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FACULTY OF HUMANITIES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH STUDIES

**TASK-BASED
PRESENTATION SKILL DEVELOPMENT AT THE
TERTIARY LEVEL**

**UZDEVUMOS BALSTĪTA PREZENTĀCIJAS PRASMJU
PILNVEIDE AUGSTSKOLĀ**

MASTER THESIS

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Anotācija

Mūsdienās prezentēšanas prasmes ir kļuvušas par aktuālu tematu. Prasme prezentēt auditorijas priekšā augstskolās ietekmē ne tikai personīgo izaugsmi, bet arī karjeru nākotnē. Lai sniegtu pārliecinošu prezentāciju, prezentētājam būtu jāzin pārliecināšanas paņēmieni. Maģistra darba mērķis bija izpētīt prezentācijas prasmju pilnveidi augstskolās, koncentrējoties uz uzdevumiem, kas aptver konkrētus pārliecināšanas paņēmienus. Pētījuma rezultāti parāda, ka studenti apzinās konkrētu pārliecināšanas paņēmieni nozīmi, bet ir piesardzīgi to lietojumā sniedzot prezentāciju, kas var tikt pamatots ar zemu angļu valodas prasmi.

Atslēgvārdi: prezentēšanas prasmes, publiskā runa, prasmes, uzdevumos balstīta mācīšana, angļu valoda kā svešvaloda

Abstract

Nowadays presentation skills have become a topical issue. The skill of presenting an idea in front of an audience developed at the tertiary level has an impact not only on one's personal development, but also future career. When communicating an idea to the listeners, a speaker should be aware of particular means of persuasion in order to deliver a persuasive presentation. The goal of the present paper was to investigate developing presentation skills at the tertiary level focusing on tasks with particular means of persuasion. The results of the research show that students are aware of the persuasive nature of particular means of persuasion, but are cautious in making use of them, which may be grounded in their level of English language proficiency.

Key words: presentation skills, skills, task-based teaching, English as a Foreign Language

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

CEFRL – The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

EFL – English as a Foreign Language

FS – Figures of Speech

L1 – First Language

L2 – Second Language

PPT – PowerPoint Presentation

TBLT – Task-based Language Teaching

TEFL – Teaching English as a Foreign Language

Introduction

Oral presentations and the ability to persuade of a particular issue have become a significant form of communication these days. The significance of this is proved by various research in the academic field, for example, on the improvement of student presentations (Beyer, 2011), peer versus self-assessment of oral business presentation performance (Campbell, Mothersbough, Brammer and Taylor, 2001), presentation style (Wicks, 2007).

Oral presentations delivered in academic field may focus on ‘teaching and learning, training, informing and assessment’; however, they may also be given for the purpose of ‘persuasion’ (Chivers and Shoolbred, 2007: 2). Therefore, a presenter within the field of academic studies should be skilled in delivering a persuasive presentation, taking into account particular means of persuasion. This claim is grounded in the skill development theory, which holds the consideration that ‘learning is a form of short-term development’ and particular skills may be learned (Fischer and Granott, 1995, quoted in Demetriou and Raftopoulos, 2005: 161). Also, persuasion as an instrument of rhetoric, has attracted the attention of researchers of business communication (King, 2010), linguistics (Craig and Blankenship, 2011) and politics (Dowding, 2016). This interest might be explained by rhetoric being a part of presentation skills, which are, accordingly, an inclusive part of transferable skills – ‘the ones which you can carry into your future, whether staying in academic life, teaching or following any of the multitude of job opportunities’ (Emden and Becker, 2004: 1).

According to Whorf, ‘language shapes the way we think, and determines what we can think about’, therefore, it is significant to focus on the language used when considering a speech of a presentation in particular (Whorf, 1956, quoted in Hack and Gwyer, 2013: 60). Developing on this consideration, the present paper focuses on the study of particular figures of speech (FS), rhetorical questions and emotive language as a means of persuasion to be learned in order to deliver a persuasive presentation. The previous research carried out show that there has been studies on persuasion in business communication and the rhetoric of negotiations (King, 2010) as well as teaching presentation skills (Baker and Thompson, 2004), peer and teachers’ assessment on presentations delivered (Grez, Valcke and Roozen, 2012), global trends for academic presentations in English for Academic Purposes (Barett and Liu, 2016).

However, there is a lack of both materials useful for tertiary level teachers in developing skills on persuasive speeches as well as research on developing presentation skills at the tertiary level with the purpose to persuade.

Consequently, the points highlighted above justify the choice of studying particular means of persuasion, which are figures of speech – metaphor, epithet, simile, hyperbole, rhetorical questions and emotive language used in presentations in order to teach students and help them to improve their presentation skills.

Thus, the **goal** of the present paper was to investigate developing presentation skills at the tertiary level focusing on tasks with particular means of persuasion.

The **hypothesis** is formulated as follows: if the teacher uses tasks focusing on particular figures of speech, emotive language and rhetorical questions, student speeches in their presentations become more persuasive.

In order to prove the hypothesis, the following **enabling objectives** were set:

1. to study theories on teaching English as a foreign language (EFL), skill development as well as teaching speaking at the tertiary level; the notion on presentations and particular concepts relating to the language used when focusing on persuasion;
2. to administer a pre- and-post-teaching survey;
3. to conduct class observation;
4. to carry out an interview with field professionals on teaching public speaking and presentation skills;
5. to do a teaching material and document analysis;
6. to do pilot teaching at the tertiary level;
7. to carry out an assessment on what the students have covered during the pilot teaching;
8. to draw relevant conclusions.

To achieve the goal, the following **research methods** have been used:

the theoretical method which is literature review on FS, presentations, rhetorical questions and emotive language. The main theories focused on in this paper are the skill development theory (Fischer, 1989), the modern rhetoric (King and Kypers, 2001) and the cognitive psychology theory (Anderson, 2009);

the empirical method which is a needs analysis, survey, interview, teaching material and document analysis.

The **data collection tools** chosen are a questionnaire and classroom observation and the assessment tool – an individual presentation.

In order to reach the goal of the paper, 14 the second-and the fourth-year undergraduates majoring in Modern Languages and Business Studies participated in the research.

The paper consists of four chapters. Chapter 1 deals with the notion of presentations and presentations skills. It describes the difference between presentations and public speaking as well as highlights the particular means of persuasion focused on in this paper, namely, such FS as metaphor, simile, hyperbole, and epithet, rhetorical questions and emotive language.

Chapter 2 is devoted to the theoretical analysis of teaching English as EFL and teaching speaking to EFL undergraduates. It also focuses on task-based teaching of speaking as well as the assessment of speaking accordingly. Chapter 3 deals with the analysis of teaching the particular means of persuasion, reflection upon the procedure of the pilot teaching, as well as the design of the lesson plans and further discussion on the tasks used. Finally, Chapter 4 discusses on the results of the needs analysis, analysis of the interviews with the field professionals. It provides the discussion on the pilot teaching, the analysis of the feedback survey of the pilot teaching and the results of the post-testing.

1 The Notion of Presentations

The following chapter discusses the notion of presentations, presentation skills and particular components to be taken into account when considering giving a presentation. As mentioned above, one of the purposes of delivering a presentation in academic field may be persuasion; therefore, the definition of persuasion in presentations is stated. In order to distinguish the difference between public speaking and a presentation, a brief outline of their distinctive characteristics is provided. Particular means of persuasion such as FS, rhetorical questions and emotive language and described in more detail.

1.1 The Difference Between Presentations and Public Speaking

Although having similar components and characteristics, there is a difference between *public speaking* and *presentation*. A *presentation* as defined by Oxford English Dictionary (OED) states that it is ‘a speech or talk in which a new product, idea, or piece of work is shown and explained to an audience’ (OED, n.d.: Online). *Public speaking*, on the other hand, is ‘the action or practice of addressing public gatherings; the making of speeches’, which in contrast to presentations, does not hold its aim to show or explain an idea or product to an audience (Oxford Dictionaries, n. d.: Online). There is a range of possible types of presentations, some examples of which include conference, poster, group, panel presentation (Shephard, 2005). Student presentations at the tertiary level ‘usually involve an individual or group of students presenting to academic staff, student peers or other invited audiences’ (Chivers and Shoolbred, 2007: 1). The various types of presentation are of interest in both professional and academic field. In business, a presentation may be the form chosen by a company to present its products or service; however, ‘student presentations may be given for the purpose of persuasion, training, teaching and learning, informing and assessment’ (ibid.: 2). Although a presentation delivered may involve a combination of the particular purposes stated above, it is noteworthy to discuss each of them as it may influence the style of a presentation planned beforehand.

Chivers and Shoolbred emphasize that a presentation the purpose of which is to persuade involves impelling the audience to take some action or make a decision (ibid.). This type of presentation should be delivered in ‘a convincing and confident

style' as it may be initiated by such examples as joining a student society or buying a product or service (ibid.). Some emotions, passion and enthusiasm are the elements recommended by the presenter to be used when delivering this kind of presentation, which will be discussed in more detail in the subchapter below (see, 1.3 Persuasion in Presentations). Another purpose of a presentation, however, is training. What is meant by this type of presentation is the process of training oneself how to use different techniques to communicate effectively. Meaning, the purpose of training by delivering a presentation could be an opportunity for vocational and professional as well as other students 'to learn the skills to use a range of equipment and demonstrate their communication skills' (ibid.: 3). Thus, 'presentations can be used for practice and rehearsal before the student is formally assessed and expected to perform in real life situation' (ibid.: 3). Developing upon this issue a similar type of presentation is one with the purpose to teach and learn. It is a common form of teaching at the tertiary level by introducing a topic with the help of a presentation. Presentations are often used in the curriculum for students 'to explore in greater detail topics covered in lectures', therefore, helping the presenters 'to develop deeper knowledge as well as for the audience to broaden their understanding of the topic' (ibid.: 5). Nevertheless, it is a widespread practice to provide also a presentation, the purpose of which is to get an assessment. At the end of a course or the overall module, a presentation may be delivered in order to earn a mark. A positive advantage of delivering a presentation, the purpose of which is assessment, is the opportunity for some students to earn a higher mark in case they are better at spoken communication (ibid.: 5).

As stated above, another concept considered in this paper is *public speaking*, the main focus of which is the skill of speaking in public or public gatherings. It finds its roots in classical rhetoric and until the 20th century, public speakers were referred to as orators and their discourses as orations (Kleiser, 2009). It should be noted that the tradition of classical rhetoric lives on and, instead of presentations, those are political, commencement, inaugural speeches, debates and other forms of public speaking which are used by, for example, political and business leaders to inform, persuade or motivate large audiences (Bovée, 2003). In this concern, it should be remembered that students at the tertiary level have to come up with considerations and their justification not only in written form, but also orally. Moreover, being a part of any democratic society, it is of general importance to be able and skilled to come up with one's opinion in public as from the ancient times onwards 'democratic societies have

depended on the ability of ordinary citizens to make their opinions and voices heard' (Coopman and Lull, 2012: 274). Therefore, 'public speaking is vital where each person has the constitutional right to express ideas freely' and 'most universities offer public speaking courses for two good reasons: they emphasize critical thinking, and focus on skills that are important in professional, civic, and personal contexts' (Jaffe, 2016: 2,7).

Consequently, while the main purpose of delivering a presentation is to introduce with an idea or product, the basic purpose of public speaking is to speak in public gatherings by coming up with a speech. Students at the tertiary level should be not only skilled in developing a presentation for the purpose of assessment, persuasion, learning, training or information, but also be aware of speaking in public and be able to come up with their considerations in front of an audience in various situations outside the walls of a university.

1.2 Development of Presentation Skills

Giving a presentation to any audience involves communicating a message to particular listeners. McCarthy and Hatcher consider that 'once you move into the presentation stage, you must treat the situation as one of communication' (McCarthy and Hatcher, 2002: 4). According to Coughter, 'presentation is a skill' and can be, therefore, considered from the point of view of the skill development theory (Kagami quoted in Coughter, 2012: 10). As to skills and their use in communication, it should be noted that 'studies of social communication happen on three levels: visual, vocal and verbal', which, accordingly, reveal the close relation of the presentation skill with listening and speaking skill, as well as writing skill when developing the text of a presentation speech (Bradbury, 2007: 5).

When standing in front of an audience and delivering a presentation, the basic component of presenting a topic or an idea is *the skill of speaking*. Emden and Becker suggest that 'developing the ability to speak to an audience is one of the greatest benefits one will ever get from the time in further or higher education' (Emden and Becker, 2004: 1). The skill of speaking about an issue involves planning of the presentation speech and awareness of the audience a presentation is delivered to. Chivers and Shoolbred propose taking into account such features of an audience as the size, composition and the reasons for the particular people being there (Chivers and

Shoolbred, 2007: 80). As to the size, it is expected to deliver a more formal presentation to a larger audience, which is also relevant to the presentations delivered by students at the end of some university courses. Also, the composition of an audience should be considered beforehand, because it may influence the style and content of the presentation as well as the way a presenter communicates with the audience.

Considering the development of the content of a presentation, it is noteworthy to remember that the content of a presentation ‘whether spoken or written needs to be consistent, concise and clear’ (Barnett, 2015: 151). It is important to get to know if the students in the audience are of the same module and year, or it consists of a group of professionals who are not familiar with each other (Chivers and Shoolbred, 2007: 80). This information should be checked as ‘one can develop exercises for other students or people with a similar knowledge, but it can be less advisable with some experts or groups of professionals’ (ibid.: 81). In addition to this, no matter whether they are, students or experts, the presenter should consider the reason for the particular people being present. Accordingly, a presenter is advised to invest some consideration not only in the content and information to be provided, but also in its value for the audience by making it interesting to listen to (ibid.: 85).

Nevertheless, speaking in public at the tertiary level differs as the words characteristic to presentations involve *signposting language*. ‘Firstly, secondly, lastly, however’ and other phrases are words used by presenters in order ‘to connect the parts of one’s presentation and clearly lead the listeners through to one’s ideas and intention’ (McCarthy and Hatcher, 2002: 85). Signposting then is ‘simple, helpful directions for the listeners’ (McCarthy and Hatcher, ibid.). Moreover, it has been suggested that the exclusion of signposting cues might cause ‘the audience losing track of where the speaker is in the presentation’ and, accordingly, losing the interest of the listeners (Bustin, 2016: 36).

The visual representation of a presentation is of a similar importance to speaking. When giving a PowerPoint presentation (PPT), slides are ‘the visual aids that complement and support the spoken word’ (Marathe, 2007: 62). Not only the speech itself, but also the visual representation of slides should be considered beforehand. The visual representation of one’s information provided should be well considered as there are various theories (for example, the Gestalt theory by Wertheimer et al., 1923; the bottom-up theory by Gibson, 1966; the top-down theory by Gregory, 1970) which reflect upon the visual perception of information and the world around us. According

to the top-down processing theory developed by Gregory (1970), ‘the brain has to guess what a person sees based on past experiences and stored information’, therefore, the information received is ‘combined with previously stored information which we have built up as a result of experience’ (McLeod, 2007: 35). Moreover, as highlighted by Davidoff ‘the human visual system takes time to operate and can only deal with the incoming information in chunks’ (Davidoff, 2012: 21). This justifies the consideration that ‘presenting is a fundamentally different form of communication than writing’, and the information included in the slides should be concise and as clear as possible for the audience to perceive it (Schwabish, 2016: 2).

Another noteworthy component of giving a presentation is the awareness of one’s *body language*. Referring to what was stated before, giving a presentation involves communicating an idea(-s) to the audience, which is a complex process as one has to be aware of the words spoken and information presented, as well as the signals provided by the body language – the poise, gestures, movements, eye contact, facial grimaces. Mlodinow underlines that, although ‘scientists attach great importance to the human capacity for spoken language, nonverbal communication may reveal more than our carefully chosen words, and sometimes be at odds with them’(Mlodinow, 2012: 109). This refers not only to nervousness and the control of, for example, – shaking hands, but also other gestures such as putting one’s hand before the mouth or standing with crossed arms, which, according to Pease, ‘is a barrier formed as an unconscious attempt to block out what one perceives as a threat or undesirable circumstances’(Pease and Pease, 2016: 56). In this concern, it is understandable that changes in one’s body movements or gestures can be introduced over some time, not instantly. Nevertheless, Emden and Becker suggest that the better one speaks in a foreign language, the more one modifies the body language while speaking the other language (Emden and Becker, 2016: 23).

In conclusion, a presentation consists of several components the awareness of which is important in the development of presentation skills. The presentation speech should be developed beforehand taking into account not only the size of an audience, but the purpose of the people being present as well as the content of it. The visual representation of the slides, which can affect the listeners’ perception of the ideas, as well as the body language of the presenter and the speech prepared serve as the main components, which create a general impression of the whole performance.

1.3 Persuasion in Presentations

As highlighted above, one of the purposes of delivering a presentation may be that of *persuasion*. It should be acknowledged that there is a considerable amount of persuasion present in various fields of our lives whether we consider speaking, advertisements, commercials or political campaigns. Striving to capture our attention, yet implying the choice to be or not to be persuaded, persuasion ‘relies on our language, images, and other means of communication in order to influence people’s beliefs, attitudes, values, or actions’ (Coopman and Lull, 2012: 274). When considering the way persuasion works, one cannot but refer to the very basics of rhetoric and the modes of persuasion as ‘rhetoric gives us a method to discover all means of persuasion of any topic whatsoever’ (*Stanford Encyclopaedia of Philosophy*, n. d.: Online). Accordingly, the father of classical rhetoric having its unchanged influence also on present day public speakers and presenters, Aristotle, has introduced three modes of persuasion. They are ‘ethos, logos and pathos’. As Aristotle himself has explained:

the first depends on the personal character of the speaker; the second on putting the audience into a certain frame of mind; the third on the proof, or apparent proof, provided by the words of the speech itself (Aristotle quoted in Moore, 2012: 99).

The persuasiveness then lies in the speaker’s skill and way of speaking, emotions the speech arise as well as the arguments the speaker provides to prove one’s words (Moore, *ibid.*).

As to presentations, however, it is worth quoting McCarthy and Hatcher who have stated that

most speaking situations have persuasive intentions and speakers who believe that they are presenting ‘objective’ information are unconsciously choosing words and positioning ideas so that they represent their point of view (McCarthy and Hatcher, 2002: 2).

What is more, they suggest that ‘even scientists employ “techniques of persuasion”’ and ‘scientific reports that appear “wholly factual” are really partly subjective and partly persuasive’ (*ibid.*).

While keeping in mind that giving a presentation speech in academic or scientific surroundings implies choosing an appropriate level of formality and presentation style, it should not be forgotten that ‘humans are emphatic species’ and the significance of emotions in one’s speech is more than true (Morgan, 2014: 110).

Morgan highlights that the present-day research in psycholinguistics has proved emotions to have ‘much more essential role in communication than most of us realize or want to acknowledge’ (Morgan, 2014: 111). He states that ‘emotions are contagious; people tend to share emotion and strong, focused people and people who are feeling a powerful emotion tend to dominate a discussion, meeting, or situation’ (ibid.). The unpredictability and messiness of emotions in delivering a presentation or communicating an idea to others make it a difficult and confusing subject to handle. Nevertheless, it is worth taking it into account as speaking in front of an audience is very hard to do due to the simple reason that ‘it requires to recklessly reject the urge for self-protection’ (ibid.: 70). Although difficult to handle, emotion is considered the key of ‘becoming charismatic and successful speaker’ (ibid.). Charisma, which is sometimes considered ‘the magic wand’ being in the possession of the chosen ones, is directly related to emotions and a skill, which can be learned. Accordingly, strong emotions play a crucial role in human interaction and ‘the secret of charisma then is nothing but focused emotion’ (ibid.: 60).

When considering persuasive performance in presentations, one cannot but come across the previously mentioned relation between presentations and communication. ‘Effective communication’ (Barnett, 2015: 8), ‘good communicators’ (Chivers and Shoolbred, 2007: 5) are just two examples of the basic aspects underlined when reflecting upon the development of persuasive performance. Barnett points out that it is ‘clarity and efficiency’ which affects the way we are perceived and ‘the alignment of body awareness with well-designed thinking process improves communication efficiently’ (ibid.). A speaker should use one’s voice to utter words and ideas having had studied that it is also ‘energy, strength, health, emotion, vitality’ and many other emotions which can be communicated by the voice (ibid.: 20). An effective presenter should remember that standing in front of an audience and looking somewhere, those are eyes which ‘emanate powerful indicators of one’s security, intelligence, warmth, openness, humour, strength and leadership’ and eye contact with the people in the audience is, therefore, essential (ibid.: 32). The performance of a persuasive presenter should, first of all, ‘involve the audience both intrinsically (by making them react, think and compare) and extrinsically (by making them discuss, find out more, or take certain courses of action) (Siddons, 1999: 5). It should ‘leave each member of the audience feeling that they have learned something that is of use to them and make the

information real to them personally’ which can be achieved by being aware of the persuasive nature of emotions communicated (ibid.).

To sum up, the persuasiveness of a presentation delivered lies in the awareness of effective communication and emotions triggered in the listeners. One may deliver a presentation, but only the convincing arguments, attitude of the speaker and the manner of speaking are the main components of delivering a persuasive presentation.

1.4 Figures of Speech as a Means of Persuasion

A way of affecting the interpretation and functional significance of a presentation speech may be accomplished by the use of *figures of speech* (FS). The grounds for this statement can be found ‘from Classical period onwards as there has always been an interest in the relationship between patterns of language in a text and the way a text communicates’ (Simpson, 2004: 50). The definition of FS states that a figure of speech is ‘a word or phrase that is used for special effect and that does not have its usual or literal meaning’ (Richards and Schmidt, 2013: 2019). One might ask, however, what is the purpose of using FS in a presentation speech. An answer to this is offered by Fahnestock who states that

expressions [...] should communicate their content, fit the situation of the utterance, and, to be memorable – have an extra distinctiveness or attractiveness’, assigning figures of speech to the role of “ornamentation” (Fahnestock, 1999: 17).

A presenter, therefore, should take into account that a PPT developed, may be of the same character as the presentations developed by others. To make a memorable effect on the listeners in the audience, language, as mentioned before, can serve as a tool on which relies the distinctiveness and persuasiveness of a presentation speech.

Accordingly, the power and role of the words chosen are considered in stylistics – ‘the study on the effect the speaker wishes to create on the listener’ (Richards and Schmidt, 2013: 212).

As underlined above, FS stand out in one’s use of language as they can be considered from figurative, not literal point of view. As to the impact of figurative language in one’s use, it is noteworthy to quote Snicket who states

If something happens literally, it actually happens; if something happens figuratively, it feels like it is happening. If you are literally jumping for joy, for instance, it means you are leaping in the air because you are very happy. If you are figuratively jumping for joy, it means you are so happy that you could jump

for joy, but are saving your energy for other matters (Snicket, 2014, quoted in Lemov et al., 2016: 38).

Keeping in mind the word *feels* as a key word, one should consider the development of a presentation speech by making it personal to the listeners, which is one of the benefits of using FS.

Nevertheless, the FS focused in this paper include *hyperbole*, *epithet*, *simile* and *metaphor*. A widely used FS is *epithet*. In traditional rhetoric it ‘refers to an ‘ornamental’ adjective or adjective phrase which co-occurs either with a proper name (*powerful Peter*) or with a noun in such collocations as *rosy-fingered dawn*, *wine-dark sea*, *heartfelt thanks*’ (Wales, 2014: 14). Although a speaker should be cautious in the frequency of using epithets, they are considered ‘to make an idea or thing seem exciting’, therefore, possessing the ability ‘to surprise and entertain’ (McGuigan, 2011: 156).

O’Dell and McCarthy state that a *simile* ‘is a comparison of two unlike things using the words *like* or *as*’ (O’Dell and McCarthy, 2010: 22). The benefit of using a simile lies in the fact that its ‘objective is to emphasize the point by using a common object, idea or thing which is known to the listener’ (Sharma, 2014: 245). Some examples of a simile include *as cold as ice*, *as cool as cucumber*. Moreover, it should be underlined that by making a particular comparison between two things the speaker stimulates the associative thinking of the listener (Kliem, 2013). It means that the use of an original simile would make the listeners visualise the particular simile in their minds which could be, for example, an effective way how to illustrate some difficult concepts or terms within one’s presentation.

A FS, which is sometimes confused with simile, is *metaphor*. To say something about metaphor is basically to say nothing, as ‘it is at work in all fields of human endeavour, from economics and advertising, to politics and business, to science and psychology’ (Geary, 2012: 3). It is said to ‘spur creativity, subtly nudge public opinion in the mouth of politicians; is the natural language of human relationships and emotions’ (ibid.). Its apparent confusion with simile is due to the fact that it is ‘an implied comparison made between two different things that actually have something important in common’, but in most cases unlike simile, there is no use of the words *like* and *as*. (Dubicka, 2006: 138). An appeal to its use has been made by Aristotle himself who has stated

Those words are most pleasant which give us new knowledge. Strange words have no meaning for us; common terms we know already. It is *metaphor* which gives us most of this pleasure (Aristotle quoted in Jebb, 2014: 167).

The truly exciting thing when considering the use of metaphor is its role as a part of analogical thinking, known also as metaphorical thinking. This way of thinking is considered to be ‘our instinct not just for describing but for comprehending one thing in terms of another, which then shapes our view of the world, is essential to how we communicate, learn, discover, and invent’ (Geary, 2012: 3). From the neuroscientific point of view, it is theorized that ‘brains operate not by logic but by pattern recognition; pattern recognition and creation then being part of the neural circuitry for metaphor’ (Edelman quoted in Geary, 2012: 34-35). An example of a metaphor can be that of Romeo saying ‘*It is the east, and Juliet is the sun*’; an example where an analogy between Juliet and the sun is made (W. Shakespeare quoted in Levinson, 2005: 373). To add, it should be noted that sometimes metaphors are confused not only with similes, but also with idioms. Idioms, however, are said to be ‘based on metaphors’ and metaphors used in idioms, however, are ‘less original and thought-provoking’ (O’Dell and McCarthy, 2010: 12).

The natural habit of exaggerating something sometimes in rhetoric is represented by the use of *hyperbole*. Dubicka points out that hyperbole is ‘a deliberate exaggeration for a desired effect’ (Dubicka, 2006: 138). Although the use of this particular FS may be considered with caution, it should be remembered that its purpose in speech is ‘to emphasise a point by provoking’ or ‘making a humorous effect’ (ibid.). A humorous example of a hyperbole could be ‘*I’m starving. I could eat a horse*’. Colson, however, draws parallels between hyperbole and persuasion. Accordingly, in his view from the two examples set in the court:

Oh sure, I *always* throw lotion on the floor,
Oh sure, I *always* throw lotion *all* over the floor,
the latter example which illustrates stronger hyperbole, is to be considered more persuasive, accordingly, ‘the stronger the hyperbole, the more participants in the court believe the pleas of innocence of the accused speakers’ (Colson, 187). This conclusion made by Colson should be kept in mind also when considering a presentation speech as the use of hyperbole may be an effective tool when considered the way of emphasizing or highlighting particular points in one’s presentation.

To sum up, the following subchapter outlined introduced with four particular FS. The theoretical background on the effect and purpose of using metaphor, epithet,

simile and hyperbole highlight that FS can be used as significant tools in presentation speech not only to develop a persuasive presentation speech, but also to be a method how to make the presentation personal to the listeners.

1.5 Rhetorical Questions as a Means of Persuasion

Another mean to be used in order to sound persuasive can be the use of *rhetorical questions*. According to Gullledge, a rhetorical question is ‘a persuasive question that you ask to make a point’ (Gullledge, 2004: 25). It is ‘put forward in the grammatical form of a question, but unlike most questions, it is not a request for information’ (Govier, 2009:35).

This type of question is considered ‘a stylistic approach to evoke emotion’, which is used in not only works of literature, song lyrics, interviews, but also speeches and presentations (Enos, 2011: 608). What is more, rhetorical questions ‘are important for understanding arguments’, because they are questions and ‘people are more apt to respond to questions than to statements’ (Govier, *ibid.*). The use of rhetorical questions may also ‘highlight similar attitudes between the speaker and audience and pique interest about the content that is to come’ in case a rhetorical question is used at the beginning of a presentation or in the middle to switch forward to another point (Verderber et al., 2016: 80). Another benefit of using a rhetorical question is that the answer expected is not a ‘verbal, but a mental one’ which serve as a food for thought for each person in the audience and, accordingly, the ‘self-inquiry then is what makes the rhetorical question persuasive’ (Gullledge, *ibid.*).

To use a rhetorical question one should be aware of the purpose and effect it might evoke. The world famous question ‘To be or not to be?’ stated by Hamlet in William Shakespeare’s play is an explicit example of a rhetorical question which has become a popular phrase used in common language and asks for no explanation. This example illustrates the purpose of a particular rhetorical question serving as ‘a thought-provoking gesture or a way to stimulate discussion’ (Dubicka, 2006: 137). Another rhetorical question which might be stated by an environmental activist ‘Is there anyone here who want the rain forests to disappear?’ serve as an example of emphasizing the seriousness of this environmental problem, to provoke or to make the audience more attentive (Gabrielsen, 2010: 157). Dubicka highlights that among the purposes of using a rhetorical question may be found an appeal to one’s sense of morals as well as

humorous effect. Moral sentiment, appeal to sympathy or responsibility as the citizens of a particular country or the world – rhetorical questions are used by politicians and public persons. The explanation to this can be found in the ‘concept of ethics which refers to the rules or standards within a culture about what is right and wrong’ and serve as a powerful tool in the hands of a particular speaker (Coopman and Lull, 2012: 18).

Humour, however, is another effect to be achieved with the help of a rhetorical question. Taking some caution and consideration when preparing a presentation, the embedding of a rhetorical question in a presentation can be a way how to connect with the audience and set a free atmosphere.

There is a general division of rhetorical questions. Although in classical rhetoric they fall in more detailed classification, the division focused in this paper is the rhetorical questions, which ‘have so obvious an answer that it is not required’, and rhetorical questions which have no answer (Dubicka, 2006: 137). One might ask ‘*What is the meaning of life?*’ and illustrate an example of a rhetorical question, which has no answer due to the fact that there is no *one* answer. However, ‘*Is the pope catholic?*’ asks for no question as the answer is obvious and the question then can also be used, also, for humorous effect.

All in all the art of using rhetorical questions lies in the appropriateness of their use. Although they are a device to be used for engaging the listener, the speaker should prepare a well-considered speech and use a rhetorical question being sure that the answer the audience might give or consider to a particular question is the same as the speaker has intended or planned. The use of a rhetorical question should be practiced in rehearsing the speech and making a pause briefly after a rhetorical question so as to give time to process the question which then underlines that it is ‘the mental process what makes the rhetorical question so valuable’ (Gulledge, 2004: 24-25; Gabrielsen, 2010: 158).

1.6 Emotive language as a Means of Persuasion

Either used in daily communication or public speaking and presentations, words matter. The choice of particular words can differ in their influence on emotions they may evoke. *Emotive language*, ‘language that expresses pure emotion or opinions about facts symbolizing the whole range of human feelings, from powerful emotions to

the subtlest of feelings', therefore, can be another influential tool to be used for persuasion (Chaffee, 2014: 195).

Macagno and Walton underline that 'using emotive language and persuasive definitions is an important rhetorical skill' (Macagno and Walton (2014) quoting Zarefsky, 2014: 3). To find justification for this claim one should take into account the previously mentioned psychological aspects (see, subchapter 1.3 Persuasion in Presentations) and understand that giving a presentation or public speech is not merely speaking, it is communication with the listeners in the audience. In this concern, Morgan states that 'we all feel the pain, the joy, the fear and the excitement that other people feel , and the more so when it's powerful, focused, or both'(Morgan, 2014: 65). The purpose of using emotive language, accordingly, can be 'to deal with pride, anger, nostalgia; to evoke pity or influence' (Brindle, 2002: 71).

The classification of emotive words focused in this paper fall in two groups: *powerful words* and *charged or loaded words*. Among the significant amount of words we can choose from, there are such as '*war, peace, death, terrorism, security, love*' which are some illustrative examples of powerful words (Macagno and Walton, 2014: 5). These words are considered to be emotive as 'we feel an emotion toward what the word is depicting and they influence the way we regard the reality they represent' (ibid.). Consequently, we all feel afraid when thinking about war or glad and joyful when thinking about love. What is more, Weitz, considers that the particular powerful words illustrated and others are 'strictly bound to moral values leading to value judgements and have a psychological function of arousing emotions' (Weitz, 1966: 236). Therefore, similar to rhetorical questions, emotive language can serve as a rhetorical tool to appeal to one's moral values.

The definition of charged or loaded words states that those are 'words which have a degree of connotation; which carry either positive or negative as opposed to neutral meaning' (Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2013). Gamble and Gamble, for example, draw one's attention to the word 'heavy' proposing such emotive words to this as 'overweight, obese' and suggest that 'the word one selects to describe a person or an action becomes more of the matter of a personal feeling than one of an objective fact'(Gamble and Gamble, 2013: 130). Some other illustrative examples would be 'superpower of concern, axis of evil member' for 'aggressor' or 'massacre, defensive response' for 'war' (ibid.). The

following examples and other charged words remind one that both the performance and the words to be uttered or used in the slides should be well considered beforehand.

To sum up, the subchapter highlighted the mean of persuasion, which can be emotive language. The choice of words being in significant amount, it is of the speaker's responsibility to select them wisely, as they may affect the emotions of listeners towards the speech delivered.

2 Teaching Speaking for EFL Students

As the paper deals with teaching English at the tertiary level, it is essential to distinguish what is understood with teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The following chapter, therefore, looks at EFL and discusses some aspects to be taken into account when teaching EFL students. The subchapters reflect upon the competences of the tertiary level and discuss methods of teaching speaking as well as touches upon teaching heterogeneous groups.

2.1 The Notion of EFL

English has become a language spoken worldwide. It is used as a means of communication for people whose first language is not English, therefore, assigning English as a Lingua Franca (Pitzl and Osimk-Teasdale, 2016). Another term used in reference to English in this concern is EFL. The definition of which states that

someone who learns English in a formal classroom setting, with limited or no opportunities for use outside the classroom, in a country in which English does not play an important role in internal communication, is said to be learning English as a foreign language (Richards and Schmidt, 2013: 196).

When teaching EFL one should take into account particular aspects. First of all, it is the qualification, experience and language proficiency of the particular teacher or as Ruiz-Funes puts it ‘the more the students hear you using the target language correctly, the more correctly they will use it, and be aware how it sounds right’ (Ruiz-Funes, 2002: 16). This is also because teaching EFL includes vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar as well as the four skills, which are reading writing, listening and speaking (Riddell, 2012). It has been pointed out that being a native speaker of English would be beneficial for teaching EFL. This, however, would be due to ‘knowing instinctively *how* to speak the language correctly’, therefore, a training course and teaching qualification is recommended for both native and non-native teachers of English (Riddell, 2012: 12).

The teacher of EFL should have some background information about the students before teaching. Not only is the number of students important, as it influences the management of the class and particular tasks and teaching methods to be chosen, but also the age and where the teaching is going to take place. For example, in case of a

small number of students such benefits as ‘one-on-one assistance at times and meeting the individual needs of the students’ might be faced (Benwell, 35: 2008). However, when working with a larger group of students it is advised that ‘they are divided into teams or pairs so that they develop collaboration and work together’ (Britton, 2013).

The teacher should be aware of the place of teaching. There is a difference between academic surroundings, a particular language school or private premises as not only the management and length of a class may differ, but also the course plan and the purpose of learning the target language. In this concern, Rogers (1982) highlights that in some cases the main purposes of learning EFL include, first of all, job prospects, English being considered as ‘the key to a decent job’; second, ‘the need for international communication’ and, third, ‘the need of English for academic purposes’ (Rogers, (1982), quoted in Johnson, 2013: 196-197).

There is a difference whether the teacher of EFL is going to teach in an English speaking country or travel and teach in a non-English speaking country (Riddell, 2013). Accordingly, the teacher might have to teach multilingual or monolingual groups of students. The teaching of multilingual groups of students are referred to as *challenging* as there may be students ‘coming from a variety of different countries speaking in different languages’, however, monolingual groups ‘share a common first language or mother tongue’ (Riddell, 2013: 5). The benefit of teaching a monolingual group of students in case when both the students and the teacher share the same first language (L1), involves the possibility to use the L1 as a language of instruction. Cummins adds that ‘learning efficiencies can be achieved if teachers explicitly draw students’ attention to similarities and differences between their languages and reinforce effective strategies in a coordinated way across languages’ (Cummins, 2007: 233 quoted in Ustunel, 2016: 31-32). Accordingly, the comparison and paralleling of particular aspects of L1 may support the learning process of the particular target language.

Nevertheless, the previously acquired knowledge and skills of the target language of the learners may differ, therefore, the teacher of EFL should consider adapting and being flexible with the management of the class work as well as particular tasks and their level of complexity. According to Doman ‘students who have already mastered a particular skill would either dominate the class, supplying all the answers to the teacher’s questions, get bored and disengage’, however, lower level students ‘may be too embarrassed to ask questions or to risk failure by answering in

front of the whole group' (Doman, 2014: 76). 'Research has shown that low-ability students tend to learn better when placed in mixed-ability groups which should generally consist of not more than five students', meanwhile 'medium-ability students' are said to produce 'more gains in homogenous groups' and high-level students – 'making equal learning gains in both types of groupings' (Doman, *ibid.*). The major challenge of a particular teacher at this point would be to find balance between the dominant students willing and being able to answer the questions while avoiding the exclusion and marginalisation of lower ability students (Doman, 2014). Thus, 'organizing students of EFL for learning process is considered to be one of the key functions of a teacher' and, depending on the tasks, goals of learning, the teacher then is expected to decide whether the students should work alone, in pairs or in groups (Heacox, 2002, quoted in Doman, 2014: 77).

To sum up, the following subchapter highlighted what is understood in the theoretical literature with EFL and pointed out the main aspects of teaching EFL. It reflected on the role of teacher as well as the significant information to be gathered before the teaching of a particular group.

2.2 Teaching Speaking for EFL Students at the Tertiary Level

Speaking in a foreign language is a complex process. When teaching EFL, one should take into account that 'in terms of the stages of mental processing involved,' there is not much difference between speaking in the first language (L1) or second language (L2) (Thornbury, 2008: 28). The possible difficulties might include, for example, 'the tendency of students formulating an utterance first in the L1 and then 'translating' it into the L2', the lack of particular knowledge, or the complete opposite – the inability to use theoretical knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, communication strategies, articulations into practice (*ibid.*). This should be underlined as the challenge for foreign language learners in order to establish effective oral communication 'requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions' (Richards and Renandya, 2002: 204).

Baker and Westrup point out that students 'need to practice real communication by talking about their lives, talking about news, expressing ideas and discussing issues' (Baker and Westrup, 2003:7). Thus, teaching speaking does not involve only teaching theoretical knowledge, but teaching the *skill* of speaking. Richards and Renandya, in

this concern, emphasize that ‘although it is often assumed that spoken language skills can be developed by assigning students general topics to discuss, EFL learners need explicit instruction in speaking, which, like any language skill, generally has to be learned and practiced’ (Richards and Renandya, 2002: 204.).

As highlighted by Pawlak, Waniek-Klimczak and Majer (2001), the complexity of speaking lies also in a number of other significant issues. For example, the act of speaking is rarely a monologue and typically involves simultaneous listening and comprehending. It relies on the situational context and one must take into account the cultural as well as social aspects (ibid.: 4). These issues are developed upon by Burns and Seidlhofer (2013) who underline that ‘learning speaking in other language involves developing subtle and detailed knowledge about *why*, *how*, *when* to communicate, and complex skills for producing and managing interaction, such as asking a question or obtaining a turn’ (Burns and Seidlhofer quoted in Schmitt, 2013: 1987). The significance of these issues then are of importance to teachers of EFL ‘as they have to create in their classrooms optimal conditions for the acquisition of all the components of the skill of speaking as well as ample opportunities for contextualised, meaningful and integrated practice in using it’ (Pawlak, et al., 2011: 5).

Learning and studying at the tertiary level, however, ‘differs from other educational experiences, including school’ (Cooper, 2003: 1). This difference, first of all, lies in the fact that most university teaching includes lectures and seminars. According to Marmah ‘despite the fact that new approaches to teaching and learning have been promulgated in higher institutions, lecture remains a prominent feature of many courses and it continues to be the main method used in tertiary institutions’ (Marmah, 2014: 601). Ellington and Earl highlight some strengths and weaknesses of lecturing. As for example, lectures are considered ‘useful when large numbers of students need to receive the same information at the same time, with explanations and briefings as well as providing large groups of students with a shared experience; lectures are ‘strong in achieving lower-cognitive and some effective outcomes’ (ibid.: 51). As to the disadvantages, the two authors point out that there is ‘little student involvement, therefore, little feeling of “ownership” of learning; it is difficult to cater mixed ability groups and most lectures are much longer than students’ concentration spans (not more than 20 minutes on average)’ (ibid.).

Seminars, on the contrary to lectures, provide more opportunities for discussion and interaction. They are considered to ‘take a number of forms and run on somewhat

less-restricted lines than class discussions and the group-members themselves having much more control over the course and the content’(Ellington and Earl, 1999: 59).

What should be remembered before planning the teaching, however, is the level of language proficiency of the particular students. The framework, put forward by the *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment* (CEFR), distinguishes among six broad levels of the learning space relevant to European language learners. They are Basic User (A), Independent User (B) and Proficient Level (C). In reference to the particular research, the author of the paper would like to focus on the level of an Independent User (B) in particular. Accordingly, the level of an Independent User is divided in lower levels, which are Threshold (B1) and Vantage (B2). As to speaking, some of the qualitative aspects of spoken language use, first of all, distinguish among range, accuracy, fluency, interpretation and coherence. Language users of B2 level are claimed to have ‘a sufficient range of language which makes them able to express their viewpoints without much searching for words, using complex sentences. They show high degree of grammatical control; can initiate discourse, take his/her turn when appropriate and can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear discourse’ (CEFR). Szymanska-Czaplak, underlines that ‘English studies at the tertiary level offer a variety of courses for practicing speaking and helping students reach the C1 and C2 level in BA and MA studies, respectively’(Pawlak, et al., 2011: 233).

To summarize, an EFL teacher should consider particular aspects of both the students themselves as well as the place of the teaching beforehand. Teaching speaking at the tertiary level differs as its main characteristic feature is a lecture, which provides with a significant amount of theoretical information. Nevertheless, the teacher of an EFL class should be aware of the proficiency level of English of the particular students and not only provide the opportunity for students to speak during a class as much as possible, but also consider the type of tasks to be used as well as develop the classroom atmosphere and interest in the study process.

2.3 Competences at the Tertiary Level

According to Pennock-Speck, competencies ‘include the meaning of *competence* , which is the ability to carry out tasks and also the behaviours and attitudes needed to

carry out the tasks successfully' (Pennock-Speck, 2009: 172 quoted in Canãdo, 2012: 4). Another definition of *competence* states that it is 'a skill that you need in a particular job or for a particular task' (*Oxford Dictionaries*, n.d.: Online). *Competency*, on the other hand, is 'properties, personality traits, determining its ability to perform activities on the basis of the acquired knowledge and developed abilities (Azimov, et al., 2009 quoted in Makulova et al., 2015: 35). Having been introduced along with the Bologna Process in 1999, the competency based education has been brought to 'the forefront of the language education' (Canãdo, 2012: 4). Accordingly, the competency based education being rooted in the need 'of people who have developed useful skills and can put these into practice when they join the world of work' is one of the main tasks put forward to the tertiary education these days (Ellington and Earl, 1999: 34).

The difference between competency based learning and conventional learning lies in its outcomes which differ in a number of aspects. First, the outcomes of competency-based learning are 'specifically geared to meet the needs of industry'; second, 'they are much more broadly based than conventional learning outcomes, covering a wide range of skills' (*ibid.*: 35). Third, 'competence descriptions are generally much more precisely articulated than conventional learning outcomes, specifying the general context and conditions within which the competence is to be developed, the specific skills that are to be acquired and the standards to which such skills will have to be demonstrated' (*ibid.*).

CEFRL distinguishes among two main groups: general competences and communicative language competences (2005: 12). In this concern, considering EFL and the preconditions of being a successful foreign language speaker, Pawlak et al., suggest referring to 'native speakers – the way they use their mother tongue and the knowledge of it in communication' (Pawlak, et al., 2011: 131). The main competence referred by them here is the *communicative competence*, a term coined by Dell Hymes (2013) who has stated that 'communicative competence is that aspect of our competences that enables us to convey and interpret messages and negotiates meanings interpersonally within specific contexts' (Hymes quoted in Tavakoli, 2013: 68). Later on, the concept of communicative competence was developed and now it is perceived as consisting of four components – grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence, 'each of which, in turn, encompasses a number of component features responsible for the persons' ability to interact with other speakers of the language' (Pawlak, et al., *ibid.*).

Among the previously mentioned subdivision of communicative competence, it is worth highlighting *sociolinguistic competence*. Cañado claims that sociolinguistic competence ‘refers to the know-how of using language appropriately in different contexts, according to socially and culturally constructed norms and expectations’ (Cañado, 2012: 78). As an example to this, a slight reference to the previously mentioned ‘conversational routine’ where the speakers should be aware of the process, the appropriateness of the choice of words as well as level of formality may be made. Nevertheless, a recent study of teaching and learning sociolinguistic competence has disclosed that ‘the language learner today may produce a perfectly grammatical utterance that the listener can understand, but he or she may not know how to convey the social meaning communicated in the target context’ (Mede and Dikilitaş, 2015: 15). Moreover, the inconsistency between the language learned and the language used in real life has come to the attention of Kramersch (2014) who has stated that there has never been a greater tension between what is taught in the classroom and what the students will need in the real life (ibid.). In his view there has never been a greater tension between what is taught in the classroom and what the students will need in the real life (ibid.). Consequently, it might be proposed that the teaching methodology of EFL at the tertiary level is apt to be put under discussion and face particular changes in order to face the needs of the fast changing world.

2.4 Methods of Teaching Speaking

A *method* in language teaching is ‘a way of teaching a language which is based on systematic principles and procedures, meaning, which is an application of views on how a language is best taught and learned [...]’ (Richards and Schmidt, 2013: 54).

Particular methods of teaching depend on the approaches a teacher has chosen taking into consideration the ways how people learn, how teaching could help people to learn as well as considering the language itself (Scrivener, 2005). Thornbury claims that the methods chosen should involve activities aimed at ‘uncovering the gaps in students’ present knowledge’ called ‘the awareness activities’, the term ‘awareness’ coming from ‘the cognitivist learning theory which argues that, as a prerequisite for the restructuring of the learner’s mental representation of the language, some degree of conscious awareness is necessary’ (Thornbury, 2008: 41). The awareness involves at least three processes, which are:

1. paying attention being interested and curious,
2. noticing, which is ‘more than simply paying attention’ and ‘is more likely if the event or entity is somehow surprising to them’,
3. understanding or ‘the recognition of a general rule, principle or pattern’ (Thornbury, 2008: 41-42).

An additional term to the process of noticing highlighted by Thornbury is that of *noticing the gap*, which means noticing the difference between one’s own performance and the performance of an expert’, which is particularly useful ‘when providing students with some authentic, real life examples’ (ibid.).

A noteworthy point in the process of raising students’ awareness of their knowledge gaps is the support and aid provided by the teacher. Accordingly, Thornbury underlines that a teacher can, for example, ‘ensure a heightened degree of attention by recounting an anecdote that has a humorous outcome’ or ‘ask the learners to underline each instance of a particular pattern in a transcript of an anecdote heard’ (ibid.).

Furthermore, the set of a relaxing learning atmosphere is also essential due to the concern of students being unwilling to speak (Roux, 2009: 73). There may be other reasons – the level of language proficiency, character traits, mood – for the particular unwillingness, however, Roux underlines that students should speak as much as possible and a reason why they do not want or like to speak is because they have not got used to it considering speaking ‘something special and difficult’ (ibid.). In this concern, the teacher is expected to create as many opportunities for the students to speak as possible and, as suggested by Roux, establish a good atmosphere by not focusing too much on mistakes and total correctness, but investing in the self-confidence of the students.

Another significant method of teaching speaking is by recordings and transcripts. As to listening and its beneficial impact on vocabulary, understanding and pronunciation in EFL Classroom, the theoretical literature reflects upon the use of music and songs (Warnke, 2009; Grünert, 2010; Lenka, 2011). Also, recordings of monologues and talks by several people simultaneously are used to ‘raise learners’ awareness of features of spoken language’ (Thornbury, ibid.: 43). Although there is a lack of spontaneity in some recordings which is present in real life speaking performance, both authentic and non-authentic recordings provide with the opportunity to listen to both native and non-native speakers. As to native speakers, their pronunciation and speed of talking, which may be difficult to understand by some

learners, the majority of course books today offer the availability of transcripts. The availability of transcripts during the study process is considered essential as ‘there are features of every recording that elude the learners until they see them written down’ (Thornbury, 2008: 47). Also, the visual representation of the text allows learners ‘to match their mental representation of the text spoken with its written form, helps to reinforce sound-spelling connections’ as well as facilitates the work of the teacher who can draw attention to patterns and regularities by reference to the written text (ibid.).

To finalise, the following subchapter described some aspects to be taken into account when considering teaching methods of speaking. The particular aspects reflected upon highlighted that not only listening tasks exposing the pronunciation of native speakers in songs or speeches, but also tasks the focus of which is to raise awareness of one’s gaps in present knowledge can be used as the ground methods of teaching speaking.

2.4.1 Task Based Teaching

The development of presentations skills in this paper is fostered with the assistance of *Task based Language Teaching* (TBLT). The particular language teaching approach in this research was chosen due to the consideration that ‘the most effective way to teach a language is by engaging learners in real language use’ which is implemented by ‘designing tasks requiring the learners to use the language for themselves’ (Willis and Willis, 2013: 3).

A *task* as defined by Skenan (1998) is an activity:

- in which meaning is primary;
- learners are not given other people’s meanings to regurgitate;
- there is some sort of relationship to comparable real world activities;
- task completion has some sort of priority;
- the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome.

(Skenan, 1998, quoted in Willis, J. and Willis, D., 2013: 14).

The following definition underlines that students should provide their own meanings not repeat somebody else’s, therefore, developing their language proficiency.

Moreover, every task should be followed by an outcome, the dependence of which then is the assessment. Also, the given activity should have a relation to the real world or a target, which could be the development of a skill or knowledge.

As discussed before, learning EFL involves developing transferable skills, the ones which one can carry into one’s future. Taking this into account, it is well-

grounded to refer to Nunan who has suggested that ‘in order to create learning opportunities we must transform the real world-tasks into pedagogical tasks’ (Nunan, 2004: 19). Pedagogical tasks then are those which would provide with the development of additional knowledge or skills. An example provided by Nunan at this point is that of designing tasks the purpose of which is the development of job-seeking skills, however, it may be proposed that the use of tasks may refer to the development of other real life situations, such as negotiating a deal, giving a public speech or ordering a table in a restaurant.

According to Nunan, ‘there are as many different task types as there are people who have written on task-based language teaching’ (ibid.: 56). Nevertheless, following the classification of Willis, J. and Willis, D. within the scope of this paper, there have been used particular type of tasks which include:

- matching,
- discussion,
- prediction,
- linguistic gap filling,
- spoken texts (transcripts),
- insertion,
- replacing of words/phrases,
- rewriting,
- identifying (Willis, J. and Willis, D., 2013: 76).

It should be added that the various tasks listed above in most cases are implemented by the ‘mini sequence of three phases – *a pre-task phase, a task-proper phase and a follow-up phase*’ (Nunan, 2004: 128). According to Willis, J. and Willis, D. ‘some *priming* before the task is needed so that the learners can understand the topic, activate relevant schemata, recall for useful words and get ideas flowing’ (Willis, J. and Willis, D., 2013: 44). The stage of pre-task priming might involve either ‘brainstorming words associated with the particular topic, finding out the students’ experience with the topic or so on’ (ibid.). After the priming phase comes the *completion* of the task and the *follow-up* phase involves ‘getting a debriefing from the teacher, reporting the results of a task back to the class as a whole as well as receiving corrective feedback from the teacher’ (Nunan, ibid.).

In addition to the above mentioned, it should be highlighted that there are particular principles for TBLT. First, the particular classes and materials ‘should provide supporting materials to the students as at the beginning they are not expected to produce language that has not been introduced either explicitly or implicitly’ (Nunan,

2004: 35). This underlines the significance of the planning and preparation process before a class, which should include the provision of a glossary or bilingual/monolingual dictionary as well as a teacher's readiness to answer to supporting questions provided by the students.

Second, Nunan proposes that every class should contain one task which 'grows out of and build upon the ones that have gone before' (ibid.: 36). The learning process here is referred to as an ongoing process involving the knowledge acquired before as well as long-term memory which then provided with the knowledge acquired in the previous classes. An inclusive point to this principle is 'the receptive-to-productive principle' which suggest that 'at the beginning learners spend more time engaged in receptive (listening and reading) tasks than in productive (speaking and writing) tasks' (ibid.: 36).

Furthermore, the recycling of language is another principle to be included in the process of TBLT. Nunan draws attention to the possibility of students not being able to master a new issue for one hundred per cent within the time of one class (ibid.). Accordingly, his advice is to repeat the issue covered in a different format in one of the following classes in the future which then would maximize the opportunities for learning and 'allow the learners to encounter target language items in a range of different environments, both linguistic and experiential'(ibid.).

A challenging principle within TBLT is that of integrating linguistic, communicative and semantic aspects of a language simultaneously. This principle mainly focuses on the pedagogical work of a teacher as the present day research has long as proven that grammatical, lexical and phonological components should not be taught separately (ibid.: 37). Accordingly, 'applied linguists working hand in hand with systemic-functional linguists have argued that the challenge for pedagogy is to 'reintegrate' formal and functional aspects of a language' (ibid.).

Active learning and reflection on the study process are two other principles to be taken into account when considering TBLT. The basic point here is the awareness of active language use and speaking by the students, the main purpose of which is the development of language proficiency. At the same time, Nunan points out that 'students should be given an opportunity to reflect on what they have learned and how well they are doing' (ibid.: 38). The main benefit of checking students' understanding of a particular issue covered or awareness of the tasks done, lies in the aspect of students being active participants of the study process. Moreover, by providing their

insights in the study process, students become ‘reflective learners’ which is a part of ‘learner training where the focus shifts from language content to learning process’ (Nunan, 2004: 38).

To sum up, the following subchapter discussed the concept of TBLT and gave a brief reflection on the main principles to be taken into account when deciding upon the use of the particular language teaching approach. Its main points underline that the use of TBLT can be a beneficial way how to develop transferable skills as well as justify the significance of students’ input in the study process by being active participants in the class as well as reflecting on how well they are doing and what they have or have not understood.

2.4.2 Tasks of Teaching Speaking

As mentioned above (see, 2.4 Methods of Teaching Speaking) the particular teaching method focused in this paper is on tasks raising awareness of gaps in one’s knowledge. Teaching speaking then involves not only speaking as such, but tasks which would foster the development of the subordinate components of speaking – one’s vocabulary, language use, pronunciation. As from the type of tasks listed above (see, 2.4.1 Task Based Teaching), the ones, which according to Thornbury ‘would draw the learners’ awareness of their performance and that of an expert’, are fostered mainly by authentic materials (Thornbury, 2008: 41-42). Accordingly, beneficial examples to follow to when teaching speaking are provided by authentic speeches and transcripts.

According to Jones and McLachlan, listening to authentic speeches ‘provide a model of speaking and an opportunity to reproduce the kind of language students hear and even more importantly, to produce new variations of their own’ (Jones and McLachlan, 2009: 67). Thornbury claims that the main benefit of listening to authentic speeches is their ‘spontaneity and authentic representativeness of real spoken language’ (Thornbury, 2008: 43). Although rather sceptical on the authenticity and recordings of monologues or multiparty talk transcribed in coursebooks, Thornbury underlines that ‘the advantage of scripted speech is the use of examples teacher would want their learners to notice’ (ibid.: 44). Another remark set by Thornbury states that not only the spoken communication between native speakers, but also non-native speakers is useful to hear as it is closer to real life communication (ibid.: 45). The following statement then suggests that the real life communication and speaking would

benefit from listening to people of various background and accents, therefore, providing more realistic examples of spoken language when learning speaking as such.

As to the authentic tasks to be used when teaching speaking, those of discussion should be highlighted as well. Sometimes being an ice-breaker when setting a rapport with particular students, discussion tasks are said to ‘encourage genuine communication among learners’ (Renandya and Widodo, 2016: 151). Moreover, discussion tasks are considered to create ‘even more authentic context for speaking and interaction because learners share their personal views with one another drawing on their background knowledge, experience and beliefs’ (ibid.).

Consequently, the particular subchapter discussed tasks of teaching speaking to be focused in this paper. It underlined the significance of doing tasks which would develop student awareness of the main components of speaking as well as the use of authentic tasks when teaching speaking and the benefit of them on the learning process.

2.4.3 Assessment of Speaking

When considering the assessment of speaking, those are particular type of tests chosen by the teacher at the end of a term which have to be faced by the students in order to reach the requirements of a course and present what they have learned. Thornbury reflects upon the most commonly used spoken test types which include interviews, *live monologues*, recorded monologues, role-plays, collaborative tasks and discussions (Thornbury, 2008: 126).

The test type chosen in this research is *a live monologue*. In short, a live monologue, first of all, involves a presentation of a short talk prepared by a student on a pre-selected topic. This type of testing involves a preparation process for the students, and ‘the other students taking up the role of the audience might involve a question and answer stage, which accordingly would provide the evidence of the speaker’s ability to speak interactively and spontaneously’ (ibid.: 127). Furthermore, Thornbury points out that ‘giving a presentation is really a valid test if these are skills that learners are likely to need, meaning – the purpose for learning English is business, law, or education’ (ibid.). Accordingly, the particular type of assessment was found as the most appropriate.

2.5 Teaching Heterogeneous Groups

Within the scope of this research, it is essential to reflect upon the teaching of *heterogeneous groups*. Heterogeneous or mixed ability groups ‘combine students of different abilities or interests’ (Coil, 2005: 175). The awareness of heterogeneous groups is of direct significance to the work of a language teacher as ‘heterogeneous groups is a challenge to the particular teachers making them more stressed since teaching a foreign language is very difficult and sometimes nearly impossible if groups are too diverse’ (Gabrys-Baker and Galajda, 2016: 239). The main difficulty of teaching a group consisting of students of diverse ability lies in the fact that if the ability or language proficiency level is not even to a significant point, it may cause the one part of a group with a higher ability become bored or not benefit from a particular class. This matter in theoretical literature has been addressed as ‘foreign language teaching-specific issue’, reflecting upon it also as ‘an organizational problem which influences the process of teaching’ (ibid.: 240).

An alternative way of teaching these kind of groups, proposed by Dudley and Osvath suggest that ‘the multi-level input’ when working with these groups ‘may be provided by preparing differentiated language-learning activities which then might, for example, involve tasks of different complexity’ (Dudley and Osvath, 2015: 19).

Moreover, when focusing on productive skills, in this case speaking in particular,

the key challenge in mixed-ability groups is providing weaker students with the encouragement and help they need in order to produce the right amount of language, while at the same time ensuring that stronger students have tasks which they find engaging and motivating (ibid.: 54).

Accordingly, a particular foreign language teacher should gather some information about the particular students before the teaching and when facing this kind of group be aware of the ways it can influence not only the content of a learning material but also the management of such class.

3 Analysis of Teaching Particular Means of Persuasion in Presentations

The following chapter describes the analysis of teaching practice. It informs on the participants of the teaching practice, the research procedure as well as the particular tasks used. Also, it reflects upon the points considered when developing the lesson plans of the particular classes conducted.

3.1 Methods and Data Collection Tools

The goal of the present paper was to investigate teaching presentation skills at the tertiary level focusing on tasks with particular means of persuasion.

The hypothesis was formulated as follows: if the teacher uses tasks focusing on particular figures of speech, emotive language and rhetorical questions, student speeches in their presentations become more persuasive.

The empirical methods used for this research were an interview, needs analysis and two surveys. The data collection tools chosen were a questionnaire, classroom observation and the assessment tool – an individual presentation.

An interview with three field professionals related to teaching presentation skills at the tertiary level was conducted. The information acquired in these interviews is discussed in more detail in the upcoming chapter (see, 4.1 Analysis of the Interviews with Field Professionals).

Next, a needs analysis was conducted, the data collection tool of which was a questionnaire. The aim of the needs analysis was to find out students' awareness of particular figures of speech and their use in presentations. The results of this analysis are described in subchapter 4.2 Discussion on the Needs Analysis.

The assessment tool of the research was an individual presentation of a random subject. Within the terms of the assessment, the presentation had to last not more than two minutes and include in the presentation speech either a rhetorical question, emotive language or particular FS. Consequently, a survey, the data collection tool of which was a questionnaire, was administered at the end of the research.

3.2 Participants of the Pilot Teaching

The target group taught were second and fourth year students of a Bachelor's study programme majoring in languages and business at a university in Latvia. The particular course they were taking and the one in which the pilot teaching took place was *Basics of Business Presentations*. The number of the students subscribed for the course was 14; however, the final test was taken by 13 students. Moreover, there were five students from the second year and eight students from the fourth year. As to this, it should be noted that there was a diversity of the proficiency levels of English which according to the CEFR for languages was in the range of Intermediate (B1) to Upper-Intermediate (B2). This claim was proposed, first of all, referring to both their language used during the work in the lectures as well as delivering individual presentations at the end of the course and during the pre-teaching observation.

3.3 The Procedure of the Research

The procedure of the research was initiated first of all by conducting an interview with field professionals in order to check upon the topicality of the theme and the main challenges students face when delivering a PPT at the tertiary level (see, 4.1 Analysis of the Interviews with Field Professionals). In reference to the information gathered from the field professionals, a needs analysis was developed and given to a group of second and fourth year students of a Bachelor's study programme (see, 4.2 Discussion on the Needs Analysis). The aim of the survey was to find out the students' awareness of the use of particular FS when giving a presentation, public speech and in case of persuasion (see, Appendix 14).

After the results of the needs analysis gathered, two observations were conducted. They lasted for two academic classes (180 minutes). During these observations, the researcher got to know some details of the particular group. The main observations revealed:

- in contrast to the official number of the students registered for the particular course (14 in total), there were 5-7 students who were not present,
- the level of English language proficiency of students differed,
- although the students did not hesitate to answer questions asked, the level of involvement into discussion was low,

- the input of the students in relation to their homework was rather low.

Consequently, according to the results of the needs analysis, the theoretical information gathered and observations conducted, three Lesson Plans of pilot teaching were developed (see, Appendix 1, 4, 9). Also, in the process of gathering the teaching materials to be used for the particular group, an analysis of teaching materials and documents was conducted in order to find out the availability and number of course books which contain useful material in relation to presentations and persuasion in presentations (see, 4.3 Teaching Material and Document analysis).

After the pilot teaching conducted (see, 4.4 Discussion on Pilot Teaching), two classes were dedicated to the assessment on what the students had covered during the teaching (see, 4.6 Results of the Post-Testing). At the end, the students were asked to do a post-teaching survey (see, Appendix 15) in order to find out their view on the topics covered and tasks done (see, 4.5 Analysis of the Feedback Survey).

3.4 The Procedure of the Pilot Teaching

The design of the pilot teaching was, first of all, influenced by time limitations – the teaching practice consisted of two 90 min and a 45 min long class. This, accordingly, influenced both the amount of tasks as well as the main aspects to be highlighted about the topics chosen. Nevertheless, the structure of the lesson plans developed was on approximate balance between providing theoretical knowledge and doing practical tasks. Also, it was taken into account that the participants of the research were students of a Bachelor's study programme majoring in languages and business and their proficiency level of English differed. In reference to this FS used in business as well as some samples of advertisement texts illustrating the effect and use of emotive language were introduced. It was taken into account that examples of real life are motivating and engaging illustrating the practical use of theoretical background. Accordingly, the particular lesson plans of the pilot teaching were designed in a way to practice, raise awareness of particular means of persuasion as well as provide with real life examples listening to authentic speech extracts which illustrate the use of some of the means of persuasion discussed.

3.4.1 Class 1

The aim of the first class of the pilot teaching was to show a general insight in the use of particular techniques for making an impact in presentations as well as revising particular aspects of presentations studied beforehand. The type of the class was a seminar. It lasted for 45 minutes. The material chosen focused on developing speaking and listening skills.

As only 45 minutes were allowed for the first class, the lesson plan of **Class 1** (see, Appendix 1) consisted of four tasks. At the beginning of the class the teacher stated the topic – *Making an impact in presentations*.

The pre-task phase of the very first task of the class consisted of a small enquiry what the students understand by ‘impact’ in presentations and how it could be achieved when giving a presentation. Next, as speaking skills can be developed not only by learning and using vocabulary, but also listening, the focus of the introductory part was on two extracts of different presenters. The first task, Task D, was a gap-filling task. It (see, Appendix 3) gave the students an opportunity to revise some expressions for staging and signposting covered in the previous classes by trying to guess the words to be heard. This task was one which according to Nunan, (2004: 35) ‘build upon the ones that have gone before’ and serve as a revision. Moreover, the ‘recycling of language’, as mentioned before, is one of the main principles of TBLT. After having listened twice (due to the shortness of the extracts), the answers were compared.

In the following part, the teacher drew the students’ attention to the purpose of using particular phrases in a presentation. Accordingly, the second task, task E, highlighted the functions of the expressions heard in the previous task. One of the objectives of the particular task, referring to the types of speaking tasks discussed by Thornbury, was to raise the students’ awareness of phrases which can be used in a presentation speech. Students then were asked to categorise the expressions from the previous task (task D) by stating if a phrase is used for ‘referring to visuals, changing topic, quoting someone or as a closing remark’. As there were some variations possible as to which of the categories the expressions could belong, the teacher asked some follow-up questions including which other phrases or expressions the students know which could be used in the particular cases.

The focus of the next two tasks (Task F and G, see, Appendix 3) was on particular techniques for making an impact in presentations outlined and a follow-up discussion on the appropriateness of using them.

First, the students were provided with the audio scripts of the two particular presenters heard in the first task (Task D) of the class (see, Appendix 2). To foster collaboration which is an important aspect in study process, the students were asked to work in pairs. Furthermore, the visual representation of the text of a speech, as stated before, allows learners 'to match their mental representation of the text spoken with its written form'. Accordingly, the students had a chance not only to match the spoken word with its visual representations, but also read and check what they have understood from only listening. Next, the teacher draw their attention to eight techniques for making an impact outlined in the task (see, Task F, Appendix 3). The students had two minutes to think over their opinion, underline some phrases if needed in the audio scripts given and state afterwards which of the particular eight techniques were used by each of the two speakers. The teacher at this point had an opportunity to see if the students are aware of some of the techniques and if they recognize them in the scripts. The audio scripts, as highlighted in the theoretical part of this paper, 'facilitate the work of the teacher who could draw attention to patterns and regularities by reference to the written text'.

The finalising task of the class (Task G, see, Appendix 3) was to, first of all, look at the section of *Useful Language*, get acquainted with the phrases and expressions outlined. The task was meant as a productive, in this case, a speaking task. It draw the students' awareness to some additional phrases to be used in one's presentation, which might foster them to 'produce new variation of language used' in their own presentations in future. Then the students were asked to come up with their opinion which of the phrases would they use for a formal presentation at a conference and/or an in-house talk. The objective of the task was to stimulate a class discussion, accordingly, language practice in particular. They were asked to justify their choice, share their insights and experience in both professional and/or academic field. Also, the finalising task of Class 1 referred back to the division of presentations by Chivers and Shoolbred (2007: 1-3) and provided some illustrative phrases and expressions to be used in a presentation the purpose of which is persuasion.

At the end of the class, the teacher thanked the students for their work and collaboration and enquired about the pace of the class, some possible difficulties or misunderstandings.

3.4.2 Class 2

The focus of **Class 2** was on two themes, which were stated at the beginning of the class – *Rhetorical questions and Emotive language*. The students were informed that these themes are of correlation to the theme covered in Class 1 as well as useful when considering how to be persuasive and deliver an effective presentation. The focus of the first part of the class was on rhetorical questions, the second part – on emotive language. The duration of Class 2 was 90 minutes and it was partly a lecture, partly a seminar (the lesson plan – see, Appendix 4).

The first twenty minutes of the class the students were introduced with the background of the first theme of Class 2 – *rhetorical questions*, their purpose and effect, the main types as well as use in real life. The background of the theme, the purpose and effect of rhetorical questions as well as their use in real life situations (texts, speeches, advertisements) was outlined by the teacher who delivered a PPT (see, Appendix 5). Delivering a PPT at this point, according to the principles of TEFL, serve as an example to the students in reference to both the performance itself as well as the language used (see, Chapter 1, Notion of Presentations). The students were introduced with a general insight into the classification of rhetorical questions in classical rhetoric and to arise their interest - extracts from speeches of world famous speakers who have used rhetorical questions in their speeches were presented. In addition, one of the objectives when providing the theoretical information on rhetorical questions was to put a stress on the effects which they can arise, accordingly – humorous reaction, appeal to the sense of morals and so on. This again was done with the purpose to raise students' awareness of the ways how a rhetorical question can be used in order to influence an audience. Also, to illustrate the difference among general questions and rhetorical questions, the students were asked to distinguish between rhetorical and general questions and comment on the purpose (to provoke, for humorous effect, to appeal to one's sense of morals, etc.) of their possible use (see, Slide 14, Appendix 5). This short activity served as a shift to the practical part of the theme on rhetorical questions.

The practical part on rhetorical questions consisted of four tasks (see, Appendix 6). Three of the tasks (Task 1, 2, 4) were done on the spot and Task 3 was a home task. In Task 1 they had to complete the sentences provided, by inserting pairs of words from a box in the most appropriate places. Although short and simple for students of a higher proficiency level of English, it was a good practice of question formation for students of lower level. The students had approximately two minutes and then the task was checked. Next, in Task 2, the students were asked to comment on the function of the particular rhetorical questions used. The objective of the task was to make students recall on the purposes of using a rhetorical question stated in the PPT delivered before and foster a discussion on the possible variants.

Task 4 provided with an example of a speech text delivered in a presentation. The task 'killed two (if not more) birds with one stone'. First of all, the content of the text was of relation to business, second, it illustrated the use of signposting and signalling, which the students had studied in the previous class and, third, it provided illustrative examples of the use of rhetorical questions in a presentation speech. Nevertheless, the procedure of doing the task involved, first of all reading the text and getting acquainted with the words or terms used in it. At this point the teacher having considered the possible difficulties for the students to be faced, encouraged the students to make use of modern technologies and use the dictionaries available online (*The Oxford Online Dictionary, Cambridge Online Dictionary*) if needed to check the meaning or some unknown term. Afterwards, they had to do the gap-filling task by inserting the rhetorical questions given in appropriate places in the text. After checking the answers and reading the text out aloud in order to practice intonation and pronunciation, the students were asked to do Task 3 referring to the functions and appropriateness of using rhetorical questions at home (see, Appendix 6).

The second part of the class was dedicated to the theme of *Emotive language*.

The focus of the first 20 minutes of the second theme of the class was on providing theoretical background on the particular topic by delivering a PPT (see, Appendix 7). The teacher outlined the definition and main functions of emotive language. In order to underline the grounds of the topic, an insight on the main theories of emotions were provided and, in order to arise interest, examples in reference to emotional appeal used by particular presenters were highlighted. The students were introduced with the two main groups of words of emotive language – *power words* and *loaded or charged words*. A discussion was fostered by the teacher as to what they

understand with charged and neutral words; some examples were given by the teacher and discussed together with the whole class. Next, the students were given particular examples of the use of emotive language in advertisements and headlines and asked to distinguish between a non-emotive and emotive sentence, consequently, encouraged to provide with their opinion as to what emotions are aimed to be arisen by using the particular choice of words. The grounds for giving this task to the students refers back to the competency based education as the illustrative examples from real life headlines and advertisements are explicit examples of arising interest of the particular topic and may be of use to the students when they join the labour market or change jobs. Another outstanding example, which refers to the issue of improving sociolinguistic competence in particular, was an illustrative example of the title of an American TV show (see, Slide 9 in Appendix 7) translated into Latvian. The pedagogical benefit of the example was that of seeing the significance of connotation of different words having one and the same meaning in two languages – Latvian and English. Furthermore, the examples were aimed to rise awareness on the use of language and the following meaning of one or another word.

The PPT of the theoretical background on Emotive language was followed by the practical part. First, students were provided with a handout containing three tasks (see, Appendix 8). The pre-task phase at this point was to get the students aware of some additional examples of loaded words (see, Loaded Language Examples, Appendix 8). Furthermore, they were given a list of words that could be considered loaded and, therefore, persuasive. They were asked to draw their attention to the lists of words and consider, for example, which of the emotive words might be a synonym to the word *good* and *bad*. At this point the teacher was aware that some of the words might be challenging to some students, therefore, trying to differentiate the complexity of the tasks, according to the principles to be taken into account when working with heterogeneous groups, the main benefit from this task was aimed for students of a higher English language proficiency level. Nevertheless, taking into account the particular examples of loaded language provided, the students were asked to work in pairs or in threes and do the Task 1(see, Appendix 8). The task consisted of six sentences which had to be rewritten so as to make them sound more emotive and persuasive by referring to the list of emotive words discussed before. The objective of the task was to provide practice for the students when considering the use of neutral words, expressions instead of charged words. The benefit of the task to the students

whose main study focus is on business and business terms, at this point, was linguistic competence and the way of changing a sentence so as to make it sound more persuasive. After having checked and discussed the possible variants of changed sentences, the students were asked to focus on Tasks 2 and 3 (see, Appendix 8). First the students had to read the particular extract of a speech made by a prospective Member of Parliament, to persuade local voters to support her. Next, they had to identify different elements of emotive language by underlining them in the text and comment on the intended emotional effect of the words/phrases identified. The particular task was of educational significance to the students as it, first of all, raised the student awareness on the use of language of a native speaker which, accordingly, refers to the communicative competence. The text of the speech being available in written form fostered students' awareness of the language used, especially to those students whose language proficiency level was lower or they perceive written language easier than that of spoken. The extract of the speech was an authentic material used by a real person from real world. Finally, the speech included a reference to the theme of the first part of the class on rhetorical questions, which then serves not only as another example, but also a revision task.

At the end of the class, the teacher thanked the students for their work and collaboration and enquired whether they have any additional questions either about the classwork or home task.

3.4.3 Class 3

The theme of **Class 3** stated at the beginning of the class was *Figures of Speech*. The class lasted for 90 minutes and it was partly a lecture, partly a seminar (see, Lesson Plan of Class 3 – Appendix 9). The aim of the class was to provide the students with theoretical and practical knowledge on particular FS by raising awareness on their use in presentation speeches.

The opening of the class, before looking at the new theme, was devoted to the revision and home task of the topics covered in Class 2. Checking on home tasks is crucial as it involves revising as well as helps the teacher consider the understanding of what the students have learned in the previous class.

After that the teacher of the class provided a PPT presentation on particular FS – simile, metaphor, epithet and hyperbole. One of the initial objectives of the class was

to provide a slight insight of the difference between the terms *literal* and *figurative language*. It was significant because students should be aware that figurative language is not something to be made use of only when writing for example prose or poetry, but also in other forms of literal pieces such as advertisements, posters, speeches.

Metaphor being the most widespread FS was highlighted both by significant quotations in favour of it as well as some thought-provoking examples from real life not only in English but also in the L1 of the students so as to illustrate that metaphors are used, by whom they are used and what is their effect.

As the possible examples of metaphors can be endless, particular types of metaphors were focused, - metaphors of health and medicine, metaphors of war and fighting, metaphors of natural phenomena and sport. The particular types provided focused on the improvement of sociolinguistic competence as it provided not only particular metaphors, but also examples from real life. Furthermore, the teacher was aware that the distinction between metaphor and idiom as well as metaphor and a simile should be pointed out as they are often times confused. As to epithet and hyperbole, again examples were provided and in case of hyperbole its humorous effect was underlined.

After the PPT on the theoretical background of FS, the remaining part of the class focused on particular tasks. The practical part consisted of four tasks (see, Appendix 11). First, students were asked to work in pairs and do the Task 1 on Metaphors. They had to match particular metaphors with their corresponding meanings. The majority of them were pretty widespread, nevertheless, the students were encouraged to use online dictionaries and check the meaning if needed. After 3-5 minutes, the answers were compared and the task was checked together with the whole class. Next, the students had to look at Task 2 and complete particular examples provided with the metaphors looked at in Task 1. Again pair work was encouraged so as to practice using the language as well as discussing and suggesting the possible answers. The task lasted for 5 minutes and during this time the teacher walked around the class, assisted and helped if needed. At the end, the answers were checked, the understanding and possible context of the sentences provided was discussed as in most cases it had an indirect reference either to business, companies or marketing.

The remaining two tasks were extracts of speeches of two well-known public speakers – Martin Luther King Jr and Nelson Mandela. Again the two extracts were, first of all, chosen due to the significance of the two speakers, their examples set as

public speakers. Second, it was an authentic material which focused not only on practicing listening skills, but also provided practice on the use and effect of particular FS. So, first, students were asked to look at the extract of the speech by Martin Luther King Jr “I have a dream”, go through the text and try to predict the missing words. Then the recording was played twice after which the text was read aloud and checked. After reading it, the students were encouraged to comment on the use of FS. The same procedure took place in reference to the extract from President Nelson Mandela’s Inauguration Speech. Consequently, there was a round-up or a follow up phase which was a short discussion on the persuasiveness of each speech. The students were encouraged to share their opinion which speech they liked more than the other or comment on the particular speakers as such.

A home task practice was Task 1 on hyperboles. Also, at the end of the class they were encouraged to think about their individual presentations to be delivered at the end of the course and consider using one or two of the particular means of persuasion covered in the previous classes.

3.4.4 Assessment Sheet Developed for the Evaluation

The particular assessment sheet was developed focusing on the particular means of persuasion practiced during the tasks of the pilot teaching (see, Appendix 16). The basic principle of the assessment was to listen to the presentations, indicate and write down in case the presenters use a rhetorical question, emotive language or particular FS in one’s presentation speech. Also, an additional section for the main points of the overall performance of a speaker was added to the basic components of the sheet. This was done for the purpose to note down information on the frequent aspects to be improved or already obtained by each individual presenter.

3.4.5 Discussion on the Tasks of the Pilot Teaching

All in all the three classes conducted consisted of materials containing the following type of tasks:

- matching,
- gap filling,
- listening to authentic speeches,
- reading and analysing extracts from speeches,
- insertion,

- replacing of words/phrases,
- rewriting sentences,
- discussion,
- identifying words/phrases in a sentence,
- completing sentences with particular words/ phrases.

Accordingly, one of the basic principles of TBLT being the use of the target language was the main objective throughout the pilot teaching. The teacher fostered good atmosphere, encouraged the students to speak and come up with their opinion as well as provided examples from advertising, marketing, politics and business environment. Discussion being a task included in every class of the pilot teaching was meant as a great opportunity for the students to practice speaking in front of others (reminder – they were from two different courses and did not know each other so well), share their opinions, experience and by doing so be active learners.

In most cases the tasks were done following the three phases: a pre-task phase, a task-proper phase, a follow-up phase.

The particular topics taught were presented, first of all, from the receptive-to-productive principle placing listening and reading tasks first or at the beginning and the productive principle – speaking and writing afterwards. Also, the teacher followed the principle of including at least ‘one task which grows out of and build upon the ones which were gone before’ and ‘the recycling of language’ as noted by Nunan. For example, Class 1 involved recycling of signposting and signal words which the students, according to the overall course plan, had studied before. There was an extract of a speech in Class 2, which contained rhetoric questions – which was the focus of the first part of Class 2 as well as Class 1; the speech extracts used in Class 3 illustrated not only the use of particular FS, but also charged words and signal words which was the focus of Class 2.

As noted before, the particular group of students taught were from fourth and second year and their proficiency level of English differed. The particular aspect taken into account was a challenge for the teacher when trying to ‘differentiate the language learning activities’ as proposed by Dudley and Osvath in reference to teaching heterogeneous groups (see, subchapter 2.3 Teaching Heterogeneous Groups). Nevertheless, the teacher tried to encourage weaker students to speak up as well as including tasks of different complexity (an example of a task lower complexity – matching task; an example of higher complexity – identifying FS in an extract of a speech).

From the perspective of competencies fostered, the teacher tried to draw the students' attention to the usefulness and significance of the particular means of persuasion discussed by providing both authentic speeches, extracts from headlines, advertisements which revealed the topicality of their use. This was emphasized by the choice of the particular examples and tasks because the students had to see what are the transferable skills they are developing which, accordingly, they could make use of or need in their future career. Consequently, by listening and filling in the extracts of the authentic speeches of both native speakers and English as second language users, the students invested in the improvement of communicative competence as they heard how the language is used by others. Another focus was also on sociolinguistic competence in reference to which the students listened and practiced how the language is used appropriately.

Finally, the main part of the tasks were chosen and included in the class content so as to raise awareness. For example, matching, rewriting sentences, gap filling, analysing particular extracts from speeches focused on developing the students' cognitive perception as to how ideas are expressed and what changes when using, for example, a metaphor instead of a simple literal word choice. These tasks were done, keeping in mind the three principles put forward by Nunan, accordingly, 'paying attention, noticing, and understanding' of a choice of words used.

4 Discussion and Results

The following chapter contains a discussion on the main results and conclusions of the particular research. It reveals a summary of the main observations of field professionals teaching presentation skills at the tertiary level. It discusses the present day materials available when teaching presentations skills as well as reflects upon the pilot teaching and results of the post-teaching and analysis of the feedback survey.

4.1 Analysis of the Interviews with Field Professionals

To get to know the challenges and current situation in teaching presentation skills at the tertiary level, the author of the particular paper interviewed three field professionals:

- Expert 1 - a lecturer giving lectures both in Bachelor and Master Studies, mastering in public speaking and presentation skills;
- Expert 2 - a lecturer and educator teaching presentation skills, basics of business presentations;
- Expert 3 – a lecturer and expert in Communication and Media studies, public speaking.

A structured type of interview was chosen which consisted of seven open ended questions (see, Appendix 13). The interview, first of all, aimed to find out what is the role of presentation skills nowadays, so as to gain justification for the topicality of the theme of the research. ‘Paramount importance, critical and essential’ were the strong epithets dedicated to the issue by Expert 1 and Expert 2 who both underlined the role of presentation skills as transferable skills which are needed in the academic field, but most importantly, after the studies, in real life when, for example, looking for a job or being able to present a product. Moreover, Expert 3 pointed out that the basics of presentation skills are directly linked with ‘selling one’s ideas, being skilful when presenting oneself and, more importantly – being good at communication’.

Having had taught presentation skills, the experts shared their views on the main challenges of student presentations. First of all, there are some general tendencies, such as stress, problems with structuring a presentation properly. Nevertheless, a common observation made by Expert 2 and Expert 3 proposed that

there are students who consider a presentation more of a ‘formality which has to be done’ excluding any chance of ‘presenting something which could be considered a good presentation’. Expert 2, in this concern, pointed out that there are students who ‘might have prepared the presentation speech, but stick to their notes or the monitor anyways, paying almost no attention to the audience and avoiding eye contact’. Also, a part of students have the tendency to ignore or ‘acknowledge that they have problems with the content of a speech or the way they come up with it’, considering that they do it well enough. Furthermore, according to the professional observations by Expert 3, ‘students in first and second year of bachelor studies are not aware or skilful enough how to use the language properly’ when speaking in front of a public.

The focus of the particular research being persuasion, the field professionals were asked to share their view on what makes an effective or persuasive presentation. Expert 3 reflected on this issue by naming such aspects as ‘charm, precision, the ability to be structured with your presentation, ambition in reference to the aim of the presentation’. He added that a presenter, willing to deliver a persuasive or effective presentation, ‘should be sensitive to the awareness of the reaction of the audience, their way of expressing with different small signals whether they understand what you are saying and what message you are trying to deliver to them’. Accordingly, he takes a standpoint that ‘one should be able to adapt and improvise’ when giving an effective presentation. Expert 1, on the other hand, considers one’s personality being one of the key components of an effective presentation, highlighting that persuasion and effectiveness is about ‘communicating that something is important, interesting, and valuable, in that way managing to persuade the importance and value to the audience’.

When asked on students’ ability and level of skills when delivering a presentation at the tertiary level the purpose of which is persuasion, the field professionals are either neutral or pretty realistic in their observations. Expert 1, for example, when taking into account that persuasion relies on language, images, and other means of communication, underlined that ‘students underestimate the goal of persuasion’. In her experience the students ‘think that if they have prepared a text of the presentation that is absolutely enough – there is this audience who simply needs to listen to me as a presenter’. Expert 2 considers that the ability to deliver a persuasive presentation ‘depends on students’ language skills, notwithstanding which language, foreign or native it is’. Accordingly, in her observations the more students learn, the higher they rise in their studies, ‘the richer their language becomes, the more

comfortable they feel when speaking'. Expert 3, on his turn, holds a neutral position answering that 'it depends' and adds a remark drawing one's attention to the significance of leadership and leaders in every group, class, party which would be beneficial to follow up to by the weaker speakers who could learn from these kind of leaders.

Do students make use of particular means of persuasion when delivering presentations in academic field? Expert 1 has observed that students find preference in 'referring to the opinions of authorities – quotes' and 'use visual materials for making the presentation more memorable, yet, not so much persuasive'. 'The unwillingness to work on their voices' is mentioned by Expert 1 as a negative tendency, which is significant as there are courses at the university on phonetics and phonology which reflect upon the importance on intonation, enunciation, and so on. As to the opinion of Expert 3, he is straightforward – 'Rather not. They don't.' Furthermore, he develops his idea emphasizing that 'the myth that a PPT will replace the speaker is quite strong and widespread among the students'.

Finally, developing on the issue of using means of persuasion when delivering a PPT, the particular field professionals were asked to comment on their observations if students use any of the particular means of persuasion - rhetorical questions, emotive language, and figures of speech when delivering a presentation at the tertiary level. The observations and views were slightly similar. In the experience of Expert 1 and Expert 2 students are aware and try to use rhetorical questions sometimes. Also, Expert 1 states that the use of figures of speech are very rare and as to the emotive language, in her observations, 'the students undervalue the importance of it' by being aware, but avoiding to use it. Similarly, Expert 3 acknowledges that 'yes, FS are taught to the students, but, in his observation, the students do not know why they should use FS or how they should be used.'

4.2 Discussion on the Needs Analysis

As stated above one of the research methods used in this paper was a survey the tool of which was a questionnaire (see, Appendix 14). The aim of the questionnaire was to find out which sentences with a particular FS the respondents would choose for giving a presentation, public speech or persuasion and whether they would choose a sentence the idea of which is expressed with a FS in general.

The questionnaire was compiled of sixteen sentences or eight sentence pairs. The meaning of the sentences in each pair was the same, though, in one of the two sentences (A or B) it was expressed by using a *simile*, *hyperbole*, *epithet* and *metaphor*. Altogether there were eight sentences with a FS or four sentence pairs – two sentences with a *metaphor* (7B, 8A), two sentences with an epithet (5B, 6A), two sentences with a *hyperbole* (3A, 4B) and two – with a *simile* (1B, 2A). It should be made clear that the sentences were paralleled – each pair consisted with a sentence with a particular FS used and one without.

The number of questionnaires filled in was thirteen (the total of the particular group of respondents was 14). The results revealed that from the majority of possible choices in 44 per cent of cases the respondents had chosen sentences with a particular FS for the purpose of persuasion (see, Figure 4.1). In 24 per cent of cases, the respondents had chosen sentences with a FS for public speaking and in 25 per cent of cases – for giving a presentation. It should be added that, an amount of 7 per cent of respondents had chosen sentences with a FS in both cases – when giving a presentation and for persuasion.

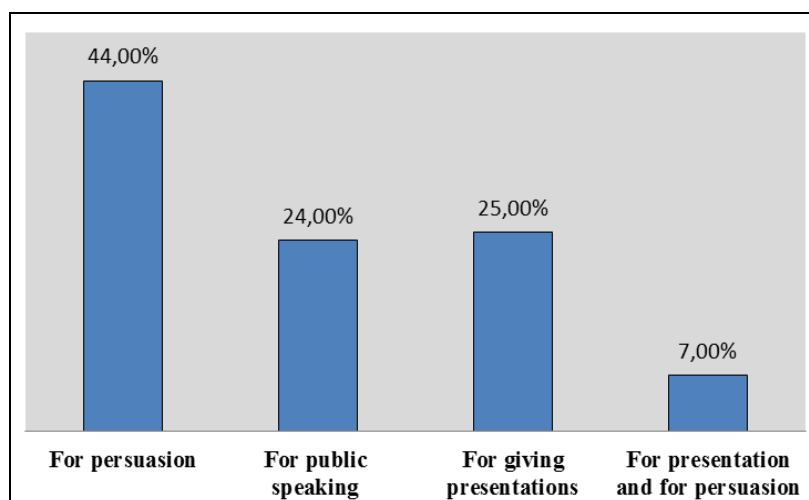


Figure 4.1 Students' choice in using a sentence with a FS (Total = 100%)

As to which sentences with a FS have been more favoured than the others and chosen in cases *for persuasion*, it can be seen (see, Figure 4.2) that epithets come first (in 10 out of 35 cases) followed by metaphors (in 9 out of 35 cases).

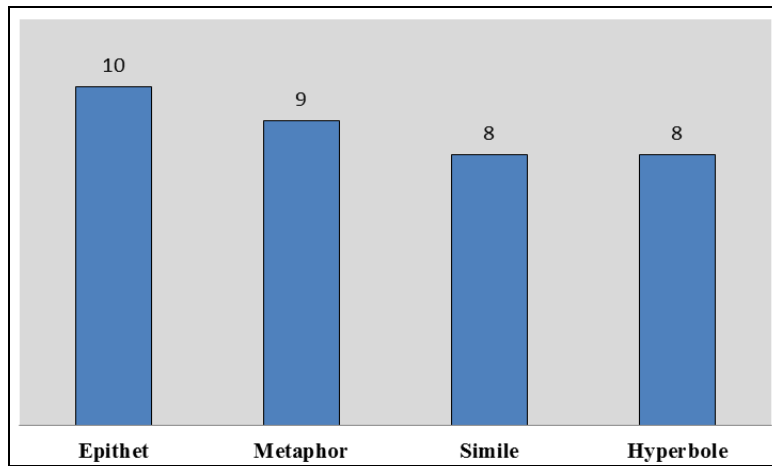


Figure 4.2 FS used in a sentence chosen for persuasion (Total = 35 cases)

When considering the particular FS and *giving a presentation*, it can be seen (see, Figure 4.3) that in the majority of the cases the respondents would choose to use similes (6 out of 19) and epithets (5 out of 19 cases).

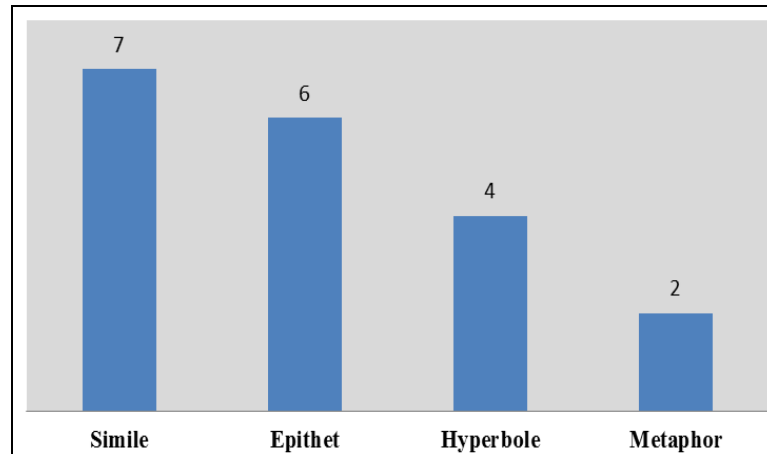


Figure 4.3 Number of particular FS used in sentences chosen for giving a presentation (Total = 19 cases)

To sum up, in majority of the possible cases, the respondents chose to use a sentence with a particular FS when persuading, 44 per cent, and only in 25 per cent of cases the respondents chose these FS to be used when giving a presentation. Accordingly, it might be assumed that the respondents acknowledge the persuasive nature of the particular FS used in the sentences outlined, however, are not aware of their use and impact when giving a presentation. Second, a comparatively small part of respondents consider the use of epithets and metaphors as persuasive and even a smaller part of respondents would use such FS as a simile and epithet (from the cases chosen) when giving a presentation. Consequently, it can be concluded that a deeper

understanding of FS and their use in presentations and for persuasion should be developed.

4.3 Teaching Material and Document analysis

Within the framework of presentation skills and persuasion in presentations to be taught at the tertiary level, an analysis was conducted on the availability and number of course books which contain useful material in relation to presentations and persuasion in presentations (see, 1., 29., 30., 55., 92. in the References).

Looking through the course books of general English and English for Business, which have been published within the last 10 years, 5 course books (out of 12) which include some materials or materials related indirectly to teaching presentation skills as well as effective or persuasive presentations was found.

Among the course books which focus on teaching Business English, there are two significant books: *Business Result. Advanced* (2012) by K. Baade, C. Hollay, J. Scrivener and R. Turner and *Market Leader. Advanced* (2008) by I. Dubicka and M. O’Keeffe.

Business Result. Advanced (2012) is meant for Advanced learners whose English proficiency level is C1-C2. Along with some other business related topics, there is a topic on *Performance*, the objective of which is developing business communication skills and teaching how to give an impromptu presentation. In addition, another whole unit, the title of which is *Persuasion*, focus on talking about how we are persuaded and influenced, the objective of which is to teach how to present and sell one’s idea. Although meant for advanced learners, the book and the latter unit mentioned, would be a good material for developing awareness on persuasion.

Market Leader. Advanced (2011) is also compiled for language users the proficiency level of which is C1-C2. In comparison to its former edition in 2008, there have been included three topics related to the development of Business skills, presentations in particular. These topics are:

- Making an impact in presentations. Writing: presentation slides,
- Managing questions,
- Presentations: thinking on your feet.

The particular topics outlined discuss some of the most widespread issues related to public speaking and presentations. The awareness of these topics are fostered via

discussion, listening tasks, group work and could be a useful material when teaching both presentations skills in general as well as tools and tips of an persuasive presentation speech.

Another course book focusing on Business English, *Key Business Skills* (2012) by Barry Tomalin, is meant for learners of proficiency level of B1-C1. The book focuses on developing Business skills – speaking in presentations, meetings, negotiations, networking in particular. An indirectly related unit included in the book is that of *Presentation Style*. Although it touches upon the use of rhetorical questions, selling an experience, emphasizing key words the unit might be just partly used when teaching persuasion in presentations. The explicit focus of this unit and book in general is on developing speaking and listening skills which is fostered by discussion and various listening tasks.

As to the course books focusing on teaching General English, there should be highlighted the latest edition of *New English File* (NEF) published by Oxford University Press. Particularly, *English New File. Upper-intermediate Student's Book* (2014) by C. Lathan-Koenig and C. Oxenden have included in the particular books topics of different kind – questions and answers, air travel, music and emotion and so on. Although the book is compiled for students of the proficiency level of B1-B2 there is one whole unit under the title of *The Power of Words*. Although the grammatical section of the unit focus on articles, the reading and listening part is dedicated to reading about famous speakers and listening to extracts of inspirational speeches. Furthermore, the speaking practice is focused on reading and discussion of presentation tips and examples of presentation disasters. The unit outlined would be a useful material when teaching general English and giving an insight of persuasive speeches without the focus on business related issues or terms. Moreover, it should be noted that in the edition of NEF Upper-Intermediate in 2008 there is no such unit related to the development of presentations skills or speeches in particular.

To sum up, it may be concluded that there are not many course books which provide materials either focusing or touching upon presentation skills. Among course books on general English and Business English, the books which comprise business related topics include also some with the relation to presentation, techniques of being persuasive - emphasizing and highlighting some point in one's speech. Nevertheless, the course books of Business English which include persuasion in presentations and presentation skills are compiled for students of Advanced English proficiency, which

has to be taken into account when having to teach a group of lower level of English proficiency at the tertiary level.

4.4 Discussion on Pilot Teaching

As mentioned above the aim of the first class of the pilot teaching, **Class 1**, was on *Making an impact in presentations* (see, Lesson plan in Appendix 1). Being a slight change from the ordinary, the new teacher was welcomed with curiosity, yet, slight shyness. The attendance of the class was not total; there was an absence of 4-5 students (out of 14). Nevertheless, when focusing on the tasks planned for the class, it was evident that the opening task (see, Task D, Appendix 3), which was a revision on expressions for staging and signposting, went very well. It could be observed that the students do not hesitate in predicting the missing phrases beforehand and have almost no mistakes after listening to the correct answers from the recording. In correlation to the observations by the field professionals interviewed, the next two tasks (Task E and F) revealed that they recognize and distinguish among the use of quotations, phrases used for changing the topic as well as asking rhetorical question when listening to a presentation speech.

Nevertheless, the closing task, which was a discussion on the use of particular expressions offered in a formal presentation or an in-house talk, could have been more active. Either the end of the day (4 p.m.) or lack of confidence but there were only some two people to share their opinion freely.

The focus of the second class of the pilot teaching, **Class 2**, was on *rhetorical questions* and *emotive language* (see, Lesson Plan – Appendix 4).

Class 2 (also Class 3) was challenging, first of all, for the teacher, because referring to the theoretical background considered, she understood the role model set by giving a PPT on her own. Therefore, a balance between providing theoretical information as well as raising interest about the topics under discussion was one of the professional objectives set by the teacher to her own self-assessment.

Nevertheless, looking at the topic of rhetorical questions and the particular tasks done, the students did not have much difficulty in both doing the task on completion of sentences as well as task on replacing particular phrases with rhetorical questions. They expressed interest about the topic focusing on the presentation and the only noticeable difficulty for them was a transition task from the theoretical part of

rhetorical questions to the practical part where they had to distinguish among general and rhetorical questions (see, Slide 14, Appendix 5). Among the five questions provided, there was a slight confusion in reference to the sentences ‘*Could we improve the results?*’ and ‘*Can we do better next time?*’ The students were on mixed opinions about the two examples. Nevertheless, it was a great opportunity for a discussion to arise as to in what situation(s) the particular questions might have been used.

The second part of Class 2 focused on the topic of Emotive language. The first part of the teaching which, again was a PPT given by the teacher, focused not only on giving theoretical background and definition of emotive language and its main types, but also raising awareness on the role of emotions in communication and cognitive science as well as providing engaging examples. Furthermore, when speaking about neutral and charged words, the students were invited to share their view as to which of the particular words given as examples are neutral and which are charged, therefore acquiring the information on their understanding of the particular issue. As the brave volunteers were only few, the overall level of understanding was not clear. To draw their attention and raise awareness of good and bad connotations of words, the examples of *bachelorette* and *spinster* were provided with an illustrative example of an American TV show which used one of this word in its title (see, Slide 9, Appendix 7). The students at this point were encouraged to guess or think about the corresponding word to be used when translating the title of the show in their L1.

The practical part on the topic of emotive language revealed two significant aspects. First, the students do not have much difficulty in recognising the use of emotive language in one’s speech and developing upon the intended emotional effects. Second, when having provided with particular loaded language examples and some simple examples, they find it difficult to rewrite make the simple sentences more emotive and persuasive. (see, Task 1, Appendix 8). The possible reason of this might be the complexity of the task which lies in the level of language proficiency.

The focus of the third class of the pilot teaching, **Class 3**, was on FS - metaphor, simile, epithet and hyperbole in particular (see, Lesson Plan – Appendix 9). At the beginning of the class a PPT on FS were given (see, Appendix 10). To raise the awareness of FS, the distinction between figurative and literal language was pointed out, examples from literature, news headlines, business related texts were given. In reference to the observation of field professionals who have commented that students sometimes use idioms generally avoiding FS, the distinction between idiom and

metaphor was highlighted (see, Slide 12, Appendix 10). In a similar way the difference between a metaphor and a simile was highlighted and the students were invited to distinguish between the use of these in particular sentences (see, Slide 14, Appendix 10).

The practical part on the topic of FS turned out to be partly a language recycling. Accordingly, the first two tasks on metaphors, which focused on the most widespread ones used in a matching and inserting task, caused no difficulty for them (see, Appendix 11). As it turned out afterwards, some of the students (but not all; it is possible that those are students studying in year four) had learned them in one of the other courses taught before. Nevertheless, it could be observed that the students enjoy working in two or three and using online dictionaries to find out the meaning of some unknown phrases/metaphors. The final two tasks which were extracts of a speech by Martin Luther King and President Nelson Mandela were partly difficult for them (see, Appendix 12). Although, they were provided with transcripts of the two particular extracts, both of the speakers were not native speakers having a well-heard accent. This, at some point made it difficult to perceive particular words/phrases uttered. Also, after having listened and completed the extracts, the students were invited to name examples of FS used in the extracts, which they did quite freely, however, not exactly sure what particular FS have they found and confusing one with another.

4.5 Analysis of the Feedback Survey

To get to know the students' view on the topics covered and the tasks done, a feedback survey was conducted (see, Appendix 15). The questionnaire was filled in by 12 out of 14 students.

The questionnaire consisted of nine questions, the first one relating to the character of the tasks used in the teaching process. Overall, the students considered the tasks *engaging and interesting* (10 out of 12 respondents). Only in two cases, the respondents had indicated that they were *challenging*, and such which *could have been more complex* (see, Figure 4.4).

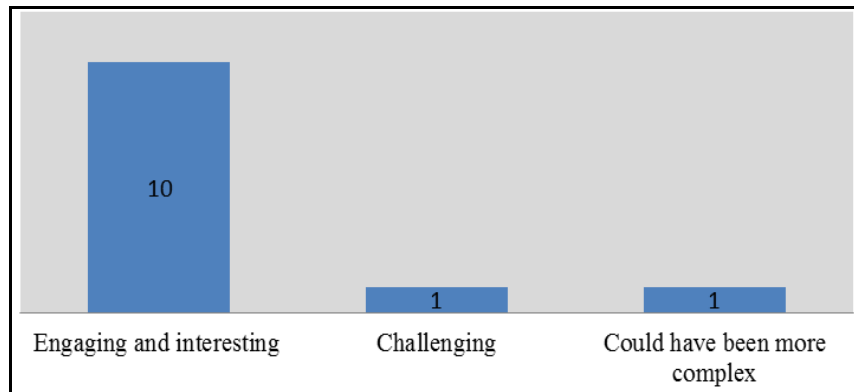


Figure 4.4 The overall view on the tasks used in the study process

As to the usefulness of particular tasks, when learning about rhetorical questions, emotive language and particular FS, in majority of cases, tasks involving *listening to authentic speeches* were chosen as the most useful (see, Figure 4.5).

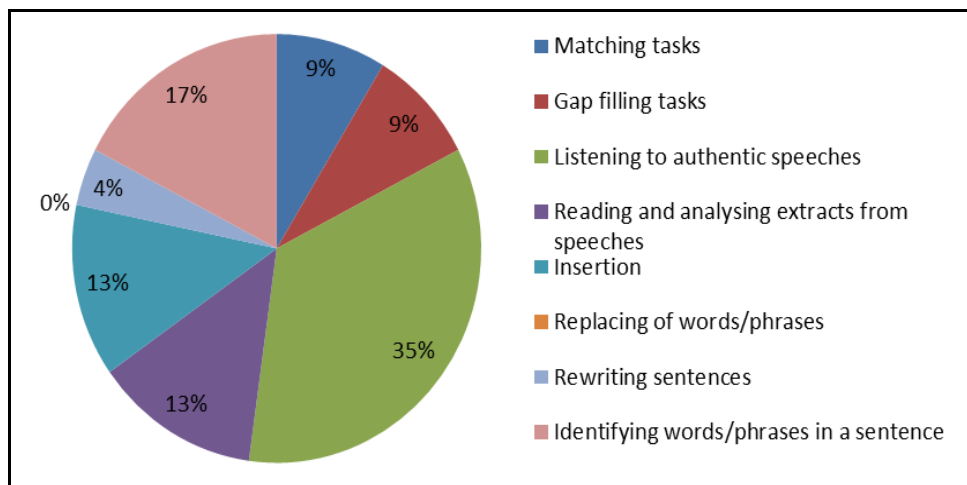


Figure 4.5 Tasks considered as the most useful in the learning process

Having been asked whether they learned more about rhetorical questions/emotive language/particular FS by doing the tasks, in the majority the answer was affirmative in the case of *emotive language* (see, Figure 4.6).

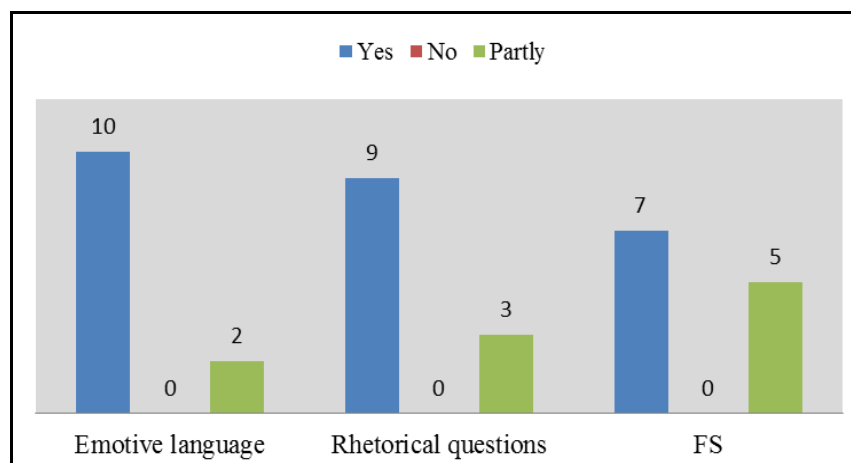


Figure 4.6 Learned more about the topics covered by doing the particular tasks

The results show that most students (9 out of 12) consider emotive language to be the tool the use of which makes one sound more persuasive (see, Figure 4.7).

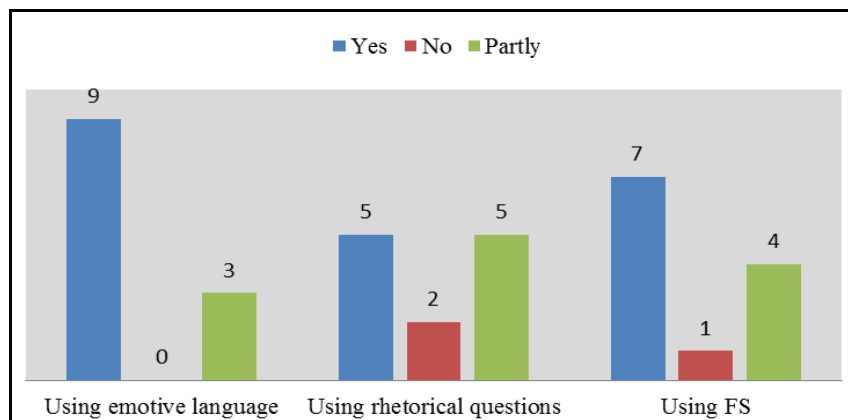


Figure 4.7 Makes one sound more persuasive

Accordingly, the data gathered allowed to make particular conclusions introduced in the next subchapter.

4.6 Results of the Post-Testing

The final test, which was an individual PPT, was taken by 13 out of 14 students. In order to practice timing, one of the preconditions of the assessment was presenting a particular topic within 2 minutes (the high maximum being considered 2.5-3 minutes).

Taking into account the timing and stress as the main challenges in majority of cases, the performance of some students revealed thoughtfulness in reference to the use of one's voice, awareness of body language as well as particular rhetorical devices. In correlation to the results gathered from the feedback survey, some students made use of emotive language using emotionally charged words or expressions. For example, 'one of the most *prominent* Japanese producers', 'next year we will have some other *challenges*', 'there you can experience some *excitement*', 'population increased *dramatically*', 'to increase *the efficiency* of our book'.

Apart from the use of emotive words, there are some other examples, revealing the use of epithet. For example, 'another very *famous director*', 'there are *slight changes*', 'they suffer *slight decrease*', '*new gadgets*', '*comfortable usage*'.

The assessment sheets filled in by the teacher (see, Appendix 17) revealed that there are students whose performance does not reveal a proper consideration of the overall performance when giving a presentation speech. In these cases students do not

take into account language as a significant tool for making an impact when giving a PPT. Accordingly, either providing a formal speech without any particular point underlining the significance or aim of the PPT delivered or reading the text from a sheet of paper having no contact with the audience.

Reflecting upon the use of rhetorical questions, it might be suggested that the students were considerate enough not to use them as those might have involved some extra pauses needed for the audience to consider them and, therefore, losing some of the precious time, the students had for the performance.

Additional observations from the post-testing presentations reveal that in (3 out of 13) cases there are students who find it easier to use intensifiers ('I *really* hope', 'a *very* famous person') choosing another emotive word instead. It might be suggested that the grounds for this is small vocabulary or a habit from the use of everyday language. Also, although avoiding metaphors, particular students (2 out of 13) find it more convenient to stick to the use of idioms as in the phrase '*to find a way out of this problem*'.

An overall conclusion of the post-testing reveal that a part of the students have good computer skills, accordingly, having had invested great effort in the development of the PPT itself and the design of the slides. Also, each presenter has individual pros and cons, including grammatical mistakes, avoidance of eye contact with the audience, looking at the slides or in a sheet of paper, which might be altered or developed under individual tutoring.

Conclusions

The goal of the present paper was to investigate developing presentation skills at the tertiary level focusing on tasks with particular means of persuasion. The hypothesis that student presentations become more persuasive when teacher uses tasks focusing on particular FS, emotive language and rhetorical questions is partly true. The grounds for this statement can be found, first of all, in the apparent student ability to do successfully different tasks which focus on the practice of using particular FS, rhetorical questions as well as emotive language, yet, having not reached the language proficiency level which would allow them to feel comfortable with the language as a tool to be used for persuasion in presentation speech.

Having in mind the assumption that each topic presented by the students might be of similar nature to that faced in one's professional career, a correlating conclusion to field professionals can be made that there is a part of students who find giving a presentation as a formality the mere aim of which is assessment. In some cases the students exclude the consideration of presentation skills being in close relation to communication skills, accordingly, being unaware of one's body language when standing in front of an audience, making no eye contact, reading the presentation speech from a sheet of paper or focusing on the slides.

Nevertheless, the pre-teaching questionnaire revealed that students acknowledge FS as a tool used for persuasion, yet, only in a small number of cases choosing epithet and simile as the FS to be used for a presentation speech. This proved to be partly true also in practice as in some presentation speeches in testing there was only the use of epithet present which made the ideas expressed seem more engaging.

The results of the post-teaching survey as well as post-testing revealed that in majority of cases the students had learned more about emotive language by doing the particular tasks which reflected also in the presentation speeches and the use of particular charged words, therefore, appealing to the listeners in an emotional way. A significant aspect is that of the major part of students finding most useful the tasks related to listening to authentic speeches. This might suggest the significant need for role models when considering one's speech as well as teaching and learning presentation skills, which relates to the term, *noticing the gap*, suggested by Thornbury, giving a chance for the students to compare different performances and,

therefore, considering some new variations of their own speech. Accordingly, the use of authentic speeches in presentation skill development at the tertiary level might be suggested as a theme for further research

The specific character of the research lay, first of all, in relation to the group of students taking part in it. The different proficiency level of English was a leading aspect to be taken into account when developing the lesson plans and managing the class work. Time and the diverse English proficiency level of the group may be highlighted as the main limitations of the research. The particular amount of classes conducted for the pilot teaching might have been bigger, so as to provide additional tasks not only strengthening student awareness of the means of persuasion, but also giving additional speaking tasks focusing on widespread mistakes as well as individual aspects in each case. In addition, the experimental group was small; therefore, not a large amount of data was gathered which might have given a broader view on the awareness and practical use of particular means of persuasion.

Nevertheless, the research is important, because it reflects upon teaching particular means of persuasion – a process which raises awareness of them and strengthens the understanding of the tools of delivering a persuasive presentation speech as well as recognizing one.

The presentations delivered by the students highlighted the significant link between communication and presentation skills underlined by McCarthy and Hatcher (2002). Although standing in front of others, having made a proper PowerPoint Presentation with visually attractive and engaging slides, some students did not *communicate* – make use of their voice, pay attention to the use of language, its grammar and style, appropriate choice of words. The tendency of avoiding eye contact and reading the speech from notes, influenced the overall effect of a presentation and in some cases, causing the impression of unpreparedness, lack of confidence or experience.

Finally, it may be concluded that teaching EFL at the tertiary level working with a heterogeneous group within the circumstances of having a limited number of teaching material on presentation skills and persuasion which would not be meant only for advanced learners, is a rather challenging task for a particular EFL teacher.

Theses

1. Listening to authentic speeches and having notable examples to look up to are important components of the development of presentations skills.
2. Although the use figures of speech may be considered as a persuasive tool in a presentation speech, their avoidance may be grounded in low language proficiency level.
3. When teaching English as foreign language at the tertiary level, students should be provided with authentic examples of the use of particular means of persuasion both in the target language as well as in first language, so as to not only raise awareness of the effect of their use, but also provide with an illustration of their widespread use by differed professionals.
4. Presentation skills and public speaking are closely related involving not only the ability to speak in front of an audience, but also presenting one's ideas, work or product at the level of social communication which focus on visual, vocal and verbal means simultaneously.
5. A balance between theoretical and practical knowledge of presentation skills should be carefully considered when developing the study content at the tertiary level, so as to foster the avoidance of Power Point presentation as a formality instead of a way of communicating a message to the audience.
6. The development of presentations the purpose of which is persuasion is essential at the tertiary level as it is a part of transferrable skills being of practical use in one's professional career and the ability to represent oneself both as a citizen as well as irreplaceable workforce.
7. The avoidance of using rhetorical questions may be explained by the misunderstanding between the form of rhetorical and general question as well as the consideration that their use may involve some extra time.
8. Task-based language teaching is a useful teaching method engaging students in real language use and providing them with various tasks which foster the development of one or another skill.
9. An English as a foreign language teacher should have some background information about the students so as to adapt both the teaching material and focus on the needs of the particular students.

10. Teaching heterogeneous groups may be a challenging and stressful work for English as a foreign language teacher as it involves working with students of different ability and interest.

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Appendix 1

Lesson Plan of Class 1

Level: Intermediate/Upper-Intermediate (B1/B2)

Length of the lesson: 45 min

Aim of the lesson: to give an insight in the use of particular techniques for making an impact in presentations.

Objectives:

1. to distinguish among the function of referring to visuals, changing topic, quoting someone, closing remarks,
2. to look at particular techniques for making an impact,
3. to analyse two particular speeches and recognize the usage of techniques for making an impact,
4. to discuss the usage of particular expressions in formal presentation and an in-house talk.

Enabling objectives of the particular activities: to practice listening, writing, speaking, discussing.

Preparation: A handout from Market Leader, Sub-chapter on “*Making an impact in presentations*”, Task D, E, F, G. (see, Appendix 3); audio scripts of two particular speeches (see, Appendix 2).

No	Activity/Aids	Interaction	Procedure	Time (min.)
1.	Stating the aim – to get an insight in the use of particular techniques for making an impact in presentations	T-S	Teacher distributes the handout on “ <i>Making an impact in presentation</i> ”.	20
2.	Task D (pre-listening)	S	The students look at particular sentences and try to predict the missing words by writing down some possible answers.	2 min
2.	Task D (listening)	S	The students listen to two tracks (1.33, 1.34) twice each; answers are compared and checked together afterwards.	4-7 min

3.	Task E	T-S	The students are asked to categorise the expressions heard from Task D (1-8) according to their function (a-d).	4 min
4.	Task F	T-S	Students are asked to look at particular techniques for making an impact. Then - given Audio Scripts of the speeches heard and asked to consider which of the techniques for making an impact are used in those speeches. Answers are compared afterwards.	5 -7 min
5.	Task G	T-S	Students are introduced with particular useful language. They are asked to decide if they would use these expressions in a formal presentation and/or an in-house talk.	5 min

Appendix 2

Class 1

Audio Scripts of Two Extracts of Speeches

CD1 TRACK 33

PRESENTER 1

So, to go back to what I was saying earlier, even social media marketing, like, say, the Axe campaign, is taking the same old ideas and just adding new technology. So, you know, *Houston, we have an innovation problem*. Marketers are pushing the *same* old buttons to sell more variations of the *same* old products. It's a negative-sum game. Think about it. Right, let's just go back to that slide. Now, we've seen how product variations increase cost without enlarging the overall market. And with increased competition, prices are pushed down, inviting more competitors, such as supermarket low-cost home brands. This means consumers are just overloaded with more choice of very similar products.

Clearly, we've got to do something different here. So, to sum up the key points, marketing needs to pull back from its focus on distribution, packaging and communication, and refocus on helping create great new products that deliver distinctive value and make people's lives better.

Then it'll be easy to communicate that to prospective customers. And that's what I'd like you to do for your next assignment: *innovate*. Work in

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AUDIO SCRIPTS

groups and come up with a brand-new product or service. Think about a product that will make *your* life easier. Oh, sorry, folks, but that's all we have time for today. See you on Thursday.

CD1 TRACK 34

PRESENTER 2

Right then, let's take another look at those figures, shall we? If you look at this chart a moment showing the projected figures for China's fashion market, you'll see we're talking about over *five billion* euros. That's a huge increase in growth, isn't it? It's a massive market that's there for the taking. We've got to produce quality sports clothing at competitive prices that both look good and feel good. Yes, the Chinese market is excellent at imitation. But if you can't beat them, join them! I'd like to quote the words of a journalist from the *FT* here: 'Customers may not always be right, but they certainly matter.' And unless we can give them what our competitors can't, we have no business.

If there's just one thing I'd like you all to remember, it's focus on our customer base. Not by generating business in the short term, but by positioning ourselves for the future. And finally, I'd like to reveal our new marketing strapline. Here we go ... I think you'll all agree, that sums us up perfectly.

Appendix 3

Class 1

Handout on Techniques for Making an Impact

BUSINESS SKILLS

Making an impact in presentations



D CD1.33, 1.34 What do you think are the missing words in these expressions for staging and signposting? Listen to two more extracts and check your answers.

Presenter 1

- 1 So, to go back to earlier, ...
- 2 Right, to that slide.
- 3 So, to sum
- 4 Sorry, folks, but time for today.

Presenter 2

- 5 Right then, let's those figures, shall we?
- 6 I'd like to a journalist from the *FT* here: ...
- 7 If there's just you all to remember, it's ...
- 8 And reveal our new marketing strapline.

E Categorise the expressions in Exercise D (1–8) according to their function (a–d). Some can go under more than one function.

- a) referring to visuals b) changing topic c) quoting someone d) closing remarks

F Which of the techniques below did each presenter use?

- Student A: Look at the audio scripts for Presenter 1 on page 171 (Tracks 31 and 33).
Student B: Look at the audio scripts for Presenter 2 on pages 171–172 (Tracks 32 and 34).

Techniques for making an impact

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1 Use of repetition | 6 Building rapport with the audience, e.g. telling an anecdote, referring to a news story, using humour, etc. |
| 2 Referring to a surprising fact or figure | 7 Listing points in threes or fives |
| 3 Asking 'real' or rhetorical questions | 8 Calling for action, e.g. asking the audience to reflect on or do something |
| 4 Quoting someone | |
| 5 Emphasising key words or figures | |

G Which of the expressions in the Useful language box on the previous page would you use for a) a formal presentation at a conference, and b) an in-house talk?

USEFUL LANGUAGE

REFERRING TO SURPRISING FACTS OR FIGURES

Marketing is too often confused with selling.
You'll see we're talking about over five billion euros.

QUOTING SOMEONE

I'd like to quote the words of ... here.
According to the marketing guru, ...
Kotler would argue ...

EMPHASISING KEY WORDS

What is *unseen* is the extensive market investigation ...
And that's what I'd like *you* to do for your next assignment.

CALLING FOR ACTION

And that's what I'd like you to do.
If there's just one thing I'd like you all to remember, it's ...

BUILDING RAPPORT WITH THE AUDIENCE

Houston, we have an innovation problem. (*using humour*)
Clearly, we've got to do something different here. (*involving the audience*)
You know, a funny thing happened to me the other day. (*telling an anecdote*)
That's a huge increase in growth, isn't it? (*inviting agreement*)

Appendix 4

Lesson Plan of Class 2

Level: Intermediate/Upper-Intermediate (B1/B2)

Length of the lesson: 90 min

Aim of the lesson:

- to teach about rhetorical questions, their types and effect when giving speech,
- to teach about emotive language and its use and purpose.

Objectives:

1. to distinguish among general and rhetorical questions,
2. to look at types of rhetorical questions and their difference,
3. to look at particular emotive words and phrases,
4. to analyse the impact of emotive language,
5. to learn about power words and charged words
6. to distinguish emotive language in particular texts,
7. to practice and change sentences from non-emotive statements to emotive statements.

Enabling objectives of the particular activities: to practice writing, speaking, discussing.

Preparation: Tasks on Rhetorical questions (see, Appendix 6); PPT on Rhetorical questions (see, Appendix 5); PPT on Emotive language (see, Appendix 7); Tasks on Emotive language (see, Appendix 8).

No	Activity/Aids	Interaction	Procedure	Time (min.)
1.	Stating the aim – rhetorical questions	T	Teacher conducts a PPT on Rhetorical questions (see, Appendix 5)	20 min
2.	Rhetorical or general question	T-S	At the end of the PPT presentation the students are asked to distinguish among general and rhetorical questions (see, Appendix 5, Slide 14)	2 min
2.	Students are Provided with Handouts on Rhetorical questions (see, Appendix 6)	S	Students are asked to complete the rhetorical questions. After filling in the	10 min

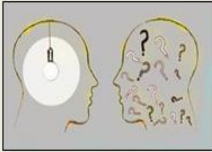
	Task 1 Task 2		tasks, they are asked to reflect upon the effect the rhetorical questions arise (appeal to moral values, provocation, etc.)	
3.	Task 3 Task 4 (Homework)	S	Students are asked to rewrite sentences using rhetorical questions.	8 min
4.	Stating the topic of the second part of the lecture – emotive language	T	Teacher conducts a PPT on Emotive language (see, Appendix 7)	20 min
5.	Loaded Language examples Task 1	T-S	Students are given a handout on loaded language. After having got acquainted with them they do Task 1 (see, Appendix 8)	10 min
6.	Task 2 Task 3	S	Students look at an extract from a speech and try to distinguish emotive language.	10 min

Appendix 5

Class 2

A Presentation on Rhetorical Questions

Rhetorical Questions



Elza Klaviņa 2016

1

Definition

A stylistic approach to evoke emotion by posing a question that is not meant to be answered, where the answer itself is implied in the question.

(Enos, 2011: 608)

E.g. '*What difference does it make?*'
which may function like the statement, '*It makes no difference*'.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics)

2

Usage



(Online 1)

3

Purpose

- to provoke,
- to emphasize,
- to persuade,
- to argue,
- for humorous effect,
- to appeal to one's sense of morals,
- making a message.

(Dubicka, 2006: 137)

4

Effect

- stimulates mental response of the listeners,
- highlights similarities between the speaker and audience,
- get listeners interested,
- persuades.

(Verderber, Verderber and Sallnow, 2007: 76)

5

Types

- hypophora (or anathypopora),
- epiplexis,
- erotesis.

(Nordquist, 2016)

6

Hypophora

‘the practice of asking oneself a question and then immediately answering it’

(Nordquist, 2016)

7

Hypophora Examples

‘Can we say that we’re truly doing enough to give all the children of this country the chance they deserve to live out their lives in happiness and with purpose?’

‘I’ve been reflecting on this the last few days, and if we’re honest with ourselves, the answer’s no. We’re not doing enough. And we will have to change.’

(U.S. President Barack Obama, on December 16, 2012.)

‘You ask, what is our aim? I can answer in one word: Victory. Victory at all costs, victory in spite of all terror; victory, however long and hard the road may be, for without victory, there is no survival.’

(Winston Churchill, address to Parliament, May 13, 1940)

8

Epiplexis

‘questions are asked in order to rebuke or reproach rather than to elicit answers’

(Nordquist, 2016)

‘Let us not assassinate this lad further, Senator. You have done enough. Have you left no sense of decency?’

(Joseph Welch to Senator Joseph McCarthy at the Army-McCarthy Hearings, June 9, 1954)

9

Erotesis

‘implying strong affirmation or denial’

(Nordquist, 2016)

‘implies an answer but does not give or lead us to expect one’

(Lanham, 2012: 35)

10

Erotesis. Examples

‘Was I an Irishman on that day that I boldly withstood our pride or on the day that I hung down my head and wept in shame and silence over the humiliation of Great Britain?’

(Edmund Burke, Speech to the Electors of Bristol, September 6, 1780)

‘Isn’t that incredible?’... ‘Want to see that again?’... “Pretty cool, huh?”

(Steve Jobs, Macworld 2007 Keynote Address, speaking about the iPhone)

11

Another classification of rhetorical questions

1. Obvious answer; asked to emphasize a point:

‘There is no point, is there?’

‘Is the pope catholic?’

‘Do you want to get fired?’

2. Have no answer:

‘What is the meaning of life?’

‘What’s the matter with kids today?’

(Online 2)

12

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13

Rhetorical or General Question?

Do cats fly?

Could we improve the results?

Can we do better next time?

What are the challenges?

If vegetarians eat vegetables, then what do humanitarians eat?

14

Appendix 6

Class 2

Handouts on Rhetorical Questions

Task 1 Complete the rhetorical questions with the pairs of words in the box.

Task 2 What is the function of the particular rhetorical questions (to emphasize, provoke, to appeal to one's sense of morals, to argue)?

How + do	When + expect	Why + keep on
Where + go	How much + is	What + waiting

1	The opportunities are there. We've got the staff. are we for?
2	Our production costs are going up and we're losing market share. There's one question on everyone's mind. do we from here?
3	We went from a small office in Bratislava ten years ago to be market leader in Central Europe today. did we it?
4	We've invested €5 million in new plant and machinery. I know what you're thinking. can we to see a profit?
5	Product development times went way over schedule and we were late to market. Again do we making the same mistake?
6	We spend a lot of money on TV advertising at all hours of the day and night. of that wasted?

Task 3 Many rhetorical questions have become informal figures of speech. Complete these sentences by replacing the phrase in *italic* with a rhetorical question from the box.

Am I right or am I right?
Do I look like I'm made of money?
How long is a piece of string?
Is it just me or are there ...?
So, what else is new?
Well, what do you know?
What are you like?
What's the use?

1	A:	I'd like a new laptop for my birthday.
	B:	<i>It's too expensive. Can't afford that.</i>
2	A:	I'm from Chicago.
	B:	So am I.
	A:	<i>That's a coincidence!</i>
3	A:	I don't know what's wrong with me today. I can't remember where I parked the car.
	B:	<i>That was silly of you.</i>
4	A:	That 'Reach for the Stars' is a good series.
	B:	Yes, and Mel Turner is one of the best actresses around. <i>I know I'm right.</i>
5	A:	I think you should ask for a rise.
	B:	<i>It's not likely to be successful so there's no point.</i> We all know there's a pay free this year.
6	A:	My neighbour is a life coach.
	B:	Really? So is my brother-in-law.
	A:	<i>I think there are a lot of life coaches around these days.</i>
7	A:	I see the price of petrol has gone up again.
	B:	Yeah, that's the second time this month. <i>This unsatisfactory situation is always happening.</i>
8	A:	How long will it take you to find out what the problem is with the software?
	B:	<i>The length of time (or size) is unknown, infinite or variable?</i>

Task 4 Complete the gaps in this extract from a presentation using these rhetorical questions (a-f). There is one item you don't need.

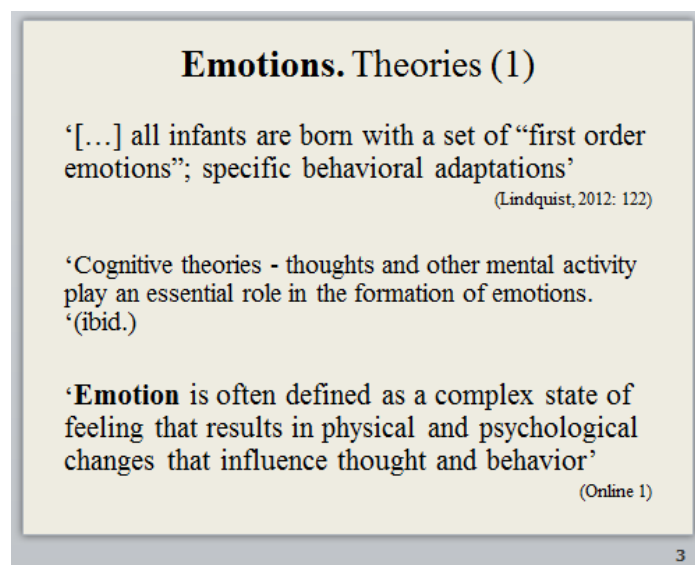
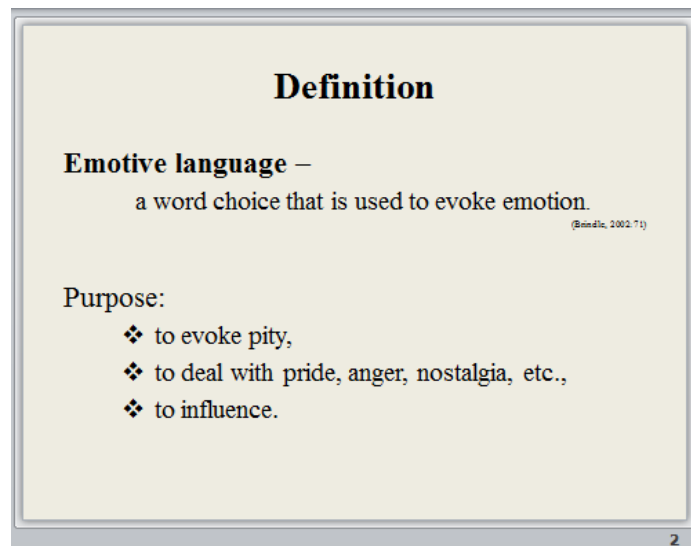
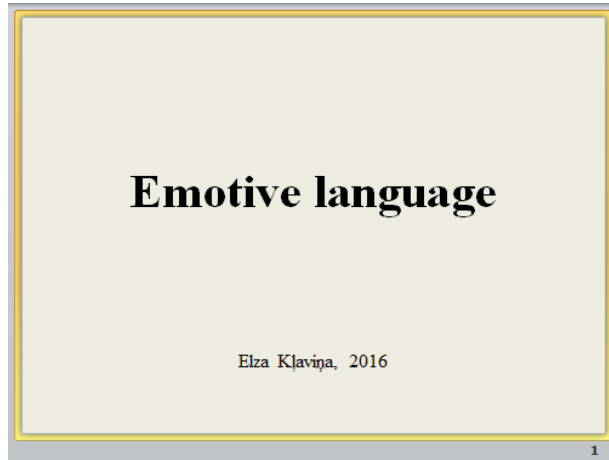
- a) How, you're probably asking yourself, can businesses survive this threat?
- b) What, you may be wondering, is commoditisation?
- c) What exactly happens in the deterioration trap?
- d) What conclusions can we draw?
- e) So, what are these commodity traps?
- f) How do you avoid deterioration?

Today I'm going to be talking about the threat of commoditisation and how companies can try to avoid it.¹ Basically, as a product becomes more similar to others like it, consumers care less about who they buy from and buy on price alone. So, the product becomes a commodity.² Professor Richard D'Aveni in his book says survival requires smarter and subtler strategies. He describes three types of commodity trap.³ First, there is deterioration, where low-end businesses enter with 'lower cost, lower benefit' options that attract the mass market. In the deterioration trap, prices go down, and the benefits for customers go down, too.⁴ Diesel, the fashion business, has done this by establishing expertise in denim products, D'Aveni says. Another alternative is the side-step strategy: 'Move away from the pull of the market power of low-end rivals.' Armani and Dolce&Gabbana preview part of their collections in private showings to avoid early copying. The second type is proliferation. Here, either cheaper or more expensive alternatives with 'unique benefits' attack different parts of an incumbent's market – as Japanese and American motorcycle markets did to Harley-Davidson. Prices and benefits for customers may go up or down. Third, there is escalation. Here, players offer more benefits for the same or lower price, squeezing everyone's margins, as Apple has done with iPods. Prices go down and benefits for customers go up.⁵ To move on, D'Aveni says companies must be resourceful and 'change the industry's structure', 'redefine price' or 'define new segments'. As he says: 'Commoditisation doesn't just happen to commodities.'

Appendix 7

Class 2

A Presentation on Emotive Language



Emotions. Theories (2)

‘We all feel the pain, the joy, the fear, and the excitement that other people feel, and the more so when it’s powerful, focused, or both’

(Morgan, 2014: 65)

‘I feel your pain’ President Bill Clinton,
presidential campaign in the spring of 1992

4

Emotive language - Use and Effect

In ancient rhetorics –

‘extremely effective rhetorical strategy’

(Macagno and Walton, 2014: 5)

Hooking –

a technique to keep your audience listening or to catch the attention of the audience

(Tomalin, 2012: 42)

5

Powerful words

‘War, peace, death, security –

strictly bound to moral values leading to value judgments
and potentially triggering specific emotions.’

(Weitz, 1966: 236)

‘moral utterances have a psychological function of
arousing emotions’ (Weitz, *ibid.*)

Emotivist theory.

6

Charged/loaded words

‘words which have a degree of connotation (i.e. which carry either positive or negative as opposed to neutral meaning)’

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics)

For example:

Charged word	Neutral word
crazy (adj)	eccentric
jock (n)	athlete
crone (n)	woman
excellent	good

7

Emotive words (1)

The men were killed. (non-emotive statement)

The victims were executed in cold blood.

(emotive statement)

8

Emotive words (2)

A famous American TV show

Sapņu līgava (LV)



(Online 2)

9

Conclusions

- intended to cause an emotional response in the audience,
- can be used to persuade the audience,
- should be used purposefully and mindfully.

10

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11

Which are emotive words in this advert/headline?

'Make your wardrobe sparkle with our desirable new winter collection!'

'Doctor escapes jail for botched surgery'

'Our obesity-conquering cookbook is bursting with easy, fun recipes to try!'

(Online 3)

12

Appendix 8

Class 2

Loaded Language Examples

Often, loaded language exists as a substitute for other words or phrases, one more negative or positive than the other depending on circumstance.

Some examples include:

- Bureaucrat vs public servant
- Regime vs government
- Elitist vs expert
- Infanticide or child murder vs. abortion
- Put up with vs tolerate
- Put at a loss vs bewilder

Some other words that could be considered persuasive and therefore loaded include:

- | | | |
|-----------------|------------------|---------------------|
| • Accurate | • Emphasize | • Severe |
| • Advantage | • Expect | • Shameful |
| • Aggravate | • Exploit | • Shocking |
| • Agony | • Harmful | • Strongly |
| • Always/Never | • Harsh | Recommend |
| • Atrocious | • Historic | • Superb |
| • Best | • Horrible | • Superior |
| • Categorical | • Inconsiderate | • Terrible |
| • Certain | • Inexorable | • Tremendous |
| • Choice | • Inferior | • Triumphant |
| • Confident | • Irritate | • Truly |
| • Confusing | • Magnificent | • Trustworthy |
| • Constitute | • Most | • Unreliable |
| • Convenient | • Most Important | • Unstable |
| • Cruel | • Must | • Veritable |
| • Damaging | • Offend | • Very (best, etc.) |
| • Definitely | • Ordeal | • Virtual |
| • Disadvantages | • Outrageousness | • Workable |
| • Displeased | • Phenomenon | • Worthwhile |
| • Dreadful | • Popular | |
| • Effective | • Profitable | |
| • Effective | • Provoke | |
| • Eliminate | • Repulsive | |

Task 1 Rewrite the sentences. Make them sound more emotive and persuasive.

1	I would like underline that the bad opinion expressed by the manager will not influence the final decision.
2	We have covered the topic and sure to pass the exam.
3	The important aspect what we want from this project is good cooperation.
4	The bad things should serve as the grounds for a better future.
5	Although there are some ideas rather difficult to understand, we are determined to develop them.
6	This company is sure about the people working for them - they are good and can be trusted.

Emotive language

Task 2 Identify different elements of emotive language in the speech below.

Task 3 What are their intended emotional effects?

This is part of a speech made by a prospective Member of Parliament, to persuade local voters to support her:

‘When I look around this community, I see so much that needs changing: housing, transport – the very quality of our life. I cannot walk past a child in rags or a teenager clearly wrecked by drugs without knowing that something must be done. I cannot sleep at night, knowing that something can be done. Why do we allow professional politicians, who know nothing about the poor and the sad and the ordinary people in our country, to sit on silk cushions at Westminster and decide how we – how you and I – will struggle to live and die?’

Appendix 9

Lesson Plan of Class 3

Level: Intermediate/Upper-Intermediate (B1/B2)

Length of the lesson: 90 min

Aim of the lesson:

- to teach about particular figures of speech and their effect when used in delivering a presentation or giving a public speech.

Objectives:

1. to revise the topics of the previous class – emotive language, rhetorical class,
2. to look at the theoretical background of figures of speech, i.e., stylistics, figurative language,
3. to look at the definition, use and effect of metaphors,
4. to look at typical types of metaphors,
5. to look at the difference between a metaphor and an idiom,
6. to look at similes; the difference between a simile and metaphor,
7. to look at epithets and hyperboles - their use and effect
8. to listen to extracts of authentic speeches and distinguish particular figures of speech, use of emotive language, etc.

Enabling objectives of the particular activities: to learn about particular figures of speech, their effect and use; to be able to recognize them in particular authentic speeches and analyse, discuss the effect of their use.

Preparation: A presentation on Figures of speech (see, Appendix 10); Tasks on particular figures of speech (see, Appendix 11 and 12).

No	Activity/Aids	Interaction	Procedure	Time (min.)
1.	Stating the aim – checking homework, revising the topics covered in the previous class as well as looking at a new topic - figures of speech	T		
2.	Checking home work	T-S	Students are asked to provide the correct answers and comment on the purpose of using a particular rhetorical questions	5 min

3.	Providing theoretical background on particular figures of speech (see, Appendix 10)	T	The Teacher delivers a presentation on the main aspects to be taken into account about figures of speech in general as well as figures of speech – metaphor, simile.	20 min
4.	Metaphor or simile? (slide 14, see, Appendix 10)	S	Students are asked to elicit among metaphors and similes.	1 min
5.	Task 1	S	Students are provided with a handout on some business English metaphors. By working in pairs and using online dictionaries available, they are asked to match the metaphors with their meanings. The answers are checked afterwards.	10 min
	Task 2		When the answers are checked they have to look at <i>Task 2</i> and complete each example by writing the letter of a phrase from <i>Task 1</i> .	5-7 min
6.	Providing theoretical background on particular figures of speech	T	The Teacher continues to deliver a presentation on figures of speech – epithet, hyperbole.	5 min
7.	Task 3	S	Students are asked to look at the particular handout, <i>Task 3</i> – read the sentences and replace the less emphatic phrases in italic with an	5-7 min

			example of hyperbole from the box. Answers are checked afterwards.	
8.	Task 3	T-S	Students look at the text of a presenter, read the text and fill in the rhetorical questions where appropriate. The answers are checked and discussed afterwards.	5 min
9.	Task 4 Task 5 Task 6 Task 7	S	Listen to two extracts of famous speakers, fill in the missing phrases. Detect figures of speech used by the particular speakers	20 min

Appendix 10

Class 3

A Presentation on Figures of Speech

Figures of Speech

Elza Kļaviņa, 2016

1

Definition

‘a word or phrase that is used for special effect and that does not have its usual or literal meaning. Some examples include **hyperbole, epithet, simile, metaphor.**’

(Richards and Schmidt, 2010: 2019)

2

Theoretical background (1)

Stylistics –

‘the study on the effect the writer or speaker wishes to create on the reader or hearer’

(Richards and Schmidt, 2010)

3

Theoretical background (2)

Figurative language

'If something happens literally, it actually happens; if something happens *figuratively*, it feels like it is happening. If you are literally jumping for joy, for instance, it means you are leaping in the air because you are very happy. If you are figuratively jumping for joy, it means you are so happy that you could jump for joy, but are saving your energy for other matters'

(Snicket quoted in Nordquist, 2015)

4

Metaphor (1)

'an implied comparison is made between two different things that actually have something important in common'

(Dubicka, 2006: 138)

Life is a journey

5

Metaphor (2)

'Those words are most pleasant which give us new knowledge. Strange words have no meaning for us; common terms we know already. It is metaphor which gives us most of this pleasure.'

Aristotle

6

Metaphor (3)

Health and medicine

Common words: *symptom, casualty, health, cure, remedy*

*Some forecasters see a fast economic **recovery**.*

*The Chief Executive is battling to get the bank **back to health**.*

(Dubicka, 2006: 138)

7

Metaphor. Example

Ministre Čakša: Pasaules Banka mūsu veselības aprūpes sistēmai uzstādījusi skarbas diagnozes

(Bērtule un Dzērve, 2016)

8

Metaphor (4)

War and fighting

Common words used: *battle, fire-fighting, bombarded, wiped out, offensive*

*The public have been **bombarded** with statistics about the bleak state of the public finances.*

*Every day is an uphill **battle**.*

(Dubicka, 2006: 138)

9

Metaphor (4)

Natural phenomena, water and disasters

Common words used: *meltdown, flood, sink, shore up, dry up, freeze, pour*

*The stock market crashed might lead to financial **meltdown**.*

*They're **pouring** money into social media.*

(Dubicka, 2006: 138)

10

Metaphor (5)

Sport

Common phrases used: *throw the towel, score, drop the ball*

*Banks appear to be **scoring** an early victory against the new rules.*

11

Metaphor or Idiom?

Many idioms are based on metaphors.

Metaphors used in idioms – less original and thought-provoking.

(O'Dell and McCarthy, 2010: 12)

'The new president took centre stage at the meeting'

12

Simile (1)

‘A simile is a comparison of two unlike things using the words *like* or *as*’

(O'Dell and McCarthy, 2010: 22)

He runs like the wind.

The boss just came in with a face like a thunder

13

A Simile or Metaphor?

His garden is a jungle of weeds.

The ocean sound is music to my ears.

My room is a mess.

Passing the test was like winning a lottery.

The snow was as white as milk.

14

Epithet

‘A rhetorical term for an adjective or adjective phrase used to characterize a person or thing’

(Nordquist, 2016)

‘a wide-eye amazement’

‘heartfelt thanks’

15

Hyperbole (1)

‘A deliberate exaggeration for a desired effect’

(Dubicka, 2006: 138)

Used to emphasise a point by provoking

Humorous

‘I’m starving. I could eat a horse.’

16

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17

I have a dream today

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gevdV4LvipQ>

18

President Nelson Mandela Inauguration Speech

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pJiXu4q_VU

Appendix 11

Class 3

Handout on Figures of Speech

Metaphors

Task 1 Work in pairs. Use a dictionary if possible. Match the phrases on the left side with their corresponding meanings.

1	make a killing	A	accidentally say or do something embarrassing or that annoys someone
2	corner the market	B	be important, but only in a small field of activity
3	get off the ground	C	be criticized
4	cook the books	D	be destined to go to the top of a profession
5	come under fire	E	become involved (in something exciting and profitable)
6	keep an eye on things	F	be over budget; have a negative bank balance
7	get a piece of the action	G	dominate (or even monopolize) the market
8	put my foot in it	H	falsify the accounts
9	spend money like water	I	get more value for the money you spend
10	be in the red	J	have written confirmation, not just a verbal agreement
11	sell like hotcakes	K	look after things (while someone is away)
12	be a real high-flyer	L	make a large, sudden profit
13	see it in black and white	M	sell very well
14	get more bang for buck	N	spend a lot of money without any control
15	be a big fish in a small pond	O	start a project and make it successful

Task 2 Complete each example by writing the letter of a phrase from *Task 1* in the gap.

1	Our main competitor has just gone bankrupt! If we offer a job to their marketing director and get access to their client list, we'll a
2	We're losing money fast. If we go on like this, we'll by the end of the year.
3	I have an apology to make. I went out for a drink with some colleagues after work yesterday and I I told them you were applying for a new job.
4	I'll be away for a few days, but Isabel will
5	It's an interesting project, but I don't think it will ever – it's too expensive.
6	On balance I think it's the right thing to do. But it's a big risk, and we're going to from the shareholders for taking it.
7	City Hall has plans to build a huge out-of-town industrial park. There's going to be a lot of contracts for the construction work, and we need to make sure we ...
8	Profits were up 28% last year. And don't worry – we didn't ask our accountants to !

9	It's the World Cup next year. If we put the national flag on our t-shirts they'll
10	We have set a tight budget – with corporate hospitality it's very easy to
11	Thank you for that kind introduction, but I'm not really as famous as you say! My area of research is very specialized and it's quite easy to
12	All three candidates have good CVs. I think we should choose the one with real leadership potential, the one who's going to
13	This is a very innovative product in a very specialized field. I think we can
14	They were making a lot of promises at the meeting, but we need to before we can go ahead.
15	Value-for-money is important to many people. We need to give a clear message: shop with us and you'll

Hyperbole

Task 1 Replace each less emphatic phrase in *italic* with an example of hyperbole from the box.

a million times a ton an arm and a leg forever hopping mad horse overnight scared to death

1	He was <i>not very happy</i> when he saw that Facebook site.
2	It took <i>a fairly long time</i> to book the tickets online.
3	He won't go by plane. He's <i>a bit frightened</i> of flying.
4	I've told you <i>on more than one occasion</i> not to exaggerate.
5	This briefcase weighs <i>quite a lot</i> . What have you got in here?
6	I'm so hungry I could eat a <i>rather big meal</i> right now.
7	Their website became profitable <i>surprisingly quickly</i> .
8	Setting up an online shopping page will cost us <i>a very high price</i> .

Appendix 12

Class 3

Extracts from Authentic Speeches

Extract from the speech by Martin Luther King Jr “*I have a dream*”

Task 1 Listen to the extract and fill in the missing words from the text.

Task 2 What figures of speech can you find in the text?

I say to you, my friends ... so even though we face the difficulties of
....., It is a deeply rooted in the
American this nation will rise
up and live out the true meaning of its creed: ‘We hold these truths to be self-evident; that all
men are created equal.’ on the red hills
of Georgia will be able to sit down together
.....
Even the state of Mississippi, a sweltering
....., sweltering , will be
transformed into
..... that my four little children will one day live in a nation where
They will not be judged by the colour of their skin but by the content of their character.
.....

Extract from President Nelson Mandela Inauguration Speech

Task 1 Listen to the extract and fill in the missing words from the text.

Task 2 What figures of speech can you find in the text?

We are by the honour and privilege that you, the
people of South Africa, have bestowed on us, as the first president of a united, democratic,
..... and South Africa, to
..... . We know it well that none of us
acting alone can achieve success. We must therefore as a united people,
..... reconciliation,
..... . Let there be justice for all. Let there be for all. Let
There be, bread, water and for all. Let each know that for each the body,
The and soul have been to themselves.
..... again experience the oppression of one by another ...

Appendix 13

Interview Questions for Field Professionals

1. In your opinion, what is the role of presentations skills nowadays?
2. In your experience, what are the main challenges the students face when delivering a presentation at the tertiary level?
3. Suzy Siddons, a communication specialist and trainer, has suggested that ‘a presenter should make the information real to the audience personally’. In your professional view, is this topical also at the tertiary level? Please, comment.
4. In your professional view, what are the main tools of delivering a persuasive presentation, accordingly, what do you consider an effective presentation?
5. Copman and Lull have stated that *persuasion* ‘relies on our language, images, and other means of communication in order to influence people’s beliefs, attitudes, values, or actions’ (Coopman and Lull, 2012: 274). What is your view on students’ ability and level of skills when delivering a presentation at the tertiary level the purpose of which is persuasion?
6. Do students make use of particular means of persuasion when delivering presentations in academic field? If, yes, could you name some of the most widespread examples?
7. Do students use any of the particular means of persuasion - rhetorical questions, emotive language, and figures of speech when delivering a presentation at the tertiary level? If yes, which and how much is this widespread? If no, what could be the purpose of this?

Appendix 14

Questionnaire

Dear Student!

I am a second year Master Study Programme student who is doing a research on the use of persuasive language in presentations.

The particular questionnaire outlines sections referring to public speaking, persuading and giving a presentation. Please note that **public speaking** as defined by Merriam-Webster is ‘the act or skill of speaking to a usually large group of people’ which can include debating, political/inaugural speeches, addressing a meeting and other forms of speaking in public. However, **presentations** are defined and referred here as ‘an activity in which someone shows, describes, or explains something to a group of people’ in most cases using Power Point presentation.

I would highly appreciate if you could fill in the questionnaire - read sentence A and B, look at the choices (Choice 1,2,3) and tick (✓) in which of the given cases (*when speaking in public, when persuading, when giving a presentation*) you would use the particular sentences.

	Choice 1: when speaking in public	Choice 2: when persuading	Choice 3: when giving a presentation
1A Meeting with boss is difficult.			
1B Meeting with boss is like carrying a container of explosive gas.			
2A A job interview is as exciting as taking part in a lottery.			
2B A job interview is an opportunity to reveal one’s abilities.			
3A I’d move mountains for this project to be successful.			
3B I’d do a lot for this project to be successful.			
4A The meeting was taking very long.			

4B The meeting was taking forever.			
5A Our manager has carried out an analysis.			
5B Our hardworking manager has carried out a detailed analysis.			
6A The praiseworthy service and high standards of the company are its key of success.			
6B The service and standards of the company are its key of success.			
7A The laptop given to her looked old and outdated.			
7B The laptop given to her was an old dinosaur.			
8A We encourage business owners to create financial peace of mind for the future.			
8B We encourage business owners to create financial stability for the future.			

Thank you for your time! ☺

Appendix 15

Post-teaching Questionnaire

on

Emotive language, Rhetorical Questions and Figures of Speech

Tick ✓ the *most* appropriate answer(s).

1. The tasks used when teaching about rhetorical questions, emotive language, figures of speech were

to the point	<input type="checkbox"/>
simple	<input type="checkbox"/>
challenging	<input type="checkbox"/>
could have been more complex	<input type="checkbox"/>
engaging and interesting	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. When learning about rhetorical questions, emotive language, figures of speech, I found *useful* the particular tasks:

Matching tasks	<input type="checkbox"/>
Gap filling tasks	<input type="checkbox"/>
Listening to authentic speeches	<input type="checkbox"/>
Reading and analysing extracts from speeches	<input type="checkbox"/>
Insertion	<input type="checkbox"/>
Replacing of words/phrases	<input type="checkbox"/>
Rewriting sentences	<input type="checkbox"/>
Identifying words/phrases in a sentence	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. The tasks used were coherent and effective:

Teaching about rhetorical questions	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching about emotive language	<input type="checkbox"/>
Teaching about particular figures of speech	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. By doing the particular tasks, I learned more about rhetorical questions:

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Partly	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. By doing the particular tasks, I learned more about emotive language:

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Partly	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. By doing the tasks, I learned more about particular figures of speech:

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Partly	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. I think that using particular rhetorical questions in a presentation speech, makes one sound more persuasive:

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Partly	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. I think that using emotive language in presentation speech, makes one sound more persuasive:

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Partly	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. I think that using particular figures of speech in presentation speech, makes one sound more persuasive:

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>
Partly	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 16

Assessment Sheet Developed for the Evaluation

	Course:	Date of Presentation:
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words		
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet		
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance:		

Appendix 17

The Assessment Sheets Reflecting upon the Student Performance

<u>Student 1</u>	Course: <u>IV</u>	Date of Presentation: <u>22 Dec</u>
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words	✓	population increased dramatically; wildly populated resort
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet		
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance: Well structured PPT ... sunday beaches ... large number of high prices		

<u>Student 2</u>	Course: <u>VI</u>	Date of Presentation: <u>22 Dec</u>
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words		
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet	✓	there are slight changes; suffer slight decrease
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance: Theme: Employment in Australia Looking mainly at the slides Body t-ge - not controlled ⊖ Indicating, pointing at the slides with fingers		

<u>Student 3</u>	Course: <u>VI</u>	Date of Presentation: <u>22 Dec</u>
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words		
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet		
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance: Theme: An experiment of baby's memory the use: lie vs lay ⊖ Small letters in slides; no references		

Student 4	Course: IV	Date of Presentation: 22 Dec
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words		
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet	✓	positive feedback
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance: Simple, nice slides. Well structured PPT. "Speaking to the computer"		

Student 5	Course: IV	Date of Presentation: 22 Dec
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words	✓	to increase the efficiency
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet	✓	comfortable usage, new gadgets
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance: theme: Will a website help a supermarket? use: good vs goods (pronunciation)		

Student 6	Course: II	Date of Presentation: 15 Dec
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words	✓	one of the most prominent Japanese producers
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet	✓	another very famous director
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance: ... will increase <u>by</u> 1% (grammar) Energetic, confident speech		

Student 7	Course: IV	Date of Presentation: 15 Dec
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words		
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet		
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance: Theme: Population Simple slides. Good PPT. Minimal eye contact.		

Student 8	Course: II	Date of Presentation: 22 Dec
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words		
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet		
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance: Theme: Application for funding a group project ⊕ Confident "I <u>really</u> hope you will be interested. I hope we will meet ... ⊕ some intensifiers		

Student 9	Course: VI	Date of Presentation: 22 Dec
Means of Persuasion Used in Presentation		
Rhetorical questions		
Emotive language:		
power words		
charged words	✓	there you can experience the excitement; it's fun
Figures of speech:		
metaphor		
similes		
epithet		
hyperbole		
Additional comment on the performance: Theme: Comments on the results of a survey ⊕ Good choice of colours for the slides (visually attractive)		

Dokumentārā lapa

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Ar savu parakstu apliecinu, ka pētījums veikts patstāvīgi, izmantoti tikai tajā norādītie informācijas avoti un iesniegtā darba elektroniskā kopija atbilst izdrukai.

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