artificial heart rate feedback, systematic desensitization, and cognitive modification (Goss, Thompson & Olds, 1978; Harris, 1980; Motley, 1976).

Communication apprehension. Communication apprehension is an unavoidable problem in the classroom. Research conducted by McCroskey (1980) suggests that about 20% of students in major universities suffer from high communication apprehension. Since communication apprehension is noted for having a disabling effect on student performance in the classroom, many state colleges, community colleges and universities have developed programs designed to help alleviate communication apprehension. Such programs focus on improving communication skills and increasing students' self-confidence (Foss, 1982). In fact, a variety of methods and treatment programs are provided at some universities (Glaser, 1981; Hoffman & Sprague, 1982).

Two areas in communication research have received much attention with respect to communication apprehension in

public speaking. One area is composed of studies related to teacher attitudes and expectations. Studies focusing on the basic public speaking course have found that college teachers expect more success from low communication apprehensive students than from students with high communication apprehension (Smythe & Powers, 1978). Results indicated that teachers describe high communication apprehensive students as more anxious about communication and less likely to participate in classroom interactions than low communication apprehensive students. The results also revealed that high communication apprehensive students were seen by their instructors as less capable of establishing good relationships with other students and as less likely to succeed in their future educational goals or careers (p. 491).

The other area of communication apprehension research in the basic speech course deals with student characteristics. Numerous articles have addressed the topic of student communication apprehension and school achievement. A few of these studies show the importance of research involving student characteristics in the basic public speaking course. McCroskey and Andersen (1976), for example, have found that low apprehensive students were found to have higher academic achievement in traditional interaction-oriented educational systems.

Similar studies investigate the effect communication

apprehension has on students' achievement in the basic course (Scott & Wheelless, 1977; Scott, Wheelless, Yates & Randolph, 1976). A study focusing on public speaking found that low communication apprehensives in an oral performance basic course received the highest evaluations (Powers & Smythe, 1980). The results of the final written examination did not show any differences among the three communication apprehensive groups (p. 151). Other research indicates that communication apprehension and stage fright influence the factors of receiver comprehension, ratings of authoritativeness, and speech effectiveness (Freimuth, 1976), and students' satisfaction with instructional strategies (Wheelless, 1975). The research cited here by no means exhausts the literature on communication apprehension and stage fright as it applies to the basic public speaking course. The studies mentioned here are examples of the research and work done in the field of speech communication and instruction as related to the student communication apprehension and stage fright in the public speaking orientation to the basic course.

Feedback and evaluation of effective performances.

The effectiveness of performances is another question which concerns the public speaking instructor. Traditionally, it has been thought that more practice would lead to better performance. Moreover, contemporary learning theory suggests that feedback and evaluation, in addition to

practice, are important components in reinforcing effective behavior. Thus, the use of evaluation and criticism of performances has been a consistent element in public speaking instruction.

Feedback, which is often synonymous to evaluation and criticism of speech performances, is thought to perform a number of functions. Successful feedback may function as a way to inform the speaker about the audience's reaction to the speech, to make suggestions for improvement on future speeches and to motivate the speaker to speak again or to enjoy speaking (Book, 1983). Feedback can occur simultaneous to the speech act such as instantaneous nonverbal messages given during a presentation or as delayed feedback using devices such as audio or video tape (p. 7).

The use of rating scales as a device for measuring speech performance has come to be widely used in the field of speech communication (Bock, 1970). A rating scale as a device for measuring speeches evaluates various stimuli on linear scales. This type of scale requires an instructor or trainer to assign numerical value to the events surrounding the speech performance. There have been numerous studies of the reliability and validity of rating scales used to measure speaking skills. The use of summative evaluations of classroom speaking (Bock, 1970), and the impact of sex differences on speech evaluation (Bock, Powell, Kitchens, & Flavin, 1977) are two examples.

Several studies have addressed the evaluation of public speaking performances in the basic course. Young (1974) examined student perceptions of the degree of helpfulness of feedback from their instructors. A study of Book and Simmons (1980) discussed student perceptions of the degree of helpfulness of peer criticism. In their study, Book and Simmons concluded that students are capable of providing feedback to their peers. Furthermore, feedback is perceived as helpful and is consistent with the objectives of the course, even if the objectives change during the course of the semester. Book and Simmons found that the overall type of peer feedback is similar to the type of feedback given by teachers to students in previous research (p. 145).

The survey of the Speech Communication Association on the basic course addresses the issues of evaluation and criticism of oral performance. According to the results of the 1985 survey, the majority of basic course instructors used both oral and written criticism of oral performance. Fifty-four percent of instructors reporting relied on self-judgment alone for evaluations of student performance and 43% reported using a combination of peer and instructor evaluation to critique oral performance. Nearly 78% of the respondents said they always provide students with written criticism of performances while about 19% reported doing so "sometimes."

The use of videotapes for speech critiques is another example of the methods of evaluation and criticism used in teaching the basic course. Audio-visual equipment used for the recording and playback of student performances helps students give more effective speeches by letting them review and evaluate their own performance. Video-taping of students' performances has been shown to improve student satisfaction with the course (Bradley, 1970). The combination of videotape playback with teacher critique can improve speaking effectiveness (Diehl, Breen & Larson, 1970; McCroskey & Lashbrook, 1970).

Instruments designed to assess communication skills are examples of a form of evaluation sometimes used in teaching public speaking. Rubin (1982) used a communication competency instrument to determine speaking and listening competence at the college level. Rubin reported the then-present state of the development of the Communication Competency Assessment Instrument (CCAI), a test of basic communication skills for college students. The instrument assesses 19 specific speaking and listening competencies defined as those skills that high school graduates need in preparation for college classes. Rubin concluded that the Communication Competency Assessment Instrument is a potentially helpful assessment instrument that can provide useful feedback and information on students' skill achievement (p. 30).

Problems with research in speech communication. The latest survey of the Speech Communication Association is perhaps the most comprehensive in providing a bulk of data on trends of enrollment and orientation. The survey also provides information on course objectives, content, instructional methods, and testing procedures as well as general curriculum and organizational concerns of those involved in teaching the basic course. The survey gives an overall view of the demographics of the basic speech course and provides proof of the vitality of the course in the field.

In general, literature on the basic course is either descriptive in nature or prescriptive on specific teaching practices. Very few systematic studies show that one method of instruction is better than others or that certain practices improve skill level. Moreover, many studies dealing with how public speaking is taught are dated and fail to support any one method of instruction. A number of studies simply measure student satisfaction. Existing literature lacks systematic data on actual skill outcomes of various methods of instruction. Thompson's (1967) summary of the research on principles of instruction of public speaking illustrated this point. The study showed that special ways of teaching the basic course had no different effect on overall achievement than more traditional approaches.

Other aspects of teaching the basic course, such as the provision of specific guidelines for the number, length, and order of student assignments in public speaking, have not been provided. Other than in a few general descriptive articles, academic literature has ignored such specific topics. For example, teachers of the basic course are still not sure what size group is necessary for a speaker to experience a sense of audience (Sprague, 1986). In the past, speech communication instructors have made decisions of how to handle specific logistics in the classroom on an intuitive basis.

The area where guidelines and ideas for instruction are most abundant is in instructors' manuals. Most public speaking textbooks are accompanied by instructor manuals that provide suggested outlines and assignments for teaching a public speaking course. Although the information provided in public speaking instructors' manuals is generally helpful, it is not always consistent with similar manuals. In addition, the information in instructors' manuals is not always supported by empirical evidence.

A substantial amount of speech communication literature has been written on feedback and evaluation. However, research in the field still lacks a systematic approach to various issues and concerns of communication skills evaluation and performance feedback. For example, until researchers are more certain which skills comprise speaking

effectiveness, it will be difficult to provide sufficient feedback to students.

Career Education

In the past, programs in speech communication generally were established to prepare students for the teaching profession (Delia, 1979). Today, career education in departments of speech communication has become increasingly recognized as a realistic alternative to traditional communication education. Education in speech communication has been shown as a source of communication skills and understanding necessary for successful business management (Sorenson & Pearson, 1980, p. 304). Recent growth in courses or sections of the basic course involving topics such as technical presentations, business communication, interviewing and leadership bring to light the new employment needs in business, industry and government for undergraduate students. Such changes in the basic course also suggest that academia has recognized the need to prepare students with the oral communication and presentation skills needed to be successful in the workplace.

Several studies have investigated the nature of the basic college public speaking course and its ability to prepare students with career-oriented skills (Hanna, 1978; Hiemstra & Staton-Spicer, 1983; Johnson & Szczupakiewicz, 1987; Sorenson & Pearson, 1980). In stressing the need to adapt speech communication courses to the occupational

needs of students, Sorenson and Pearson (1980) assert:

First, students are unlikely to receive communication training after college, at least during the first five years on the job. Therefore, it is imperative they receive the necessary communication course work in college. Second, alumni highly value oral communication skills and desire more general requirements for a speech course. (p. 303)

Communication skills needed by persons in business and industry. Several surveys conducted in the field of speech communication aim at determining specific communication competencies and skills needed by individuals in business and industry. For example, several studies have examined alumni recommendations for course content and requirements. Hanna (1978) found that 55% of alumni surveyed included formal presentation, listening, and problem-solving as the communication situations on the job that are most likely to prove troublesome. Wolvin and Corley (1984) conducted an assessment of alumni needs in technical-oriented careers and found 62% of the 446 respondents reported engaging in informative speaking "almost constantly" and 80% rated listening as a skill needed "almost constantly." Other surveys have shown that alumni favor persuasive and informative speeches over other types as a recommendation for the basic course that would provide students with more preparation for the world of business (Pearson, Nelson & Sorenson, 1980; Sorenson & Pearson, 1980).

A study conducted in 1976 by three communication

teachers focused on the communication skills needed by persons entering a business organization. Communication among superiors, subordinates and peers in and out of the work group was examined. The study concluded that the seven communication skills most important to an individual's success are listening, advising, routine information exchange, small group problem-solving, instructing, persuading, and technical presentations (DiSalvo, Larsen & Seiler, 1976, p. 224).

In 1976 an investigation of the attitudes of training personnel was conducted in a number of corporations in the Pittsburg, Pennsylvania area (Wasylik, Sussman, & Leri, 1976). This study found that the communication skills needed for success in business were, listening, writing, interviewing, group discussion, reading, public speaking, and nonverbal communication (p. 34).

In 1978 a study asked company executives to rank order communication skills they perceived as troublesome or problematic for their employees based on their observations. In order of priority, the skills needing improvement were listening, motivating people, giving directions, delegating authority, group problem-solving, handling grievances, private conferences, using the grapevine, formal presentation, conference leadership, negotiating, and bargaining (Hanna, p. 171). Hanna discovered that these competencies ranked differently when the executives were asked what

skills were used most frequently by the different levels of employees. According to the second listing, skills of oral communication in private conference settings are used most frequently by all levels.

In another study of 84 executives, subjects were asked to indicate the relative importance of 20 various training topics to the training and development of future personnel managers and executives. Public speaking ranked second in importance among 20 categories (Zemke, 1983).

Adult education and career education. Another area affecting communication instruction as it applies to career education is the study of adult education. In higher education, an increasing number of students who stopped their education to work or to have more children are now re-entering campuses as "returning students" (Wolvin, 1984, p. 267). In the workplace, enrollments in communication-oriented training and development programs are on the rise. Wolvin cites a 1981 survey by the New York Times titled, "Survey of Continuing Education." The survey found that business and industry allocate more than \$30 billion a year to continuing education, "almost as much as the annual expenditure on the nation's publicly financed colleges and universities" (p. 1). Providing for continuing education and tailoring instruction to the needs of the adult student are two issues that are not new to management or to training and development in business and industry. From

determining curriculum design to establishing the environment of the classroom, adult learning principles have been utilized in the education and training of organizational employees.

Many instructors of speech communication find that the knowledge of how adults learn aids in their success as trainers in organizations. In a paper presented at the basic course conference at the Eastern Communication Association, Sprague asserts that there is much in communication literature on adult learning that can benefit the basic course. The use of audience analysis to create options in the basic course for a variety of learning styles is one alternative to the traditional pedagogical approach (Daly, 1981, as cited in Sprague, 1986). Assumptions of motivation from scholars in the field of training and consultation (e.g., Friedman and Yarbrough, 1985) are also potential techniques for motivation in the basic course in addition to methods from educational literature (Sprague, p. 4). Managers use numerous applications of experience-based learning methods geared toward adult learners (Wexley & Latham, 1981).

Problems with research in career education. It is difficult from the above findings to determine the extent to which the communication skills identified are used in the workplace. These studies do not provide recommendations for the content and course requirements of the

basic public speaking course. Therefore, it is difficult to determine the degree of similarity between the speaking skills that faculty teach in the public speaking course and the public speaking skills that are actually taught and used on the job. However, surveys do reveal the need for communication instruction as part of career education for organizational employees.

Communication Skills Training in Organizations

Twelve years ago training and development was estimated to have a national budget of over 100 billion dollars (Gilbert, 1976). Today, training and development has become a principal means by which job-related knowledge and skills are advanced (Johnson, 1984). Instruction in training and development ranges from manufacturing line skills to executive leadership to AIDS education in the workplace. Technological changes have increased the need for new skills in organizations. The restructuring of many organizations requires employees to adapt suddenly to new job duties. Johnson asserts that "there is virtually no one in business, industry or government who is outside the parameters of training and development" (1986, p. 45).

A series of yearly articles by the American Society of Training and Development provides, in part, an overview of the status of communication skills training in the U.S. Since 1982, Training: The Magazine of Human Resource Development by the American Society of Training and

Development has conducted national surveys to determine the status of human resource training. Respondents include organizations in the United States with 50 or more employees, excluding the federal government. These annual surveys provide data regarding types of companies in which human resource development training takes place (e.g., manufacturing, retail, trade); who is delivering the training (e.g., corporate trainers, colleges); types of employees receiving the training; types of skills being taught; annual budgets of human resource development and training departments; and the trainers' salaries. A comparison of six years (1982-1987) of the human resource development courses offered in U.S. corporations reveals that communication skills training, including public speaking, has consistently been among the four most prevalent areas. Management skills and development, supervisory skills, new employee orientation, technical skills, and knowledge updating are the other areas of importance that have been included. The largest percentage of training over this six-year period has been directed toward professionals (e.g., engineers, nurses, trainers), middle managers, and first-line supervisors and foremen (Feuer, 1985; Gordon, Feuer & Lee, 1986; Lee & Zemke, 1984; Lee, 1987; Zemke, 1982, 1983). According to current statistics and trends in human resource training and development, it is likely that a student who has taken the

basic course in public speaking will certainly utilize the skills learned and may some day receive similar skills education and training in an organization in which he/she is employed.

Methods of instruction. Information about strategies used in presentation skills training in organizations is limited to magazine articles and descriptive reports in business journals. There are a number of articles that appear regularly in magazines such as Training Magazine, Training and Development Journal, and Personnel Management, that deal specifically with issues related to presentation skills training. In addition, many workshops and seminars are offered in the world of training where there is much sharing of information and ideas about presentation skills training. These seminars are generally geared toward educating trainers or are intended for managers or executives.

Problems with research in communication skills training. The current status of public speaking education in organizations is not easily determined. Journals in the field of speech communication such as Communication Education, Management Communication Quarterly, and the American Communication Association Bulletin most commonly provide reports and descriptive articles on the communication skills needed by persons in organizations. Most of the information specifically dealing with public speaking

in organizations has been in the form of surveys and "how-to" articles published in business communication, personnel, and training and development journals.

The problems of research in communication skills training are many. Primarily, limited systematic research has been conducted on the procedures and practices has been conducted in organizational training. From the literature, it is apparent that many of the methods used in training are intuitive and require little justification among trainers or to the field.

Similarities and Differences Between Teaching and Training

Wexley and Latham (1981) claim that instructional tactics should parallel the demands of the learning environment (p. 254). This means that in order to be effective, managers in organizations in charge of educating employees must be aware of the many approaches available to facilitate the process of learning. The context in which education takes place in organizations in addition to the relationship of the manager or trainer with the trainees reveal some of the many differences that are apparent between the public speaking instructor in a university and the presentation skills trainer in an organization.

Teachers and trainers differ in four basic areas of instruction. The first area is in the instructional objectives that are set forth. Training objectives, says Sprague (1986), are usually more practical and applied than

objectives in teaching. In addition, training objectives are often phrased in terms of consequences to the organization or "bottom line" results. A manager in an organization is well aware of the great costs of training employees. They are also aware that the organization cannot benefit unless employees are adequately trained and educated. Training objectives are viewed in organizations as having some degree of measurable organizational impact. Teachers generally have more freedom in deciding objectives based on their philosophy of education.

The second area where there are apparent differences between teaching and training is in the assessment of the needs of learners. In organizations, learners usually belong to an ongoing group with pre-existing roles, norms, and leadership patterns which the trainer must penetrate (Sprague, 1986, p. 4). Learners in organizations are adults whose first agenda is working rather than learning. Adult learners are persons no longer attending school on a regular, full-time basis who undertake activities with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information knowledge, understanding, skills, appreciation, and attitudes (Liveright, 1968). Typical organizational employees that are subject to training can be defined as adult learners not only because of their age but because of the methods of instruction that are necessary for their education. Several areas set adult learners apart from

other types of students. One area is in their motivation to learn. Adults generally seek out learning experiences in order to cope with specific life-changing events. For example, marriage, divorce, a new job, a promotion, being fired, retiring, losing a loved one, and moving to a new city are all experiences that may trigger an adult learner's motivation. Adults, as opposed to children or adolescents, are motivated to seek out learning experiences primarily because they have an immediate use for the knowledge or skill being sought. This leads into the differences between instruction procedures used in organizational training and teaching in the classroom.

The third area where teaching and training have similarities and differences is in instructional procedures. The strongest link that has been shown between academic instructional methods in speech communication to the business world's view of instruction and education is the study of adult education. Adults are more interested in self-directed and self-designed learning projects as opposed to group learning experiences led by a professional. Adults also prefer single-concept courses that focus heavily on the application of a concept to relevant problems (Zemke & Zemke, 1981). These concepts of adult learning are used primarily by trainers in strategies for educating individuals in organizations. There is little evidence that teachers have applied adult learning prin-

ciples to the extent that trainers have.

The fourth area of comparison is the evaluation of the students in teaching and training. In training, there is little formal, public evaluation of learning. Training rarely involves written testing, homework, and grades. There is often no penalty for failing to reach the criteria set forth in training (Sprague, 1986, p. 5). The success of training is often evaluated by "bottom line" measures which place great emphasis on the evaluation of trainers. While student evaluation guidelines have been clearly identified in academia, criteria for evaluating instructors have not. Consideration of the similarities and differences between teaching and training in these four areas is necessary to gain a better understanding of presentation skills instruction in organizations as conducted by teachers and trainers.

Statement of the Problem

Much of what has been written about the methods and practices of public speaking training in business and industry has been done by academicians who have had experience training in this area. In the applied communication and organizational communication groups of many speech communication associations, presentation skills training has received attention in national and regional meetings. Dance asserts, "there is surprisingly little research on speech communication in business. The bulk of

information regarding this subject falls under the guise of business speech communication texts and the more recent presentation skills training conducted in organizations" (1987). In a review of business presentation texts and public speaking texts, Dance found little difference in the content areas covered. The question of the difference between public speaking and presentational speaking, the popular organizational term, lies in the situation and setting or environment in which a speech is delivered. Other differences, says Dance, are manifestations in the attitudes of managers toward training in general (p. 270).

There are potential contributions of academia to training and of training to academia. Although communication teaching and training are somewhat similar, a cross-over of principles, methods and ideas will be limited without a thorough understanding of learning principles unique to each context. Mitroff (1984) points out that trainers need to be familiar with "academic" knowledge and to keep abreast of new findings generated by academic research. Trainers also need to make use of the "street" knowledge that is generated within their daily work (p. 237). On the other hand, it is equally important for public speaking instructors to be aware of the needs of students as they enter the organizational world.

Purpose of the Study

The foregoing review has demonstrated several things. First it suggests that literature on the basic course provides a sound base of research for some instructional issues. The skills needed for effective presentations, as taught in academia, for instance, have been firmly grounded in rhetorical theory and to some degree in empirical research. The methods and strategies used in public speaking instruction have also been reported by public speaking instructors. Presentation skills trainers in organizations instruct individuals in many of the same skills. They also use similar methods and strategies. However, literature and empirical data on presentation skills education in organizations are limited.

Much of what is known about training in organizations has been reported by individuals who both teach and train presentation skills. The knowledge that communication skills are an important asset to organizational members and that public speaking is one of the important communication skills for individuals in organizations has been established in surveys. Surveys in academia and in business and industry make only general suggestions as to the types of skills students in the basic course need for presentations in organizations. Alumni recommendations of what should be taught in the basic course are not helpful in defining the skills needed and the extent to which these skills are

used. The literature on presentation skills training in organizations has not established what specific presentation skills are needed by persons in organizations. Another area in which literature on organizational training is lacking is in reporting the extent to which specific presentation skills are used and the extent to which they are taught in organizations. Although there is little empirical evidence that certain methods of instruction are better than others, gaining an insight into the methods and effectiveness of methods used by organizational trainers can benefit teachers of the basic course.

From a career education perspective, communication educators need to know more about the methods and practices used by presentation skills trainers in organizations. Other information needed is the perspective which trainers use in their presentation skills training. To what degree do trainers and teachers believe concepts from training and teaching presentation skills can be applied in their respective contexts? From these questions, we can gain a more thorough understanding of what presentation skills are needed in organizations and what methods have been effectively used in training for presentation skills in organizations.

In order to understand presentation skills training better, it is important to know what type of individual is involved in providing such training. Understanding the

perspectives these individuals hold about training and/or teaching would also contribute to a better understanding of teaching and training for public speaking. From a career education viewpoint, the methods and perspectives on adult education are more prevalent in presentation skills training in organizations than in teaching the basic course. Finally, addressing the career implications of training in presentation skills would have an impact on the nature and of future prospects and growth of presentation skills training in organizations. To address these concerns, the two research questions which were the focus of this study are:

1. What practices and approaches are commonly used in presentation skills training in organizations?
2. What are the perspectives of teaching and training held by those who train for presentation skills in organizations?

Chapter 2

Method

This study is a descriptive investigation of the "state of practice" in communication training. The absence of empirical research in presentation skills training in organizations as established in the previous chapter has created the need for research specifically geared toward this area. Consequently, there is a need to establish a sufficiently strong data base to which future studies in organizational training can be linked. The current study is a preliminary step toward establishing such a data base.

The collection of data on communication training poses problems beyond those typically encountered in many forms of communication research. Studies previously cited posit that many professionals in organizations and in academia regard training activities as professionally and educationally important as well as personally rewarding. However, many faculty and professionals in organizations tend to hesitate or refuse to share specific kinds of information regarding their involvement and techniques in training. Professional trainers also tend to be reluctant to reveal proprietary material and pertinent data regarding their activities.

The use of an interview questionnaire is advantageous as a device for data-gathering for several reasons. Interview surveys, as opposed to mail surveys, typically

attain a higher response rate (Babbie, 1983, p. 171). The presence of an interviewer can significantly reduce the number of "don't know" and "no answer" responses due to the opportunity to use probing questions. In addition, an interviewer can detect when a question is confusing and obtain more relevant responses by clarifying misunderstandings (Babbie, p. 172).

Although the primary method of data collection was interviewing, a secondary method was chosen to assure adequate information from the respondents. To supplement the interview data, training material (such as training manuals, handouts, films and videos) was requested from the respondents for review. In addition, the opportunity to observe training in progress was requested. Material from twelve individuals and the opportunity to observe four training programs were provided.

Interview Schedule

The interview schedule was developed in consultation with thesis committee members and other faculty members who have extensive training experience. The interview schedule was given a "practice run" with a respondent whose answers are not included in the results. Based on the experience with this interview, the schedule was finalized. The result is a four-section, 43-item interview schedule (see Appendix A).

The interview schedule is divided into four main sec-

tions. The first set of questions inquired into the education and experience of the respondents. These questions included the type of degree earned, current employment, career path, and experience in training. This initial section of the interview is highly scheduled. The questions in this section are close-ended and provide specific information used to categorize the respondents.

The remaining three sections of the interview are moderately scheduled and mainly consist of open-ended questions. The questions in these sections were designed to allow for potential varied responses. Since prior information on presentation skills training was limited, this portion of the interview schedule served as a probe in discovering the diverse procedures, practices and philosophical orientations involved in training in this specific area.

The second section of the interview schedule contains questions related to presentation skills training in particular. These questions are aimed at determining the type of needs assessment used, presentation skills taught, the format of the typical program, types and topics of presentations given by the participants, materials used in training, type of feedback and evaluation provided, and requirements and problems related to presentation skills training.

The third set of questions pertains to training and

teaching. Questions cover topics such as the general difference between teaching and training and the applicability of concepts from courses taught in business and those taught in academia.

The last section of the interview addresses questions regarding training or consulting and academic life. This section was added after the initial practice interview was conducted to provide a stronger focus on communication training conducted by academicians and to reveal their attitudes and ideas about the similarities and differences between their respective professional activities. The format for the questions in the last section was adapted from a survey of consulting activities in organizations conducted for a dissertation at the University of Michigan (Eich, 1977).

Respondents

Respondents were 15 men and 16 women who were active in presentation skills training in the San Francisco/San Jose bay area also known as the Silicon Valley. Lists of potential respondents were compiled from personal introductions and referrals at meetings of the American Society of Training and Development, National Speaker's Association, and Western Speech Communication Association. Potential respondents were individuals currently employed as presentation skills trainers in organizations in the bay area.

Contact names, telephone numbers and addresses were

acquired mainly through referrals from individuals and use of the National Speaker's Association Membership Directory for Northern California for 1987. A secondary source for interview contacts was through university extension or adult education program catalogues for the San Francisco/San Jose area. Over 100 individuals were contacted through these primary and secondary sources. Initial contact for the actual interview appointments was established via telephone conversations, letters of introduction, and personal conversations at regional professional meetings. From telephone conversations with 60 individuals, 10 telephone and 21 personal interviews resulted.

Procedure

All interviews were carried out by the investigator. Ten of the interviews were conducted by telephone. The remaining 21 personal interviews took place in various organizational sites throughout the bay area. For all respondents, interview appointments were made by telephone and confirmed in writing when appropriate.

The sequence of procedures used in the beginning of each interview was: 1) statement of researcher's purpose and objective, 2) identification of sponsor and graduate advisor, 3) explanation of sampling procedure used, 4) an overview of the types of questions asked, and 5) assurance of the confidential nature of the investigation.

The actual interviews varied in a number of ways

although there was strict adherence to a scheduled set of questions. Length of the interviews varied from 20 minutes to 2 hours, with the average duration being approximately 45 minutes. The format of many of the questions permitted considerable latitude in the depth of responses. To maintain quality and conformity of responses it was necessary, in certain cases, to use specific follow-up questions. A standard follow-up procedure was maintained to ensure uniformity.

The recording of responses was performed through copious note-taking and audiotape recordings. All notes were taken in the interview or immediately afterward to avoid loss of pertinent detail.

To supplement the interview data, curricular material from four academic respondents, four in-house and four self-employed trainers was acquired. Observations were made of one in-house public speaking program, two programs delivered by private trainers in an organization, and one program through an extension course used for certification of employees. Detailed content outlines and descriptions of training procedures were recorded for each program observed.

Analysis of the Data

The questions in the first section of the interview schedule deal with demographic information and are, by nature, close-ended. Frequencies and means were calculated

for these questions, as well as for the remainder of the close-ended questions in the interview schedule.

From responses of the participants in the first section, three sub-groups of respondents were delineated. These categories are: employment in the training function of an organization on a full- or part-time basis; self-employment as a trainer or as an owner or co-owner of a training/consulting firm; or affiliation with an academic institution on a full- or part-time basis. Each respondent was placed in the category that best reflected his or her primary occupational orientation. When appropriate, these sub-groups were designated as a comparative factor in analyzing other data.

The information obtained through descriptive investigations is difficult to represent even through exhaustive response categories. To accommodate the potential of varied responses most of the remaining interview questions are open-ended (e.g., What is your philosophy or general approach to a presentation skills training program?). Specific follow-up questions were used in a uniform manner to provide depth and latitude of responses for the open-ended questions. A follow-up question to the philosophy or general approach to a presentation skills training program asked the respondents to give further explanation of their response or to define particular terms used in their explanation. Accordingly, the results of the last three

sections were classified in respect to emergent categories.

The open-ended questions in the interview had follow-up questions that probed areas such as strategies used, methods, rationales, and evaluations of chosen strategies. This data, in addition to extended verbatim quotations transcribed from the interviews, was used to provide skeletal descriptions of described training programs. All 31 episodes described by trainers were reduced to skeletal descriptions. The data was sorted according to preliminary classification of recurring themes that addressed the research questions. Quotations representative of recurring themes were transcribed as examples in a prose-version of the detailed content outline provided at the end of the results in Chapter 3.

Detailed Content Outline

A detailed content outline and description of a "typical day's training" in presentation skills are provided (see Appendix A). The outline is a compilation of the training programs and material obtained throughout the investigation. As an archetype, the content outline furnishes a vision of the methods employed by professionals and the activities involved in a typical presentation skills training program in the Silicon Valley.

The majority of the presentation skills training programs described in the study were those of large, multinational organizations as opposed to smaller, specialized

organizations. Thus the training program described in the detailed content outline is representative of such training programs.

Chapter 3

Results

This chapter reports and discusses the results from the completed interviews, with attention to differences between groups categorized as academic and nonacademic trainers. Several tables are included, each summarizing findings by content area in relation to the questions on the interview schedule. The tables present the number of individuals in the academic and nonacademic employment groups as they are distributed for categories from the various responses.

Background

The first set of questions asked the respondents their level of education, status of employment and the career path that led to the current position. The first question in that set asked the respondents the type of degree they have earned.

Education. Thirty-one interviews were conducted and most respondents were found to have degrees in higher education. Over 70% of the respondents had a graduate degree. There were a total of 6 Ph.D degrees, 16 Master of Arts degrees, one Master of Science degree, 7 bachelor degrees and one with no formal degree past a high school education. Thirteen respondents held degrees in speech communication. Four respondents held degrees in business-related fields and five held degrees in areas related to

education.

Employment. Three main categories of employment emerged from the interviews: trainers who were self-employed, those who were employed by an academic institution and those who were employed by a nonacademic organization. Eleven individuals were self-employed as trainers or were owners or co-owners of a training/consulting firm on a full-time basis. These respondents are categorized as being self-employed.

Nine respondents were employed over half of their time at an academic institution and also trained in organizations. The education institutions in which these individuals worked included junior and community colleges, senior colleges, private colleges and universities, and state colleges and universities. These respondents are placed in a group labelled academy when used for comparison of data in the results that follow.

Eleven individuals were employed over half of the time as presentation skills trainers in organizations. Four of these individuals were employed primarily by an organization and were self-employed or employed part-time as members of a consulting firm. Respondents who were employed primarily as members of a nonacademic organization are labelled under the heading organization.

The educational degrees obtained by respondents in each category of employment reveal that those who are self-

employed have obtained a higher level of education than those in the remaining categories. The participants who were self-employed included five individuals with Ph.D degrees: one in speech communication, the others in psychology and in areas related to human behavior. Of the individuals who were self-employed, only one respondent held a college degree, a Bachelor of Business Administration.

Six respondents were employed by a college or university and held Master of Arts degrees in speech communication. Two had Master of Arts degrees in areas related to language. Only one respondent in academia held a Ph.D degree in organizational communication.

Respondents employed primarily by nonacademic organizations had obtained degrees in a variety of areas. Five of the eleven organizationally employed respondents had undergraduate degrees only, in English literature, education, physical education, chemistry and speech communication. Three individuals in the organizationally employed category had master's degrees. Two respondents held degrees in organizational communication, one held a Master of Business Administration degree and one held a degree in human resource development. One respondent in this group held a Ph.D. degree, which was in speech communication. One respondent in this group had obtained only a high school education.

Career path to training. The next question asked, "How has your career path led you to your current position?" In response to the question, 23 of 31 respondents said that they were involved in academia at one point in their careers, either as instructors or as instructors/administrators. Only one individual currently employed in academia was once a full-time employee of an organization as a trainer. One respondent was an educator in the Army at one point in his career.

Over half of the respondents who were self-employed and over half of those employed as part of an organization were involved at one point in their careers in academia. Five of the eleven respondents employed in organizations began their career in a line or supervisor position before they moved into training or training/management. The self-employed respondents all began their careers as trainers in an organization, but had never served in a line/supervisor position in an organization.

Training experience. The fourth question of the Presentation Skills Training Interview Schedule asked about the experience of training specialists. Of particular interest is the finding that almost one-half (42%) of the respondents have had no more than 10 years of training experience (see Table 1). Academic respondents have less training experience than those who are self-employed or employed as part of an organization.

Table 1

Training Experience

<u>Employment</u>	N	Years			
		5 or fewer	6-10	11-15	16-plus
Self-Employed	11	2	4	3	2
Organization	11	1	6	2	2
Academy	9	3	2	1	3
Total	31	6	12	6	7

Types of organizations in which trainers were employed. Question number five asked the types of organizations in which the respondents have trained in presentation skills. The types of organizations that the respondents were involved in training included a wide array of profit and nonprofit organizations. The individuals who were self-employed worked in private communication consulting firms or in association with one or more other trainers. Most of those employed primarily by an organization worked in the micro-computer manufacturing industry, high-tech engineering firms or for the aero-space/weapons industry. The respondents involved in academia were either full or part-time instructors of speech communication at community colleges, junior and senior colleges, state universities, and/or private colleges. Four of the nine

instructors interviewed were employed at more than one academic institution.

The types of business in which the respondents of all groups trained included aero-space and weapons manufacturers, semiconductor manufacturing organizations, engineering firms, private consulting agencies, oil companies, contract research organizations, public utilities, international advertising and sales organizations, financial and insurance institutions, wineries, and major auto companies.

The types of educational institutions the respondents trained in included state universities, state colleges, community colleges, extension programs geared toward adult education, and a Hispanic education organization. Government organizations in which the respondents trained included the United States Army, Air Force, Department of the Interior, Forestry Service, Customs Department, Border Patrol, a geological survey team, and city and county governments. The charitable or nonprofit organizations trained in included religious organizations, the Girl Scouts, Red Cross, and parent education programs for school districts in primary and secondary education. The other organizations trained in included health service organizations, professional associations, and professional development organizations (see Table 2).

Table 2

Types of Organizations in Which Trainers Were Employed

<u>Employment</u>	<u>Type of Organization</u>				
	Business	Education	Charitable	Gov't	Other
Self-Employed	12	5	5	6	1
Organization	11	9	4	2	1
Academy	9	9	5	5	4
Total	32	23	14	13	6

Number of organizations in which trainers were employed. Respondents from all employment groups trained mostly in businesses and industry followed by educational institutions. Response data indicate that business and industry is the principal client (36%), followed by schools, colleges and universities (26%), charitable institutions (16%), government (15%), and other organizations (7%).

Number of organizations in which trainers were employed in the past year. The next question asked the number of different organizations in which the respondents conducted training during the past year (see Table 3). Respondents who are self-employed with six or more years of experience have trained in an average of 13 different organizations in the past year. One self-employed respond-

ent reported to have trained in 80 to 100 different organizations in the past year. From the results of this question across all the groups, it appears that training professionals are engaged in presentation skills training in fewer than 20 organizations per year. The median for all groups is in the 2-10 organizations per year category.

Table 3

Number of Organizations in Which Trainers Were Employed in the Past Year

		Number of Organizations				
<u>Employed</u>	N	None	1	2-10	11-20	21-plus
Self-Employed	11	0	1	2	6	2
Organization	11	0	5	4	2	0
Academy	9	3	0	5	1	0
Total	31	3	6	11	9	2

Number of days training during the past year. The last question of the section dealing with education and experience asked the number of days spent training in the past year (see Table 4). The mean number of days training for the self-employed respondents is 22 per year. The organizational members' mean number days of training is 13 days per year. The respondents who trained full-time as part of an organization were involved in more than the

average days of training for the past year. From the responses, self-employed trainers trained significantly more than those employed by organizations.

Table 4

Days Spent Training During the Past Year

<u>Employment</u>	N	Days				
		None	1-10	11-20	21-30	31-plus
Self-Employed	11	0	3	0	0	8
Organization	11	0	2	3	1	0
Academy	9	3	3	2	2	0
Total	31	10	8	5	3	8

Presentation Skills Training Practices

The second section of the interview schedule sought to identify the methods and practices used in presentation skills training.

Needs assessment. The first question of the section asked, "How do you determine the needs of the participants before conducting a training program?" All but three respondents said that they used more than one method of determining the needs of the participants in training. Most respondents conduct needs assessments before the actual training program begins (see Table 5). Three respondents reported that the classes in which they trained

were open enrollment and the participants enrolled through the organization with no individual needs assessment before attendance. It was not clear from the responses if the organization conducts a needs assessment for the open enrollment classes. Nine respondents said the organization conducts the needs assessment for presentation skills training. Six respondents reported that the managers or coordinators in charge of training in organizations conducted their own organizationally developed needs assessment. Eleven respondents said they interviewed the manager of human resource training/development or managers of the program participants as a way of assessing the needs of the participants. Interviewing the participants themselves was a method of assessment reported by six respondents. Nine respondents reported that needs assessment was conducted by written evaluation by managers. Six respondents reported written biographies or self-evaluations by the participants before a training program.

Nine respondents reported that a written self-assessment or goal-setting checklist was completed by participants on the first day of training and that the program was modified according to evaluation of participant comments. Six respondents said that an analysis of skills by trainer observation or review of initial video-taped presentations of participants was used on the first day of training to determine needs.

Table 5

Needs Assessment

Type of Assessment Reported	Trainer Employment		
	Self-Employed	Organization	Academy
<u>Before Training</u>			
Open enrollment	1	0	2
Organization conducts assessment	2	4	3
Manager conducts assessment	3	2	1
Interviews of:			
managers	4	4	3
participants	1	3	8
Written assessment completed by:			
manager	4	4	1
participants	3	2	1
<u>During Training</u>			
Self-assessment/ goal-setting	3	6	1
Analysis of performance	3	2	1

Responses indicated that open enrollment of presentation skills training courses is not unusual in the large organizations in which interviews were conducted. Three respondents employed by organizations on a full- or part-time basis said that a Toastmasters or Dale Carnegie public seminar meeting was conducted weekly on-site. Respondents also said that public seminars such as Toastmasters served as support groups for the employee training conducted by the organization. One self-employed trainer reported using a local Toastmasters seminar as a model for his presentation skills training program.

Results indicated that organizations or managers of training conducted the needs assessment for training programs in some cases. One respondent reported relying solely on assessment of needs from a training manager or from the organization. This respondent was a self-employed trainer. The remaining respondents relied on more than one form of needs assessment.

More respondents in each group relied on written statements and interview data provided by the manager for assessment of needs than on information from participants themselves. In describing the type of information provided by such needs assessment interviews or surveys, respondents reported they inquired about the type of presentation usually conducted in the organization and the skills required for such a presentation. Other questions asked

the participants, program managers, and managers of participants about the speaking experience of the participants and the particular skill deficiencies that have been observed in organizational presentations. Many respondents said that the general purpose of the needs assessment interview was to determine the "norm" for presentations given within the organization or by employees of the organization. Three respondents, two in academia and one self-employed, mentioned that a purpose of the interviews was to learn the technical terms and jargon used by organizational employees.

Only three individuals, two in organizations and one self-employed, reported that one-on-one conversations with employees were a form of needs assessment utilized in training. All three respondents, as well as the majority of others that conducted needs assessment before the training program began, said that they did so when time and money permitted. The remaining respondents used a written or oral assessment or goal-setting agenda for the participants to evaluate their current presentation skills.

Six respondents reported that analysis of needs was determined by evaluating the participants on the first day of training. In five cases, this was done by video-taping the participant, playing back the performance and the subsequent completion of a written self-assessment and/or goal-setting agenda. In addition, a one-on-one coach-

ing/goal-setting exercise or group goal-setting exercise was included most of the time. It is important to note that, although most respondents did not report using self-assessments and goal-setting as part of a needs assessment, such activities were common in all descriptions of the format used in presentation skills training. From the presentation skills training program format descriptions it was apparent that participant self-assessments and goal-setting exercises were viewed by trainers more as learning activities for the participants than as information to assess the needs of the participants.

Presentation skills taught. The next question asked respondents what presentation skills they taught in a typical program. In order to categorize the resulting data uniformly, topics and terminology from a typical public speaking text were chosen (Sprague & Stuart, 1987). The content outline of the public speaking text provides a framework for categorizing the responses. Additional categories were added for terms used to describe skills that were not addressed in the textbook and is labelled "Other" (see Table 6).

Four broad categories are used to report the presentation skills taught in training. The first of these categories is "Preparation." Under the heading, "Preparation," four sub-groups of skills are used: topic selection and analysis (labelled "topic"); audience analysis, utilization

of research methods and material (labelled "research"); and determining objectives and speaking purpose (labelled "objectives"). Under the skill heading "Preparation," 13 respondents referred to preparation as a broad category, although some respondents also mentioned skills under the sub-headings provided in Sprague and Stuart's public speaking text. The skill, "topic selection and analysis," received eight responses. Audience analysis was taught or trained as a skill by 14 respondents. Learning to research a topic was a response of eight individuals and the determination of purpose or objectives in presentations was reported by 15 respondents.

The next broad category under skills is "Organization." A total of 15 respondents said organization of a presentation was one of the skills taught in a typical training program. Under the broad heading, "Organization," three sub-headings of skills relating to the organization of a presentation emerged. These categories were: outlining ("outlining"), selecting and arranging main points (choosing points), and how to prepare an introduction and conclusion ("introduction/conclusion"). Seven respondents taught outlining as a presentation skill. Selection and arrangement of main points for a presentation was a skill covered in six training programs. Finally, the preparation of an introduction and conclusion was covered by 11 presentation skills trainers in their programs.

The preparation of a presentation was the next category of interview responses. The broad category head of "content" contains six skill sub-groups: establishing patterns of reasoning ("reasoning"), providing supporting materials in the presentation ("supporting material"), the preparation and display or use of visual aids ("visual aids"), using motivational appeals and persuasive strategies ("motivational strategies"), gaining attention and maintaining interest including the use of humor as a strategy ("attention/interest"), and speaking style and credibility ("credibility/style"). The preparation and display or use of visual aids was grouped under the heading "content," although the actual use of visual aids could easily be categorized under "presentation" or "delivery" as a skill. Visual aids were grouped under the content heading because most respondents first taught participants how to prepare clear visual aids, and all but two of the respondents who taught the preparation of visuals also taught presentation. One respondent mentioned providing only informative readings for the instruction on preparing and presenting visual aids. All individuals reporting either teaching the preparation and/or the use of visual aids are placed under the content heading "visual aids." The preparation and use of visual aids is taught in training by sixteen participants.

Six respondents identified teaching topics related to

"content," without specifying the skill taught. Three respondents, all involved in academia, reported that they teach trainees how to establish patterns of reasoning for support and argument in their training programs. The use of supporting material, including the credibility of the source, defining words and concepts, and use of examples and statistical evidence in a presentation, was reported by eight trainers. Only one self-employed trainer and one organizationally-employed trainer reported training in the use of supporting materials. Six individuals in academia reported training individuals how to use supporting material in presentations.

Motivational appeals, including persuasive strategies based on audience attitude, were reported by a total of nine respondents. The reason that motivational appeals were grouped as a skill subordinate to persuasive strategies is that many of the respondents discussed using motivation as a means of persuading an audience. Of those responding in this category, eight individuals were employed in an academy and only one was self-employed.

The use of factors of attention and interest as a skill used in presentation was coupled with using humor in presentations. Many of the respondents mentioned teaching the use of humor as a means of gaining the attention of the audience. Several individuals mentioned using humor as a motivational strategy in their own training. However, they

did not report training others to use humor as a means of motivation in presentations. One respondent, however, reported basing the entire presentation skills training program on the integration of humor in presentations and used humorous devices in the training. When this individual was observed giving a short lecture on the training program, props such as fake money, whistles, and clown noses (to be worn by audience members) were used as means of gaining attention and maintaining interest in his presentation.

Credibility of speakers was reported by six respondents as a part of their presentation skills training. Although credibility is a concept in Sprague and Stuart's book as composed of the elements of competence, concern, trustworthiness and dynamism, not all of these elements emerged in the interviews. Several respondents who reported training in speaker credibility said that speakers' styles determined their credibility. These responses were placed in the category, "style." In Sprague and Stuart's text, speaking style is defined as the choice of words and the way they are chosen and arranged so that the audience can clearly understand the content of a speaker's message (p. 217). It is obvious that some of the respondents' definitions of the terms "credibility" and "style" are different from the more traditional academic definitions in standard texts. Moreover, credibility was

described by one respondent as "showing that you've done your homework" when delivering a presentation.

Several individuals, both employed by organizations and self-employed, used the term "style" to describe elements of dress, appearance and image. It is clear that the word "style" is used by some trainers in terms of style of speaking (i.e., choice of language) and by some as style related to physical appearance (i.e., choice of dress). The individuals reporting training in elements of style relating to physical appearance are shown under the category of "physical delivery." Six individuals from academia, four from organizations and only two self-employed trainers responded that style (by Sprague and Stuart's definition) is a skill taught in training.

The presentation of a speech was reported as a part of a presentation skills training program by four individuals. Under the heading, "presentation," six categories from Sprague and Stuart's public speaking text apply to the interview data. Delivery of a presentation was reported by 13 trainers as a skill taught in their training programs. Although delivery can be thought of as similar to the presentation of a speech, these categories were made distinct since many respondents referred to the words "delivery" and "presentation" as separate skills. From the responses, the distinctions between the two terms were not clear.

The skill of how to practice for presentations was taught by five individuals. Practice was not described in length by any trainer and was referred to as "practice sessions" or "learning to practice for a presentation" by respondents. Four trainers in academia and one employed by an organization gave responses in this category.

Overcoming fear of speaking was reported by 12 respondents as a skill taught in their presentation skills training program. Many respondents mentioned fear of speaking or stage fright as a problem of training in presentation skills. Twelve individuals reported teaching overcoming fear of speaking in their program. Two individuals mentioned teaching "stress management" and "coping with stress" in the event of a speaking situation. These responses were grouped under "overcoming fear of speaking," since fear and stress are related factors affecting performance. Seven respondents employed by organizations, two from academia and three who were self-employed, reported teaching overcoming fear of speaking in their training programs.

Vocal delivery was reported as a skill taught by 14 respondents. Physical delivery was reported as taught by 27 respondents. Although vocal and physical delivery are both different elements of delivery, they were placed as separate categories because of the interview responses. Effective vocal delivery is described by Sprague and Stuart

as composed of skills relating to the elements of voice quality, articulation, using inflection and variety, appropriate volume and pitch, acceptable pronunciation of words, and the elimination of distracting habits, sounds, and phrases. When listing skills taught in training, the respondents described many elements of vocal delivery as described by Sprague. Some of the words and phrases used to describe vocal delivery were "vocal impact," "voice and diction," "avoiding non-words," and "showing enthusiasm in your voice."

The responses to training in physical delivery were also varied. Sprague and Stuart describe physical delivery as composed of the elements of appearance, mannerisms, posture, movement, gestures, eye contact, and facial expression. In describing physical delivery, respondents used such terms as "stance," "eye communication," and "platform manners." Dress, image, and physical appearance were also grouped under the category of physical delivery. There were nine responses from each employment category for "physical delivery."

The last category under the heading of "presentation" is "answering questions." Eleven respondents reported including handling questions as a skill taught in their presentation skills training program. Topics such as "how to handle hostile questions" were included in this category.

Table 6

Presentation Skills Taught

Skill	Responses by Trainer Employment			
	N	Self-Employed	Organization	Academy
Preparation:	13	2	6	5
topic	8	1	3	4
audience	14	3	7	4
analysis				
research	8	2	0	6
objectives	15	3	8	4
Organization:	15	5	4	6
outlining	7	1	1	5
choosing	6	0	3	3
points				
introductions/	11	2	6	3
conclusions				
Content:	6	1	2	3
reasoning	3	0	0	3
supporting	8	1	1	6
material				
visual aids	16	5	6	5
motivational	9	1	0	8
strategies				
attention/	13	3	2	8
interest				
credibility	6	1	1	4
style	6	1	2	3

(table continues)

Responses by Trainer Employment

Skill	N	Self-Employed	Organization	Academy
Presentation:	4	1	0	3
delivery	13	2	6	5
practice	5	0	1	4
overcoming fear	12	2	7	3
vocal delivery	14	3	5	6
physical delivery	28	10	9	9
answering questions	11	4	4	3
Other:				
listening	6	3	1	2
building rapport	10	5	3	2
environment	2	0	2	0
Total responses:	267	61	89	117

Other skills reported in the interviews were those of listening, establishing rapport and adapting to the environment. Listening as a skill was reported by six respondents as part of their presentation skills training program. These individuals mentioned that listening was a skill needed to gather information for presentations, to ask questions during presentations, to evaluate others' presentations and/or to answer questions related to their presentations. Establishing rapport is a skill taught by ten of the trainers interviewed. Eight individuals mentioned "rapport" or "establishing rapport" as a skill. One individual identified "stroking" as a skill taught and

another mentioned teaching "audience contact and audience relations." Both of these responses were placed under the category of establishing rapport. Preparing the environment of the speaking situation was reported by two individuals. One trainer described "setting tone and environment and positioning the audience" as a skill taught in his training program. The other respondent simply stated that how to prepare the speaking environment was one of the skills covered in the course. According to these trainers, the environment of a room can be changed by arranging furniture and changing the lighting. These trainers believe that the "environment" of the room in which a speech is delivered can truly affect actual speech performance. The two respondents who reported training individuals how to change the environment of a speech setting were employed by organizations.

One individual mentioned teaching how to handle difficult audience members as a separate skill from how to handle difficult or hostile questions. Another respondent reported teaching "how to process information through representative sensory systems" as a skill used in public speaking training. These responses were not categorized with the interview data.

There were 267 trainer responses to the question of skills taught in a typical presentation skills program. A total of 117 responses, almost half of the total responses,

came from the academic respondents.

Format. The next question asked, "What is the format of your typical presentation skills program?" Responses varied from short descriptive outlines of a typical program to detailed descriptions and content outlines of the training schedule and the provision of the training manual or workbook. Four individuals allowed the investigator to observe training in progress. A total of four programs were observed, three of which were taught by independent trainers to in-house groups at an organization. The fourth program observed was taught as an extension course for a management certificate program through San Jose State University. The individual who taught the program at San Jose State University was also an independent trainer who regularly taught presentation skills in organizations in the Silicon Valley. Since the answers to this question are lengthy, the results will be reported in the Appendix in a detailed content outline, provided as an archetypical example of a typical presentation skills program.

Size. The following question addressed the typical group size for training. The responses ranged from group sizes of 1 to 100. A "typical" group size ranged from 1 to 20. Two trainers reported that they only trained presentation skills on an individual basis. Thirteen respondents reported that they train groups of 10 individuals or fewer with a most typical group size of 8 to 10. Groups of 11 to

20 participants are typical sizes for 9 of the respondents and 6 respondents said they train groups of 20 to 40 trainees. One respondent declined to answer this particular question. A typical group size for presentation skills training was from 8 to 12 trainees.

In response to the question of typical group size, four individuals volunteered their opinions of the "ideal" size groups for presentation skills training. Three individuals volunteered that the "ideal" size group for training was between 10 and 15 participants while one said the ideal size was fewer than 12.

One-on-one coaching was reported by six trainers to be typical for at least half of their training. One trainer in this group reported that the initial group for training (typically 18 trainees) met on the first day of a program and the rest of the program consisted of one-on-one training and coaching.

Length. The next question on the interview schedule relating to format asked, "How long does training usually last?" The shortest length of training was 45 minutes and the longest class involved 24 hours of in-class work. One reported conducting 36 hours of training but 16 of those hours were spent on outside assignments. The most typical program lasted 2 full days and involved 12 to 16 hours of instruction in class. Fourteen trainers gave this response. One respondent reported conducting training two

full- and one half-day sessions. Four respondents reported training two half-days of three to four hours per day. All but two respondents in this group reported that training was conducted on consecutive days. For the respondents reporting a typical one-day program, five reported offering a one-day session from six to eight hours and three reported training only three to four hours for their one-day programs.

One respondent reported teaching three half-day sessions of three to four hours per day. Four other respondents reported a variety of training schedules. These individuals reported training from three to six full days, one to two days per week. One respondent reported training participants one full day off-site and three half days on-site in a typical presentation skills program.

Several respondents reported that a typical day of training consisted of half-days of four hours or less. This difference in definitions may have affected the outcome of the question in the first section of the schedule concerning number of days trained in the past year. Those defining a half-day of four hours or fewer may have reported more training days than actual in the question in the first section of the interview schedule.

Number of trainers. The next two questions on the schedule relating to format regarded the number of trainers used to deliver a presentation skills training program and

how responsibilities are distributed if more than one trainer is used. Sixteen respondents reported that they trained alone. The remaining 15 use two trainers, either full-time or for at least half of the training programs delivered annually.

Responsibilities of trainers. In describing the responsibilities of the trainers, three individuals said that the second trainer is used as a "staff person" whose sole responsibility is the set-up and video-taping of presentation. Another reported having a "pilot/co-pilot relationship" with the second trainer who would regularly videotape and perform some coaching responsibilities. The other trainers reported having an equal distribution of responsibilities. Delivery of program material is divided up by the team according to areas of expertise or preference. Examples of such divisions of responsibilities might be having one trainer focus on theory and the other on delivery. In this scenario, one trainer was described as leading the seminar while the other coached the participants in actual presentations or in video-playback. The respondents who reported an equal distribution of responsibilities also reported that both trainers provided feedback to the participants. In summary, a typical presentation skills training program involved only one trainer. There were no apparent differences among the responses to this question from trainers in the three categories of employment.

Exercises. The next question addressed the number and types of exercises used in a typical presentation skills training program. Typically, trainers reported using five to six exercises during presentation skills training. The range of responses for this question was from no exercises (three responses) to 20 exercises. For the respondents who typically offer one-day programs, the number ranged from three to six exercises. The respondents who train more than one-day programs reported an average of three exercises per day.

A number of types of exercises were described for use in presentation skills training. Eleven trainers responded that the delivery and/or video-taping of a trainee's presentation was an exercise used in training. Five responded that a written critique of a presentation or a self-evaluation of communication skills and/or self-evaluation of a performance was an exercise used in training. Seven respondents reported providing in-class preparation time for presentations. These respondents indicated that many trainers view presentations in training as exercises. Responses also showed that trainers used evaluation of presentations as exercises in training. Despite this ambiguity, the responses based on the question are reported as answered in the interview.

Ten trainers responded that exercises related to eye contact were used in training. Several trainers described

the exercises used to develop eye contact in presentations. A popular exercise described was one that required the presenter to maintain eye contact with individual audience members for several seconds at a time while delivering a segment of a presentation. Once eye contact was made for the specified period of time, each audience member would signal the speaker to move on to make contact with another.

Exercises dealing with the voice, such as vocal variety and pitch, were reported by seven trainers. None of these exercises included the actual delivery of a presentation or segment of a presentation. A typical exercise is one described by three of the participants and is similar to others described. The exercise involves a presenter first reciting numbers or a short sentence or paragraph while maintaining as little variety (in volume, pitch, intonation, etc.) as possible. The presenters then repeat the series of numbers or the sentence while using as much variety in their voice as possible. The object of the exercise is to display a great deal of change from the first to the second performance.

Seven trainers reported that exercise related to "content" were used in training. Exercises incorporating skills of gesturing were reported by seven trainers, three of whom described these as "role-playing" exercises. There were six reports of exercises focusing on "nonverbal" aspects of presentations. Three of these exercises

involved presenting a segment of a speech while practicing the skill.

There were also six reports of relaxation, fear-reducing or "ice-breaking" exercises used in training. When comparing the description of these exercises to the topics and purposes of the speeches delivered in the training programs, it is apparent that many of the exercises related to the reduction of fear are similar, if not the same, as the first trainee presentation described by respondents. To many respondents, if the purpose of a presentation is to reduce fear in a trainee, then it would also serve as an exercise to reduce fear or anxiety in the participants. When combining the responses of trainers who use the first presentation to reduce fear or anxiety in trainees and the responses of trainers who state using an exercise to reduce fear by having the trainees deliver a presentation, the total number of responses is 16 -- over half of the trainers. A typical exercise designed to reduce fear or anxiety related to speaking would involve the trainee giving a short presentation (1 to 3 minutes) based on a personal experience such as an embarrassing moment, a personal interest or a hobby.

Exercises centered around listening were reported by five individuals. Presentations practicing the use of visual aids were described by five trainers. Three reported that answering questions was practiced in train-

ing. It was not unusual for respondents from each employment group to describe similar exercises used in training. Two respondents declined to respond to the question.

Ratio of lecture to exercise. There were 30 responses to the question. The responses to the ratio of lecture to performance assignments or exercises ranged from 50% lecture and 50% exercise to 20% lecture and 80% exercise (see Table 7).

The results indicate that most trainers use a ratio of at least 60% exercise to lecture. It appears as if the self-employed and organizationally employed respondents favor a ratio of 70% exercise to 30% lecture.

Table 7

Ratio of Lecture to Exercise

		Ratio of Lecture:Exercise			
<u>Employment</u>	N	50:50	40:60	30:70	20:80
Self-Employed	10	1	3	5	1
Organization	11	1	3	6	1
Academy	9	2	3	2	2
Total	30	3	9	13	4

Next on the interview schedule were the questions, "How many presentations do the participants give?" "What types of presentations do participants give?" and "What

topics do they cover?"

Number of presentations. The number of presentations given by participants in a typical training program ranged from one to nine. Nine respondents reported that participants gave four presentations and seven responded that participants delivered three presentations. Thus, it seems that three or four presentation performances are typical in presentation skills training. Six respondents said that while there were only one to two complete presentations given, two to five presentation segments were delivered preceding a final complete presentation. One respondent reported that only one presentation was delivered by participants and one respondent declined to provide a response to the question.

Types of presentations. Respondents identified nine different types of presentations and seven different topic areas for presentations. There was some misunderstanding in regard to whether "type of presentation" meant "mode of delivery," such as extemporaneous or impromptu, or "purpose," such as a speech to demonstrate or persuade. Responses regarding mode of delivery and speech purpose are combined into the category "types of presentations."

Twenty-four respondents reported assigning persuasive presentations, and 22 respondents assigned informative presentations. Seven respondents said that the types of presentations assigned were technical, nine said that

presentations were impromptu, and seven reported that performance assignments involved sales presentations. There were 6 reports of demonstration presentation assignments, 3 small group presentation assignments and one report of presentation topics being the choice of the participants.

Topics of presentations. Under "topics of presentations," seven categories were provided by the respondents. Of the responses, 29 described the topics as "work-related," and 15 described topics as "personal." Common answers that would be included under "personal" topics would be a hobby or personal interest, a personal experience, a humorous or embarrassing experience, or speeches pertaining to socially-centered activity. All respondents reporting using speech topics of a personal nature also used work-related topics as the focus for presentations in their training programs. Only one individual reported that "personal topics are encouraged" in presentation skills training.

"Sales" as a topic of presentations was reported by seven respondents and "technical" topics were reported by four. One respondent said that topics were "business-related" and two said topics were centered around "planning" and "project-planning." From responses to this question, it can be concluded that a typical presentation would be work-related and informative or persuasive in

nature.

Length of presentations. Presentations ranged from 28 seconds to one hour. The average length of presentations was 7 to 8 minutes. There were 18 reports of presentations lasting 5 minutes or less with the typical length being from 2 to 3 minutes. There were nine reports of presentations lasting from 6 to 10 minutes and only 3 reports of presentations lasting 11 minutes or longer. One respondent did not reply to the question.

Materials used in training. The next question on the interview schedule asked what materials were used in training. Fifteen items were reportedly used as training material. The use of video-taping and playback equipment was reported by 28 participants. The presentation of film or video was reported by 10 respondents while only three said they used audiotape either to tape participants or to provide an example of a presentation. Twenty-five reported using overhead projectors and transparencies, opaque projector, viewgraphs, and viewfoils, and only seven said they use 35-millimeter slide presentation as an instrument for training. The use of workbooks, notebooks or training manuals was reported by 25 respondents, although all reported the use of some form of written guideline of the training program for the participants. Some of those who did not report using a training workbook or manual report the following: 21 use handouts or article reprints in

training, five use a presentation skills or public speaking-oriented textbook for use by the participants, four provide a bibliography of sources relating to presentation skills or public speaking, and one said participants keep a journal of their acquired skills in public presentations. Included in the contents of the training manuals, notebooks and workbooks, according to descriptions, were various handouts, forms for evaluation and feedback, bibliographies of the sources used for the program along with basic information regarding the skills needed for effective presentations.

Flipcharts are used by 23 of the respondents and 4 respondents incorporate the use of a chalkboard or an illuminated "whiteboard" for displaying information. Three respondents said they use laminated cards as a training tool. The laminated cards were described by participants as "prescription cards," serving as a reminder of a skill or series of skills the training participant is to practice or try to achieve. Two respondents claimed they use various "objects" in training to serve as visual aids to present information and one reported using a computer for computer-generated graphics in training. One respondent failed to answer the question regarding material used in training. From these responses, it can be seen that a typical presentation skills training program provides a workbook or training manual, uses an overhead projector

device and a flipchart for displaying training material and for trainees to use in practice presentations.

Logistics. The next two questions asked about the specific logistics that apply to the use and distribution of training material and of video-taping trainee presentations. In response to these questions it was revealed that the participants or trainees keep the workbooks, notebooks, manuals and handouts in 29 of the programs. Slide, transparencies and overhead material are given to participants in five of the training programs. Videotapes of presentations are kept by participants in 15 training programs. The organization keeps the video-taped performance in 10 programs and tapes are destroyed in 3 programs. In regard to videotape logistics, the three trainers who destroyed the video-taped performances of the trainees believed that the material could be detrimental to the career of the program participant if used inappropriately. For example, one trainer in this group reported that an employee in an organization who received training was fired on the grounds that there was no apparent improvement in presentation performance. The respondents who reported that the videotapes were kept by the organization did not report such concerns. Some stated that the organization provides the videotapes and equipment in many cases and decides what to do with the material after training is completed. Several respondents in this group said that the

videotapes are reused by the organization thus; previous presentations are erased in the process. There were two reports that no specific logistic decisions were made about the use of materials in training. One respondent did not reply to the question. From the responses to the question on logistics applying to training material, a typical training program would provide individual participants with a workbook or manual and a videotape of their performances upon completion of the training program.

Other requirements. There was a wide range of responses to the question of other requirements in training. Fourteen trainers said they had attendance and participation requirements. Several respondents in this group said that credit is given for participation or that trainees must attend the majority of the program in order to attend later sessions. Among the respondents reporting specific requirements, several said that they had strict rules regarding promptness.

Room and seating requirements were reported by four respondents. Individuals in this group mentioned that the room temperature and environment as well as seating arrangements must be comfortable for the trainees for the duration of training. Two respondents said that there are requirements concerning the number of participants who attend training. Three participants said that equipment for video-taping and/or monitors for playback must be

provided by the organization in which they train. Five responded that there was a mandatory follow-up session with participants that was the responsibility of the organization to arrange. Homework was required on the part of the trainees by six respondents and nine reported that advance preparation to the course was mandatory. Of those programs that require homework or advance preparation, common descriptions of the additional work were advance preparation of an outline or preparation, reading material, and practice of a presentation outside of class. Five of the six trainers employed in an academic institution reported that homework was given to trainees. Six of the nine trainers reporting advance preparation required by trainees were employed in academia. One respondent required that the focus of presentations in training be on work-related topics, and one reported having rules regarding copyright material.

Feedback. The next question was, "What type of feedback do you give?" It was necessary in some cases to use a follow-up question in order to help the respondents distinguish between feedback and evaluation. A typical follow-up question that clarified the question of type of feedback given was, "Do you give oral feedback, written feedback or what?" Feedback to trainees was reported to be provided by the trainer, the peers of the trainees, and by self-evaluation of performance by the trainees.

Feedback from the instructor fell into three categories. The first category was one-on-one or small-group video-coaching involving the trainer's oral critique of the taped performance of the participant. The second category of instructor feedback was oral feedback in front of the training group, in small groups or one-on-one without the use of video playback. The third category was written feedback from the instructor on performances either video-taped or not video-taped. Videotape playback was described as the taped performance of the trainee being reviewed alone with the trainer or in front of the participant group. After the videotape playback of individual performance, generally three types of feedback were given: oral and/or written critiques by the instructor, oral and/or written critiques by the other participants, and self-evaluations.

There were 29 responses which stated that one-on-one or small-group oral feedback was provided to participants. There were 13 responses that videotape playback or video-coaching was used in training in small groups and 15 responses that one-on-one video-coaching was used. Video-coaching was described as playback of the performance in concurrence with oral critiques, comments, and suggestions for improvement given by the instructor. This procedure often involved stopping the tape, and pointing out or discussing the good/bad points of a performance, and was

typically conducted on a one-on-one basis. One individual reported providing oral feedback during the live performance, where he would actually interrupt the speaker to point out effective or ineffective behavior of the presenter.

There were 20 reports of written feedback from the instructor. This form of feedback was most often described as a reaction to performance using a checklist or feedback form. From the responses, it can be concluded that a typical training program involved either one-on-one video-coaching or videotape playback in front of a small group with oral and written feedback from the trainer.

Peer feedback was provided through oral or written means. Twenty-one respondents said that oral feedback was provided by peers and nineteen said that written feedback was given by peers. Several respondents mentioned that, although they use peer feedback, they do not incorporate it into the program until the trainees are given guidelines or taught how to provide effective feedback. Those willing to divulge the information said that peer feedback, oral or written, is provided by means of a standard checklist. All respondents that gave the investigator actual training material to use for the study provided the guidelines or checklists used in giving feedback. A typical training program would involve written and oral feedback from the participants in the training program in addition to the

instructor's oral and written feedback.

Self-evaluation by the participants is used in the oral mode by six trainers and seven reported having the participants critique their own performances in writing. All respondents who use either oral or written self-evaluation reported that a guideline or checklist is provided for the participant. Several trainers reported using goal-setting checklists in their training material or manuals but did not identify these checklists as feedback.

Training Success. The question, "How do you know if training has been successful?" received mixed responses. There were ten responses which stated that written evaluations from the trainees determined the success of training and an equal number reported that oral feedback from participants determined training success. Eleven trainers reported that oral feedback from managers determined training success. Four respondents said that written feedback from managers determined the success of training. Five respondents said that written pretests and posttests of trainee performance evaluations and self-evaluations by trainees determined training success. Ten respondents said that a noticeable change in participant performance from first to last videotaping provided evidence of success. One trainer reported that a video-taped performance of training in progress determined training success. The videotape included both trainer and participant performance

and was used by the organization to determine success of the training program.

There were eight responses which claimed that a six-month follow-up evaluation of training provided information as to the relative success of training. Four trainers replied that training was successful if they were rehired to train for an organization. One trainer responded that there was no effort made to determine the success of a program and one declined to respond. From responses to the question of how success is determined in training, it appears that trainers depend largely on the observed performance of the trainees as well as oral feedback from the participants and managers.

Evaluation. The next question on the interview schedule is also related to determining success of training: "What type of evaluation do you use?" In order to categorize responses to this question, five levels of evaluation of training developed by Watson (1979) will be used.

The five levels of evaluation as identified by Watson are preferred criteria for measuring communication training effectiveness. This judgement is based on their effectiveness in measuring specified training objectives. The first area of evaluation is reactions of trainees to all facets of the learning experience. For purposes of this investigation, the reactions of the supervisors or managers

of the training and/or trainees will be added. Evaluations based on trainee and supervisor or manager reactions were reported by 25 respondents. The means of evaluation most often reported was a "happy sheet" consisting of questions relating to participants' likes or dislikes of the trainer, the program, and the training material. Another means of gathering evaluations based on reactions to the training was through oral comments by trainees or managers. Three trainers reported that trainee presentations based on reporting the helpful aspects of the program and skills they hoped to improve upon were used as evaluations of the course. A typical participant evaluation form of a presentation skills training program is provided in Appendix C as an illustration.

The second method identified by Watson for evaluation of training is one which measures learning. Changes in attitude, knowledge, and skills of the trainees would all be included in this area of evaluation. Only a few reports were provided by respondents who measured change in attitude or knowledge by means of a written instrument or content test. The most frequent measures of learning assessed changes in skill level based either on trainee self-evaluations or on comparison of video-taped performances. Fifteen respondents reported using such methods.

The third category of evaluation identified by Watson relates to job behavior. This level of evaluation would

measure to what extent and how trainees behave differently on the job and how they have applied what is taught in training to their jobs. There were five responses that fell under this level of evaluation. Two of the respondents said that they personally perform a "check-up" to see if the skills taught in training had transferred to the job. One of the respondents reported actually evaluating on-the-job presentations of the trainees after completion of the training program. The other two respondents reported having supervisors or managers of the trainees perform such an evaluation or having the trainees themselves perform a self-evaluation after returning to the job and giving a presentation. The other types of evaluations described by Watson are, fourth, how the trainees affect the functioning of the organization as a whole (organizational impact) and, fifth, additional outcomes including any social value of training and its effect on the trainee's self-concept or personal goals. From the responses, it is not apparent that these last two areas of evaluation were used in presentation skills training. One individual, however, identified similar levels of evaluation and addressed the issue of the difficulty encountered in identifying the organizational impact of the training provided. Sixteen trainers reported that they use more than one level of evaluation with reactions to training and evaluation of learning as the most common evaluations used.

Problems. The responses to, "What do you find to be the biggest problem concerning training in presentation skills?" were varied. Many trainers chose to rephrase the question to, "What do you find to be the biggest challenge concerning training in presentation skills?" So, after the initial interviews, the word "challenge" was used instead of "problem." Many respondents named several "challenges" in presentation skills training. The greatest challenge to trainers was helping the respondents overcome fear of speaking (14 responses). This was not surprising, considering fear of speaking in public is ranked as one of the greatest fears in our society. There were eight reports of resistance to training and/or resistance to breaking old speaking habits. There were the same number of reports that time and/or investment from the organization is a challenge to training. Lack of interest and/or motivation of the trainees was reported by six, transfer of learning by four, and getting participants to listen was reported by two trainers as being a challenge. The size of the group and/or variety of experience of the participants was reported by four respondents and marketing was perceived as one of the greatest challenges in presentation skills training by one participant.

Philosophy. The last question in the section of the interview pertaining to presentation skills training in particular asked the trainers to respond with their philo-

sophies or general approaches to a presentation skills training program. Responses to this question varied, although several categories of answers emerged. There were ten responses which indicated that the trainer's philosophy or general approach to presentation skills training was based on building the confidence and motivating the trainees. Responses such as "get the participants involved," "set up a successful environment for the trainees, take them from the known to unknown and build skills on prior success," and "build esteem and confidence [of the trainees]" were typical. Other responses were "take the scare-power out and put the real power in" and "make the participants feel good."

The importance of preparation and practice of speeches was reported as stressed in training programs by six respondents. "Proper planning prevents poor performance," and "practice, practice, and more practice," were typical responses reflecting this philosophy. Another response that emerged was the philosophy or approach of stressing the individual styles and levels of achievement of the trainees. Five respondents held a view similar to, "We develop a 'natural self' instead of a style that shows you've been to training at _____."

Four responses indicated that some trainers felt the general approach to their training was based on improvement of skill and performance. A typical response was "presen-

tation skills training is a never-ending process of skills development." Three respondents replied that providing theory and research as a basis for training was their general approach.

Three respondents stressed the importance of maintaining a professional speaking image, and two stressed that training should be centered around the individual needs of the participants. Various other approaches to training included, "We need to humanize the workplace; get people in touch with their feelings and convictions" and "I personally think it's fun to give presentations and to share this with participants."

Training versus Teaching

The next set of questions on the interview schedule regarded training and teaching. Questions in this section address the attitudes trainers have toward presentation skills training and teaching.

Differences in general. The first question in the section asked, "How is training different than teaching in general?" There were 30 responses to the question. The responses were mainly descriptive comparisons between teaching and training. Teaching was described by six respondents as more philosophical, more theoretical and informative than training. Five responses described teaching as more enlightening than training or as providing more opportunity for growth. Four respondents said that

the main difference between teaching and training was that teaching involves testing. One respondent in this group reported that, "in teaching you use pencil and paper tests." Two respondents said that they viewed teaching as primarily a means of disseminating information. One respondent described teaching as an "information dump."

Training was described by eight respondents as "involving facilitation," and involving more applications and orientation to the development of skill than teaching involves. Seven respondents said that training was more specific in nature than teaching. One respondent said that training "lacks variety" and others said that training is "too specific" or "more specific" in relation to teaching.

There were eight respondents that said training involved more student motivation or that students were more self-motivated in training than in teaching. There were two responses indicating that training was more interactive and that it involved more student participation than did teaching. Three individuals reported that training involved principles of adult learning, education and/or motivation. There were five respondents that said there is no difference between teaching and training in general.

Presentation skills training versus university course.

The next question was, "How does presentation skills training differ from courses offered at a university?" There were a total of 29 responses to the question.

Presentation skills training was described by five respondents as providing better quality of instruction than teaching. One individual described the basic course at a university as providing "less quality" of instruction and being "less realistic" in terms of objectives.

Presentation skills training was described by three respondents as being related to learning a specific skill. There were also three responses that stated presentation skills training has more of an orientation towards application of ideas and concepts than does teaching.

On the other hand, the basic course was described by five respondents as providing more of a content and research orientation. There were also five responses that stated the basic course provides more theory than training and seven responses that there is more of a broad focus in teaching a public speaking course than in training in presentation skills. One respondent said, "training is specific in knowledge and skills; enlightenment is a by-product."

Four respondents described the results or outcome of presentation skills training as being more important than the results or outcome in the basic course. There were two responses that stated the difference between teaching and training presentation skills is that there are no grades provided in training. One individual described training as involving "more intensive small group interaction" and one

said that presentation skills training provides more attention to the students than does the basic university course. There were four responses that stated the basic public speaking course requires more time to complete objectives. One respondent indicated that students in the basic university course have more of an association with fear than students in presentation skills training.

There were six responses that stated the basic public speaking course and presentation skills training involved the same principles or that there is little or no difference between the two. One individual declined to answer the question.

Concepts from the university course that apply to training. The next question asked, "What concepts from a course offered in speech communication apply to presentation skills training?" There were only 24 responses to the question because many respondents felt as if they were not familiar with what is currently offered in the basic speaking course in universities. The answers indicated that a number of concepts are taught in the basic course that apply to presentation skills training.

There were six responses that stated the structure of a presentation, outlining, and organization are principles taught in the basic speech course that apply to presentation skills training. Five respondents said that delivery skills are concepts that apply to training. There were

also five responses that indicated communication theory as taught in the basic university course provides concepts that apply to training. One individual in this group said that knowledge of the background of the field of speech communication applies to training. Another respondent in this group said that many of the models used to describe principles of public speaking in the classroom also apply to training presentation skills.

There were three responses which stated that concepts pertaining to understanding the purpose or intent of a presentation apply to training. Other concepts mentioned include content and substance of a presentation, use of visual aids, proper use of supporting material, how to conduct research, the importance of listening and providing effective feedback, speaking style, credibility, reasoning, and the ethical concerns and responsibilities of the speaker. Each of these responses occurred at least once but not more than twice in the interviews.

Concepts from training that apply to university courses. The next question inquired, "What concepts from presentation skills training apply to university courses in speech communication?" There were 28 responses to the question. More individuals responded to this question because they felt as if all of the concepts from training should be applicable to teaching. One respondent who declined to answer the previous question of what concepts

from university courses apply to presentation skills training said that "everything from training needs to be incorporated in the college course--teaching needs to be more practical and realistic." Nineteen respondents said that all of the concepts used in presentation skills training apply to courses offered in universities.

There were four responses that stated concepts relating to audience analysis would be applicable from training to teaching. Concepts relating to speaking image, style and/or dress were regarded by three individuals as applicable to teaching the basic course. There were also three responses that stated aspects of delivery covered in presentation skills training are applicable to public speaking courses. Only one respondent said that no concepts from training would be applicable to teaching the basic course because they "[couldn't] see academic people being interested in what is done in organizations."

The following concepts were also reported as applicable to the basic course: use of visual aids and materials, organization and structure of a speech, the importance of listening, the selection of technical or business-oriented speech topics, the applications of such speech topics, determining the purpose of a speech, and concepts related to principles of adult learning. Each of these responses occurred at least once or twice in the interviews. Three individuals declined to answer the question.

Useful aspects of presentation skills training that apply to teaching. The next question asked, "What have you found to be the most useful aspect of presentation skills training as it applies to your teaching speech communication?" There were 18 responses to the question. Eight respondents reported that presentation skills training is useful to teaching because it enhances the trainers' own personal presentation skills and styles. One respondent said that, "training helps in acquiring professional speaking skills, and it helps build confidence." There were seven responses which stated that general feedback from training provides examples for use in teaching as well as providing insight into business applications of presentations. For example, one respondent said, "From training I know exactly what type of skills are needed [by students] and how they [the students] may be viewed by their peers in the real world."

There were six responses that suggested training helps instructors learn how to motivate students better and how to increase student involvement and enthusiasm in the classroom. Four respondents said that training helps them learn to cope with different styles of learning and/or different audiences of students. A typical response was, "training helps in the understanding of how people learn and how they process information." There were four responses that indicated training helped the respondents in

their organizational skills in respect to teaching the basic course. One respondent said that training helped one learn how to "condense material into a time-frame."

There were four responses that suggested training helped to enhance certain values of teaching. One such response was that training helps one to learn that "presentation skills are useful for any human interaction." Another respondent said that training helps one understand "the values held in teaching." There were three responses that claimed everything from training is useful to teaching, a typical response being, "all aspects of training should apply to teaching." Thirteen respondents did not answer the question.

Useful aspects of teaching speech communication that apply to training. The last question in the section asks, "What have you found to be the most useful aspect of teaching speech communication as it applies to presentation skills training?" There were eight responses that stated skills related to group facilitation and gaining student involvement are learned while teaching and are useful for training. There were six responses that suggested skills of classroom management and organization as well as skills in planning and preparation are useful aspects of teaching that apply to training. Five respondents said that teaching public speaking helps them gain a more thorough understanding of research and theory of public speaking and

is also helpful to training in that regard. There were several responses that indicated specific theories from teaching were helpful to training. For example, one respondent said that "the concept and the use of positive reinforcement" was helpful in training. There were five responses that suggested teaching is useful in acquiring skills related to dealing with a variety of students/audiences. Two respondents reported that teaching helped them reexamine and improve their teaching skills. For example, one respondent said that teaching makes him/her "give a great deal of thought to content and clarity while training." Two respondents said that teaching helps them maintain a sense of humor. One respondent said that teaching helps in understanding differences in styles of speaking and in styles of learning.

There were six responses that claimed everything used in teaching is helpful in training. A typical response was that from teaching to training, "everything is useful." Six respondents did not answer the question.

Training and Academic Life

The last set of questions dealt with the relationship between training and academic life. There were also questions asking advice from the trainers for newcomers and students to the field.

Departmental policy. The first question in this section asked, "Does your department or institution have

formal policies governing training/consulting activities?" All nine of the academic respondents said there were no formal policies governing training/consulting activities. However, five respondents said that there were informal policies regarding training activity outside the classroom.

Promotion of training. One individual said that the informal policies hinder training/consulting activities and four said they actually serve to promote such activities.

Promotion of academic advancement. The following question asked, "Does training promote or hinder academic advancements?" Four respondents said that training promotes academic advancement, and one said training hindered academic advancement. Four respondents said that training had no effect on academic advancement in their department.

Helpfulness of training to teaching. The next question asked, "Do you view training as helpful to your teaching? How?" There were seven responses that suggested training helps in gaining a better perspective on presentation skills education in the classroom. A typical response was, "training helps give you a fresh look at the material" and "anytime you have a foot--even if it's just a toe--in the real world, you get a better perspective on teaching." There were five responses that indicated the applications of presentation skills in organizations as well as examples and experience are useful to teaching. There were four

responses that stated training helps in gaining a better understanding of the needs of students. There were also four responses that stated training is helpful to teaching in regard to integrating theory and practice of instruction. For example, one respondent said, "training helps broaden my understanding of adult learning and how people communicate in formal presentations." Three respondents said that training helps them to be more flexible in the academic setting. Two individuals reported that training helps them gain more confidence in their teaching and two respondents said that training helps them to be better organized in the classroom. There were three respondents in academia who said that they viewed training and teaching as synonymous. Twenty-two individuals did not respond to the question.

Helpfulness of training to research. The following question asked, "Do you view training as helpful to your research? How?" There were seven responses that stated that training helps generate ideas for research and provides applications for research findings. Five teachers said that training provides them with subjects for their research. There were also five responses which claimed that training provides a change of environment and is stimulating to research. There was one response that suggested training helps in keeping up-to-date on new methods and ideas in organizational training. Fourteen

individuals did not respond to the question.

Reasons for training. The next question asked, "What are the most important reasons why you have engaged in communication training/consulting?" Eleven respondents said that the primary reason they engaged in training was for the money. There were seven responses by individuals in academia which indicated that they engaged in training primarily for monetary purposes. Three individuals were self-employed and one was employed in an organization and engaged in training for monetary reasons. One respondent in academia said, "I certainly don't teach for the money--teaching is a noble enterprise."

Ten individuals said that the reason they engaged in training was because they were interested in training or felt as if they were competent in that area. There were nine responses which indicated that that individuals engaged in training because they enjoyed it. A typical response to the question was, "Because I love it." There were eight responses which indicated that that individuals engaged in training because they saw it as a challenge. Seven individuals said that they engaged in training because they saw a need for it. For example, one respondent said, "presentation skills are valuable in a business setting." Another respondent said, "I believe in its [training's] value. If you are going to solve world problems, communication skills play a key role. Communica-

tion skills link human interaction."

Six respondents said they decided to engage in training because of personal needs or goals. One respondent said that it enhanced personal growth and development. Another individual said that "it is satisfying work to be able to help others." One individual did not respond to the question.

Advice concerning presentation skills training. The following question asked, "What advice can you give a student/newcomer concerning presentation skills training? Fourteen respondents advised that a newcomer to training should try to gain experience in training. For example, one respondent said, "Do lots of it, on a regular basis." Thirteen respondents advised students or newcomers to either find a mentor in training or to educate themselves in training. For example, one respondent said, "Go to the experts; find out who they are, what they are doing." Another respondent advised, "It is important to enroll in and take training courses from several different people. Go through training before you teach it in a confrontative [sic] situation." There were seven responses that developing a marketing strategy is good advice for a newcomer to training/consulting. One response was, "There are lots of people out there doing it. One needs to develop something that will set them [sic] apart. For example, a 'power-communication' or 'power-listening' service." Three

respondents stressed being aware of one's limitations and abilities and to engage in training only if one enjoys training. For example, one respondent said, "Do it if you love it." There were three responses to the effect that good advice for a newcomer to training was to learn to overcome fear of speaking before getting involved in training. Two respondents said that newcomers should be advised to be well organized in preparation for training.

Advice concerning teaching and training. The next question asked, "What advice can you give a student/newcomer concerning teaching and training in general?" There were ten responses that indicated a student or newcomer should gain experience and practice before becoming involved in teaching and/or training. Seven respondents advised preparing for teaching and/or training by taking coursework or by familiarizing oneself with research in instruction. For example, one respondent specifically advised, "pay attention to research on positive reinforcement, know objectives, how to allow for practice of skills, feedback, and evaluation of skill and knowledge." There were five responses advising newcomers to have patience and tolerance in teaching and training. Several respondents advised, "be careful for burnout." One respondent said, "be patient and give of yourself--don't be defeated by flop sessions, only by mistakes can you learn."

Five respondents advised that newcomers or students

should learn how to involve and motivate students toward learning. Three respondents advised that teaching and training provide a healthy balance of activity in education. One respondent advised, "Don't limit yourself to narrow perspectives in either teaching or training. The training profession is not very professional. Try not to make a distinction between teaching and training."

Three respondents advised newcomers to build their own communication skills in preparation for teaching and/or training. Two individuals advised finding a role model to follow in teaching and/or training. Two responses indicated that being aware of the differences in students in teaching and training situations is good advice. One individual did not respond to the question.

From the results of the interviews, it can be surmised that there are some methods and practices reported that can be generalized as typical among the responses of the trainers. The responses to the questions pertaining to methods used in training were generally detailed and rich in description. Several individuals provided outlines of their typical presentation skills training program as well as handouts and literature used in training. In addition to the material trainers provided in the interviews, four respondents allowed observation of their actual training programs.

Proprietary material from trainers and detailed

content outlines of training sessions provide supplemental information of what type of training takes place in the Silicon Valley. Some of the proprietary material from trainers in the investigation was similar, and in some cases, identical. Some trainers admitted using information that was obtained in previous training sessions at other organizations. For example, one organizationally employed trainer uses portions of training material from a private training/consulting firm. The respondents reported attending a training session offered by the firm before being employed by the current organization and found the information useful. Another organizationally employed respondent bases the entire presentation skills training program, both inside and outside of the organization, on the Toastmasters presentation skills information. The respondent was once an active member of Toastmasters in the organization and was later transferred to a training position in the same organization. This trainer explained that instead of having organizational employees pay membership dues to Toastmasters, they can receive the same presentation skills training for no cost through the organization. The trainer also conducts outside training using the material and information provided by Toastmasters International.

Detailed Content Outline

Appendix B contains a detailed content outline of a typical day's presentation skills training in organizations in the Silicon Valley. The outline contains descriptions of the activities which take place throughout the training program. Also provided is an example of a form used for evaluation of a training program. Some of the material included in the outline is similar to material obtained through the investigation and observations of training. The outline, however, is a compilation of typical practices and sequences of activities that took place during training. The detailed content outline is also based on course outlines provided by some of the respondents during interviews.

Based on the results, a typical presentation skills training program lasts two consecutive days or about 16 hours. The typical class size is from 8 to 12 participants. Training most often takes place in-house or within the organization. The first day of training begins with introductions of the trainer and participant trainees and may contain an "ice-breaking" activity. Following the introduction comes an overview of the course where training objectives and expectations are discussed. At this time, the philosophy of public speaking and training of the organization and/or of the trainer is discussed. The topic of how to deal with speech anxiety is often discussed

afterwards.

The training objective or main topic following this is typically speech organization. This topic is often covered in a lecture format of 1/2 hour to 45 minutes in length followed by a short speech or activity. The speech usually lasts only 1 to 2 minutes and is on a personal topic of the trainee's choice. The purpose of the speech is to provide trainees with the opportunity to organize and deliver a structured presentation in the extemporaneous mode. This first speaking performance is video-taped, and is usually played back in front of the entire group. The trainer is likely to provide a verbal and a brief written critique. The trainees then participate in personal goal-setting for the next performance.

The next main topic is typically delivery skills including gestures, posture and movement. This topic is discussed in a group forum where trainee participants volunteer delivery skills they think are most effective in public speaking. Additional personal goal-setting often takes place at this time when trainees discuss their known weaknesses in delivery. The second performance follows and focuses on delivery skills such as gestures and movement. The speeches are often only 2 to 3 minutes on a topic of the trainees' choice--usually a "how-to" or a demonstration-type presentation. Following the video-taped presentations is lunch. Over break periods, trainers frequently

divide trainee participants into groups where one group goes to lunch and another stays to review the presentation. Many trainers provide one-on-one video-coaching with written and extensive verbal feedback. Trainees also participate in personal goal-setting where they look for improvement in their performance and set goals for future presentations.

Following lunch, additional discussion and exercises focus on specific delivery skills. Activities and exercises dealing with eye contact, vocal variety, and projection are the widely chosen training topics. A typical eye contact exercise involves trainees giving an impromptu presentation on the topic of their choice. During their speech, each member of the audience raises one hand. As the speaker gains and maintains eye contact with an individual for a few seconds, the member of the audience lowers their hand. The objective is for the speaker to finish the presentation with no hands remaining raised in the audience. This exercise is usually video-taped to show trainees the effectiveness of eye contact as a speaking skill. These videotapes are played back to the group with trainer comments as well as constructive feedback from trainees. There is often a short break following exercises such as this one.

There commonly is additional in-depth discussion of delivery skills such as the importance of vocal character-

istics. This is followed by an exercise in vocal variety. A popular exercise involves trainees reciting different phrases, excerpts, or quotations in front of the other participants focusing on the practice of vocal variety and intonation. The trainer passes out the various excerpt on notecards or slips of paper and directs the trainees to say the phrases once with as little variety or change in volume, pitch, rate, etc. as possible--then to repeat the phrases with as much vocal variety as possible. The trainer often introduces some reward or incentive for the individual who provides the greater difference in vocal variety from the first to the second reading. Awards for performance are usually candy or sweets, a humorous certificate, or perhaps a bottle of wine.

Following the delivery exercise is a lecture/discussion of how to prepare and use visual aids. The trainer demonstrates how to display charts and graphs as well as how to prepare and present transparencies on an overhead projector. Next, the trainer discusses speech objectives and preparation and assigns the required preparation for the second day of training. The assignment for the second day usually consists of preparing a speech objective, outline, and visual aid.

The second day of training typically begins with an introduction of the day's program and a summary or review of the previous day's training session. The third speech

performance follows and lasts from 2 to 3 minutes per trainee. These presentations are on a business topic of the trainee's choice and include the use of a visual aid. The speeches are video-taped and most often are reviewed one-on-one with the trainer while other participants take a short break. The purpose of the presentation and subsequent coaching session is to provide trainees with an opportunity to improve upon their skills in setting speaking objectives, organization, and presentation of visual aids. Personal goal-setting is usually part of the process of achieving this objective and is used to set objective goals for future performances. Lecture and discussion of the functions of introductions and conclusions typically follow. As with most presentation skills training lectures, this one lasts from 1/2 hour to 45 minutes. Next comes an exercise in preparing and presenting effective introductions and conclusions. A common exercise includes groups of trainees assisting one another in preparing a brief introduction or conclusion and presenting it to the training class. Following the exercise is an assignment and some preparatory work for the final presentation. A break for lunch follows and time is set aside for individual consultation between trainer and trainees.

The lunch break is usually followed by a short lecture/discussion period of techniques of audience involve-

ment such as how to analyze an audience and prepare a message accordingly. A lecture and demonstration of how to handle questions and answers might come next. The topic of how to deal with hostile questions often involves an exercise. The exercise is structured where each trainee provides designated groups with their topic (usually business-related). Each group then prepares a number of possible questions for each topic. Then, the trainees individually present a short, impromptu presentation (1 to 2 minutes) and end by asking for questions. The questions are asked by the assigned groups and a lecture/discussion follows on how effectively the questions and answers were handled. Usually, a short break follows this activity.

The final presentations are typically 2 to 3 minutes in length although many trainers require longer final presentations. These presentations are video-taped and audience participation takes place in a question/answer period afterward. Following the final presentations is an individual review of the video either alone with the trainer or with the entire group. This review includes an oral re-evaluation of the trainee's progress throughout the training program and a self-evaluation including goal-setting for the future. Lastly, there is a review and an evaluation of the course and the instructor.

Chapter 4

Discussion

Summary of the Results

The results of the study provide a general view of the methods used in presentation skills training in organizations in the Silicon Valley. The majority of the companies interviewed were large, multinational organizations as opposed to smaller, more specialized organizations. The population sample of trainers in the study were active experts in the field. Most were involved in training organizations and showed interest in the pursuit of further knowledge.

The interview responses provided answers to the two research questions. The first general question of the methods used in presentation skills training received thorough responses from almost all of the respondents. The question was addressed in the interview schedule by a number of open-ended questions that probed for the strategies, rationales, and evaluations of strategies used in training. Responses to these questions included both in-depth answers and actual training material used by the professionals. The 31 interview episodes were reduced to skeletal descriptions of training programs. Recurring themes were preliminarily classified to address the research questions. Extended, verbatim quotations from the interviews were transcribed for examples. No attempt was

made to try to generate a representative sample of discourse. Rather, characteristics of the interview discourse were grouped in related categories. No statistical tests were applied to determine significance of difference or relationships to the data. Results were obtained directly from observable data.

From the results, it is apparent that there are similarities and differences between teachers and trainers of presentation skills that should be discussed. The instructional objectives, the assessment of the needs of students, the instructional procedures and practices, and the methods of evaluation are four areas in which trainers shared views similar to those of teachers. The second general research question inquired into the philosophical views and attitudes toward what is taught in public speaking courses and what is taught in presentation skills training programs. Although the number of respondents in the study was small, they came from a group of professionals who are quite active in presentation skills training in the Silicon Valley.

Instructional objectives. The first area of similarities and differences among teachers and trainers is in the goals of instruction in teaching public speaking and in presentation skills training. There are some differences between the instructional goals of teachers and trainers of presentation skills that resulted from the interviews.

However, the skills reportedly taught by trainers are very similar to those taught in public speaking courses. Although the language used to describe the skills is different in some cases, a large variety of skills is reportedly taught in most programs. In fact, the skills taught in a typical presentation skills training program are similar to those covered in public speaking programs. All of the skills reportedly taught in presentation skills training are similar to those covered in Sprague and Stuart's public speaking text (1988). Although all of the 26 skills taught in presentation skills training are important topics in public speaking classes, 14 skills were reported by at least ten respondents in both the self-employed and organizationally employed groups. The skills reported most often by these two groups were preparation, audience analysis, preparing speaking objectives, organization, preparing introductions and conclusions, preparation and use of visual aids, maintaining interest and attention, credibility and style, delivery skills in general, overcoming fear of speaking, vocal delivery, physical delivery, answering questions, and building rapport with the audience. This list of skills could easily be identified as the objectives stated on a syllabus for a public speaking course.

Many trainers, however, described training objectives as more practical, more applied and narrower than instruc-

tional objectives in public speaking classes. Learning as it takes place in business and industry has long been distinguished as different from that which takes place in schools. This distinction is based on the fact that some educators believe that applied learning is different from other types of learning. Learning, however, is an applied activity. Based on theory of skill learning, if there are no specific desired outcomes to be sought and opportunities to perform new skills, public speaking education will not be effective. The opportunity to apply what is learned in an educational encounter is largely dependent on the student. Some students, especially adult learners, may find multiple ways to apply what they have learned. Since adult learners have more life-experiences which they may relate and apply to what they have learned, it would seem that the scope of learning, no matter how narrow the objectives, can be a broad one for the typical student in a training program. Most students, however, need assistance in understanding the applications of what is taught as well as practice in applying skills to be learned.

Preassessment of the needs of learners. A difference between the audiences of teachers and trainers in presentation skills training is centered around the types of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and expectations they bring into the instructional setting. Understanding how learning takes place among different student populations can be a

determining factor in the success of instructional strategies. In training, it seems that the learners want fast results from instruction. They prefer learning that has direct application to their current problems. From the results of the interviews, it is also apparent that learners in organizations expect a certain level of professionalism and skill in presentation on the part of the trainer. The advice given by trainers to newcomers in the field suggested that honing presentation skills for delivering training was important.

Instructional procedures. The methods of instruction and specifics of format reported by trainers share many similarities with the methods and format specifics used by teachers. The general format of a typical training program, however, reveals some differences from teaching. The class size of a typical training program, for example, is much smaller than that of a typical public speaking class. The length of training is also much shorter than the typical university semester or quarter in which public speaking classes are taught. There is more of a variety of equipment used in training. For example, all trainers reported using videotape and/or audiotape in training. Teachers of the basic course do not use equipment to the extent of trainers. The handouts and written material of training programs, however, are not nearly the quality or quantity used in the typical public speaking course. Most

of the public speaking textbooks for the basic course are far superior to the training manuals this investigator reviewed in the number of concepts covered, the depth of explanations, and the number of examples provided.

The setting in which training takes place is more comfortable for learners in an organization than that of a typical university classroom. When interviewing trainers, this investigator was most often given a tour of the organization's training facilities. Most of the rooms viewed were carpeted, well lighted, had comfortable seating and plenty of space for reading and note-taking. Most training facilities also had built-in, easily accessible videotape and projection equipment. Training facilities, for the most part, had an area for refreshments and were decorated in an aesthetically pleasing way. In contrast, most college and university classrooms are not carpeted, and are furnished with desks too small for the average adult to comfortably sit and write. Most classrooms are not decorated at all and are lighted with fluorescent bulbs that cause eye strain. Overall, the training environment is far superior to the teaching environment.

From the interviews there is evidence of the application of communication theory and models to communication instruction in organizations. In fact, the difference between many of the communication skills and concepts taught in the classroom and those applied in organizations

is simply a matter of what they are called. Many communication concepts, as described by trainers, are synonymous with what is taught in the basic course. For example, what trainers call "image" and "style," teachers refer to as "dress and appearance" as they apply to the physical aspects of delivery.

While teaching and training have been shown as similar, there is evidence that practitioners of each activity have distinct philosophical views on education. From the interviews, trainers and educators revealed some degree of animosity toward one another. They also seemed to disagree on the use of language that describes methods and practices of communication education. For example, many trainers involved in communication skills training would not refer to themselves as communication educators. Some speech communication instructors, on the other hand, would cringe at being referred to as communication trainers. These philosophical differences may explain, in part, why teachers and trainers have failed to learn from one another's experience in instruction.

Although teachers and trainers may differ philosophically, the methods used in presentation skills training among teachers and trainers are amazingly similar. A clear illustration of this is in the exercises used in both teaching and training. Many of the exercises described by trainers are similar to those used for instruction in the

classroom. The types of speech assignments in training, such as a persuasive or informative speech assignment, are similar to those in a typical public speaking course. The main difference between many assignments described in training and their equivalent in teaching is the specificity of objectives, the amount of explanation of the assignment given, and the amount of time students have to prepare for the assignment. Training assignments do not have as wide a variety of types of speeches presented. Assignments in training are also not given any quantifiable evaluation.

The ratio of theory to performance is another area in which similarities were found among the employment groups in the study. From the results it appears that all groups of teachers and trainers use similar ratios of theory to performance with an emphasis on performance. It seems that in this case what works in the classroom also works in the training environment.

Evaluation. The way that training is evaluated is another area in which similarities and differences between teaching and training can be identified. From the responses to the interview schedule, trainers tended to use lower levels of evaluation in their training than teachers use in their instruction.

According to Watson's (1979) five levels of training evaluation, trainers in this study were identified as using

the first three levels: evaluations based on reactions; evaluations based on change of attitude or knowledge; and evaluations based on behavior on the job. Many trainers reported using a combination of levels--mainly the first two levels. There is no evidence that any consideration to validity or reliability was given in the design of training evaluation forms. It seems that most evaluation forms used in training simply measure overall satisfaction of trainees. No trainers in the study said they apply the information from the evaluations in their course in any way. This appears to be a problem in communication training.

Evaluation in the classroom, in contrast, is usually applied in a systematic way. An on-going struggle for communication educators is the question of how to evaluate students in a constructive way and how to objectively assign a numerical grade to a performance. Much research and discussion has been devoted to this topic. The various scales used for evaluation of student performances in academia are perceived as valid measures of behavior and are proven as reliable. To assure that the measures remain accurate, there are on-going studies devoted to topics such as instructor/rater bias in the basic course (e.g., Bock, et al., 1977). In course and teacher evaluation, there are universal rules governing the administration of evaluations in the classroom. For example, in classroom evaluations in colleges and universities the instructor is required to

leave the class while an evaluation is being administered. Other measures are taken to improve validity such as responses to the evaluations which are kept anonymous.

In training, evaluations are perceived quite differently. Training evaluation, in general, seems to be much less formal. Typically, there is no grading system in effect in training. Program and trainer evaluation forms are commonly questionnaires. In addition, trainee evaluations are similarly self-report questionnaires that ask trainees to rate their own behavior. Another common method of evaluating trainee behavior is the collection of anecdotes or stories about how the training has been applied. Such methods present overwhelming biases when used as the sole means of evaluation (Blakeslee, 1982). A solution for trainers may be to supplement such data with more quantitative methods of evaluation. Individual or group interviews can also be used to gather qualitative evaluation data, or they can be structured and coded for use as quantitative data (e.g., Byham, 1976).

There are several considerations that trainers should take into account when evaluating training. One major consideration is the distinction between actual work behaviors and simulated work behaviors. If trainees are evaluated based on their performance in training contexts which are irregular or with people with whom the subject would not normally communicate, the evaluation should be

regarded as an evaluation of learning, not as an evaluation of behavior on the job. If actual work behavior cannot be directly observed by the trainer, other methods should be used to determine whether work behaviors have been affected by the training.

Another consideration is the difficulty in measuring behavior. Some training professionals lack the background, skill, and/or time necessary for thorough evaluations on this level. A suggestion for organizations and trainers alike is to hire an outside, expert consultant for help and guidance in evaluation.

A third consideration is whether trainees are assisted in transferring their newly-learned skills to the workplace. No matter how actively trainees participate in the training program and how eager they are to try out the new skills, many trainees find it difficult to transfer these skills to their jobs (Trost, 1985). Even a good training program will have a limited impact on behaviors unless participants are helped in applying what they have learned.

There are many techniques that could prove useful in increasing the transfer of learning. For example, a skill review and application log of learning has been used to foster group discussion about organizational application of what was learned in training (McNamara, et al., 1982). Another method is to have trainees write down and verbally "publish" their goals at the end of the training session.

Verbally "publishing" a goal is a powerful tool for maintaining commitment to a goal (Cialdini, 1984). Trainers could also encourage trainees to keep journals of their efforts to use communication skills at work. In addition, managers and peers can be coached in providing constructive feedback to trainees. Also, follow-up sessions are popular; some people consider them to be an essential element of training design (Trost, 1985). Such methods of evaluation should be urged in organizational training.

Another consideration of evaluation is whether behavior evaluation results can be attributed to the training. Before and after measures are needed to distinguish behavior changes made as a result of training. A control group would help in determining whether these changes might have occurred despite the training.

Next, the requirements for change must be considered. In order for behavioral changes to take place, five requirements must be met (Kirkpatrick, 1987). They are as follows: 1) desire to change, 2) know-how of what to do and how to do it, 3) the right job climate, 4) help in applying the classroom learning, and 5) rewards for changing behavior (p. 317).

Finally, it is important for trainers to consider the value of statistically significant behavioral changes. Training programs often result in significant behavior

changes, but organizational behavior management theorists recognize that "sometimes a statistically significant change in behavior may be of little or no practical significance to the organization" (Frederiksen, 1982, p. 6). If there is no evidence to suggest that trainees' behavioral changes have had a measurable impact on organizational effectiveness, the results have no practical value to the organization.

Limitations of the Study

Some limitations of this study need to be mentioned. First, due to the number of respondents and the non-random selection, generalization of the findings is limited. It is difficult, however, to obtain a large number of descriptive, personal interviews. Surveys conducted by telephone or mail would have provided a greater number of respondents but would have sacrificed the depth and quality of information retrieved. More in-depth descriptive studies are needed to gain a better look at what goes on in training in organizations. In addition, more rich, qualitative descriptions of the training would have provided a clearer picture of typical presentation skills training programs.

Second, the interview schedule needed refinement in terms of specific questions that proved to be ambiguous to respondents in the interview. One question that proved to be especially troublesome was one regarding the evaluation of training programs. Despite follow-up questions, many

trainers had difficulty distinguishing between evaluation of the participants or of the training itself. Additional test-runs of the interview schedule as well as more clarity in language used in follow-up questions would have alleviated this problem.

Another limitation to the study is that the survey of trainers was limited to a relatively small geographic region. Although a broader area would have been infeasible for the interview method in a limited amount of time, future studies should include more interviews over a larger region. This would provide a more thorough cross-section of trainers and organizations for study.

The fact that the researcher is involved mainly in academia could also present limitations to the study. Since this research has shown an apparent difference in philosophies of academicians and trainers, the researcher no doubt suffers--to a degree--from similar biases.

Recommendations for Future Research

Literature in speech communication shows that the kinds of communication skills needed in industry are those skills acquired in undergraduate and graduate communication programs. Presentational speaking, listening, conflict resolution, interviewing, and persuading are skills that are taught in the departments of speech communication in academia that have direct application to business and industry. Activities in training, such as needs analysis,

evaluation of training, and compliance-gaining strategies all involve research-gathering techniques and are grounded in rhetorical theory. Research is necessary in these areas as well as in several others before a more thorough understanding of communication skills training can be achieved.

The first area of research that needs attention is in academia. In the past, faculty in speech communication have focused their expertise primarily on methods of teaching secondary school children and undergraduate students. For a better understanding of the changing needs of students and society it is important to address the issues pertaining to teaching students in higher education who require entry into organizations and organizational employees who have decided to enter or to return to higher education.

Another area of research needing attention by educators is the instructional procedures used in the classroom. For example, the number, type, and topics of performances required in the basic public speaking course have not been studied in a systematic way. Educators have no evidence that one format of instruction is better than another. Other research on the methods used in public speaking classes addresses what is needed to provide an increase in skill level of the students. A good example of the deficiency in research on the basic course in public

speaking is that relating to the use of videotape and playback. Articles have shown that some students think that video-taping speeches is helpful to their performance, but there is no data that shows videotape affects an increase of skill performance (McGukin & Seiler, 1983). Videotape as a means of feedback also needs to be examined. From the results of the interviews, it appears that trainers rely heavily on videotape as a means of feedback to trainees. Academic and nonacademic trainers need to determine the usefulness of videotape feedback and other models of providing feedback and their effectiveness in training.

Besides the systematic gathering of empirical data on the effectiveness of methods of teaching the basic course, there also need to be more in-depth interviews and descriptive investigations of training practices. A number of descriptive articles have been published in scholarly journals on new methods and practices of instruction. The same type of descriptive investigations needs to be conducted in organizational training programs. For example, a more systematic survey of the practices of training professionals similar to this survey would be helpful to practitioners in providing an idea of what goes on in training programs. Descriptions of other types of communication training would provide insight into the number and variation of communication skills and concepts

considered as important training topics for their employees. Just as teachers can benefit from knowing what is done in presentation skills training, trainers can also benefit by the knowledge of interviewing, leadership, conflict management, and problem-solving.

Another area in which research is needed is in determining the most effective ratio of skill development to learning. Since educators are aware of the blend of theory to practice in the classroom, there should be an investigation in which the most effective ratio is determined. This needs to be done in both the academic and the organizational classroom. Educators should know how most effectively to blend skill development with learning in different educational settings. This knowledge would better prepare them for arguments needed to defend the principles of instruction in the classroom. Political and economic pressures resulting from influences outside of the academic realm may change the course content in universities from what students need for an overall education to specific, technical, career-oriented topics.

Another area of research that needs to be investigated by educators is the area of different models of teaching. For example, the coaching model is quite popular in training by both trainers from organizations and those from academia. Such models need to be tested and applied to the academic setting to determine their effectiveness.

Instructional models from educators also need to be applied to training in organizations to determine their effectiveness.

Other research projects could aim at improving the evaluation of the effectiveness of organizational communication trainers. There have been several evaluative investigations of what comprises a good public speaking teacher. The characteristics and skills required in teaching speech communication have been determined by in-depth interviews and observations. The same type of study applied to trainers would provide an interesting look at the characteristics of outstanding communication trainers in organizations.

There are many recommendations for future research in communication skills training in general as well as those that apply to presentation skills training in particular. In general, there needs to be more systematic research conducted on communication skills training in organizations. Specific recommendations can be provided to ensure that the study of communication skills in organizations will progress and provide more solid data on which to base instructional practices.

A specific area where research is needed is in the domain of learning and instructional theory as it applies to education within organizations. Adult learning theory as well as theory related to performance and instruction

are the only areas that have effectively made the transition to the world of business and industry.

With so little existing literature to refer to, it is difficult for practitioners in both academia and in training organizations to establish a firm basis for their current methods and practices in training. Trainers in organizations also need to become involved in methods and areas of research in academia as they apply to their profession. Systematic studies and field research in all areas of communication training are needed as well as broader surveys and qualitative descriptive studies in communication skills training in general. Future trainers and speech communication students interested in the field of human resource development and training will benefit greatly from such research efforts.

Recommendations and Implications for Practitioners

Several arguments are posed against communication consulting and training among faculty in academic institutions. In a debate against Redding (1983), Goldberg upholds the contention that paid consulting is contrary to the best interests of academia. In his argument, Goldberg says that some of the negative consequences of paid consulting include negative effects on the growth and development of the discipline of speech communication, and conflict of interest resulting in questionable relationships among faculty and business and industry. Other

negative effects include hindering the effectiveness of instruction in the classroom, and a reduction in the amount of time and energy a faculty member can devote to student advising and committee work (p. 17).

Redding's opposing rationale is that communication consulting provides numerous personal and professional benefits to teachers. From Redding's point of view, teachers have much to learn about the communication that takes place within various types of organizations. Such knowledge surely benefits students since they will very likely be employed within an organization at some point in their career. Knowledge gained by teachers about communication behavior outside of academia may provide new insight into how to improve communication within academic institutions (p. 17).

From the results of the interviews in this study there are several strong arguments that can be formulated in support of training/consulting activity by members of departments of speech communication as well as other faculty. Training provides benefits to academia by providing visibility, new or improved teaching skills, recruitment opportunities and collegiality (Curtis & Winsor, 1986).

Benefits to faculty. From the results of the interviews in this study, it appears that the benefits of training to teachers in speech communication far outweigh

the negative aspects. The values of training experience to teachers have been recognized in a number of areas. Direct applications from training to teaching, an increased insight into the needs of students, and personal and professional growth are all valuable results from training activity. Opportunities to train diverse groups of individuals will encourage faculty to read, engage in research, and use skills in instruction that have not been demonstrated before on an applied level in the classroom. Real-life training experiences, put to work in the classroom, can add interest and relevance to instruction. In addition, communication skills training appears to be a lucrative occupation. Since there are few, if any, formal rules governing training activity outside of educational institutions, there seem to be very few restrictions to training besides time limitations and the balancing of two occupational activities.

Benefits to student. Speech communication instructors are not the only ones who benefit in academia from communication skills training. Students of speech communication can be enriched by training not only by the experiences that instructors bring back into the classroom, but also by internships that could result from connections in organization. New approaches to internship programs in educational departments such as speech communication include training experience as a practical application of concepts learned

in class. In some colleges and universities, speech communication courses are offered in organizational communication, human resource development, and training. Internships and classroom assignments involving training experience, both in-house and out-of-house, would be invaluable to students enrolled in such programs.

Benefits to colleges and universities. Universities and colleges can also benefit from faculty training activity. Communication faculty can enhance the image of the university as well as the department by providing reputable education services to organizations and the community. When individuals who receive training are stimulated and find the training challenging, they may be reminded that learning can be an enriching experience. Therefore, training activity could result in recruitment of returning students to continuing education programs in colleges and universities. Trainers from academia should realize that their audience is expanding as more and more organizational employees need training for promotability and overall job performance.

Another benefit to universities from training activity is the collegiality that can result. For example, there have been many benefits from outside training activity to the San Jose State University Department of Communication Studies. Communication faculty in the Department have had the opportunity to work with colleagues in areas such as

marketing and research and business administration in the School of Business. Results of professional contact among departments from training activity have included interdisciplinary publications as well as programs geared toward both faculty and student development for the University.

Benefits to research in the field. Trainers, like teachers, certainly do not have the breadth and depth of knowledge to handle every training assignment needed in their organization. Both trainers and teachers must engage in the kind of research necessary to prepare for new assignments. From the descriptive literature in the field of speech communication on the basic course, it is apparent that many teachers have done their homework of preparing and testing out new techniques of instruction. In training, however, it seems that much of the literature consists of "how-to" articles prescribing specific training techniques. In order to have a clearer view of communication skills training, trainers should be encouraged to conduct more thorough and descriptive investigations in addition to systematic research on the current methods of training employed. Instructors in speech communication should be urged to contribute more in regard to their activities and methods. In addition, teachers need to conduct more rigorous research on current methods of instruction. Furthermore, the environment provided in organizations outside of academia provides numerous possibilities for

researchers interested in organizational communication.

What needs to be pointed out to educators is that communication skills trainers and teachers share many of the same functions in their respective professions. A communication skills trainer in an organization is a teacher in the respect that students are encouraged to develop their skills on the job, just as students in academia are urged to develop their full potential in regard to their coursework. The notions of life-long learning and continuing education are stressed in both organizations and in academia.

There are a number of skills that are required by instructors in departments of speech communication in academia that have direct application to business and industry. Activities in training such as needs analysis, evaluation of training, and compliance-gaining strategies all involve research techniques and are grounded in rhetorical theory. Many trainers in this study did not realize that the ideas and concepts on which they base their presentation skills training programs came directly from the field of speech communication and from theory of instruction and learning. The trainers also did not realize the many skills that teachers have in techniques of research. With respect to their skills and expertise, speech communication instructors have a lot to offer communication skills trainers. Trainers also have many

practical skills and innovative ideas in instruction that can benefit teachers. The sharing of ideas and information among faculty and trainers can only benefit instruction in communication in either setting.

Conclusion

As more faculty engage in training in organizations, they bring with them a wealth of new ideas, many of which are based on communication theory. The research provided by academicians is adapted to the training environment and is ultimately incorporated in organizations by employee training and education programs. The fact that organizations have integrated ideas from educators who enter organizations to train is apparent from this research. During the interviews, it was discovered that training methods and materials were derived from trainers' education and experience in academia. The interview process revealed that training material used in one organization was discovered as that taken from a communication faculty member's training manual.

In the eyes of trainers, the stereotypical teacher is a dry, dull, presenter of information who cares more for the content and theory of a subject than the use of applications. On the other hand, teachers often perceive trainers as razz-ma-tazz, slick entertainers who have only a superficial approach to important subjects. From the instructors and trainers interviewed, this investigator

found none of these stereotypes to hold true. Perhaps teachers can work on improving their presentation skills, and trainers can become more familiar with the theory behind what they do. Both teachers and trainers have much more to learn from one another.

Trainers basically have learned how to train from concepts grounded in education theory. Both teachers and trainers base their understanding of human communication not only from current communication theory but from study of rhetorical theory as well. In addition, the notion of effective presentation skills did not emerge from the training programs initiated in the high-tech environment of the Silicon Valley. Rather, the concept of what constitutes an effective speaker was formed centuries ago. What is known today as presentation skills training in organizations is simply a modern version of what Greek wisdom-bearers had in mind.

References

- Amato, P. (1964). A comparative study of programmed instruction and video-taped lectures as part of a course in public speaking. Speech Monographs, 31, 461-466.
- Babbie, E. (1983). Survey Research Methods (3rd ed.). Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, Inc.
- Black, E., & Martin, G. (1980). A component analysis of public speaking behaviors across individuals and individual categories. Communication Education, 29, 273-282.
- Blakeslee, G. (1982). Evaluating a communications training program. Training and Development Journal, 37(11), 84-89.
- Bock, D. (1970). The effects of persuasibility on leniency, halo, and trait errors in the use of speech rating scales. Speech Teacher, 19, 296-300.
- Bock, D., Powell, L., Kitchens, J., & Flavin, J. (1977). The influence of sex differences in speech evaluation: Situational and media effects. Communication Education, 26, 143-153.
- Bohlken, R. (1971). A petition for prescribed speech subjects in public speaking class. Speech Teacher, 20, 215-216.
- Bohn, E., & Jabusch, D. (1982). The effect of four methods of instruction on the use of visual aids in speeches. Western Journal of Speech Communication, 46, 253-265.
- Book, C. (1983, November). Providing feedback: The research on effective oral and written feedback strategies. Paper presented at the Speech Communication Association Convention, Washington, DC
- Book, C. & Simmons, K. (1980). Dimensions and perceived helpfulness of student speech criticism. Communication Education, 29, 135-145.
- Bradley, B. (1970). An experimental study of the effectiveness of the video-recorder in teaching a basic speech course. Speech Teacher, 19, 161-167.
- Bryant, J., Comisky, P., & Zillman, D. (1979). Teachers' humor in the college classroom. Communication Education, 28, 110-118.

- Bryant, J., Gula, J., & Zillman, D. (1980). Humor in communication textbooks. Communication Education, 29, 123-134.
- Byham, W. (1976). Transfer of modeling training to the job. Personnel Psychology, 29(3), 345-349.
- Cialdini, R. (1984). Influence: How and why people agree to things. New York: Morrow.
- Curtis, D., & Winsor, J. (1986). Establishing a departmental consulting service. Association for Communication Administration Bulletin, 58, 68-71.
- Daly, J. (1981). Learning styles. In G. Friedrich (Ed.), Education in the '80's (pp. 145-154). Washington, D.C.: National Education Association.
- Dance, F. (1987). What do you mean presentational speaking? Management Communication Quarterly, 1, (2), 260-271.
- Delia, J. (1979). The future of graduate education in speech communication: A personal perspective. Communication Education, 28, 277-280.
- DiSalvo, V. (1980). A summary of current research identifying communication skills in various organizational contexts. Communication Education, 29, 283-290.
- DiSalvo, V., Larsen, D., & Seiler, W. (1976). Communication skills needed by persons in business organizations. Communication Education, 25, 221-227.
- Diehl, E., Breen, M., & Larson, C. (1970). The effects of teacher comment and television video tape playback on the frequency of nonfluency in beginning speech students. Speech Teacher, 19, 185-190.
- Eich, R. (1977). Organizational communication consulting: A descriptive study of consultant practices and prescriptions. Diss., University of Michigan.
- Faules, D., Littlejohn, S., & Ayres, J. (1972). An experimental study of the comparative effects of three instructional methods on speaking effectiveness. Speech Teacher, 21, 46-52.
- Feuer, D. (1985, October). Training Magazine's industry report for 1985. Training: The Magazine for Human Resource Development, 27, 24-65.

- Fetzer, R. (1977). An alternative approach for teaching public speaking. Communication Education, 26, 261-270.
- Fisher, W. (1970). Philosophic perspective and beginning public speaking texts. Speech Teacher, 19, 206-210.
- Foss, K. (1982). A symposium III. Communication apprehension: Resources for the instructor. Communication Education, 31, 195-203.
- Frederiksen, L. (1982). Organizational behavior management: An overview. In L. W. Frederiksen (Ed.), Handbook of organizational behavior management (pp. 3-20). New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Freimuth, V. (1976). The effects of communication apprehension on communication effectiveness. Human Communication Research, 2, 289-298.
- Friedman, P., & Yarbrough, E. (1985). Training strategies from start to finish. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Gordon, J., Feuer, D., & Lee, C. (1986, October). Training Magazine's industry report for 1986. Training: The Magazine of Human Resource Development, 12-68.
- Gibson, J., Gruner, C., Brooks, W., & Petrie, C. (1970). The first course in speech: A survey of U.S. colleges and universities. Communication Education, 19, 13-20.
- Gibson, J., Gruner, C., Hanna, M., Smythe, M., & Hayes, M. (1980). The basic course in speech at U.S. colleges and universities: III. Communication Education, 29, 1-9.
- Gibson, J., Hanna, M., & Huddleston, B. (1985). The basic speech course at U.S. universities: 4. Communication Education, 34, 281-291.
- Gibson, J., Kline, J., & Gruner, C. (1974). A re-examination of the first course in speech at U.S. colleges and universities. The Speech Teacher, 24, 206-214.
- Gilbert, T. (1976, March through April). The high cost of knowledge. Personnel, 11-23.
- Glaser, S. (1981). Oral communication apprehension and avoidance: The current status of treatment research. Communication Education, 30, 321-341.

- Goss, B., Thompson, M., & Olds, S. (1978). Behavioral support for systematic desensitization for communication apprehension. Human Communication Research, 4, 158-163.
- Hanna, M. (1974). Programmed instruction of organization of ideas in the basic communication course. Today's Speech, 22, 5-10.
- Hanna, M. (1978). Speech communication training needs in the business community. Central States Speech Journal, 29, 163-172.
- Hansen, S. (1982). Small is beautiful in the speech classroom. Communication Education, 31, 67-71.
- Harris, K. (1980). The sustained effects of cognitive modification and informed teachers on children's communication apprehension. Communication Quarterly, 28, 47-56.
- Hart, R. (1986, February). Sex, drugs, rock 'n roll and speech: Why we're in Tucson. A keynote address at the annual convention of the Western Speech Communication Association, Tucson, AZ.
- Hiemstra, G., & Staton-Spicer, A. (1983). Communication concerns of undergraduates in basic speech communication courses. Communication Education, 32, 29-37.
- Hoffman, J., & Sprague, J. (1982). A symposium II. Survey of reticence and communication apprehension treatment programs at U.S. colleges and universities. Communication Education, 31, 185-193.
- Johnson, J. (1984, October). Training and development: A career alternative. Association for Communication Administration Bulletin, 50, 45-49.
- Johnson, J., & Szczupakiewicz, N. (1987). The public speaking course: Is it preparing students with work-related public speaking skills? Communication Education, 36, 131-137.
- Jones, J. (1981). Preparing contingency plans for public speaking situations. Communication Education, 30, 423-425.
- King, T. (1972). A contract approach to a public speaking course. Speech Teacher, 21, 143.

- Kirkpatrick, D. (1987). Evaluation. In Craig, R. L. (Ed.), Training and Development Handbook (pp. 301-319). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Lee, C. (1987, October). Training Magazine's industry report for 1987. Training: The Magazine of Human Resource Development, 32-65.
- Lee, C. & Zemke, R. (1984, October). Training Magazine's industry report for 1984. Training: The Magazine of Human Resource Development, 75-80.
- McCroskey, J. (1980). Quiet children in the classroom: On helping not hurting. Communication Education, 29, 239-244.
- McCroskey, J., & Andersen, J. (1976). The relationship between communication apprehension and academic achievement among college students. Human Communication Research, 3, 73-81.
- McCroskey, J., & Lashbrook, W. (1970). The effect of various methods of video-tape television playback in a course in public speaking. Speech Teacher, 19, 199-205.
- McGukin, R., & Seiler, W. (1983). PSI: An attractive alternative to the basic speech communication course. Communication Education, 32, 15-35.
- McNamara, J., Schwandt, D., Goldstein, H., & Medlin, S. (1982). A multilevel evaluation of interpersonal skill training in a federal agency. Group and Organization Studies, 7(1), 35-49.
- Mehrley, R. & Backes, J. (1972). The first course in speech: A call for a revolution. Speech Teacher, 21, 205-211.
- Miles, P. (1977). A practical final for speech fundamentals. Communication Education, 18, 223-229.
- Mitroff, I. (1985). Why our old pictures of the world do not work anymore. In E. Lawler and associates (Eds.), Doing research that is useful for theory and practice (pp. 18-44). San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Motley, M. (1976). Stage fright manipulation by (false) heart rate feedback. Central States Speech Journal, 27, 186-191.

- Murphy, J. (1983). A synoptic history of classical rhetoric. Davis, California: Hermagoraus Press.
- Patterson, J. (1969). The activities approach in the first course. Speech Teacher, 18, 223-229.
- Pearson, J., Nelson, H., & Sorenson, R. (1980). How students and alumni perceive the basic course. Communication Education, 29, 296-299.
- Powers, W., & Smyth, M. (1980). Communication apprehension and achievement in a performance-oriented basic communication course. Human Communication Research, 6, 146-152.
- Rarig, F., & Greaves, H. (1954). National speech organizations and speech education. In K. R. Wallace (Ed.), History of speech education in America: Background studies (pp. 490-552). New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- Redding, W. (1983, April). Resolved: That paid consulting is contrary to the best interests of academia--The negative. Association for Communication Administration Bulletin, 44, 17-20.
- Rodman, G. (1977). The undergraduate student as a communication analyst. Communication Education, 26, 75-77.
- Rossiter, C. (1973). Helping students choose speech topics more realistically. Speech Teacher, 22, 159-160.
- Rubin, R. (1982). Assessing speaking and listening competence at the college level: The Communication Competency Assessment Instrument. Communication Education, 31, 19-32.
- Rudolph, E., & Johnson, B. (1983). Communication consulting: Another teaching option. Annandale, Virginia: Speech Communication Association; Urbana, Illinois: ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills.
- Scott, M., & Wheelless, L. (1977). The relationship of three types of communication apprehensions on classroom achievement. Southern Speech Communication Journal, 42, 246-255.

- Scott, M., Wheelless, L., Yates, M., & Randolph, F. (1976). The effects of communication apprehension and test anxiety on three indicators of achievement in an alternative system of instruction: A follow-up study, In B. D. Ruben (Ed.), Communication Yearbook, 1 (pp. 543-554). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books.
- Seiler, W. (1983). PSI: An attractive alternative for the basic speech communication course. Communication Education, 32, 15-25.
- Sorenson, R., & Pearson, J. (1980). Alumni perspectives on speech communication training: Implications for communication faculty. Communication Education, 29, 299-304.
- Smyth, M., & Powers, W. (1978). When Galatea is apprehensive: The effect of communication apprehension on teacher expectations. In B. D. Ruben (Ed.), Communication Yearbook, 2 (pp. 487-492). New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books.
- Sprague, J. (1983). Teaching trainers and training teachers: Conceptual similarities and differences. Paper presented at the annual convention of the Speech Communication Association. Washington, DC.
- Sprague, J. (1986). Speech communication research and the basic course. Paper presented at the annual convention of the Eastern Communication Association. Atlantic City, NJ.
- Sprague, J., & Stuart, D. (1988). The Speaker's Handbook. Orlando, Florida: Harcourt, Brace, & Jovanovich.
- Staton-Spicer, A., & Bassett, R. (1980). A mastery learning approach to competency-based education for public speaking instruction. Communication Education, 29, 171-182.
- Stelzner, S. (1975). A case for contract grading. Speech Teacher, 24, 127-132.
- Survey of Continuing Education (1981, March). New York Times, p. 1.
- Thompson, W. (1967). Quantitative research in public address and communication. New York: Random House.

- Toastmasters International. (1986). All about Toastmasters (Available from Terrence J. McCann, executive director, Toastmasters International, 2200 N. Grand Ave., Santa Ana, CA 92711).
- Trost, A. (1985). They may love it but will they use it? Training and Development Journal, 39(1), 78-81.
- Wasylik, J., Sussman, L., & Leri, R. (1976). Communication training as perceived by training personnel. Communication Quarterly, 24, 1, 32-38.
- Watson, C. (1979). Management development through training. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.
- Weaver, R. (1970). Introductory group exercises for public speaking. Speech Teacher, 19, 234-236.
- Wexley, K., & Latham, G. (1981). Developing and training human resources in organizations. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman & Co.
- Wheeless, L. (1975). An investigation of receiver apprehension and social context dimensions of communication apprehension. Communication Education, 24, 261-268.
- Wolvin, A. (1984). Meeting the communication needs of the adult learner. Communication Education, 33, 267-271.
- Wolvin, A. & Corley, D. (1984). The technical speech communication course: A view from the field. The Association for Communication Administration Bulletin, 49, 83-91.
- Young, S. (1974). Student perceptions of helpfulness in classroom speech criticism. Speech Teacher, 23, 222-234.
- Zemke, R. (1982, October). U. S training census and trends report, 1982. Training: The Magazine for Human Resource Development, 16-21.
- Zemke, R., (1983, October). Training in organizations: Development and delivery of training media, methods, and means. Training: The Magazine for Human Resource Development, 47-53.
- Zemke, R., & Zemke, S. (1981, June). 30 things we know for sure about adult learning. Training: The Magazine for Human Resource Development, 45-53.

Appendix A

Presentation Skills Training Interview Schedule

The first set of questions begin with education and experience.

1. What type of degree do you have?
2. Are you presently employed as part of an organization, self-employed, unemployed, or what?
3. How has your career path led you to your current position?
4. How many years ago did you first begin to work as an unpaid or paid trainer/consultant?
5. For what types of organizations of persons have you worked as a trainer/consultant?
6. For about how many different organizations or persons have you consulted in the past year?
- 6a. How many days, combining all the occasions you served as a paid or unpaid trainer/consultant, have you worked in the past year? (A day would typically equal 4 or more hours.)

The next set of questions pertains to presentation skills training in particular.

1. How do you determine the needs of the participants before conducting a training program?
2. What presentation skills do you teach?
3. What is the format of your typical presentation skills program?

- 3a. What is a typical size group for training?
- 3b. How long does training usually last?
- 3c. How many trainers do you use?
- 3d. If you use more than one trainer, how do you distribute responsibilities?
- 3e. How many exercises do you use and what type?
- 3f. What is the ratio of lecture to exercise in your training?
- 3g. How many presentations do the participants give?
- 4. What types of presentations do participants give?
- 4a. What topics do they cover?
- 4b. How long are the presentation?
- 5. What materials do you use in training?
- 5a. Do you have logistics that apply to these materials?
- 6. If you video-tape, what logistics do you use, i.e., do the participants keep the tapes?
- 7. What other requirements do you have concerning training in presentation skills?
- 8. What types of feedback do you give? (i.e., structured critiques, oral, written?)
- 9. How do you know if training has been successful?
- 9a. What type of evaluation do you use?
- 10. What do you find to be the biggest problem concerning training in presentation skills?

11. What is your philosophy or general approach to a presentation skills training program?

The next set of questions pertains to training and teaching.

1. How is training different than teaching in general?
2. How does presentation skills training differ from courses offered at a university?
 - 2a. What concepts from a course offered in speech communication apply to presentation skills training?
 - 2b. What concepts from presentation skills training apply to university courses in speech communication?
3. What have you found to be the most useful aspect of presentation skills training as it applies to your teaching speech communication?
 - 3a. What have you found to be the most useful aspect of teaching speech communication as it applies to presentation skills training?

The next set of questions pertains to training/consulting and academic life.

1. Does your department or institution have formal policies governing training/consulting activities?
-

- 1a. Would you say these policies serve to promote or restrict training/consulting activities?
2. At your institution does training promote or hinder academic advancement?
3. Do you view training as helpful to your teaching?
4. Do you view training as helpful to your research?
5. What are the most important reasons why you have engaged in communication training/consulting?
6. What advice can you give a student/newcomer concerning presentation skills training?
7. What advice can you give a student/newcomer concerning teaching and training in general?

Appendix B

A Typical Presentation Skills Training Program

Length: 2 Days

Class Size: 8-12 Participants

PROGRAM AGENDA

Day 1

8:30 a.m. - 8:45 a.m.	Introductions
8:45 a.m. - 9:15 a.m.	Course overview; How to deal with anxiety
9:15 a.m. - 9:45 a.m.	Speech organization
9:45 a.m. - 10:45 a.m.	Speech #1: "Personal Topic," 1-2 minutes with video and goal- setting
10:45 a.m. - 11:15 a.m.	Delivery skills, posture and movement gestures
11:15 a.m. - 12:30 p.m.	Speech #2: "How to. . . ." Presentation with video, 2-3 minutes, focus on gestures
12:30 p.m. - 1:30 p.m.	Lunch (private video coaching)
1:30 p.m. - 2:00 p.m.	Eye Communication
2:00 p.m. - 2:30 p.m.	Eye contact exercise using video
2:30 p.m. - 2:45 p.m.	Break
2:45 p.m. - 3:00 p.m.	Vocal impact and use of voice
3:00 p.m. - 3:30 p.m.	Exercise in vocal variety
3:30 p.m. - 4:15 p.m.	Preparation and use of visual aids, demonstration
4:15 p.m. - 4:45 p.m.	Speech objectives Speech preparation
4:45 p.m. - 5:00 p.m.	Assignment for Day 2

Day 2

8:30 a.m. - 9:00 a.m.	Introduction Summary of Day 1
9:00 a.m. - 10:00 a.m.	Speech #3: Business topic with visuals, 2-3 minutes, videotaped
10:00 a.m. - 10:45 a.m.	Break; with individual video coaching
10:45 a.m. - 11:15 a.m.	Introductions and conclusions
11:00 a.m. - 11:30 a.m.	Exercise in introductions and conclusions
11:30 a.m. - 12:00 p.m.	Assignment and preparation for final presentation
12:00 p.m. - 1:00 p.m.	Lunch (private consultations)
1:00 p.m. - 1:30 p.m. 1:30 p.m. - 2:00 p.m.	Audience involvement techniques, managing questions and answers, how to deal with hostile questions
2:00 p.m. - 2:45 p.m.	Impromptu speech and exercise in managing question and answer sessions
2:45 p.m. - 3:00 p.m.	Break
3:00 p.m. - 4:00 p.m.	Final presentations: 2-3 minutes with video and audience partici- pation
4:00 p.m. - 5:00 p.m.	Video review, self-evaluation, re-evaluation Course review and evaluation

Appendix C
Program Evaluation

OVERALL VALUE OF PROGRAM

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Poor				Average					Excellent

WORK OF THE PRESENTER

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Poor				Average					Excellent

WHAT I LIKE MOST ABOUT THE PROGRAM:

WHAT I LIKED LEAST ABOUT THE PROGRAM:

I WOULD _____ WOULD NOT _____ RECOMMEND THIS SEMINAR TO OTHERS.

OTHER COMMENTS:

NAME: (Optional or for mailing lists)