Let’s talk business!
A task-based material package of public speaking and small talk in the BELF context

Master’s Thesis

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Tiivistelmä – Abstract

Arvioiden mukaan lähivuosina yli kolmannes maailman ihmisistä käyttää englannin kieltä. Tämä on jo vuosia näkynyt ja tulee myös tulevaisuudessa yhä enemmän näkymään kansainvälisessä liike-elämässä, jossa englantia käytetään lingua francana. Eritoten englannin suullinen taito, kuten julkinen puhuminen ja small talk, näyttelevät suurta roolia tässä kontekstissa. Huomionarvoista on kuitenkin se, että hyvin usein liike-elämän kieli- ja viestintäkoulutuksen opetusmateriaalit epäonnistuvat valmistamaan kansainvälisen liike-elämän toimijoita tosielämän tilanteisiin.

Tästä johtuen olen maisterintutkielmassani koonnut opetusmateriaalipaketin, jonka keskiössä on ensinnäkin tulevien liike-elämän toimijoiden kommunikatiivinen kompetenssi englanninkielisen julkisen puhumisen ja small talkin suhteen. Toiseksi, tämän materiaalipaketin lähtökohtana on tehtävälähtöinen kielen oppiminen, sillä se mahdollistaa oppijoiden taitojen kehittymisen juuri niiden työtehtävien osalta, jotka tulevat olemaan keskeisiä heidän tulevalla urallaan. Lisäksi materiaalipaketti ottaa huomioon eritoten julkiseen puhumiseen usein liittyvän ahdistuksen ja pyrkii vahvalla taitoharjoittelulla vähentämään sitä oppijoiden viestinnän parantamiseksi.

Itse materiaalipaketti koostuu pääasiallisesti kolmesta moduulista. Jokaisella moduulilla on oma painopisteensä julkisen puhumisen osalta; Moduuli 1 keskittyy informatiiviseen puhumiseen, Moduuli 2 puolestaan nostaa esille vaikuttavan puhumisen kun taas Moduuli 3 esittelee julkista puhumista erityistilanteissa. Näiden julkisen puhumisen tehtävien lisäksi oppijat pääsevät keskustelemaan monista small talk-aiheista sekä aiheista, jotka liittyvät heidän omaan alaansa.

Asiasanat – Business English lingua franca (BELF), public speaking, task-based language teaching , material package

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1 Introduction

According to Coughlan (2004) “a third of people on the planet will be learning English in the next decade”. This means that over two billion people worldwide will master English to some extent by the year 2014. This type of a phenomenon in the field of languages has had and will continue to have an effect on us, i.e. the people communicating across national and cultural borders. Based on Coughlan’s (2004) estimations and Crystal’s (2003:3) statement of English being the language to put us in touch “with more people than any other language”, it is rather obvious that more often than not the international and multicultural communication will occur in English.

To discuss this phenomenon in more detail I will use Figure 1, which represents the ‘three’ circles of English originally presented by Kachru (1988:5) (Crystal 2003: 60–61).

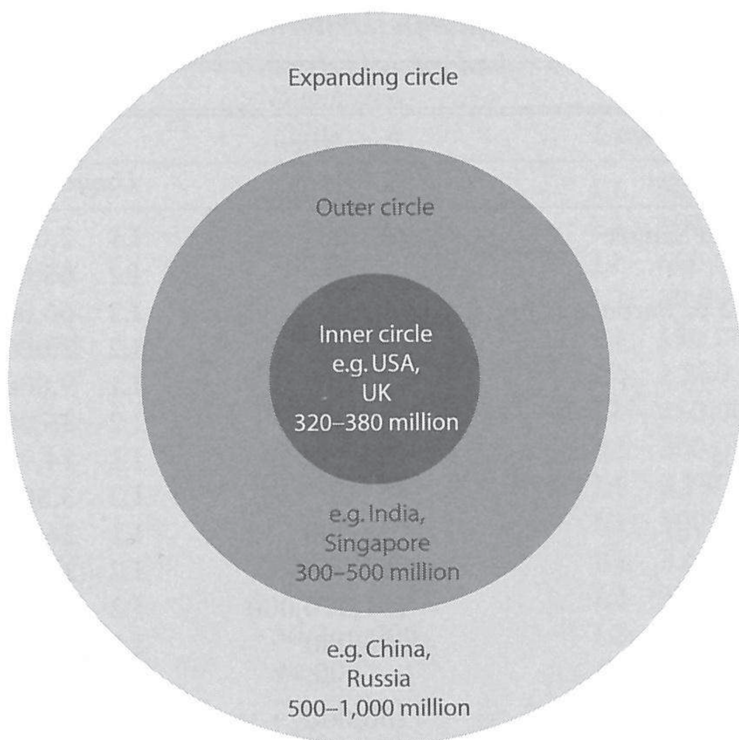


Figure 1. The ’three’ circles of English. (Crystal, 2003:60)

First of all, the *inner circle* includes countries where English is the primary language and thus countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand are regarded as the ‘inner’ countries of the English language. Secondly, the *outer circle* represents countries which have experienced the earlier phases of the spread of English as a non-native language. In these multilingual countries English has reached the status of an essential second language and English plays an important role in the countries’ chief institutions. Singapore, India as well as over fifty other territories, are excellent examples of the outer circle countries. Lastly, is the *expanding or extending circle* and within this circle are countries such as China, Japan and Russia. A common factor of these countries in terms of the English language is that even though they are not former colonies of English-speaking countries nor have they given any official status to English, they nevertheless emphasize the value of English as a global language. They additionally reinforce this by investing greatly in the teaching of English as a foreign language. It is also noteworthy that this circle is constantly expanding, as more and more countries adopt the above mentioned procedures and attitudes regarding the English language.

However, Crystal (2003:61—67) points out that the idea and statistics presented in Figure 1 have received some valid criticism, as no single source of statistical information on language totals is available and therefore these estimations are gathered from a variety of sources. Above all, defining the exact role of English is by no means simple in many countries and this naturally hinders the making of clear-cut circles (Crystal, 2003:66). Nonetheless, Figure 1 still illustrates rather efficiently and clearly the possibilities that arise when one masters the English language. Knowing English indeed unites people across the lines of these circles and in reality across national and cultural borders.

The fact that the English language is firmly taking over the world has also a major effect on the business world. In this modern world of ours, goods, services and people doing business are constantly on the move. Therefore, there appears a definite need for a common language which enables all the exporting and importing as well as marketing of goods and services not to mention the smooth and effective communication between people in business meetings and negotiations taking place around the world. Graddol (1997) proposes that the needed unifying language ought to be English, as he lists all in all 12 major international domains of English. The majority of these domains are directly or indirectly related to the field of business. Graddol (1997:8) states that English is for example the language of "international organizations and conferences, international banking, economic affairs and trade and additionally advertising for global brands". In addition to Coughlan (2004) and Graddol (1997), English is declared to be the lingua franca of the business world by a convincing representation of scholars (Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen, 2007:55, Ehrenreich, 2010:408, Kankaanranta and Planken, 2010:380–381, and Rogerson-Revell, 2010:432).

When it comes to business English lingua franca, in short BELF, it is worth pointing out that one area of language, namely oral communication, is of special interest of many researchers and especially the employers of the business world. Speaking and presentation skills in particular, play a key role in the field of BELF and there is a strong need for skills development and training in this area of language skills (Reinsch and Shelby, 1996, Wardrope and Bayless, 1999, Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen, 2007, Stearns, 2009, Gray, 2010,). The theoretical basis of BELF and all of its components and requirements have been of interest of many scholars. However, as Hujala (2009:101) puts it, "too many linguistic studies and books stop at the classroom door" and only few attempts have been made to address the issue from a more practical viewpoint. Furthermore, these few attempts have unfortunately often settled for merely informing business students of business communication instead of activating them to actually communicate. For example, O'Hair, Friedrich and Dixon (2011) and Himstreet and Baty (1990) have compiled excellent and truly informative materials concerning business communication, but these materials do not inherently force the students to use that information in practice. Moreover, very often these types of materials tend to merely activate the students' writing skills and oral skills are indeed addressed but not activated.

To fill this rather apparent void, I wanted to examine this current issue in my master's thesis from a genuinely practical point of view and above all aim at activating the students' oral communication skills in relation to BELF. For this purpose I decided to put together a material package that provides teachers with tools and materials for teaching presentation skills and some other essential oral skills related to BELF communication. Furthermore, in order to increase the students' confidence to use these skills, the present material is based on skills-training as a means for dealing with public speaking anxiety. To sum up, the main goal is that students will become more competent and confident communicators in BELF contexts which they are surely bound to encounter in the international business world of the 21^{st} century.

The structure of this thesis is as follows: in Chapter 2 I will start by discussing the modern international business world in more detail and especially from the point of view of BELF. I will discuss the needs and requirements this particular context poses on people and thus what is required from the teaching of BELF. Then, in Chapter 3, I will move on to presenting the particular language and communication skills that are valued in the field of international business, i.e. I will discuss issues such as oral communication in general, speaking skills and in particular public speaking skills and small talk skills. Chapter 4 consists of processing the guiding teaching philosophies and principles used in the development of this material package. This section entails topics such as communicative approaches to language teaching and especially task-based teaching. Furthermore, also the issues of communicative competence and public speaking anxiety are addressed, as they are often associated with the concept of oral communication and particularly public speaking. Chapter 5 includes a brief description of the present material package, the conclusion can be found in Chapter 6 and it is followed by the present material package, *Let's talk business*!.

2 Internationalized modern business world

Nowadays, business world is to a great extent characterized by its international nature, as today's markets, labor and money are all global. Therefore, in order to succeed modern businesses are required to be interested in international markets and able to associate with foreign suppliers, partners and customers (Varner and Beamer, 2005:13). In addition to this, Varner and Beamer (2005:76) point out that due to the unprecedented migration that has occurred after World War II, businesses worldwide are confronted with multicultural and multilingual workforce. Consequently, the international nature of the modern business world derives from two different aspects. On one hand, business people themselves are required to venture out abroad and on the other hand the internationalization becomes apparent also in their home country in the form of diverse workforce and associates (Varner and Beamer, 2005:12–13).

One does not need to look far for a real-life manifestation of this phenomenon, namely Finland is a good example of an internationalized country. According to Nuolijärvi (2010:91), since the 1980s the Finnish business world has become increasingly international, as a variety of major companies have become highly multinational and even medium-sized and small companies have started to build international relations and join foreign networks. Interestingly, as Nuolijärvi (2010:91) remarks, Finland is even attaining the level of Sweden when it comes to the degree to which major firms are internationalized, even though this process began much earlier there than here in Finland. Furthermore, not only is the pace of internalization accelerating but there are also a great variety of forms in which Finnish businesses are becoming more internationalized. Nuolijärvi (2010:91) for instance points out that there is an increasing trend of making direct foreign investments, for example company acquisitions and all in all focusing more on international networking.

Finland is only one example from the modern business world as this type of internationalization occurs in varied scales all over the world. Due to this, a rather apparent concern arises, namely how is it possible for all the companies and business people from varied cultural and linguistic backgrounds to co-operate. According to Marx (1999:152), Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:17–18) and Rogerson-Revell (2010:432) an essential component of success in the internationalized business world is language skills and based on Hagen's (2010) findings concerning 2,000 European businesses this indeed seems to be true. Hagen (2010:26) namely discovered that over 10 % of these companies had lost a business contract due to a lack of language skills and for example Nuolijärvi (2010:97) presents similar findings. Naturally losing a contract in the business world not only means getting a bad reputation or losing important business contacts but also losing money and Hagen (2010:26) reports that in some worst case scenarios these financial losses have even exceeded 25 million Euro. Consequently, it goes without saying that one is not dealing with trivial issues here.

2.1 Business English Lingua Franca (BELF)

To avoid the above mentioned severe consequences, Hagen (2010:27), alongside with Varner and Beamer (2005:48) and Rogerson-Revell (2010:432) provides a solution for this dilemma by declaring that mastering English is a major advantage. Ehrenreich (2010:417) goes even further by declaring that English is no longer merely an asset in the modern international business world but rather a 'must', without which one cannot cope. These statements are undisputedly supported by research, as Hagen's (2010:27) study established that when it comes to the future language needs of European companies, English scored over a 25 % majority of all languages and was thus ranked as the most important language by employers. Relating to this it was also discovered that over 70 % of the companies emphasize future employees' language skills in the recruiting process. According to Crystal (2003:5) it is only natural that English is the one language uniting the international business world. As became apparent in Figure 1 on page 7, English is the first language in many large and powerful countries as well as a dominating language in many others. Furthermore, it is taught as a foreign language in over 100 countries and thus it is the most widely taught foreign language (Crystal, 2003:5, Varner and Beamer, 2005:48).

Finland is no exception. In 1999 approximately 95 % of Finnish 3rd grade students chose English as their first foreign language (Louhiala-Salminen, 1999:23) and according to the website of Suomen kieltenopettajien liitto (SUKOL) this percentage was still over 90 % in 2009. Furthermore, over 7 % of students chose English as their second foreign language adding up to all in all approximately 97% of Finnish students learning English in school. Among these Finnish children and teenagers are of course also the future Finnish business people and, as Louhiala-Salminen (1999:23-24) remarks, the teaching of English business communication can strongly rely on the students' solid mastery of English in general. And once these business students enter the work life, they will surely need to make use of that mastery. According to Louhiala-Salminen's (1996) study of Finnish business people working at various positions and sectors, about 90 % of the respondents are required to use English at work (Louhiala-Salminen, 1996:43). Above all, over 50 % of them need English on a daily basis and 25 % either weekly or more often.

In addition to the above mentioned arguments in favor of English as a business lingua franca, there is yet another factor, as the growing worldwide trend of making English the official company language is taking over the business world (Kankaanranta and Planken, 2010:381, Varner and Beamer, 2005:52–53). For example *Philips*, a Dutch firm, and *Komatsu* from Japan have decided to have English as the company language and additionally Korean *Samsung* has started obligatory English courses for all its employees (Varner and Beamer, 2005:52). Also, as Nuolijärvi (2010:95) notes, a number of Finnish multinational companies, for instance *Nokia, Kone, Metso* and *Tieto* have taken up on English as their corporate language. In practice this means that all official texts, such as official records, memoranda and international reports are written in English and all spoken information to international owners and public is given in English. Nuolijärvi (2010:95), however, reminds that also local languages are still used within subsidiaries and even headquarters in case there are no employees, partners or customers present with different language backgrounds. Nevertheless, there is still a strong rationale behind adopting for example English as a common company language as it enables more effective communication in subsidiaries and between headquarters and their subsidiaries (Marx, 1999:100, Varner and Beamer, 2005:53) and ensures that all essential information about the company is available simultaneously worldwide throughout the company (Nuolijärvi, 2010:95).

Based on the discussion above one can claim that English indeed seems to be the lingua franca of the business world and an advantage if not even a requirement for those planning on working within that context. In short BELF simply refers to making use of English as a lingua franca for business purposes (Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen, 2007:56). In practice this means that people from all over the world with a variety of mother tongues come together to communicate in English as their common language. It is worth noting that BELF communication often takes place between non-native speakers (Kankaanranta and Planken, 2010:383). In fact, a research conducted by Kankaanranta and Planken (2010:387), which studied all in all nearly 1,000 internationally operating business professionals, revealed that approximately 70 % of business communication in English occurs between non-native speakers. This of course sets a certain tone for the whole context. For example, clarity was valued far more than grammatical correctness or native speaker-like pronunciation (Kankaanranta and Planken, 2010:388–392). Therefore, the main goal of BELF teaching should rather be to train business professionals to communicate effectively no matter what their or their counterpart's first language is and to make them understand that when it comes to BELF communication, there are no rigid norms. (Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen, 2007:57, Ehrenreich, 2010:410,).

In relation to this, Crystal (2003:2) makes an interesting remark by pointing out that as non-native speakers of English are gradually outnumbering the native speakers nobody really owns English anymore. Or on the contrary, everyone who masters it has his/her share in it, which enables them to use

English in the way the can, need and want to. This line of thinking also sheds light on the BELF context, as it supports the idea that native speaker English is not automatically the norm that needs to be achieved (Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen, 2007:57). This of course makes one ponder on what kind of English skills then in fact need to be attained in order to manage in international business world.

To answer this question Kankaanranta and Planken (2010:380) state that in general BELF is simply used in the modern business world as a means to "get the work done". This statement was strongly reinforced in their study, in which the majority of the business people defined BELF competence as sufficient if its users manage to do their job regardless of their limited English proficiency (Kankaanranta and Planken, 2010:401). Thus BELF competence is not defined in terms of any specific requirements concerning for example grammar, phonology or vocabulary. Obviously this can seem rather vague especially from the viewpoint of teaching BELF and therefore I shall detect the requirements set by this context in more detail.

2.2 Oral Skills in BELF Communication

Even if the BELF competence is not that clearly defined there is nevertheless one set of skills that becomes apparent across all BELF and business communication literature, namely oral skills. For example Stearns (2009: 49–51) remarks that speaking and oral communication ought to be made more central in educating global citizens in colleges and universities. Gray's (2010) study supports this guideline, as she discovered the insufficient oral communication skills of business graduates and learned that over 90 % of employers take oral communication skills into account either 'always' or 'often' in the recruitment process (Gray, 2010:48). In Wardrope and Bayless's (1999) research as well as Reinsch and Shelby's (1996) study, oral communication was ranked as one of the most essential components of business communication. In addition to the international scholars presented above, also Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2007) are strongly in favor of incorporating oral skills into the teaching of BELF.

However, it is surely necessary to further narrow down the broad area of oral skills in BELF communication. In order to do this, Reinsch and Shelby (1996:47) and Wardrope and Bayless (1999:38) and Bodie (2010:71) state that formal presentations are above all an essential part of business communication. Adler (1986:254) even lists the ability to plan and deliver well-organized and effective speeches and presentations as one of the most essential components of success in the business world. Adler (1986:254) supports this claim by presenting the great variety of situations in which public speaking is required. For example sales representatives and account executives need to make use of presentations when communicating with potential customers, product managers have to orally present their ideas to management, superiors are required to brief their subordinates on various issues and part of accountants' job is to deliver financial reports (Adler, 1986:254). Business people may also need to speak in front of the general public, i.e. audiences outside their company. Furthermore, it is also worth bearing mind that business presentations in particular also vary in the sense that at times they are given individually and sometimes in groups (Himstreet and Baty, 1990:50, Wardrope and Bayless, 1999:38, O'Hair et al., 2011:349). To sum up, it indeed seems that business people at various levels and with a variety of job descriptions are expected to master public speaking and relating to this O'Hair et al. (2011:349) and Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2007:57) conclude that oral business presentations simply represent the most common and effective format of oral communication within the business context.

In addition to the above discussed formal presentations and speeches in the business context, Kankaanranta and Planken (2010:395) remark that features, such as 'social', 'nonbusiness' and 'relational' communication, i.e. 'small talk', have also been introduced as extremely positive aspects of BELF communication. However, their study also reveals that business people often find this type of communication rather challenging, especially since it is seldom taught in business English courses. Consequently, there seems to be an apparent need to address small talk in the present thesis, in Chapter 3.3, as well as take it into account in the actual material package.

3 Oral Communication

Oral communication has a variety of related terms, such as oral skills, oral proficiency, communicative competence and communicative proficiency (Rovasalo, 2008:19). All of these somehow relate to speaking and according to Folse (2006:5), they are often used interchangeably. However, for the purposes of the present thesis it is necessary to make more clear distinctions between these terms and discuss how they are taken into consideration here. First of all, in this thesis oral communication will be used as a sort of an umbrella term that caters for all interaction that involves speaking. Secondly, since public speaking is the main focus of this thesis, the concept of speaking will naturally also be incorporated. Lastly, due to the fact that the present material package is based on communicative approaches to foreign language teaching, communicative competence is also taken into account as a desired outcome of this type of teaching. Having outlined these three terms, I will now discuss them in more detail.

In simple terms, oral communication can be defined as “an activity involving two (or more) people in which the participants are both hearers and speakers having to react to what they hear and make their contributions at high speed” (Scott, 1982:70). Tiittula (1993:65) concurs and adds that oral communication consists of both verbal and non-verbal communication. For the most part language teaching focuses on verbal communication, which consists of grammar, vocabulary and prosody, i.e. intonation, stress and pauses (Tiittula, 1993:65). Nevertheless, non-verbal communication, i.e. paralinguistic features (use of voice), kinesics (facial expressions and gestures) and proxemics (posture and distance), cannot be ignored as it also affects message encoding and decoding (Tiittula, 1993:65).

In terms of the present material package, Scott’s (1982) and Tiittula’s (1993) definitions bring up two issues that undisputedly need to be discussed, namely the relationship of listening and speaking and the issue of nonverbal communication. First of all, since this material focuses first and foremost on public speaking, the emphasis in this case is on speaking even though the material requires the students to also function as an audience and listen to others' speeches. The limited scope of this thesis also results in a mere focus on verbal communication in the theory section. However, when it comes to public speaking, nonverbal communication indeed plays an integral role and thus the material package will aim at taking also non verbal communication into account by for example by asking students to pay attention to it when presenting and when giving feedback for other students.

Consequently, since speaking and verbal communication in particular are the main focuses of this material, there is a definite need for further discussion. In the following I will first present speaking in relation to other language skills. This will be supplemented by a more thorough definition of speaking per se and a discussion of the actual process of it. Then I will present some models of speech acquisition and examine how they are taken into consideration in the present material package. The chapter 3.1.2 that follows deals with the required skills needed to construct the proficient speaking and lastly I shall examine communicative competence, which is viewed as the ultimate goal of the present material package.

3.1 Speaking

Language is generally divided into four major skills based on their mode and direction. First of all, if mode is the criteria, there are two oral skills, namely listening and speaking and two written skills, i.e. reading and writing. Secondly, if the direction is taken into account then listening and reading are receptive skills, whereas speaking and writing are productive skills (De Jong, 1991:23). Even though speaking can clearly be defined as a productive oral skill, the actual process of speech is by no means as clear. In fact according to Levelt (1989:xiii), it is "the most complex cognitive, linguistic and motor skill of humans". This is due to the high complexity of the physiological, psychological and social aspects and processes involved in speaking (McCall and Cohen, 1963:11). Furthermore, as Tiittula (1993:67) remarks, speaking is challenging also from the viewpoint of it occurring in a continuum and above all in real-time. This results in speech being a rather fast process in the sense that the time between planning and production is very short and moreover a speaker must constantly monitor and correct his/her speech (Tiittula, 1993:67).

In order to elaborate on this complex process, I will present Levelt's (1989: 8—14) blueprint for a speaker. Its first component is *conceptualizing*, which means that the speaker selects the information to be expressed, organizes it as well as decides on the production of the message. As a result of this stage, the speaker has a preverbal message in his/her mind (Levelt, 1989: 9—10). Next the speaker attends to the process of *formulation*, in which (s)he finds and sequences lexical elements and incorporates them with morphological and syntactic features in order to prepare a phonological speech plan (Levelt, 1989: 11—12). Then the speaker moves on to *articulation* and as an outcome of this is overt speech (Levelt, 1989: 12—13). Lastly, after having physically produced the message, the speaker sort of becomes his/her own listener, as (s)he *self-monitors* both the internal and the overt speech. This step thus allows the speaker to check if his/her plans concerning the speech correspond with the actual production of it and whether his/her interlocutors can understand the message.

To put Levelt's (1989: 8—14) blueprint into the context of actual human communication I will present the process of communication (McCall and Cohen, 1963:12—14). This process include four steps;

1) encoding
2) transmitting
3) receiving
4) decoding

The first step, i.e. *encoding*, refers to the communicator's planning of what (s)he wishes to communicate and how. The second step, *transmission*, means the actual production of the message, i.e. its vocal and physical delivery. The third step of the communication process involves the *reception* of the message just conveyed, however, at this stage the message is received only physically and only during the fourth step, i.e. *decoding*, the message is “translated into words, and the words are assigned meanings” in the receiver’s mind (McCall and Cohen, 1963:12—13). To conclude on these two processes, one can see that the process of speaking (Levelt, 1989: 8—14) is present in the first two steps of the communication process (McCall and Cohen, 1963:12—14), namely in encoding and transmission and therefore the main focus of the present material package is precisely on these two steps.

3.1.1 Models of speech acquisition

Having established the process of speaking and its relation to actual communication I shall move on to examining how one exactly acquires this particular skill in a successful way. In order to do this I will present three separate models by De Jong (1991). All these models shed light on speaking from the viewpoint of the present material and are hence relevant.

First, De Jong (1991:24) presents a three-dimension model of overall language ability (originally presented by Sang, Schmitz, Vollmer, Baumert and Roeder, 1986). This model proposes that language ability consists of the following three dimensions; basic elements of knowledge, integration of basic elements of knowledge and interactive use of language. (De Jong, 1991:24). It is important to note that according to De Jong (1991:24) there is a clear hierarchy between these three dimensions, as the second dimension requires that the person already masters the first dimension and the third dimension cannot be achieved before mastering the previous two dimensions.

The model above indeed applies to speaking as well but the second model by De Jong (1991:24) is more specified, as it concentrates particularly on productive skills, i.e. writing and speaking. This model was originally suggested by Higgs (1982) and Sang et al. (1986) but here I will provide the summarized version reported by De Jong (1991:24). According to this model, productive language skills are acquired in the following order; first the individual must master the linguistic components needed in conveying messages, secondly, the individual must be able to convey that message in his/her own time and lastly (s)he must have the ability to convey that same message in real-time communication (De Jong, 1991:24). In practice these three stages are achieved so that the first stage is often carried out in "traditional, fact-oriented class-room teaching". The second stage usually involves an integration of both knowledge and problem-oriented learning, whereas the last stage "requires automation of the integrated knowledge through recurrent exposure ad use" (De Jong, 1991:24).

This second model surely also applies to speaking but the third and thus last model presented by De Jong (1991:25) addresses precisely the productive oral proficiency and again there are three different stages. First stage requires the individual to know how to pronounce. The second stage implies that the speaker is able to apply the pronunciation rules when given time and again the last step demands a mastery of correct pronunciation in real-time.

To bring all of the above mentioned models to life in the present material package it is first necessary to determine what exactly is the oral proficiency level of this package's target group. In order to do this, I will consult the Common European Framework (CEFR) and its scale for overall oral production (CEFR, 58).

Table 1. Overall oral production (Common European Framework, 58).

	OVERALL ORAL PRODUCTION
C2	*Can produce clear, smoothly flowing well-structured speech with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.*
C1	*Can give clear, detailed descriptions and presentations on complex subjects, integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.*
B2	*Can give clear, systematically developed descriptions and presentations, with appropriate highlighting of significant points, and relevant supporting detail.*
	Can give clear, detailed descriptions and presentations on a wide range of subjects related to his/her field of interest, expanding and supporting ideas with subsidiary points and relevant examples.
B1	*Can reasonably fluently sustain a straightforward description of one of a variety of subjects within his/her field of interest, presenting it as a linear sequence of points.*
A2	*Can give a simple description or presentation of people, living or working conditions, daily routines, likes/dislikes, etc. as a short series of simple phrases and sentences linked into a list.*
A1	*Can produce simple mainly isolated phrases about people and places.*

The reasoning behind choosing the B2 proficiency level for the present material package derives from Louhiala-Salminen's (1999:23—24) statement. According to her, the teaching of business English in Finland can generally strongly rely on the students' solid master of English, and therefore if the CEFR scale is taken into consideration the estimated proficiency level of the target group is B2. In this case, the teaching materials in this package will take De Jong's (1991) three models into account as follows.

First of all, the model of overall language proficiency (De Jong, 1991:24) is apparent only in terms of the last stage, i.e. the interactive language use. This is due to the fact that the target group's rather high proficiency level allows the skipping of the first two steps, i.e. basic elements of knowledge and integration of those elements. In practice this means that the emphasis is first and foremost put on real-life interaction in the form of presentations and speeches as well as small talk. Naturally the students are given some background information and general guidelines but by no means at the expense of valuable real-life practice of speaking. The second model by De Jong (1991:24), i.e. the model of productive skills, is also taken into account in a slightly limited manner. In terms of this model, the first two steps are also quite rightfully left aside for the same reasons as with the first model and thus the utmost priority is again on conveying messages in real time. Following the same rationalization, De Jong's (1991:25) third model, is also manifested in the present material package from the aspect of the third stage, namely the mastery of correct pronunciation in real time. As a summary, one could state that the present material package makes use of these models' guidelines in order to validate the importance of real life practice when working with students of a rather high proficiency level.

3.1.2 Factors contributing to proficient speaking

Regardless of the students' level of proficiency they are still in the process of learning about the language and thus it is necessary to also establish what the different areas of speaking are and furthermore what skills relate to the overall skill of speaking. First of all, Brown (2007:322-323) divides speaking into pronunciation, accuracy, fluency and conversational skills and Bailey and Savage (1994) concur otherwise but instead of mentioning conversational skills they talk about speaking in specific contexts, and they name oral presentations as an example. Based on these two divisions, two areas are made central in the present material package. First, speaking in specific contexts, i.e. public speaking in the BELF context and secondly, conversational skills, as small talk has an integral part in the material.

Even though the above mentioned three models as well as Brown's (2007) and Bailey and Savage's (1994) divisions already make some reference to the different skills underlying speaking, these skills nevertheless deserve to be presented in their own right as well. First of all, De Jong (1991:23) outlines the different elements of good oral production by listing "correct pronunciation of phonemes, proper realization of intonation patterns and fluency (interpreted as ease or smoothness of speech)" as the integral components. Bygate (2009:409-410) is to an extent in line with De Jong (1991:23), as he also puts an emphasis on fluency and accuracy but additionally brings up complexity as an essential quality.

Albeit both De Jong (1991) and Bygate (2009) point out some essential aspects their listings however seem to have a rather narrow scope if compared to for example Thornbury (2005:11-24) and Huhta (1993:156). According to Thornbury (2005:11—24), speakers must have extralinguistic skills, i.e. knowledge of the topic which is being discussed as well knowledge of the culture in which the discussion takes place and the people participating. In relation to these, the speaker must also have an understanding of the sociocultural setting of the discussion, i.e. the social values and norms of behavior affecting communication (Thornbury, 2005:11—12). Secondly, speakers need to possess linguistic knowledge, which refers to a variety of aspects, namely genre, discourse, pragmatic, grammar, vocabulary and phonology knowledge are all part of linguistic knowledge (Thornbury, 2005:13—24). Huhta (1993:156) also starts by listing the more traditional aspects of speaking, i.e. pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and fluency. However, he also remarks that especially in terms of communicative language teaching, such as the present material package, the scope of teaching should without a doubt be broader. Therefore, Huhta (1993:156) proposes paying attention to also language suitability, accuracy, scope of language, flexibility and amount. To support his ideas, Huhta (1993:171-175) presents a variety of international language tests and their definitions of competent speakers. He for example presents *Cambridge Assessment of Spoken English*, *Test of Spoken English (TSE)* by *the Educational Testing Service* and *Työelämän kielidiplomikoe (TKD)* by *University of Jyväskylä.* Interestingly all these tests follow more or less the guidelines proposed by Huhta (1993:156).

All of the scholars presented above indeed make some solid points concerning the different elements required from successful speaking. However, in order to meet the specific requirements of the present material package's target group, I shall adopt a slightly different approach to success in terms of speaking. As became apparent in Chapter 2, the BELF context calls for first and foremost ability to do one's job with the help of English instead of a perfect command of the language as such and therefore, I have set communicative competence as the ultimate goal of this package. In the following I will discuss this concept in more detail.

3.1.3 Communicative competence

Knapp and Antos (2010:1) declare that in order to succeed in life one must above all be communicatively competent. Rickheit, Strohner and Vorwerg (2010:15) agree by stating that communicative competence enables people to reach their goals in social life. They in particular remark the importance of communicative competence in organizational and public setting and especially in intercultural encounters (Rickheit et al., 2010:24). Thus, one could state that communicative competence indeed is an integral part of our everyday lives and thus it undisputedly requires to be examined more profoundly also in the present master's thesis.

First of all, it is necessary to explicate what exactly is meant by this term. It is, however, worth bearing in mind that communicative competence is by no means a simple and clear-cut concept. According to Rickheit et al. (2010:24), this is on one hand due to the complicated nature of communication itself and on the other hand due to “the wide variety of related cognitive and social abilities” as well as “the huge situational variability”. Nevertheless, I will now strive for a definition of this multifaceted concept.

First of all, Rickheit et al. (2010:36) list the following things as prerequisites of competent communication; firstly they highlight general knowledge of the world and in particular cultural schemata and specific situation models. Secondly, they remark the importance of awareness of not only one’s own representations of mental and physical states and goals and attentions but also those of other person(s) taking part in the communication.

However, Rickheit et al. (2010:25–26) main approach to communicative competence is from the point of view of *effectiveness* and *appropriateness*. By effectiveness, Rickheit et al. (2010:25), refer to the fact that one achieves the functional goals set for the communication. In addition to this, the required time and energy may be taken into account when evaluating how effective the communication has been. In other words, communicatively competent people are able to communicate faster and with less effort and they manage to achieve what was meant to be achieved with the communication. Appropriateness of communication, on the other hand, means that the communication can be “judged as appropriate according to social factors in a given situation” (Rickheit et al., 2010:25). However, they additionally point out that the idea of appropriateness is rather flexible and can thus be applied to a variety of contexts and communicative actions taking place in them.

Rosenfeld and Berko (1990:13) concur with the previous notion of competent communication being effective and appropriate but they also add the following aspects to Rickheit, et al.’s (2010) initial list. Firstly they state that competent communicators are also adaptable in the sense that they are able to “adjust their communication to the situation”. Secondly, competent communicators have the ability and willingness to cope with potential obstacles. Thirdly, communicative competence also involves an understanding of the competence being a matter of degree, i.e. a person is rarely either fully competent or incompetent but more likely somewhere in between these two extremes (Rosenfeld and Berko, 1990:13). Lastly Rosenfeld and Berko (1990:13) remind that ethicalness is as well an essential component, as competent communicators obey the rules set for the communication based on their culture, personal views and circumstances.

To draw a conclusion from the dual criteria by Rickheit, Strohner and Vorwerg (2010:26) and Rosenfeld and Berko's (1990:13) inclusions, one can state that they indeed paint a pretty picture of what competent communication ought to be like. However, even though effectiveness, appropriateness and the other specifications are undisputedly essential components of competent communication, these definitions unfortunately include a definite element of vagueness. These definitions per se do not address any practical or more tangible components, since they merely outline the ideals of communicative competence.

Canale and Swain (1980:27―31) and Brown (2007:46) manage to make more concrete lists of the components of communicative competence which consist of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence and discourse knowledge. Bachman (1991:83) and Byram and Mendez-Garcia (2009:501) are very much in line with Canale and Swain (1980) and Brown (2007), as for example Bachman (1991:83) remarks that communicative competence refers to not only the knowledge of grammatical rules but in addition to "the knowledge of how language is used to achieve particular communicative goals and the recognition of language use as a dynamic process". Byram and Mendez-Garcia (2009:501) contribute to the discussion by also underlining the importance of interpersonal communication and genuine interaction, since according to them these are the ultimate means for achieving mastery of the above mentioned components of communicative components.

In addition to solely discussing the concept of communicative competence, Bachman (1990:84) interestingly also introduces the concept of communicative language ability, in short CLA. CLA, according to Bachman (1990:84), refers to the combination of both knowledge/competence and the individual's ability to make use of that capacity in real-life language use contexts in an appropriate manner. The framework of CLA suggested by Bachman consists of three components, namely language competence, strategic competence and lastly psycho-physiological mechanisms. Figure 2, illustrates the components of communicative language ability in communicative language use.

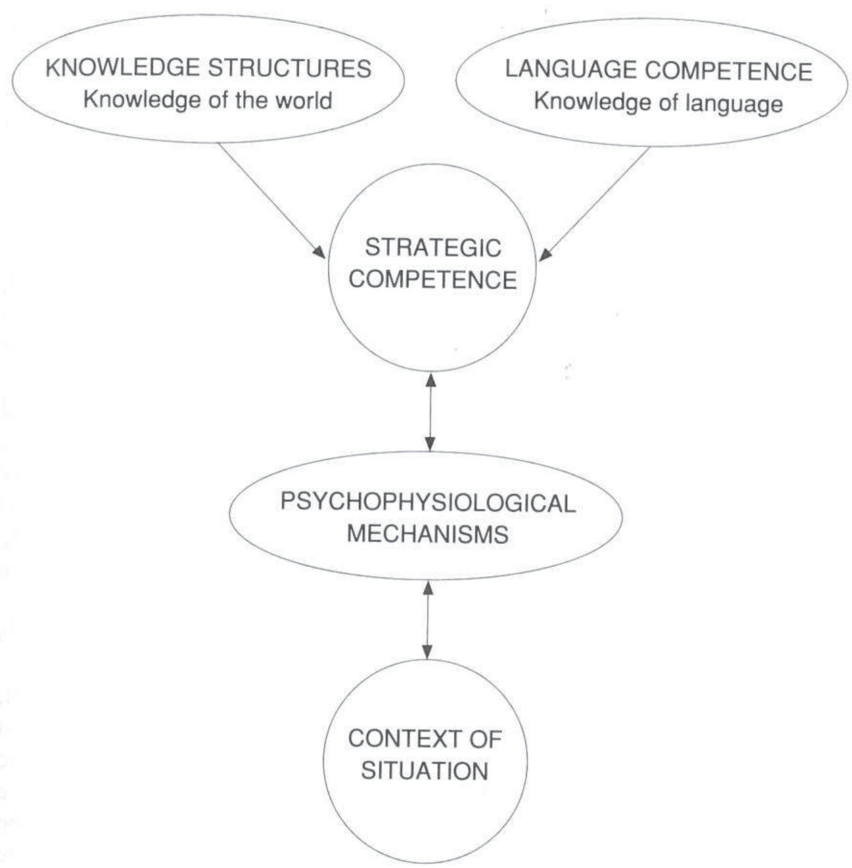
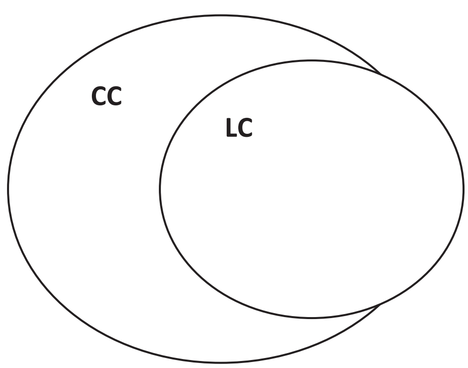


Figure 2. Components of communicative language ability in communicative language use (Bachman, 1991:85).

To elaborate more on the different components illustrated in Figure 2, Bachman (1991:84) states that language competence consists of "a set of specific knowledge components that are utilized in communication via language.", whereas, the strategic competence refers to the individual's mental capacity for using those linguistic components in contextualized communication. In other words, the strategic competence unites the individual's language competence with the socio-cultural and 'real-life knowledge', i.e. his/her knowledge structures, and thus enables communication which takes into consideration not only the language but also the specific context (Bachman, 1991:84). In practice this becomes apparent as one assesses what is relevant information in that particular context and as one negotiates meanings (Bachman, 1991:98). The remaining components, i.e. the psycho-physiolocial mechanisms, then actually execute this whole process as a physical phenomenon (Bachman, 1991:84).

Based on the established common ground on how to define communicative competence and some closely related concepts, one can detect a rather obvious dilemma occurring in all of them, namely the battle between linguistic and communicative focuses. Allwright (1981:168) comes to aid by providing a diagram, i.e. Figure 3, which demonstrates the relationship between communicative competence and linguistic competence. It implies that certain linguistic components are unessential from to point of view of communicative competence, i.e. the small area left outside the oval of communicative competence. However, linguistic competence in general is a part of communicative competence.



CC: Communicative competence
LC: Linguistic Competence

Figure 3. The relationship between communicative competence and linguistic competence (Allwright, 1981:168).

Allwright (1981:168) states that this particular diagram proves that if the teaching focuses merely on linguistic competence a major area of communicative competence will be ignored, whereas if communicative competence is made central only a minor linguistic part will not be catered for. Brown (1994:227) is in agreement with Allwright (1981:168), as he remarks that it is essential to make a distinction between the mere focus on knowledge "about" the language and a genuinely communicative approach, since only the latter one will lead to functional and interactive use of language. Figure 3, is consequently the guiding principle in this material package, since the practical adaptation of it enables the reaching of the goals for this material package, i.e. preparing students for communicative use of business English.

However, there is yet another question that needs to be answered, namely when exactly are the students communicatively competent. Or in other words, what is the desired level or role-model that needs to be achieved. Relating to this, Canale and Swain (1980:27) point out that when striving for communicative competence, the students should be exposed to interaction with merely highly competent speakers of the language, as this type of communication responds to the students' real-life needs concerning second language situations. This was the case 30 years ago when the traditional view of for example English language teaching pedagogy was based on the idea that learners' need to reach a native-speaker level (McKay, 2006:118) and according to Kirkpatrick (2006:72) the native-speaker level continues to be "the most popular and sought-after model".

However, Alptekin (2002) and McKay (2006:126) remark that the field of foreign language teaching, especially English teaching, should take into account that times have changed drastically and thus it is no longer reasonable to promote the native-speaker based notion of communicative competence. Alptekin (2002:57) states that this outdated notion is no longer realistic, since it does not take into consideration that nowadays English is a world language, which is used not only when native-speakers communicate among themselves and with non-native speakers but also to a great extent merely among non-native speakers (Alptekin, 2002:60—61, Kirkpatrick, 2006:73) as for example in the previously discussed BELF communication. Moreover, the notion of native speakers being the ultimate role model of communicative competence is rather utopian (Alptekin, 2002:57, 59—60). This is due to the fact that the concept of native speakership is, as Alptekin (2002: 57) puts it, merely "a linguistic myth", as no one version of for example English can be regarded as inherently better than others (Alptekin, 2002:59). Furthermore, it is worth noting that a native speaker level is extremely difficult, if not even impossible to attain for non-native speakers (Kirkpatrick, 2006:74). According to Kirkpatrick (2006:74), this is of course problematic from the students' point of view but also from non-native teachers' viewpoint as they are required to teach something that even they do not master, if non-native level is the ultimate goal of foreign language teaching. To conclude, Alptekin (2002:63) and McKay (2006:126) both state that there is no point in requiring students to attain the so-called native-speaker level.

Consequently, if the non-existent native-speaker level is dismissed as a yardstick of communicative competence, there is a definite need for a new model. Kirkpatrick (2006:75—80) presents two optional models, namely a nativized model and a lingua franca model. The former refers to a model provided by local teachers who master both the foreign language as well as the local language (Kirkpatrick, 2006:76). The latter is to a great extent defined based on its main focus, i.e. communication and the fact that no idealized norm regulates the learning process. In order to decide which of the above mentioned models should be the guideline of the present material package, I shall review back to Alptekin (2002:63). Alptekin suggests that this type of decisions should be made first and foremost based on the students' specific needs and the language use contexts they will encounter.

To portray the specific needs of the students, i.e. business students, working on this material package I will consult the previous chapters. To put it simply, as Willis and Willis (2001:173), Nunan (2004:44) and Pica (2008:527) propose, communicative language teaching should aspire to students' being able to achieve concrete goals and complete tasks, which outcomes can be observed in practice. In order to shed more light on this view, Kankaanranta and Planken (2010:380) emphasize that the primary goal of communication in BELF contexts is getting the job done.

Concluding from these viewpoints, the present material package addresses communicative competence from the viewpoints of both knowledge of the language and of its use in practice. Furthermore, the present material package is in line with the prevailing notion of *not* using a native-speaker of English as its role-model but rather the competency level which is required from the business people in order to do their job in the modern international business world. Thus the practical requirements of this context surpass the old notion of native speakers being the only baseline for effective language use.

3.2 Public speaking

Public Speaking is one of the oldest academic disciplines (Henning, 1960:4). It has its roots in the Ancient Greece's rhetoric, which means that this particular discipline is based on over 2,500 years of history (Henning, 1960:4, Warren, 1983:17, Lucas, 1999:75, Keith, 2008:240). This long history consists of a variety of phases and this particular discipline has indeed had its share of both praise and turmoil. In the beginning of its history, public speaking was regarded as one of the most essential virtues of a sophisticated person (Warren, 1983:17). Later on in the Middle Ages this discipline was still highly appreciated and even considered as an important cornerstone of democracy (Henning, 1960: 4-5). However, as mentioned above, the history of public speaking has not only been smooth sailing. For example, public speaking as a discipline has had to struggle with gaining academic credibility (Henning, 1960:5, Gray, 1982:231, Keith, 2008:244) and public speaking as a subject has encountered a great deal of collision concerning its main focus, i.e. whether it is speech or elocution (Keith, 2008:249). In addition to the overall confusion this has also resulted in difficulties of public speaking and above all its teachers finding their place in the academic community, since at times it has been unclear whether public speaking should be part of the language departments, separate rhetoric departments or some other department (Keith, 2008:245-249). Nonetheless, once it was finally established that the main focus of public speaking is indeed public speaking instead of rhetoric, oratory, expression or elocution and once this discipline was assigned its own departments and associations (Keith, 2008:249), the whole field of public speaking became far more organized.

For the past decades, as Lucas (1999:75) points out, public speaking has been the bedrock of a variety of undergraduate curricula and for a good reason; according to a survey of nearly 500 companies and public organizations, public speaking alongside with other communication skills were ranked as the most important personal qualities sought by employers (Lucas, 2009:5). Consequently, even though this discipline has had its fair share of tribulation, it has found its place in the academic world and above all its significance is nowadays recognized by the operators of the working life and as became apparent in Chapter 2.2 this is especially the case in the business world.

In order to tackle this discipline in more detail I will first present some general guidelines related to public speaking. After that I shall move on to discussing the overall process of public speaking, i.e. how a speaker plans, prepares and finally delivers a speech in the best possible way. Lastly, I will conclude this chapter by presenting the three types of public speaking, namely informative, persuasive and special occasion speeches.

The key idea of public speaking, as the name rather clearly suggests, is that the speaker makes his/her ideas public by sharing them orally with others (Lucas, 2009:4). To elaborate even more on this issue I shall compare public speaking with everyday life speaking, i.e. conversation, with the help of Lucas (2009:6-9). According to Lucas (2009:6-7), there are four similarities between public speaking and conversation. First, they both require that the speaker organizes his/her thoughts logically in order to convey the message in the best possible way (Lucas, 2009:6). This line of thinking became apparent already in Chapter 3.1.1, in which I presented Levelt's (1989: 8—14) blueprint for a speaker. The second similarity is that the speaker must always take into account to whom (s)he is speaking, i.e. the message must be tailored according to the audience (Lucas, 2009:6). In both cases the speaker must consider for example the audience's prior knowledge of the topic in question, their needs, values and goals.

Thirdly, whether the speaker is just chitchatting with a close friend or talking to an audience of 100 people, (s)he must also try to maximize the impact of the message (Lucas, 2009:7). After all, there is little point in communicating if one does not aim at getting one's point across and causing some kind of a reaction in one's counterpart(s). Lastly, Lucas (2009:7) points out that conversation and public speaking are similar in the sense that they both ideally involve adapting to the listeners' feedback, i.e. verbal and nonverbal reactions. In practice this can become apparent for example when a speaker notices that the audience seems confused and thus (s)he might rephrase his/her ideas or give an elaborating example. Another practical example might be that a speaker sees the audience nodding and smiling which likely means that they are keeping up with him/her and that they agree with what they are hearing. However, it is worth remarking here that when it comes to public speaking, the speaker may often be provided with formal feedback after the actual presentation and this will also be done within the frame of the present material.

Based on the discussion above it indeed seems that one does not need to reinvent the wheel when engaging in public speaking. According to Lucas (2009:7) anyone who has ever engaged in everyday life conversation possesses already to a great extent these essential skills also needed in public speaking. However, there are still some integral differences between everyday conversation and public speaking and in the following I will detect the three major differences presented by Lucas (2009:8-9).

The first difference is that even though everyday conversation also requires certain level of organization, public speaking is still far more structured (Lucas, 2009:8). Public speaking situations are usually more structured in the sense that the speaker is given a timeframe within which (s)he must deliver the speech itself and thus accomplish his/her purpose (Lucas, 2009:8). In contrast to normal conversation, the highly structured nature of public speaking usually does not allow direct participation of the audience during the presentation but the audience's contributions, e.g. questions and comments, are left to be dealt after the presentation (Lucas, 2009:8). The timeframe and the overall structure of public speaking context require a great deal of detailed planning and preparation from the speaker, which is not necessarily the case in everyday conversations. The second difference is that very often public speaking demands the speaker to use more formal language (Lucas, 2009:8). Lucas (2009:8) remarks that this derives to a great extent from the audience's expectations, since when listening to a presentation or speech the audience anticipates elevated and polished language. The third and the thus the last difference according to Lucas (2009:9) is that public speaking must be delivered with a different method than normal talk. With this different method Lucas (2009:9) refers to for example paying special attention to one's usage of stock phrases, one's posture, disturbing mannerisms and verbal habits. In other words, one could state that in more casual interaction speakers are allowed to also behave more casually, whereas public speaking requires a more composed and formal presence in terms of one's verbal and nonverbal communication.

Despite the many commonalities between everyday life speaking and public speaking, the latter one indeed seems to require some additional skills and abilities from the speaker. Therefore, there is an undisputable need for skills training focusing on public speaking and the present material package aims at catering to this particular need.

3.2.1 The process of public speaking: Audience-centered model

To be able to organize the aforementioned skills training it is necessary to first examine the actual skills that the students need to learn. In order to discover them, I shall make use of Beebe and Beebe's (2012:375) audience-centered model of public speaking (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Audience-centered model of public speaking (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:375).

There are two major reasons for using this particular model as the main resource of public speaking skills. First of all, Beebe and Beebe's book it is one of the most recent sources addressing this issue. Secondly, even though Beebe and Beebe (2012) present the most up-to-date information from the field of public speaking, their approach, i.e. audience-centered approach, was introduced already by Aristotle, who said 2,300 years ago that "for of the three elements in speechmaking – speaker, subject, and person addressed–it is the last one, the hearer, that determines the speaker's end and object" (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:xxviii)

Furthermore, this line of thinking clearly applies to a great extent to the modern business world, in which public speaking is first and foremost used as a means to have an impact on the audience. More often than not, in the business context the audience, whether it is a group of colleagues, associates or clients, will need to be won over. In case the speaker succeeds, then (s)he will get his/her way and in practice this can mean that the speaker is for example able to execute his/her plans in the company, convince the associates of further co-operation or sign a deal with a new client. The bottom line is that success in public speaking can either indirectly or directly equal success in business and even financial gains. Therefore, in the present thesis Beebe and Beebe's (2012:375) model will be used as the backbone in order to cater for the needs of the business people in the best possible way.

3.2.1.1 Preparing a speech

Having established the crucial role of audience in the business world and thus the relevance of the audience-centered model (Figure 4) within this particular context, I shall move on to the model itself. First of all, I shall start from the middle of this circle. As becomes clear from Figure 4, the speaker is advised to take the audience into consideration at every stage of this speechmaking process. Many other scholars, such as Himstreet and Baty (1990:53), McKerrow et al. (2007:42-44), Lucas (2009:96-115) and O'Hair et al. (2011:357-360), also introduce the issue of audience analysis, but they more or less fail to tie it to the whole process. The basis of audience analysis is that the speaker gathers either informally or formally as much information about the audience as possible prior to the actual presentation or speech (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:79). A speaker can for example informally observe the audience or ask questions from them and if possible in terms of time and resources the speaker can even conduct a more formal survey or questionnaire to become better acquainted with his/her audience (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:79). This surely raises a question of what exactly the speaker then needs to know about the audience. To answer this question I shall consult Lucas (2009:100-109) and Beebe and Beebe (2012:81-96) who present three different but equally important levels of audience analysis.

First of all, it is essential to learn about the demographics of the group, i.e. to discover for example the audience members' age, gender, sexual orientation, culture, ethnicity, race, socioeconomic status and group membership (Lucas, 2009:100-105, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:84-91). Discovering these is essential, since they all have an effect on the way the audience members absorb what they hear and how they react to it. However, Lucas (2009:105) additionally remarks that these are only a few variables of demographic audience analysis and basically anything that elaborates on the audience's background can be of great value for the speaker. Secondly, the speaker must aim at detecting the audience's disposition towards the topic, the speaker and the occasion (Lucas, 2009:106-109, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:94-96). This type of psychological audience analysis in more detail refers to gaining information about the audience's attitudes, beliefs, values, interests and knowledge, as all these come to interplay when the audience listens to a speaker talking about a topic in a certain context. Thirdly, Lucas (2009:105-106) and Beebe and Beebe, (2012:96-99) advise speakers to take into account the situational variables, i.e. to analyze the size of the audience, the overall physical setting which means the location and occasion of the speech. Beebe and Beebe (2012:96) point out that even though these aforementioned factors are not technically features of the audience as such, they can nevertheless have an influence on the way the audience reacts to the speech. Lucas (2009:106) concurs and furthermore remarks that the speaker must acknowledge the aspects that (s)he can and cannot have an effect on and based on this (s)he must make an effort to create the best possible circumstances for the speech.

To conclude on the discussion of the core of Figure 4, I will present a few summarizing questions that the speaker ought to bear in mind throughout the whole process of speechmaking. Lucas (2009:96) and Beebe and Beebe (2012:83) emphasize that the speaker must at all times be aware of to whom (s)he is talking, what (s)he wants to achieve with the speech and how (s)he will achieve that with the audience in question. Next I will move on to discussing the stages of the speechmaking process that are on the outer circle of Figure 4.

The first step of Figure 4 is selecting and narrowing down a topic (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:112, Himstreet and Baty, 1990:54, McKerrow et al., 2007:44-46, Lucas, 2009:76-80, O'Hair et al., 2011:354-355). It is, however, worth of bearing in mind that even though every speech and presentation must discuss a topic, every speechmaking process may not involve selecting one (Lucas, 2009:76, O'Hair et al., 2011:354, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:112). At times topics can already be predetermined and this is often the case in the business context in which topics arise from the interplay of one's job, from the needs of the audience or the organization (O'Hair et al., 2011:354). O'Hair et al. (2011:354) nevertheless remark that it is essential that also business people master the process of selecting and narrowing down a topic, since they are bound to encounter situations in which they need to come up with a topic or have the ability to make sense of a relatively unclear topic assigned to them.

Deciding on a topic should, according to McKerrow et al. (2007:44) and Lucas (2009:77-78), be based on the speaker's prior knowledge or at least the ability to find out more of a certain topic and of course the speaker must also consider the audience interest in the topic as well as the occasion. In order to take all these into account in practice, Lucas (2009:78-80), O'Hair et al. (2011:354-355) and Beebe and Beebe (2012:115-117) propose the following planning methods. First of all, they advise speakers to make use of brainstorming, which means that the speaker should write down all the possible ideas and let one idea lead to another without stopping to evaluate them at this stage. This can be done either individually or with the help of others (O'Hair et al., 2011:354). Second method for finding topics involves all kinds of information search, e.g. reference search and internet search (Lucas, 2009:80, O'Hair et al., 2011:354, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:116). Lastly, Beebe and Beebe (2012:116) point out that possible topics are available everywhere, i.e. something that one sees, hears or reads can trigger ideas for public speaking.

In addition to selecting a topic, one must also narrow it down (McKerrow, 2007:45-46, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:117) and this is essential especially from two points of view. First, there is usually a timeframe within which the speech must be delivered and thus the speaker cannot cover every single aspect of a certain topic (McKerrow et al, 2007:45, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:117). Secondly, the speech must cater for the needs of the audience and thus the topic must be tailored accordingly (McKerrow et al., 2007:46). In order to do all this, Beebe and Beebe (2012:117-118) for instance suggest categorizing different aspects of the topic, i.e. starting from the wider perspective and then listing subcategories with more detailed and concrete elements. Having done this, the speaker is then able to add or remove information according to the timeframe and the needs of the audience.

The second step of Figure 4 involves determining the purpose of the speech (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:118-121). According to public speaking scholars, such as McKerrow et al. (2007:47-51), Lucas (2009:81-87), O'Hair et al. (2011:355-357) and Beebe and Beebe (2012:118-121), there are two purposes, namely a general purpose and a specific purpose, that need to be determined. General purpose refers to whether the speech is informative, persuasive or entertaining speech (e.g. Beebe and Beebe, 2012:118-119). These different types of speeches will be presented in more detail in the following chapter, i.e. Chapter 3.2.2, but in relation to the general purpose it is essential to remark at this point that the speaker must choose one of them based on the "end state" the speaker wants to create in the audience (McKerrow et al., 2007:47). This "end state" simply refers to the thoughts and possibly even actions that the speaker aims to generate in the audience.

In addition to the general purpose, the speaker must also consider the specific purpose of his/her speech. Naturally, the specific purpose derives from the general purpose (O'Hair et al., 2011:357), but what characterizes the specific purpose in particular is the fact that it is even more clearly defined and thus far more precise. The speaker is advised to aim at expressing his/her specific purpose within one statement (McKerrow, 2007:50, Lucas, 2009:81, O'Hair et al., 2011:357, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:119). Beebe and Beebe (2012:119-120) suggest that this statement should include an observable and thus measurable "action that the audience should be able to take by the end of the speech". According to them, this statement should not include vague verbs, such as *know* or *believe*, but instead express the goal more clearly, for example with verbs such as *list, explain, describe* or *write*. Sample statements concerning the specific purpose are for example the following;

> "I want my audience to understand…" (McKerrow et al., 2007:50)
> "To inform my audience about…" (Lucas, 2009:82)
> "I want my audience to pledge to make…" (O'Hair et al.,2011:357)

> "At the end of my speech, the audience will be able to…" (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:119)

The third step of the audience-centered model, i.e. Figure 4, requires the speaker to develop the central idea of his/her speech (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:121) and according to McKerrow et al., (2007:52), this step is on a direct continuum from the previous step. This step involves being able to express one's main idea in one sentence and this sentence should in a way be a summary of the speech as a whole (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:121). In order to do this, Beebe and Beebe (2012:122) for example suggest making use of a complete declarative sentence that presents a single idea with the help of direct and specific language.

Generating main ideas is the next step in the speechmaking process according to Figure 4 (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:124). In practice this means that the speaker outlines his/her speech by preparing a speech plan. The speech plan includes approximately two to four main ideas that construct the backbone of the speech (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:124). At this stage, the speaker must be able to organize his/her ideas in a clear manner, for example based on logical divisions, supporting arguments and/or chronology (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:124-125).

Logically, the above mentioned backbone is not enough and thus Beebe and Beebe (2012:134-155) alongside with McKerrow et al. (2007:57-58), Lucas (2009:120-161) and O'Hair et al. (2011:363-366) recommend moving on to gathering supporting materials. During this phase of the speechmaking process, the speaker is advised to consult all the possible sources that could provide material for the speech or in other words 'flesh' to the bone. First of all, the speaker can resort to his/her own knowledge and experiences, if (s)he happens to be an expert of the topic (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:134). However, Beebe and Beebe (2012:134) remark that even if this type of personal approach can heighten one's credibility in the minds of the audience members, some outside sources will surely convince the audience even more profoundly. Examples of the aforementioned outside sources, are for instance the Internet and online databases (Lucas, 2009:125, O'Hair et al., 2011:362, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:134-137.) and traditional library holdings (Lucas, 2009:121, O'Hair et al., 2011:362, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:137-139). Furthermore, all these scholars advocate interviewing other people and especially experts in order to gain important information and insights to support one's topic.

Before moving on to the next stage, it is of great value to ponder on what kind of supporting materials one should actually be looking for in practice. Beebe and Beebe (2012:144-154) provide an extensive list with the help of Lucas (2009:142-159) and O'Hair et al. (2011:363-366). First, all types of illustrations, descriptions, explanations and definitions as well as examples and analogies, i.e. comparisons (Lucas, 2009:142-146, O'Hair et al.,2011:363-364, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:145-150) help the audience to gain a better understanding of the topic. Secondly, Beebe and Beebe (2012:150-152) alongside with Lucas (2009:147-154) and O'Hair et al. (2011:364) suggest making use of statistics. According to Lucas (2009:147), statistics, i.e. numerical data, are especially powerful in today's world, in which the ability to provide concrete numbers of an issue is considered as an effective and satisfying means to support ideas. Naturally, statistics can be used in a wrong way and thus Beebe and Beebe (2012:151) underline the usage of authoritative and unbiased sources. Furthermore, they put on emphasis on accurate interpretations and presentations of statics in order to gain the audience's trust as well as maintain their interest (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:151). Thirdly, scholars examining public speaking recommend presenting opinions and testimonies to support one's topic (Lucas, 2009:155-159, O'Hair et al., 2011:364-365, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:152-154). As a source, depending on one's topic and available resources, the speaker can use either laypeople or experts. Fourthly, O'Hair et al. (2011:365-366) emphasize the importance of visual aids, such as "photographs, slides, sketches, videotapes, cartoons, drawings" and "graphs, charts and diagrams" (O'Hair et al., 2011:366). The main purposes of visual aids are to enhance the listeners' understanding of the topic as well as to increase the credibility of the speaker's message (O'Hair et al., 2011:365).

Once the speaker has selected his/her topic and narrowed it, determined the purpose, the central idea and the main ideas of the speech as well as gathered the supporting materials, (s)he can then move on to organizing the speech as a whole (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:162). This sixth step of Figure 4 simply involves creating a logical structure based on the above mentioned factors. Beebe and Beebe (2012:163-169) and Lucas (2009:169-174), propose five different organizational patterns which one can use to construct a speech and these patterns are listed below;

1) Topical
2) Chronological
3) Spatial
4) Cause-Effect
5) Problem-Solution

The first pattern, i.e. topical organization, can be used when the topic consists of natural divisions which are equally important and thus they can be presented in any possible order, e.g. based on regency or complexity (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:163-164). The second pattern is chronological order, which means that the speaker organizes the topic by time or sequence (Lucas, 2009:169, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:164). Thirdly, when a speech is organized spatially, it introduces the main ideas based on their location or direction (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:166), i.e. for example "from top to bottom, left to right, front to back, inside to outside, east to west" (Lucas, 2009:170). The cause-effect pattern, i.e. the fourth pattern, on one hand refers to the speaker indentifying a situation and then elaborating on the factors resulting from it, i.e. the effects. On the other hand, the speaker can do the exact opposite and first discuss the effects and after that detect the causes (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:166-167). Lastly, according to Lucas (2009:172) and Beebe and Beebe (2012:167), speeches can be organized according to the pattern of problem-solution. This pattern is rather similar to the previous one but in this case the emphasis of the speech is first and foremost on providing the audience with a solution to the problem in question (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:167).

In addition to the aforementioned patterns that help the speaker to organize the body of his/her speech, this step also includes paying attention to the introduction and conclusion of the speech (Lucas, 2009:186-203, O'Hair et al., 2011:366-369, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:184-196). An introduction should fulfill the five purposes set for it (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:184). An introduction ought to evoke the audience's attention and provide the listeners a reason to listen. Furthermore, it should introduce the topic and its main ideas as well as establish the speaker's credibility (Lucas, 2009:186, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:184). These goals can be achieved with various methods, such as using illustrations, anecdotes and humor (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:187-190), by introducing startling facts and statistics (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:188) or by asking questions from the audience (Lucas, 2009:189-190, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:190-191). According to O'Hair et al. (2011:366-367), the bottom line is that the introduction manages to somehow orientate and motivate the audience as well as build rapport between the speaker and his/her topic and the audience.

When it comes to the conclusion of a speech, Beebe and Beebe (2012:195) also provide speakers with a checklist, which summarizes the four main points of a good conclusion. First, the conclusion should summarize the speech by reemphasizing the central idea and by restating the key points. Secondly, the conclusion should provide the audience with a closure, i.e. it should verbally and nonverbally signal that the speech is coming to an end and also motivate the listeners to react in some way. The means to do all these are to a great extent the same as mentioned in relation to good introductions (Lucas, 2009:200, O'Hair et al., 2011:369, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:196). However, speakers are furthermore advised to refer to the introduction of the speech (Lucas, 2009:201, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:196) as well as aim at somehow inspiring or challenging the listeners. Following these brief guidelines, should enable the speaker to create a clear and memorable conclusion that also activates the audience.

To bring together all the three sections of a speech, i.e. the introduction, the body and the conclusion, a speaker is advised to compile an outline of the speech (Lucas, 2009:208, O'Hair et al., 2011:369, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:204). According to Lucas (2009:208-218, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:204-

211), a speaker needs two separate but nevertheless interrelated outlines, namely a preparation outline and a delivery/speaking outline. The former is an outline which consists of the "main ideas, subpoints, and supporting materials" as well as for example the "specific purpose, introduction and conclusion" (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:204), In addition to this, a preparation outline can be defined, as the name already implies, as a tool that helps one to prepare his/her speech (Lucas, 2009:208). The latter outline, i.e. delivery/speech outline, is a condensed version of one's preparation outline (Lucas, 2009:216, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:209). The main purpose of this type of an outline is to function as a reminder for the speaker by providing all the essentials of his/her speech without, however, tricking the speaker into merely reading what is on the outline. A good delivery/speech outline is as brief as possible and consists of single words or short phrases and thus encourages the speaker to actually *speak* to the audience (Lucas, 2009:216, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:210). Furthermore, it can also include some helpful delivery cues, i.e. tips concerning the actual manner of delivery, such as remarks on pauses, pace or eye-contact (Lucas, 2009:218-219).

Even though the above discussed outlines play an integral role in the process of speechmaking, there is yet another step before actually delivering a speech to an audience, namely according to Figure 4, it is essential that one rehearses the speech in advance. In addition to this figure by Beebe and Beebe (2012:256), rehearsing is also strongly advocated by McKerrow et al. (2007:59-60), Lucas (2009:258-259) and O'Hair et al. (2011:379). Among these scholars there seems to be also a strong agreement of what constitutes effective practice. They all remark that it is of great value to practice the speech out loud instead of merely going over it inside one's head. Moreover, they unanimously emphasize that if possible the speaker should give the speech to a small audience, even just to one friend or family member. This type 'trial run' forces the speaker to really talk through for instance all the examples, quotations and statistics, enables the speaker to get practical training of using the visual aids as well as gives a more realistic timeframe of the speech (Lucas, 2009:258, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:256). Naturally, this type of rehearsing also provides the speaker with an excellent opportunity to receive peer feedback on the speech already prior to the actual speaking occasion (McKerrow et al., 2007:59-60, Lucas, 2009:259, O'Hair et al., 2011:379, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:256) and if the speaker wishes to observe the speech him/herself then the speech can even be recorded or videotaped (McKerrow et al., 2007:60, Lucas, 2009:259, O'Hair et al., 2011:379, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:256). The bottom line is that the rehearsal enables the speaker to view the speech as a whole and see how all the different factors, i.e. verbal and nonverbal communication , the speech outline and the supporting materials, come together in actual delivery of the speech (O'Hair et al., 2011:379).

3.2.1.2 Delivering a speech

Finally, it is time to examine the last challenge of the speechmaking process, i.e. the actual delivery of the speech (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:257). As the most important guideline for this stage, Beebe and Beebe (2012:258) introduce the fact that the speaker must be both physically and mentally alert. Therefore, they emphasize the importance of rest and appropriate nourishment prior to the speech occasion as well as a positive and confident state of mind. However, there remain two integral issues that need to be addressed in relation to this stage; the delivery method and dealing with audience's questions after one's speech.

There are all in all four basic methods of speech delivery; a manuscript speech, memorized speaking, impromptu speaking and extemporaneous speaking (McKerrow et al.,2007:61-62, Lucas, 2009:245-248, O'Hair et al., 2011:372-374, Beebe and Beebe, 2012: 238-242). The two former delivery methods refer to exactly what their names imply, namely "reading a speech from a written text" (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:238).and reciting a speech word for word without using notes. The names of the latter two methods, on the other hand, may not directly reveal as much. Impromptu speaking refers to a speech given without any prior preparation and thus this method is often described as "thinking on your feet" or "speaking of the cuff" (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:240). Extemporaneous speaking means that the speaker makes use of a written or memorized general outline but does not have the exact wording available during the speaking occasion (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:241).

Surely, the speaker must choose one of these methods already prior to actually going in front of an audience and to make this decision easier, I will briefly review the pros and cons of using these four methods. First, manuscript speeches should only be favored if there is a definite need for exact wording, since this way the speaker can avoid, as Lucas (2009:245) puts is, the "wooden and artificial" delivery style that can easily result from reading instead of speaking. Memorized speeches are neither highly recommended to be used on a regular basis, because they tend to also often include an element of rigidity (McKerrow et al., 2007:62) and moreover they frequently put great pressure on the speaker to remember the whole speech (Lucas, 2009: 245-246). According to O'Hair et al. (2011:372), impromptu speaking should as well be avoided whenever possible, since the lack of preparation deteriorates the overall effectiveness of one's delivery. As a result of these methods' shortcomings, the fourth method, i.e. extemporaneous speaking is the commonly favored means of delivery (McKerrow et al., 2007:61, Lucas,2009:247, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:241). Its popularity is likely due to the fact the extemporaneous speaking not only requires the speaker to rehearse and prepare in advance but to also have the ability to adapt to the specific circumstances in which the speech is given (O'Hair et al.,2011:373).

As mentioned above, Beebe and Beebe (2012:258-260), alongside with Lucas (2009:258-263) and O'Hair et al. (2011:377-379), introduce also another relevant aspect that relates firmly to the actual speaking occasion, namely dealing with the audience's questions. This part of the speech is essential, since according to Lucas (2009:259), the speaker's success in the question-and-answer (Q&A) session can strengthen the impact of the speech, whereas an evasive and annoyed speaker can still at this stage ruin the whole speech. Thornbury (2005:94) concurs and points out that this section is often the deal breaker particularly in the business world and thus the Q&A part of the speech should be viewed as an equally important section to the speech itself, especially within the context of the materials of the present material package.

In order to succeed in the Q&A part, the speaker ought to anticipate the possible questions already prior to the actual occasion and then practice actually answering to those questions (Lucas, 2009:261, O'Hair et al., 2011:377, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:259). This, however, is not enough, as real-life situations rarely fully correspond with our presumptions. Therefore, public speaking the aforementioned public speaking scholars also provide speakers with advice that they can use during the actual speech occasion. First of all, emphasis is put on making sure that one understands the question correctly and in order to ensure this, speakers are encouraged to repeat or even rephrase the question (Lucas, 2009:261, O'Hair et al., 2011:378, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:259). This is important, since the audience will value the fact that the speaker sticks to the point and stays on the right track by providing accurate and brief answers. Furthermore, this allows the speaker some extra time to think about his/her answer. Secondly, speakers should treat all questions and people asking those questions with great respect and without any judgements (Lucas, 2009:260-261, O'Hair et al., 2011:378, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:259).

Thirdly, it is fundamental to bear in mind that when responding to a question asked by one audience member, the speaker should nevertheless address the whole audience. According to Lucas (2009:261) and Beebe and Beebe (2012:259), this enables the speaker to maintain contact with all the audience members instead of just focusing on one of them. Last piece of advice is strongly voiced by all of the scholars mentioned above, as they all highlight that if the speaker does not know how to answer a question then (s)he should honestly admit it. At that point, apologies are useless and bluffing is simply condescending and thus the best policy is to be honest and straightforward (Lucas, 2009:262, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:260). O'Hair et al. (2011:379) point out that if the speaker is able then (s)he can promise to find the answer and get back to the questioner later on and relating to this Beebe and Beebe (2012:260) remark that then the speaker must commit to this promise and follow through on it.

The key guidelines of Figure 4 discussed in this chapter apply to a great variety of speaking occasion due to their general nature. However, the discipline of public speaking specifies different occasions and types of public speaking and hence the following chapter discusses them in more detail.

3.2.2 Different types of public speaking

Among public speaking scholars there seems to be a strong agreement of the different types of public speaking. For example McKerrow, Gronbeck, Ehninger and Monroe (2000:297-405, 2007:317-436), Lucas (2009:298-389) and Beebe and Beebe (2012:289-383) all agree that there are three different types of public speaking, namely informative, persuasive and special occasion. In addition to the aforementioned consensus within the field of public speaking, these three types are also strongly advocated by business communication scholars (Adler: 1986, Himstreet and Baty: 1990, Wardrope and Bayless: 1999, O'Hair et al.: 2011). First of all, in their books of business communication, Himstreet and Baty (1990:55) alongside with O'Hair et al. (2011:355-357, 383-430) also introduce informative, persuasive and special occasion speeches. Furthermore, Adler's (1986:254) discussion of the various occasions in which business people need to speak in public (See Chapter 2.2) undisputedly reinforces the need for different types of public speaking. The fact that these three types are so strongly present in the business context, naturally puts them also in the core of the present material package and therefore more detailed descriptions are provided below.

3.2.2.1 Informative speaking

Informative speaking is an extremely important tool in the business world, since organizational life includes a variety of occasions when information, ideas, perceptions and agendas need to be effectively shared (O'Hair et al., 2011:384-385).A study done in the United States revealed that the majority of employees rank informative speaking as the most required speaking skill and another American study discovered that over 60 % of respondents make use of informative speaking "almost constantly" (Lucas, 2009:300).

The bottom line of informative speeches and presentations, as the name already implies, is to provide listeners with some new information, to supplement and reinforce what they already know and to all in all convey better understanding (Lucas, 2009:300, O'Hair et al., 2011:384). Beebe and Beebe (2012:290) concur with the above mentioned viewpoints and they additionally remark that to be able to do all that the speaker must to an extent adopt the role of a teacher. No matter what the context is, the role of a teacher helps the speaker to define, illustrate and elaborate on the topic in the best possible way (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:290).

Beebe and Beebe (2012:291) alongside with Lucas (2009:301-308) additionally elaborate on the most common topics addressed in informative speeches. According to them, there are five common topic categories and in order to shed some light on these categories, I will myself provide practical business context examples of them. Firstly, informative speeches can present tangible objects (Lucas, 2009:301, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:291). In the business world this could for example mean presenting a new product. Secondly, a speaker can inform others about procedures, i.e. (s)he can review how something works or provide the listeners with a description of a process (Lucas, 2009:302, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:291). In the business context this type of a topic could become apparent for example when reporting orally on a manufacturing process. Third topic category, presented merely by Beebe and Beebe (2012:291), is speeches on people, which in practice implies that for example a business person may need to give a speech in which (s)he introduces a new team member. Fourthly, informative speeches can also discuss events (Lucas, 2009:305, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:291), such as upcoming company mergers. Lastly, informative speeches can simply involve presenting ideas, e.g. abstract information, principles, concepts and theories (Lucas, 2009:306-308, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:291). In the business context, this type of speeches can for instance deal with company policies and rules or theories used to make the company more functional and successful.

Due to this great variety of possible topics there surely is also a need for some sort of variation in terms of the delivery of informative speaking. Therefore, I will move on to discussing different types of informative speeches. First, I shall present a general classification by McKerrow et al. (2000:310-323, 2007:330-343) and then I will provide a more specified list, which concerns particularly the business context and its informative speaking formats (O'Hair et al., 2011:394-395).

First general type of informative speech is definitional speech (McKerrow et al., 2000:310, 2007:331), in which the speaker clearly and coherently presents the topic so that it is relevant to the audience. McKerrow et al. (2007:331-332) emphasize that, since the main idea is to provide understandable definitions of concepts and processes, it is of great importance to get the audience's attention and maintain it throughout the speech by constantly acknowledging their background knowledge. This way the audience will more likely be able to gain something from the presentation. The second type is instructional and demonstration speech (McKerrow, 2000:314-317, 2007:335-338). Instructional refers to a speech, which explains a complicated process and a demonstration speech additionally provides a concrete illustration of a process meaning that the speaker may actually show how something is done or how something functions. Oral briefing is the third type of informative speaking and in simple terms it means that a speaker assembles, arranges and interprets information (McKerrow et al., 2000:317, 2007:338). Especially characteristic to this type of informative speaking is the fact that oral briefings are usually requested by someone and thus the speaker must tailor his/her message according to the purposes of the individual/group in need of the oral briefing (McKerrow et al., 2000:317, 2007:338). In addition to a more general one, oral briefings can be for example technical, factual or even advisory, which means that the speaker also provides some further recommendations on the issue being presented (McKerrow et al. 2000:317, 2007:338). The last type of informative speaking, i.e. explanatory speech, has a great deal in common with the aforementioned definitional speeches (McKerrow et al., 2000:320, 2007:341). However, in contrast to definitional speeches, which focus first and foremost on clear definitions of terms and concepts, explanatory speeches aim at connecting those separate terms and concepts in order to create a clear entirety.

As already mentioned above, O'Hair et al. (2011:394-395) shed light on the different types of informative speeches in the business context, as they present four typical formats of this kind of speaking. First, they also mention oral briefings, which were already discussed in the previous paragraph. Secondly, they bring up oral reports, which consist of a brief review of the status quo. In the business context, training presentations are also a rather common format of informative speaking (O'Hair et al., 2011:395). Their purpose is to simply improve the listeners' skills by giving them background information and guiding principles and above all a chance to rehearse the skills in practice. Thus, one could state that this third type relates directly to a great extent to staff training, which is surely needed in the constantly changing business world. The last format of informative speaking within this particular context is informative speeches given at regular meetings, e.g. weekly and monthly meetings (O'Hair et al., 2011:395). These speeches can include information that needs to be passed on in the company or new goals that need to be achieved.

3.2.2.2 Persuasive speaking

Persuasive speeches share many unifying factors with informative speeches but there is especially one aspect that profoundly separates them form one another. As their names rather directly imply, persuasive speaking aims at "creating, reinforcing, or changing people's beliefs or actions" (Lucas, 2009:324), whereas informative speeches merely try to inform people (McKerrow, 2007:353-354, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:314). It goes without saying that persuasive speeches are extremely prevalent in the competitive business context, in which companies profit financially when they manage to get clients and customers to think and act so that it benefits the company. Therefore, it indeed makes sense that even though informative speeches play an integral role in the business world, persuasive presentations are even more commonly used (O'Hair et al., 2011:409). An excellent example of persuasion in the business world is of course marketing and advertising. For example an average American has seen approximately 1 million television commercials by the age of 20, an average of 150 commercials per day (Lucas, 2009:324).

Undisputedly, in order to function, this type of industry requires a whole human machinery of persuasion; for example advertisers, salespeople and interest groups all form a major network, which aims at persuading their audiences, i.e. the consumers. Naturally the aforementioned actors need to also make use of persuasion among themselves before even connecting with the consumers, since in the process they need to promote for example their own ideas, strategies and procedures.

Part of this persuasive communication occurs in the format of public speaking and thus it is important to examine persuasive public speaking in more detail. I shall first present the four functions of persuasive speeches. First of these four functions is reinforcement (O'Hair et al., 2011:410-412). Reinforcement simply refers to consolidating the listeners' beliefs, attitudes, values and behavior (O'Hair et al., 2011:410-412, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:314-316). Refutation, i.e. the second type of persuasion, on the other hand aims at eliminating the audience's views on some issue (O'Hair et al., 2011:412). In persuasive speaking this is done for instance by the means of arguing against the audience's current opinion, clarifying their thinking with new arguments and/or posing a different interpretation of the issue on them (O'Hair et al., 2011:412). Thirdly, persuasive speeches can function as a tool to change the audience's opinions (McKerrow, 2007:370-371, O'Hair et al., 2011:413). The key idea is that speaker makes an attempt to redirect the audience's line of thinking. In practice this is done by first pointing out the status quo and then presenting what is wrong with it and how it could be improved. Logically, the fourth and thus last function of persuasion in public speaking is to get the audience members to actually act on the advice or directions voiced by the speaker (McKerrow, 2007:371-372, O'Hair et al., 2011:414). Again, the speaker first remarks the shortcomings and problems of the prevailing situation and points out the course of action that would improve the circumstances.

To bring this format closer to the context of the present material package, i.e. business world, I will consult O'Hair et al. (2011:415-418) and their ideas of the actual occasions in which business people will need to deliver persuasive speeches. First of all, sales presentations are naturally one occasion, since according to O'Hair et al. (2011:415) selling products, services and ideas occupy a great deal of time in the business world. Sales presentations can be given in one-on-one selling situations or in more formal settings, in which the speaker has to stand up in front of an audience and give a presentation using visual aids (O'Hair et al., 2011:415-416). O'Hair et al. (2011:416) emphasize that in order to succeed, the speaker must make use of the above discussed four functions of persuasive speaking, i.e. reinforcement, refutation, changing opinion and calling for action. In case the speaker fails to achieve the goals related to these four functions, (s)he may in worst case scenario lose a contract or a client, which of course equals financial losses. Secondly, persuasiveness comes apparent in proposals done in the business world (O'Hair et al., 2011:416). According to O'Hair et al. (2011:416), presenting proposals is an essential part of business life, as people working in the context need to make proposals on a variety of issues. Proposing plans, budgets, schedules and methods is all part of business communication (O'Hair et al., 2011:417). Thirdly, persuasiveness is present in motivational sessions held in companies and organizations (O'Hair et al., 2011:418). Motivational sessions in the business context include speeches which for example aim at changing people's attitudes and habits in order to become better in their work. Last but not least, are persuasive speeches and presentations given in crisis situations, for example "corporate takeovers, consolidation of large industries, downsizing of companies, scandals in management and erroneous administrative decisions" (O'Hair et al.,2011:418). In the aforementioned situations, employees in particular may benefit from persuasive presentations, which help them to deal with the changes taking place at their workplace.

3.2.2.3 Special occasion speaking

The third type of public speaking is speeches given at special occasions. In addition to all the above mentioned more professional business settings it is worthy of pointing out that this particular context also includes more sociable situations, e.g. business dinners, office parties and courtesy visits of associates and clients, in which business people may be required to deliver speeches.

Hence, it is of great importance to involve special occasion speeches in the present thesis as well. Special occasion speeches may also involve some sort of informing and persuading but these are rarely their primary purpose (Lucas, 2009:382). Special occasion speeches often aim at fulfilling certain special needs set by some special occasion. Therefore, in order to elaborate on this type of public speaking, it is of great value to present some of these special occasions. However, due to the great variety of occasions and the limited scope of this thesis, I will merely focus on occasions that are relevant from the viewpoint of this material package's context, i.e. business world.
Based on public speaking (McKerrow et al. 2007, Lucas, 2009, Beebe and Beebe, 2012) and business communication scholars' (O'Hair et al., 2011) views on special occasions, I have compiled a list of occasions that this material package's target group will most likely encounter sometime during their careers. This summarized list consists of 4 types of special occasions:

1) Speech of introduction
2) Goodwill speeches
3) Speeches related to celebrations, tributes and awards
4) Farewells and retirement speeches

Speech of introduction refers to occasions when a person must introduce another person, such as a new employee, team member or a guest of honor, prior to that person's own speech (O'Hair et al., 2011:428). According to Lucas (2009:382), this type of speeches, if delivered successfully, will accomplish three purposes. First of all, a speech of introduction should "build enthusiasm for the upcoming speaker" (Lucas, 2009:382), i.e. its main purpose is to make the speaker feel welcome (O'Hair et al., 2011:428). Secondly, the introductory speech must aim at building the audience's anticipation about the topic and evoke their interest (Lucas, 2009:382). Thirdly, the person giving the introduction should furthermore strive for establishing credibility of the upcoming speaker and thus make the audience appreciate what they are about to hear (Lucas, 2009:382, O'Hair et al., 2011:428). In addition to these three guidelines, it is essential that the speaker is brief and precise (Lucas, 2009:382, O'Hair et al., 2011:428), since the main focus should be on the upcoming speech. Relating to this, the speaker should also bear in mind that the focus of this speech is on the person being introduced, not on the person giving the introduction (O'Hair et al., 2011:428).

Secondly, since many companies and organizations support for example certain ideas, values, activities, products and services (McKerrow et al., 2007:431, O'Hair et al., 2011: 429), they may also need to promote them publicly for instance by giving a special occasion speech in their honor. This type of public speaking, often present for example in luncheons and dinners, is referred to as goodwill speeches (McKerrow et al., 2007:431, O'Hair et al., 2011: 429). The key idea of goodwill speeches is to merely show appreciation and support in a positive spirit for the cause advocated by one's workplace.

Positivity is strongly present also in the third type of special occasion speeches, namely in speeches that relate to celebration, tributes nominations and awards. In the competitive business world, it is essential that both company and individual successes are acknowledged properly, since according to O'Hair et al. (2011:430) this often adds up to success also in the future. This type of special occasion speeches can celebrate success in general, function as a special tribute to a successful employee/team, nominate employees for offices and positions or acknowledge someone's achievements for example in the form of presenting an award to someone (Lucas, 2009:385, O'Hair et al., 2011:428, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:379). No matter what the festive occasion is, the speaker must be able to give a brief speech, which again focuses on the person(s) being celebrated and the achievements in question.

Since recognition, nominations and even awards are given in the business world, then some people are surely also receiving them and thus at this point it is important to also briefly address the issue of acceptance speeches. To put it simply, acceptance speeches "thank for an award, nomination, or other honor" (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:380). Beebe and Beebe (2012:380-381) also remark that acceptance speeches tend to have a rather bad reputation due to a variety of lengthy, overly emotional and boring speeches given throughout the history and thus it is particularly of great value to stick to strict timeframe. Instead of sharing one's whole life story, the speaker should merely first thank the people giving the recognition, nomination or award and then acknowledge the people who have helped him/her to gain it (Lucas, 2009:386). What can be characteristic to acceptance speeches is the fact that they are often impromptu speeches, since the people being celebrated, nominated or awarded may not know about it in advance (O'Hair et al., 2011:429, Beebe and Beebe, 2012:381). Therefore, acceptance speeches may indeed require an ability to think on one's feet and still manage to give a brief but nevertheless memorable speech.

Farewells and retirement speeches represent the last type of special occasion speeches that an employee hears at the workplace whether (s)he is to just leaving that workplace or permanently retreating from the working life. Therefore, farewells and retirement speeches are also the last speeches to be examined in this thesis. According to O'Hair et al. (2011:430), a person delivering a farewell/retirement speech should to a great extent rely on the same principles that guide the previous types of speeches. In other words, pithiness, positive tone and respect are the key elements (O'Hair et al.,2011:430) and the speech's focus should above all be on the person leaving and his/her career in the company or organization.

In addition to mastering the extremely important art of public speaking, one must be able to engage in other type of interaction as well if striving for becoming a fully competent businessperson in the modern international business world. This is due to the fact that public speaking is by no means the only format of speaking occurring for example in business meetings, negotiations, dinners and parties. As remarked by Kankaanranta and Planken (2010:395) in Chapter 2.2 in these situations public speaking is often accompanied by small talk. Therefore, in order to provide the business students working with these materials the best possible training, the issue of small talk will be discussed in the following chapter.

3.2.2.4 Small talk

In general, small talk has conventionally been regarded as a superficial mode of talk and thus it has often been overshadowed by 'real' and 'useful' talk (Coupland, 2003:1-2). This type of rationale has then often led to sociability being regarded as a trivial matter in such 'serious' and 'matter-of-fact' fields as the business world. However, not everyone agrees with this argument and as a counter argument small talk is declared to have a very special place also in the business context (Moutoux and Porte, 1980:3-4, Reinsch and Shelby, 1996:49, Marx, 1999:72-75, Chaney and Martin, 2011:100, O'Hair et al., 2011:183).

First of all, small talk functions as an integral means of socializing, i.e. it helps people to exchange information about themselves; their thoughts, feelings, and opinions and thus creates interpersonal relationships at the workplace (Reinsch and Shelby, 1996:49, O'Hair et al., 2011:183). Secondly, not only is small talk important in terms of social rapport but also from the point of view of organizational goals. In their study of over 40 supervisors working in a large industrial plant, Moutoux and Porte (1980:7) learned that small talk enhanced employees' production, as it improved their attitudes towards their work as well as increased their morale. According to the supervisors surveyed, this is due to the fact that small talk opens communication channels among the workforce and consequently the underlying problems can better be solved (Moutoux and Porte, 1980:9). All in all, small talk enhances the overall climate in the workplace from two relevant viewpoints (Moutoux and Porte, 1980:3—4).

There is also a strong agreement of small talk being particularly important in intercultural dealings. According to Pullin (2010:456), today's multicultural and multilingual business world requires trust building and common ground in order to hold the multifaceted and at times complex work communities together. One means for enhancing this process is informal communication, in other words small talk, as Pullin (2010:456—457) describes it is an excellent way of nurturing relationships and the sense of community at the workplace. This line of thinking is additionally supported by Marx (1999:43), Varner and Beamer (2005:284) and Kankaanranta and Planken (2010:395—396).

Hall's (1989) well-known theory of high-context (HC) and low-context (LC) cultures sets national cultures on a continuum based on their communication practices. According to Hall (1989), HC cultures rely more on the context which means that very little is communicated explicitly, whereas LC communication is just the opposite, as its representatives use more direct and explicit language (Hall, 1989:91). Another common disjunctive feature separating these two extremes is the use and tolerance of silence (Varner and Beamer, 2005:201-202, 287). Varner and Beamer (2005) examined the role of silence in business encounters and above all the differences between low-context and high-context cultures. According to them, high-context cultures are far more comfortable with silence in comparison to low-context cultures, which interpret silence as an "absence of communication" (Varner and Beamer, 2005:201).

Finland is generally often regarded as more of a HC culture and this indeed seems to be true if the Finns' attitude towards silence is taken into consideration. For Finns silence is a 'natural way of being' (Carbaugh, 2009:43) and, as Lehtonen and Sajavaara (1985:199) point out, Finns tolerate silence far more than for example Americans and people from Central Europe. In addition, Finns are also thought to avoid unnecessary small talk. First of all, this is likely due to Finns not needing to talk for the sake of talking, as they tolerate silence (Lehtonen and Sajavaara, 1985:199). Secondly, Wilkins (2009:64) reports that the Finnish speech culture highly values "sticking to the point" and "speaking to the matter of the fact" and thus regards for example the American and British small talk as "pretentious" and "superficial" (Wilkins, 2009:64).

Albeit the fact that there seems to be an unison among scholars, the Finnish speech culture, nor any other national culture, is in reality as clear-cut and simple as portrayed here. For example, Hall (1989) presents rather stereotypical images of national cultures and his theory nor any other oversimplification of a culture should be regarded as the absolute truth. However, Carbaugh (2009:58) points out, that the above presented arguments can still be taken into account as properties of the Finnish culture which then contribute to the prevailing communication atmosphere among Finnish people. In this case, the Finnish speech culture indeed seems to correspond with the rather negative notion many foreigners have of Finns (Lehtonen and Sajavaara, 1985:194-196) and as Kankaanranta and Planken (2010:395) point out, in order to get the job done in BELF contexts, one must also master the art of small talk. Therefore I will move on to discussing when and how one should engage in small talk in the business context.

In the business world small talk is used in two major contexts. First of all, small talk is often used in business meetings and negotiations and especially at the initial stage, which according to Varner and Beamer (2005:288) includes developing relationship with the other side. They state that this stage is universal but the emphasis and time spent on it vary according to the culture. As an example of this, Varner and Beamer (2005:288) remark, that Chinese business people tend to focus on this particular step whereas their Canadian counterparts would prefer to get faster to the actual topic. Secondly, small talk is also strongly present outside the conference room, i.e. in more informal business settings, as Varner and Beamer (2005:224,235) remark that business relationships, particularly international relationships, tend to be a mixture of work and social settings. Reinsch and Shelby (1996:49) concur by stating that business people are indeed required to interact with associates and customers also in social events.

Consequently, there are a number of occasions when business people need to participate in small talk and thus the remaining question is what to talk about and what not to talk about. In order to map out some of the appropriate and inappropriate small talk topics, I will use Table 2 by Chaney and Martin (2011:100-101).

Table 2. Appropriate and Inappropriate Conversation Topics by Country (Chaney and Martin, 2011:100—101).

Country	Appropriate Topics	Topics to Avoid
Austria	Professions, cars, skiing, music	Money, Religion, Divorce/Separation
France	Music, books, sports, theatre	Prices of items, person's work, income, age
Germany	Travel abroad, politics, hobbies, soccer	World War II, personal life
Great Britain	History, architecture, gardening	Politics, money/prices, Falklands War
Japan	History, culture, art	World War II
Mexico	Family, social concerns	Politics, debt/inflation problems, border violations
Saudi Arabia	Soccer, travel abroad	Personal family matters, politics
South Africa	Weather, beauty of the country, occupation	Personal questions, political situation, ethnic differences
The United States	Weather, recreational interests, one's job, news items	Religion, politics

Even though this figure merely presents topics from nine different countries it still has the ability to teach some lessons. First of all, it outlines a variety of topics that can be used in small talk and above all topics that should preferably be avoided. Secondly, it points out the interesting fact that one indeed needs to be aware of each culture's conversation taboos (Chaney and Martin, 2011:100-101), as they vary from culture to culture. For example, as can be seen in Table 2, politics can be an appropriate small talk topic in German but a conversation taboo in many other countries, e.g. Great Britain and Saudi Arabia. Due to this great variation between countries and of course different individuals, this type of figures can only be used as guidelines. However, Chaney and Martin (2011:101) provide another means for finding appropriate conversation topics and avoiding inappropriate ones. According to them, a good rule of thumb is to take cues from the other person and let the other person initiate the discussion, especially in case culture-sensitive issues are being discussed. They also recommend listening carefully and above all being aware of current events and thus having the ability to engage in conversations about a variety of topics.

In the present material package, small talk is taken into account in the following ways. First of all, the students are encouraged to talk at all stages of the learning process, as all tasks require them to use their oral skills. As a result, they will be better prepared to use English also outside the classroom. Secondly, small talk is incorporated in the present material package in the form of warm-up tasks, i.e. pre-tasks, which will require the students to engage in small talk with their peers. The students will be asked to bring in topics from the real world, i.e. they will be required to search for topics in a variety of media. This way they will gain a wide perspective on topics, as advised by Chaney and Martin (2011:101). Furthermore they will have to evaluate different topics' appropriateness in different cultural contexts. To sum up, the material aims at giving the students the needed confidence and eagerness to engage in small in English as well as a chance to get acquainted with a variety of suitable topics.

4 The guiding teaching philosophies and principles

In the previous chapters I have discussed the context which the present material is based on and what exactly will be dealt in it. Therefore, it is time to examine *how* all this comes together in the present material package. In the following chapter, i.e. Chapter 4.1, I will introduce the guiding teaching philosophies and principles of this package, i.e. communicative approaches to language teaching and task-based language teaching in particular. Then I will move on to explicating the teaching of speaking and public speaking in particular. Lastly I shall conclude with a discussion of public speaking anxiety and methods for coping with it. Even though this topic as such is not a teaching philosophy, it is nevertheless an essential component in terms of the material.

4.1 Communicative approaches to foreign language teaching: The roots and definition

As became apparent in Chapter 2, which discussed the requirements for people working in the modern international business world, there is a definite need to develop their communicative skills, especially oral skills, in the English language instead of merely focusing on separate linguistic forms. In fact, in Finland, there has even been a change from *English for Business purposes* to *English for Communication in Business* (Louhiala-Salminen, 1999:24). Therefore this material package as well is based on communicative approaches to language teaching. However, before moving on to actually discussing how these approaches become apparent in this particular material package, it is worth paying attention to the roots of these approaches and discovering what they mean in theory and in practice.

Bygate (2009:401) and Shastri (2010:33–35) both provide us with brief overviews of the history of language teaching and thus help us to view the communicative approaches in relation to other teaching approaches and thus put them in a wider perspective. Bygate (2009:401) and Shastri (2010:33–35) both view communicative approaches as a sort of product of the same developmental continuum. This continuum originally started from the persistent grammar-translation approach, which focused merely on grammar rules, vocabulary items and translation of sentences. According to Shastri (2010:33), reading and writing were viewed as the most essential skills and oral practice was nearly completely ignored. Bygate (2009:401) however points out that speaking was included in the teaching but merely via studying L1 and L2 texts and sentences. Nevertheless, authentic and communicative oral communication was left aside.

As a reaction to this overly writing and reading centered approach a new approach appeared, i.e. the audio-lingual tradition, and now speech was put in the main focus of language teaching (Bygate, 2009:401). This approach involved certain pedagogical techniques, such as imitation and correction in order to achieve the automation of language processing. These techniques are not necessarily 'bad' or 'wrong' in themselves but Bygate (2009:401) points out that in the audio-lingual tradition these methods and all in all speaking was often exploited "to enable immediate learner response, instant correction and rapid repetition." Thus once again, even though speaking in foreign language was finally taken into account, real communicative use and development of students' oral skills was ignored.

Although the audio-lingual tradition had a rather behavioristic standpoint to language learning and thus differed greatly from the communicative approaches, the audio-lingual tradition nevertheless had an important impact on the development of the communicative approaches. Bygate (2009:401) states that the fact that in face-to-face interaction speaking is used, led to speaking becoming to a great extent the main embodiment first of 'functional' approaches to language teaching and simultaneously to a great extent of communicative language teaching (CLT). If Bygate's (2009) views are taken into consideration, one could thus state that the audio-lingual tradition created the foundation for the communicative approaches.

However, there are also some slightly different viewpoints of the relationship between these approaches, since according to Johnson (1982:1), the communicative approaches rose from the discontent of teachers and applied linguists. They were not satisfied with form-focused teaching, which mainly emphasized accuracy and correctness. According to Willis and Willis (2001:174), CLT originally derived from the urge to move away from the overly form-based approaches and to take learners' needs into account and thus make language learning truly relevant to them. Carter and Nunan (2001:2) add that English was no longer merely viewed as system but first and foremost as a tool for communication. Thus, from Johnson's (1982), Willis and Willis's (2001) and Carter and Nunan's (2001) viewpoints, it could be interpreted that the communicative approaches were a sort of counteraction to audio-lingual tradition.

Whether the communicative approaches were affected by their predecessor in a positive or a negative way, they nevertheless developed and started to have their own impact on the field of foreign language teaching. The fact that CLT started to acknowledge additional competencies essential in communicating through speech and thus changed the emphasis from almost exclusive attention to grammatical competence, had a significant effect. Relating to this Bygate (2009: 419–420) adds that "the most outstanding by-product of CLT has been a change in the 'object' that is taught and learnt".

According to Shastri (2010:34–35), in the late 1970s the communicative approaches gained stature, as their leading ideas, i.e. for example skill-based learning and valuing fluency over accuracy, became popular. Shastri (2010:34–35) concludes by stating that the communicative approaches have continued on their successful path, especially in the field of one of the offshoots, English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

The core idea of ESP is to fulfill the specific needs of the learners by making use of the underlying methodology and activities essential to the discipline in question. Thus, it is no wonder that the communicative approaches have been favored by the teachers of ESP, as they also aim at achieving goals set by particular communicative contexts. As can be seen in Figure 5 (Huhta, 2010:16, originally presented by Dudley-Evans & St. John, 2002:6) English for Business is part of ESP as it can be found under the title of English for Occupational Purposes and in particular as a subcategory of English for Professional Purposes.

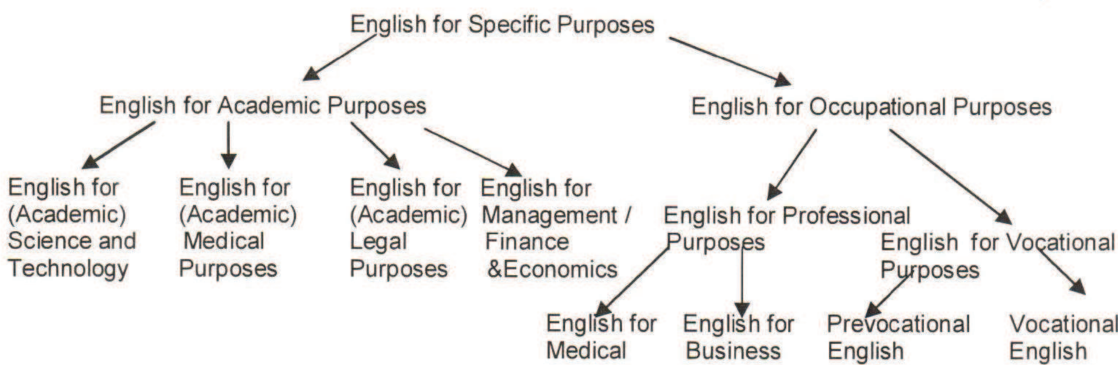


Figure 5. ESP classification by professional area (Huhta, 2010:16, originally presented by Dudley-Evans & St. John, 2002:6)

Since English for Business is so clearly part of ESP and due to the fact that communicative language teaching has been successful in the field of ESP it is only logical that this material package, which is designed for business students learning English with specific needs and a particular context in mind, is also based on the communicative approaches to language teaching and learning. It is, however, worth remarking here that the concept of ESP will not be presented in more detail in the present master's thesis due to its limited scope. Thus in this case it is adequate to merely state that the present material package belongs to the area of ESP teaching, since it addresses one of its main domains, i.e. English for Business.

Having established the roots of the communicative approaches and their relevance to the teaching of business communication in particular, it is time to examine what these approaches in fact entail and I will start by discussing the meanings that the words communicative and approaches bear in terms of language teaching. The term communicative refers primarily to the idea of preparing the students to communicate (Littlewood, 1983:1). Littlewood

(1983:1) points out that this makes the communicative approaches rather unique in the sense that they are the first approaches to not to be labeled according to the teaching methodology but rather according to the outcome of the teaching, i.e. what the students are able to do with the language. In addition to this, the communicative approaches differ from many other approaches, since there is "no single, fully worked-out teaching system" nor "a comparable set of techniques" that could be identified as communicative method (Littlewood, 1983:1). Thus the term communicative can be used to refer to any teaching methodology that has students' communicative ability as its main goal. This, therefore, additionally explains the discussion of "a family of approaches" (Nunan, 2004:7) instead of merely one approach.

According to Cook (2001:212–223), there are at least three variants of the communicative style, namely, social communicative, information communicative and task-based learning. Social communicative style simply puts an emphasis on the social purpose of communication and an example of this is for example small talk, which was discussed in Chapter 3.3 of this thesis. The information communicative style mainly focuses on the information that is transferred via the communication, whereas the latter of the three styles, i.e. task-based learning style puts tasks at the core of language teaching. Due to this reason, task-based learning is chosen as the guiding approach of the present material package. As Kankaanranta and Planken (2010:380) pointed out, the primary goal of BELF communication is to "get the job done" and there surely is no better way to achieve this than actually training students to master the communicative tasks they will encounter in BELF contexts. Therefore, task-based learning deserves to be discussed in more detail and this will be done in Chapters 4.1.2 and 4.1.3.

4.1.1 The key guidelines of communicative language teaching

Having established the basis for the communicative approaches it is rather evident that from the point of view of teaching, the communicative approaches pose two rather contradicting perspectives. On one hand, the communicative approaches provide teachers with a liberation, since the teachers' hands are not tied to any specific methodology and thus it is up to them to decide how they will enhance their students' communicative competence. On the other hand, it might be challenging for teachers to get a hold of the communicative approaches due to the lack of a clear methodology and of course this requires the teachers to take more responsibility (Littlewood, 1983:16). However, since the communicative approaches have been of special interest of many scholars ever since the 1970s, there is a great deal of different guidelines available for the communicative teaching. Furthermore, these guidelines correspond to a great extent with the guidelines of teaching of speaking (Chapter 4.2) and this of course reinforces the idea of communicative approaches in particular serving the needs of the present material package.

In the following I will firstly present some key ideas in the format of a list. This will be followed by a more profound discussion of them in general and additionally from the point of view of the present material package, i.e. how the guidelines become apparent in these particular tasks and activities.

1) The scope of teaching in general and in terms of specific contexts
2) Authenticity
3) Organizing teaching: The skill-learning model
4) Role of the teacher and the students
5) Role of feedback and assessment

First I will examine the scope of teaching when it comes to the communicative approaches. Littlewood (1983:1) and Yalden (1987:134) both introduce an essential viewpoint to the communicative language teaching, namely that it should not only be language teaching but additionally communication teaching. Yalden (1987:134) in particular provides us with an interesting insight by stating that in communicative language teaching "we are not teaching language through communication but we are teaching communication through language." Associated to this idea, Widdowson (1981:118) states that mastering syntax is only part of language skills. Mastering grammar and other structural and organizational aspects has very little value on its own when it comes to real-life communication. Widdowson (1981:119) continues by remarking that knowledge of how sentences are used in reality does not automatically occur when one masters how sentences are composed.

Furthermore, as Thornbury (2005:79) point out, there is no point in allowing students to work endlessly on structural aspects, since this does not "push to chunk these rules to cope with the demands of real-time processing." Brown (1994:245) highlights the importance of the concentration on pragmatic aspects of language and points out that, organizational aspects ought to merely assist the authentic and functional language use. In practice this means that the foreign language functions as a tool in the process of learning about communication and attaining communicative skills.

Littlewood (1983:5), however, finds it to be insufficient to merely assign the role of a 'tool' to the foreign language being taught and therefore it is necessary to define its role in more detail. Littlewood (1983:5) states that foreign language teaching becomes genuinely communicative when both the structural/organizational and functional aspects of language are taken into account and integrated. Thus, one could sum up that language is not only viewed as a set of grammatical practices and separate phonological sounds nor is it used in completely random ways. In order to be able to communicate in a foreign language, one must possess both structural and functional information of the language.

In the present material package these general guidelines for the scope of teaching become apparent in the following ways: first of all, this material package indeed focuses on teaching communication, since it is mainly based on theories and practical guidelines adopted from the field of communication and speech communication in particular. Secondly, this material package is in line with for example the Common European Framework (CEFR), as it also has the functional aspects of language use, i.e. communicative competence, as its main focus. This is due to the rather high proficiency level of its target group, as it can be expected that they already master the structures of the English language and this material package can then aim at increasing their proficiency in terms of how to actually use those structures.

In addition to merely mapping out the scope of communicative approaches in general, Yalden (1987:86–87) suggests examining the following aspects before putting together a communicative syllabus. The teacher must have a clear idea of the "*purposes* for which the learners wish to acquire the target language", the *setting* and *communicative events* in which they will want to use the target language as well as the *roles* they will be given in those contexts. Furthermore, the teacher should be aware of the *language functions* and *notions*, i.e. what the students ought to be capable of talking about in the foreign language. Consequently, the bottom line in terms of Yalden's idea is that not only is it important that the teacher acknowledges the general scope of communicative language teaching but (s)he should also understand the scope of the specific needs and requirements of the students in question. In other words, it is worth bearing in mind that even if the general scope applies to a variety of communicative language classes and courses, issues presented in Yalden's (1987:86–87) specifications may vary according to the groups and even individual students.

Due to the enormous variety of students' needs and requirements solely in the field of business, the present material package is merely able to adhere to an extent to the more specific guidelines presented above. Thus, the material package has a very broad prospective on BELF and therefore, if the group consists of for example accountancy, marketing and leadership students, it is up to the teacher in question to decide whether to make use of the materials as such or tailor the course according to the different majors. However, even if this material package does not include tasks and activities designed specifically for different business majors, it does assist the teacher in terms of tailoring the course if necessary. The package includes a needs analysis form, which the teacher can use in order to map out the specific needs and requirements of students. Then with the help of the results gained from the needs analysis, the teacher can choose between different tasks and activities according to what ought to be emphasized and rehearsed.

The second guideline listed above, i.e. authenticity, derives to some extent from the first guideline. If the emphasis is put on communication and the main goal is to prepare the students for real-life communicative situations then what would be a more appropriate and efficient means for achieving this goal than actually exposing students to as authentic communicative tasks and activities as possible. This line of thinking is reinforced by Edelhoff (1981:51), Piepho (1981:21), Littlewood (1983:5–6), Widdowson (1987:119), Brown (2007:46) and Stearns (2009:51) who all remark that the students must be provided with opportunities to rehearse communication which resembles the real-life context they are bound to encounter. In addition to this, the scholars mentioned above present some valid specifications to this guideline. First of all, Stearns (2009:51) brings up a very important aspect, without which all the other guidelines are in a sense more or less useless. Stearns advises to promote the students' genuine willingness to use the foreign language, since if the students lack motivation and courage to use the language there is little point in merely overwhelming them with information and tasks. However, when it comes to the tasks and activities, Littlewood (1983:5–6) and Brown (2007:46) highlight the fact that the classroom communication must consist of real-time immediate responses and interpretations, since that is what the students must master outside the classroom. In addition to this, Edelhoff (1981:51) and Piepho (1981:21) call for the usage of authentic materials and in particular a variety of media to learn from real-life examples of communication, since this enables giving first priority to contents and themes that the students must master in real-life situations.

In the present material package authenticity is also taken into consideration from Edelhoff's (1981:51), Piepho's (1981:21), Littlewood's (1983:5–6) and Brown's (2007:46) viewpoints. Firstly, the majority of the tasks and assignments are directly based on actual real-life tasks and assignments that are visible in the modern international business world and thus the present material package brings authentic communication situations to the classroom. Secondly, the majority of the materials, for instance texts, cases, sample speeches and presentations, are taken from the real-life business world and thus they also support the authentic nature of the communicative teaching. Finally, to review back to Stearns' (2009:51) guideline for promoting students' willingness to use the foreign language, the present material package provides classrooms with authentic and thus inspiring materials and tasks. Furthermore, in addition to authenticity and inspiration, the present material package also makes a concrete effort to increase the students' confidence by addressing the topic of public speaking anxiety and incorporating theory and guidelines into the practical tasks.

Thirdly, I will move on to discussing how the above mentioned tasks and materials ought to be put into use, i.e. how to exactly organize communicative language teaching lessons. Littlewood (1983:7) introduces a 'skill-learning model', which views foreign language use as a performance skill. This model proposes that there are two types of practice that help the students to attain fluent performance. First of the two is *part-skill training*, "in which the total skill is divided into separate components" and thus they can be viewed separate from the total skill. In the classroom this could for example be used when rehearsing individual sounds, structures and vocabulary. The second means of training is *whole-task practice,* which naturally then integrates for example the separate skills mentioned above and thus requires the students to perform a total skill. The key idea here is that the whole-task practice involves expressing and interpreting real meanings instead of merely mechanic rehearsal of separate linguistic items.

Both part-skill training and whole-task practice are relevant for the development of communicative language use, and thus Littlewood (1983:7) advices incorporating them both into foreign language lessons. According to him, part-skill training is at its best when used as 'pre-communicative' activity. This way it prepares the students for actual communication, which in return is then rehearsed with the help of whole-task practice or in other words 'communicative activity'.

In the present material package, which has oral presentations and public speaking as its main focus, part-skill training and whole-task practice become apparent for example in the following ways. Tasks and activities which follow more or less the pattern used in part-skill training include for example working with field-specific vocabulary, learning about the structure of oral presentations and confidence-boosting warm-up tasks. These elements are then combined in the form of a variety of presentations and speeches and thus they can be viewed as whole-task practices and communicative activities.

When discussing the communicative language lessons in practice, the role of the teacher or the role of the students cannot be ignored and therefore this issue is the fourth guideline to be discussed in more detail. First of all, there is one word that is constantly connected to the teacher in the communicative approaches, namely 'facilitator'. Scholars such as, Littlewood (1983:16), Cook (2001:224), Brown (2007:46) and Byram and Mendez-Garcia (2009:501) are all in favor of the teacher adopting a role of a facilitator instead of being an instructor in the traditional sense. This type of teaching involves, for instance "organizing rather than directly teaching; initiating and stepping away from the centre of the stage and resisting the urge to interrupt when this would interfere with an activity" (Littlewood, 1983:16). He also strongly encourages the teachers to allow their students the freedom of interaction even at the risk of a possible chaos in the classroom. In relation to this Cook (2001:224) proposes that communicative language teachers would adopt even a 'laissez-faire' attitude toward teaching. Some might find this a rather extreme viewpoint to teaching, however, Cook is by no means advising the teachers to forget their responsibilities as a teacher but the reasoning behind this idea rather suggests simply allowing more room for the students, i.e. the ones in need of practice.

This then raises a question of the exact role of the students in communicative language teaching but again there is conveniently a strong agreement of the ideal among the scholars. Byram and Mendez-Garcia (2009:501) set a clear tone by posing the responsibility of learning ultimately on the students themselves and according to them this requires intense involvement and active participation. Brown (2007:46) and Shastri (2010:73) concur, as they both are in favor of student-centered activities, as Brown recommends learner-centered, co-operative and collaborative learning and Shastri is an advocate of pair and group work. All these methods have one essential thing in common; they allow students to use the foreign language and engage in interaction with each other. Allen and Widdowson (1981:122), Cook (2001:224) and Brown (2007:46) and all regard this particularly as a major advantage of communicative language teaching and, as already mentioned, the students are indeed the ones in need of practice and opportunities to use the foreign language.

The present material package aims at profoundly taking the above discussed suggestions and advice into consideration. On one hand, the teacher is provided with materials that automatically put the students in the main focus and enhance their communicative skills. On the other hand, the material package includes tasks and assignments that enable the students to take responsibility of their own learning and in addition encourages them to speak out and interact.

Having established guidelines for the contents and methods as well as the roles of teacher and students, one practical area of language teaching is still left unaddressed, namely the role of feedback and assessment. To an extent, providing feedback and assessing students in communicative language teaching, differs from many other approaches. This becomes apparent for example in Littlewood's (1983:14), Brown's (1994:245) and Byram and Mendez-Garcia's (2009:502) discussion, as they point out that feedback should be given on fluency, comprehensibility, effort and above all the communicativeness of the students' language use. Furthermore, not only is the content of the feedback worth pondering on but also its timing. According to Littlewood (1983:14), feedback should not interfere with on-going classroom interaction and therefore he prefers providing feedback after the communicative activities. Thus, instead of correcting and commenting on students' grammatical errors and pronunciation issues while students are interacting, teachers ought to give delayed feedback and evaluate the effectiveness of students' utterances, i.e. whether or not they get their points across using the foreign language.

In relation to this, Littlewood (1983:14) notes that this type of feedback does not necessarily have to come solely from the teacher, as peer-feedback can also be a helpful source for learning. Thus the teachers are again encouraged to give more responsibility of the learning process to the students. In addition to this feedback can also possibly be built in the task itself meaning that in order to complete the task one must exchange information successfully (Littlewood: 1983:14).

Communicative language teaching also differs in terms of the tools used in the process of giving feedback and assessing students. In contrast to approaches which make use of traditional exams, communicative language teaching scholars, as for example Byram and Mendez-Garcia (2009:502) are in favor of testing tools, such as "essay writing, in-class presentations and learners' portfolios". Byram and Mendez-Garcia state that the afore mentioned tools have the potential to capture and reveal students' communicative competence, which of course ought to be the main interest of teachers adhering to the principles of communicative language teaching.

Due to the limited scope of the present thesis, the issues of feedback and assessment will not be discussed any further nor will the material package itself include materials for the teacher related to feedback or assessment. However, as emphasized in the discussion above, the students ought to be responsible for their and their peers' learning and thus the present material package does provide the students with aids to give peer feedback. This choice is based on two valid reasons. Firstly, the particular materials and their usage will help the students who receive feedback, as their strengths and weaknesses in terms of oral presentations and public speaking are then appointed to them. Secondly, the attention of the students giving the feedback is simultaneously drawn to essential aspects of these issues. Thus to sum up, peer feedback serves the needs of all students.

4.1.2 Task-based language teaching

In addition to examining different guidelines for communicative language teaching, which according to Nunan (2004:10) is a broad and philosophical approach to language teaching, one can also choose one particular approach in order to get more acquainted with an actual realization of CLT. For the purposes of this material package, task-based language teaching, in short TBLT, seems to be the best option, since as becomes apparent in Chapters 4.2

and 4.2.1 the teaching of speaking is best organized in terms of tasks (Folse, 2006:45, Thornbury, 2005:90—91). Therefore I will now discuss this approach in more detail.

As became apparent in Chapter 4.1 task-based language teaching is one of the main approaches of the communicative approaches. Therefore, as Willis and Willis (2001:174) confirm, TBLT derives from the general notions of communicative language teaching and thus the guidelines presented in Chapter 4.1.1 apply also to TBLT. However, due to the fact that TBLT has been of worldwide interest of a variety of second language acquisition researchers, curriculum developers, educationalists, teacher trainers and language teachers, it deserves to be examined also in its own right. I will start by setting this particular approach to the context of language teaching approaches in general and in relation to other communicative approaches. Then I will move on to defining what exactly is meant by TBLT and how tasks are defined within this approach. Lastly I will present some criticism that this particular approach has received and I will present some counter arguments in order to support this particular approach to language teaching.

Firstly, to establish the role of task-based language teaching in relation to other approaches I shall consult Willis and Willis (2001:173). According to them, the majority of language teaching approaches can be described as 'form-based', i.e. they focus first and foremost on presenting an inventory of forms which are then taught in series of discrete forms. Within this type of approaches lies an assumption that there is a direct link between 'input' and 'intake', that what is presented can be mastered directly and will, as a result of that mastery, become part of the learner's usable repertoire. However, Willis and Willis (2001:173) claim that this is not the case in reality and they base their statement on the findings of second language acquisition research. They for example refer to Corder's (1967) and Selinker's (1972) studies and state that according to research intake does not equal input. Furthermore, in order to create a solid basis for effective learning, the teaching must rely on natural developmental processes instead of merely focusing on what is learned consciously, as those language issues will not automatically transfer into students' real-life use of the foreign language (Willis and Willis, 2001:173).

In addition to TBLT's role in the larger scale, it also has its own place within the field of communicative approaches. According to Ellis (2003: 28–30), there are two versions of CLT, i.e. 'weak' and 'strong'. The weak version refers to communicative approaches, which assume that different components of communicative competence can be taught systematically once they are identified. Approaches of this kind rely on notions and functions. In contrast to this, the strong version is based on the idea of language being acquired through communication. This then of course requires that students are provided with opportunities to learn how language is used in actual communication. One means for providing these opportunities is to base the teaching on tasks and due to this, task-based language teaching is considered as a strong version of CLT. According to Ellis (2003:30), this is exactly one of the main appeals of TBLT. Ellis (2003:30) remarks that in contrast to strong versions of CLT, e.g. TBLT, many of the weak versions tend to promote communicative syllabus but fail to adhere to it in the methodological sense, i.e. in terms of real-life classroom procedures and activities.

It seems that the above mentioned form-based approaches tend to make some false assumptions of successful language teaching and the weak versions of CLT fail to bring genuine communication into the classrooms. Therefore, Willis and Willis (2001:173), Ellis (2003:210) and Van den Branden (2006:1) as well as a wide range of SLA researchers and educationalists present task-based language teaching as a counter-reaction to teacher-dominated and form-oriented language teaching and thus as an optional approach.

Willis and Willis (2001:173) define TBLT as an approach that puts an emphasis on communicative tasks carried out in the target language and genuine exchange of meanings in contrast to merely sequences of separate language forms. Ellis (2003:3), Nunan (2004:19) and Van den Branden (2006:1) in particular concur by stating that the bottom line of TBLT, is that students are given functional tasks that focus primarily on meaning exchange and on language use from the point of view of real-world purposes. Van den Branden (2006:3) additionally points out an essential element involved in TBLT, namely the fact that instead of formulating language learning goals in terms of certain vocabulary or grammar, the TBLT curriculum ought to be based on the real-life reasons why the students need to master the foreign language in question and above all on the actual tasks that they have to be able to perform. This of course raises the question of how to define a task.

Van den Branden (2006:3–4) provides us with an initial definition by stating that "a task is an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language". Nunan (2004:4) adds that the task must have an inherent element of completeness in it, i.e. it is a communicative act in its own right. Both Nunan's (2004:4) and Van den Branden's (2006:3–4) definitions are characterized to a great extent by the fact that using the foreign language is a means to an end. In other words, the tasks create a basis for actual interaction and thus students are able to reach their communicative goals (Van den Branden, 2006:4). Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:18) concur, as they emphasize that tasks ought to be first and foremost from the point of view of the learners' needs, i.e. why they must master the foreign language. Van Avermaet and Gysen (2006:18) suspect that the answer to the question of 'why' must people learn a foreign language will yield non-linguistic answers.

In line with Van Avermaet and Gysen's (2006:18) suspicion is Van den Branden's (2006:4) notion of the general focus of task-based syllabuses. Van den Branden (2006:4) claims that language should not be split into small pieces, but teachers should rather provide students with a holistic view of language and have them work on functional and communicative tasks, rather than any specific linguistic item. Van den Branden (2006:6) makes an interesting point by stating that "people not only learn language *in order to* make functional use of it, but also *by* making functional use of it". However, Ellis (2003:3–5) points out that even though students working on a task have communication and thus functional aspects of language in their main focus, it is still allowed that they temporarily function as language learners when they need to decide what forms to use. Thus there is no clear line between a student being a language user or language learner but it is rather a variable and probabilistic issue (Ellis, 2003:5).

Willis and Willis (2001:173) and Pica (2008:527) contribute to this discussion by drawing attention to the outcomes of the tasks described above. They highlight that language use in communicative tasks aims at achieving concrete goals and thus completing the tasks. In relation to this, Nunan (2004:44) highlights that the outcomes must above all be observable. Willis and Willis (2001:73) and Pica (2008:527) list a series of possible outcomes of a communicative task, among which are for example the exchange of information or instructions, problem solving, decision making and lastly entertainment. However, Pica's (2008:527) and Willis and Willis's (2001:173) opinions differ to an extent in terms of more form-focused language issues. According to Pica, in addition to merely achieving the desired outcome, students must pay attention to accuracy and comprehensibility of their language use and the task must allow them to negotiate aspects such as, L2 sounds, syntax and lexicon, with their peers. Willis and Willis, on the other hand, solely emphasize that the communicative task and its outcomes have to be independent from the language use. Willis and Willis (2001:174) propose that the language forms should not be prescribed in advance, since this way the students could make use of any language they can in order to achieve the outcome. They base this notion on the idea of human being having "an innate capacity to work out ways of expressing meanings" (Willis and Willis, 2001:174).

According to Willis and Willis (2001:174), human beings as language users aim at adjusting and adopting the input around them in order to create new meanings. They do not take part in this process to be able to reproduce a series of language forms in conformity with target forms but rather to create a meaning system which they can operate rapidly and efficiently in real time. Van den Branden (2006:9) shares a similar view, as he suggest that the key to successful language acquisition are tasks that enhance communicative behavior students will need also outside the classroom. He additionally points out, and Ellis (2003:210) concurs, that due to language use being facilitative of attaining a variety of real-life goals, TBLT undisputedly evokes many cognitive operations students need in their real-life functions, since it conforms to knowledge of acquisitional processes. Thus one could state that the main outcome of tasks ought to be that learners are able to make use of their innate capacity and cognitive skills as well as have the confidence to actually use what they know in order to cope in real-life communicative situations.

4.1.3 Critical discussion of TBLT: For and Against

Even though the discussion above gives an image of a functional approach which aims at really taking into account the requirements and contexts posed on the students, this approach has nonetheless received some criticism. First of all, TBLT has been criticized due to its general vagueness. Similarly to other communicative language teaching approaches, TBLT also merely provides broad principles rather than precise recommendations or prescriptions (Willis and Willis, 2001:176, Nunan, 2004:14). In addition to this, Pica’s (2008:529) suggestion of using a wide range of tasks can indeed create a rather confusing package to master not only from the teacher’s point of view but also from the aspect of learning. However, in order to avoid any vagueness in the classroom, Willis and Willis (2001:76) strongly advice defining clear learning outcomes.

Even though TBLT’s broad principles can also be viewed as a merit, since they provide TBLT with the potential to reach wider audiences in a variety of ways (Nunan, 2004:14), they undisputedly cause some practical difficulties. Thus, to clarify the concept of TBLT in practice and in order to shed more light on the process of putting together a clear and functional task-based syllabus, which then assist both the work of the teacher and the learning of the students, I shall consult Ellis (2003:229–239). Ellis (2003:229–230) presents four steps involved in constructing task-based teaching in practice.

As also advised by Willis and Willis (2001:76), the first step involves the determination of the course goals. Ellis (2003:229), however, additionally advises to pay attention to certain sub-goals, i.e. the teacher must determine what is the *pedagogic focus* (general or specific purpose), *skill focus* (listening, speaking, reading or writing) and lastly what is the *language focus* (unfocused or focused). To elaborate on the latter focus, Ellis states that unfocused refers to enabling learners "to choose from a range of forms but they are not designed with the use of a specific form in mind", whereas focused tasks guide the students towards certain predetermined linguistic features. Having established the course goals, the teacher can then move on to making broad choices of task types and the specific themes dealt in them (Ellis, 2003:229–230). Both of these aspects ought to derive from the course goals and enhance the students' learning accordingly. As a result of this stage, the teacher ought to have a list of the activities and themes (Ellis, 2003:229).

The third step entails examining the tasks in more detail. First and foremost, the key here is to consider the practical considerations relating to the specific teaching context. Ellis (2003:217) proposes that the following four aspects ought to be taken into consideration. Firstly, Ellis presents the concept of input, i.e. the nature of the *input* provided in the task. Secondly he mentions *conditions*, i.e. way in which the information is presented to the learners and the way in which it is to be used. Third aspect on his list is *processes*, which refer to the nature of the cognitive operations and the discourse the task require. Lastly is the *outcomes*, meaning the nature of the product that results from performing the task.

In addition to these practical considerations, Ellis (2003:215, 229) advices to take into account the tasks' psycholinguistic value, i.e. the potential they have in terms of language learning and teaching (Ellis, 2003:214–215). The psycholinguistic value is determined from the viewpoint of the following four factors; first of all from the aspect of *interactant relationship*, i.e. "who holds and who requests for the information needed" (Ellis, 2003: 214–215). Secondly, Ellis presents the *interaction requirement* which refers to whether the task requires the students to gather information or is it optional. The third factor is *goal orientation*, which refers to the task outcome and whether there is a unified outcome or room for disagreement and creativity. Last factor, i.e.

outcome options, additionally refers to the outcome and in particular to the scope of outcomes available, meaning a closed or open outcome.

The fourth and final step in constructing a task-based syllabus is sequencing the tasks (Ellis, 2003:229). This phase requires attention on the students' developmental level as well as the linguistic (and non-linguistic) resources available. Above all, the main guideline is that the sequencing supports and enhances the students' learning.

Regardless of the fact that a thorough syllabus is an essential step towards successful teaching and learning it is nonetheless still not enough. Having selected and sequenced a set of tasks and having prepared appropriate workplans the teacher still encounters a set of decisions that need to be made (Ellis, 2003:244). The teacher has to decide on the methodological procedures for executing the workplans in the classroom and in order to do this Skehan (1998:137–149) and Ellis (2003:244) propose a similar concrete lesson design which consists of three principal phases, namely *pre-task, during task and post-task*.

The pre-task phase naturally comes prior to the actual task and its purpose is to "prepare students to perform the task in ways that will promote acquisition" (Ellis, 2003:244) and thus to make the task itself more productive (Skehan, 1998:137). More detailed reasons for pre-task activities are for example, introducing new language, mobilizing the students' current language skills, revisiting language issues that may have been forgotten or to push the students to interpret the actual tasks in more demanding ways (Skehan, 1998:138). Pre-tasks can be done in various ways but Ellis (2003:245–249) suggests making use of for example a similar task or a modeling of how a task could be performed. Skehan (1998:139) and Ellis (2003:246–247) also present non-task preparation activities, i.e. activating students' schemata of contents or presenting some background information, as an excellent means to be used in pre-task stage. In relation to this Ellis (2003:247) promotes using strategic planning, which means that students plan how they are going to perform the task. Lastly he proposes that summary and final comment ought to be used before the actual task.

When it comes to the during phase, which relates directly to the task itself, Ellis (2003:249–258) introduces two methodological options. Firstly, I will present Ellis' (2003:249) view on task performance options, which refer to the means of how the task should be undertaken and to what extent the teacher can plan it in advance. These options include such aspects as the time frame set for the task, whether or not to give access to input for the students while performing the task and lastly whether the teacher wants to include an element of surprise to the task. Skehan (1998:142–145) also addresses this topic, however, he also considers the topic from some additional viewpoints, namely he also takes modality, support, control and stakes into account in relation to this phase. First of all, by modality Skehan (1998:142) naturally refers to the mode of language to be used in the task, i.e. whether a task is spoken or written. The second aspect, meaning support, refers to whether the teacher's support is available to the students during the task (Skehan, 1998:143). Thirdly, Skehan (1998:144) discusses control and to what extent are the students able to "exert control over the way the task is done". Last aspect on Skehan's (1998:145) list is the topic of stakes, i.e. what the students should be trying to do during the task.

Now that I have established Ellis's first methodological option, I shall move on to the second one (Ellis, 2003:251–258), which discusses process options. Ellis states that they "concern the way in which the discourse arising from the task is enacted" and thus this issue cannot be planned in advance. Ellis (2003:253), however, manages to present some stereotypical classroom process occurring in task-based pedagogy. He for example remarks, that the students often have the ability to control how the topic develops and turns are taken according to everyday life rules. Additionally, it is worth pointing out that students function as both initiators and respondents, which causes them to use language in varied ways but feedback is given mainly on content, i.e. the teacher reacts to the message content instead of the linguistic aspects of students' utterances.

The post-task phase, has according to Skehan (1998:147), two main purposes, namely giving attention to the previous task proper and then reflecting on it. This phase can consist of a variety of options but Ellis presents (2003:258) the following three options 1) to provide an opportunity for a repeat performance of the task 2) to encourage reflection on how the task was performed, and 3) to encourage attention to form, in particular to those forms that proved problematic to the learners when they performed the task.

To sum up, Ellis (2003:262) states that teachers need to decide first on the basic format of the lesson, which will at least consist of the during-task phase but can also include either a pre-task phase or a post-task phase, or both of these. The present material package consists of tasks for all the three phases and thus the teacher can plan a variety of lessons with the help of these materials.

TBLT has also been accused of fossilizing the students' language skills at lower level, if the teaching fully ignores the language forms (Willis and Willis, 2001:174). Fossilizing students' language skills is surely never the purpose of language teaching and thus again the dilemma of balancing between focus on forms and functions is brought up. According to Willis and Willis (2001:174), the challenge faced by TBLT is finding a means to combine students' freedom to engage their natural learning processes with restructuring their system in light of new input. In the case of TBLT, there are two options for making task-based teaching more effective also from the viewpoint of mastering language forms. Willis and Willis (2001:174) propose that teachers should either introduce issues of accuracy within the task-based methodology or include that focus within the task-based cycle, i.e. within every single classroom session. Consequently, even though TBTL relies strongly on its communicative nature, there is still no need to completely forego of the more structural elements of language (Nunan, 2004:111). Hence, with the help of either of these guidelines, the teacher is able to address also the issues of forms and accuracy and thus enhance the students' linguistic development.

Thirdly, the tasks included in the TBL teaching have also been criticized. Piepho (1981:19) critically points out that a preparatory classroom task can never fully correspond with its real-life equivalent, i.e. the actual communicative task the students will encounter outside the classroom. Even if the task manages to resemble to a great extent authentic communication it is still only a transition stage which has been proved to enhance actual communication. Piepho (1981:19) indeed makes a solid point, as for example no presentation given in a classroom can fully resemble a real business presentation given in a boardroom nor can a persuasive speech given to fellow-students fully prepare students for real-life sales speech when actual funds are at stake.

However, it is worth bearing in mind that tasks carried out in classrooms are the most authentic opportunities that students can access prior to their working lives and therefore their usefulness and importance must not be underestimated. And as Pica (2008:532) remarks, tasks done in a classroom are an excellent means for constructing competence, especially when it comes to oral skills that require interaction with others. Understandably, it is almost impossible for the students to learn and rehearse aspects of oral communication on their own. Thus, to sum up, Pica (2008:529–530) points out that the tasks fulfill their purpose if they comply with the students' needs for participating in language courses in the first place and as long as they link the classroom activities to the students' "larger academic, professional or occupational goals." Thus, even though the classroom as a context nor the tasks themselves are not fully identical with those of the real-world working life, they indeed function as an excellent preparation for the 'real thing'.

4.2 Teaching speaking skills and public speaking in particular

When it comes to speaking and the teaching of it, there seems to be one common concern among scholars, namely the fact that speaking is often treated as an easy part of language learning even though the reality is the total opposite. Widdowson (1981:117) voiced this concern already three decades ago, as he stated that people who have been learning English for years still often lack the ability to actually use the language in everyday life communication. One might think that this would not apply to today's language teaching and modern language learners but many scholars have addressed this issue also in the past decade (Thornbury, 2005: iv,28, Varner and Beamer, 2005:50–51, Bygate, 2009:401).

In the above mentioned literature, this unfortunate issue is regarded to derive from two different aspects. On one hand, it results from the way foreign languages are taught. For example Thornbury (2005:28) points out that in foreign language teaching speaking is often merely used as a means to teach for example grammar and in case speaking is in fact taught it is merely approached from the viewpoint of pronunciation. The problem here is the following; the above mentioned common teaching practices seem to falsely assume that that knowing a language corresponds automatically with the ability to speak it (Thornbury, 2005:iv). This, however, is not the case in reality, as for example Bygate (2009:401) remarks that students may be able to read and write rather effortlessly but speaking does not automatically result from these skills. Consequently, there is a definite need for addressing speaking in its own right and independently from for example grammar and vocabulary (Thornbury, 2005:iv, Bygate, 2009:401). In the present material package this can be done rather conveniently, as its main focus is precisely on speaking, i.e. public speaking and small talk.

On the other hand, the challenge of speaking can result from the simple fact that "for most people it is easier to comprehend than to speak a foreign language" (Varner and Beamer, 2005:50−51). Varner and Beamer (2005: 50−51) propose that this can be due to the following five reasons; first of all people are intimidated and therefore they refuse to even try. Secondly, people are often overly concerned about correct grammatical forms. Thirdly, people resort to mere translation, i.e. they aim at translating their thoughts in their own language word for word into the foreign language, which rarely works and then they are discouraged by such experiences. Fourthly, it takes people too much time to formulate what they want to say and this complicates their participation in real-time interaction. Lastly, people tend to worry about being criticized and thus losing their face in front of others.

Varner and Beamer's (2005: 50–51) ideas are taken into consideration in this thesis as follows; the anxiety issues are dealt with the methods for coping with public speaking anxiety, which will be discussed in Chapter 4.3.3 The students' concerns related to their inadequate skills will be addressed by putting the emphasis on communicative competence (See Chapter 3.1.3) instead of pressuring them to produce absolutely flawless language. These practices will hopefully create a safe, encouraging and communicative environment which prepares the students for the real-life business communication.

4.2.1 Practical guidelines

In addition to proposing some solutions to the above mentioned common dilemma it is also necessary to examine some additional practical issues related to teaching of speaking. In order to do this I have compiled a summarized list of the things that scholars (McCall and Cohen, 1963, Tiittula, 1993, Thornbury, 2005, Folse, 2006, Brown, 2007, Bygate, 2009) regard as essential components of successful teaching of speaking. This list is presented below and it is followed by a discussion that explains these aspects in more detail as well as ties them to the present material package.

1) Intrinsically motivating techniques and authenticity
2) A great deal of practice
3) Organizing teaching in terms of tasks

The first guideline is provided by Brown (2007:331) who puts an emphasis on intrinsically motivating teaching techniques and by this he means that the teacher should appeal to the students' "ultimate goals and interests, to their need for knowledge, for status, for achieving competence and autonomy". Furthermore, the bottom line is that the teaching should illustrate the benefits of the skills being taught and the activities should correspond with the students real life needs (Brown, 2007:331). According to Brown (2007:331), a factor that supports this is the usage of authentic language in meaningful contexts. In the present material package, Brown's line of thinking is taken into account by having the BELF context, which in this case is the real life context, as the first priority. This is visible in the fact that the materials, tasks and language derive directly from the needs of this specific context.

The second guideline, i.e. the emphasis on practice, becomes apparent in the views of many scholars and thus it is also mentioned here. For example, according to Folse (2006:31), teaching of speaking can be compared to a tennis practice, as the primary goal of a speaking class ought to be to “get your students to hit as many tennis balls as possible”, i.e. to get all of them to talk as much as possible. Folse (2006:31) adds that the most apparent as well as the most successful method to teach speaking is to make the students speak in the foreign language. Of course the students need some structural knowledge as well as vocabulary, pronunciation insights and maybe even cultural information but first and foremost they need to spend their time speaking (Folse, 2006:31). Tiittula (1993:69), Thornbury (2005:28) and Bygate (2009:410) concur, as they all are also advocates of practical training in a variety of communicative situations and Thornbury (2005:28) additionally remarks that no amount of grammatical and lexical knowledge will help in case there is a shortage of opportunities to practice interactive speaking. All this adds up to McCall and Cohen’s (1963:11) statement of speech being a product of social development and therefore communicating with other people is the best way to achieve this skill. Consequently, in a speaking course the students should be the ones doing most of the talking (Brown, 2007:332). Naturally the present materials also aim at increasing the students’ proficiency level in terms of speaking and thus they are focused on allowing room for the students to speak. Therefore, the teacher functions as an organizer and as a source for activities and topics instead of imposing the students merely with his/her own output.

As mentioned above the teacher ought to function as an organizer in a speaking class but this surely raises a question of how exactly should teaching of speaking be organized in practice. To answer this, both Folse (2006:45) and Thornbury (2005:90—91) propose different types of tasks as a means of organization. To shed more light on the issue Thornbury (2005:90—91) presents valid criteria for effective speaking tasks and he lists all in all six aspects that ought to be taken into account when preparing and executing speaking tasks.

First, the task must above all be maximally language productive, i.e. the task must allow the students to use as much language as ever possible. Secondly, the task must have a purpose and an outcome. This also increases language productivity, since if students are clearly made aware of what they need to do with the language they will also more likely make use of the language. Thirdly, successful speaking tasks make interactivity central, i.e. they emphasize the relationship between the speaker and his/her interlocutors. Fourth aspect mentioned by Thornbury (2005:91) is challenge and with this he refers to the fact that the task should be based on the students' communicative resources and when they make use of them they will gain a sense of achievement. The main point is that the task does not underestimate nor overestimate those available resources, since this way the students will not get the real sense of attaining something. Fifthly, in addition to the sense of challenge, the task must also have a sense of security in it in order for the students to feel confident. The task, as well the overall classroom atmosphere, should support the students' attempts to use the language autonomously without creating too much pressure on them. Last aspect, i.e. authenticity, highlights that the task must always have a connection to real-life language use. This is due to the fact that the classroom activities must provide the students experiences similar to the quality of communication outside the classroom. In practice this means that the students are required to operate "spontaneously, unassisted, with minimal preparation" and with the help of the sources available at that moment. Moreover, the topics, genres and situations used in the speaking tasks should be strongly inspired by real-life communication (Thornbury, 2005:91). All of the six aspects are taken into account in the present materials, as tasks indeed play an integral role in this package. This is narurally due to the fact that task-based language teaching is the leading philosophy of this package.

4.2.2 Teaching public speaking: the two dilemmas

Now that I have examined the teaching of speaking it is time to narrow this field down to the main focus of the present thesis, i.e. public speaking and the teaching of it. In order to shed light on this issue, I shall approach this topic from the viewpoint of its complex nature, as public speaking is by no means an easy subject to teach nor is it easy for the students to master.

First of all, public speaking requires theoretical knowledge as well as skills development to implement this knowledge in practice. This particular division proposes the first of the challenges in terms of teaching public speaking. According to many scholars, as for example, Marshall and Williams (1986:14), teachers are very often faced with the dilemma of balancing theory and practical skills development when teaching public speaking. As in many other subjects and fields these two are intertwined and thus they ought to be in a dialog in terms of the teaching. However, as in all teaching, a public speaking teacher must decide what is the starting point for the teaching and to what extent these two components are present in the teaching process. Lucas (1999:76) suggests that the teaching of public speaking ought to always be "inescapably grounded in theory". He reasons this by stating that the long history of this discipline as well as modern research prove that the most effective speeches are precisely based on solid theoretical insights. Marshall and Williams (1986:15) concur with Lucas, as they think that there is undisputedly a need for theory in order for the students to be able to generalize their learning in other situations**.** Clinkscale (1980:147), however, places more emphasis on mere practical training, as according to her it is the only means to acquire good speaking techniques. The present material package aims at combining both theory and practice in the following way. The materials are strongly based on theoretical knowledge and guidelines of public speaking but due to the communicative goals of the package, the students will have their focus first and foremost on practice.

The second dilemma involved in the teaching of public speaking is introduced by Marshall and Williams (1986:13), as they remark that students are often unaware of the relevance of public speaking. Often when people do not see the relevance of something they lack the motivation to learn it. Fortunately, Marshall and Williams (1986:13), provide a valuable insight for teachers of public speaking by highlighting the importance of situating the learning "in the real world and not to detach it from the circumstances in which it operates". They (1986:14) advice teachers to provide the students with relevant materials in order to maintain the students' interest and motivation in the topic. Thus it seems to be of great importance to not only combine theory and practice but to also bring real-life into the public speaking classrooms. In the present material package this is taken into account by adopting all the speech tasks as well as their topics from the context of the students' future careers, i.e. the internationalized business world.

In addition to the aforementioned means for dealing with the two dilemmas, there is yet another essential solution that applies to both of the dilemmas discussed above. According to Lucas (1999:76), clear goal setting is the key to successful teaching of public speaking. He points out that a clear course design is indeed essential when teaching public speaking. A clear vision of the course as a whole will serve two important functions. First of all, while designing a public speaking course the teacher must familiarize oneself with the specific needs of the student group in question, i.e. to map out *their* theoretical and practical needs in terms of learning public speaking. Once having completed this thorough groundwork, the teacher will no longer have to struggle to a great extent with the balancing between theory and practice, as (s)he would be aware of the realistic needs and goals of the students in question. The present material is already inherently based on the requirements set by the business context and thus the teacher can rely on them to serve the students needs. Secondly, if a course is based on a clear and tailored design, then it is likely to be far more appealing and motivating to its participants, as it aims at addressing specifically their needs. In order to avoid facing the two dilemmas often closely tied to the teaching of public speaking one must bear in mind the main ingredient of an effective public speaking course, i.e. a clear and possibly tailored course design in order to have a clear focus on the course. This not only helps the teacher's work but often additionally adds up to a higher motivation among students.

4.3 Public Speaking Anxiety

In the previous chapters I have established the basis for communicative language teaching and especially task-based language as well as examined the teaching of speaking and public speaking in particular. However, when it comes to profound development of students' oral communication skills, there is yet another essential aspect that needs to be taken into consideration, namely public speaking anxiety (Brown 2007:324). There are two main reasons for including this topic to the scope of communicative language teaching and thus the present material package. I will present these reasons in more detail in the following.

First of all, public speaking anxiety needs to be paid attention to, as students naturally need to be willing and able to speak in front of others in addition to merely possessing the skills to do so (Fordham and Gabbin,1996:88). As Piepho (1981:45) puts it, oral communication in practice demands the students' willingness and active participation, which Piepho (1981:45) also describes as the students' motivation and readiness to communicate. In addition to this, Allen, Burrell and Bourhis (2010: 34 –345) propose that students need to appear confident when actually presenting in front of an audience, since according to them confidence often equals credibility which in return functions as an indicator of expertise and trust. Thus not only is confidence and hence low public speaking anxiety important from the point of view of the speaker but also from the viewpoint of the audience and its expectations.

Secondly, in addition to public speaking anxiety being an essential factor affecting oral communication it is unfortunately also a rather severe and common obstacle in relation to speaking in public. It has been claimed that the fear of public speaking outranks fear of heights, insects, financial problems, sickness (Rosenfeld and Berko, 1999:291) and even death (Himstreet and

Baty, 1990:50). Rosenfeld and Berko (1990:124) estimate that "between 80 and 93 percent of all people" suffer from this type of anxiety. Thomas, Tymon and Thomas (1994:311) provide a slightly more cautious percentage by stating that about 60 % of public speakers are anxious on the day of their speaking engagement. However, no matter what the actual percentage is, Allen et al. (2010:346) conclude that research worldwide has proven that public speaking anxiety is "widespread if not universal."

Consequently, the topic of public speaking anxiety cannot be left unaddressed and in the present master's thesis it will be discussed as follows; first, I will present some related and alternative terms and definitions of public speaking anxiety. Then I shall move on to explaining how this anxiety becomes apparent and what its practical implications are. This will be followed by a discussion of methods and 'cures' for helping students to cope and finally overcome public speaking anxiety. Lastly I will briefly state how all this information unites in the present material package.

4.3.1 Defining public speaking anxiety

Rosenfeld and Berko (1990:123) quite rightly state that the actual term does not play any role once an individual believes to be communicatively anxious, as (s)he will anyway act accordingly in that situation. However, in order to provide a clear overview of the topic in relation to the present material package I shall discuss the available definitions and will start from the top, namely from the umbrella term for public speaking anxiety, i.e. communication apprehension (CA).

CA is thought to cover all types of nervousness relating to all sorts of communicative situations. To define it in more detail it refers to the level of fear or anxiety an individual associates with real or anticipated communication (Thomas et al., 1994:311-312). An aspect that also defines CA is the fact that it is often divided into two; namely into trait apprehension and state apprehension (Thomas et al., 1994:312, Lucas, 1999:80-81, Finn, Sawyer and Behnke, 2009:418). Trait apprehension is, as Finn et al. (2009:418) put it, "a unitary, relatively permanent personality characteristic’’. Due to this and the fact that it is often caused by a wider variety of communication transactions, it is regarded as far more serious than state apprehension (Lucas, 1999:80–81). State apprehension, on the other hand, is defined as a transitory condition that fluctuates over time (Finn et al. 2009:418) and thus it is usually regarded as a synonym for stage fright, i.e. normal anxiety experienced, even by the most experienced orators, when required to communicate orally in public (Lucas, 1999:81). The second approach to distinguishing between different types of communication apprehension is presented by Rosenfeld and Berko (1990:123). They make a distinction between communication apprehension and reticence; the former referring to anxiety that is emotionally based and the latter implying that a person avoids communication due to a perceived lack of skills

Regardless of which of the definitions of the umbrella term one chooses, the main focus of the present material package is on one of the subtypes, i.e. public speaking anxiety (PSA). However, PSA is neither by no means a clear-cut term, as there is a variety of related terms available. According to Bodie (2010:71) PSA has been used alongside and interchangeably with terms such as “speech fear, social speech fright, speech anxiety, audience anxiety and performance anxiety”. Allen et al. (2010:345) extend this list by adding the concept of shyness but they also provide an important insight for defining this phenomenon. They propose that in terms of speech the term public speaking anxiety is the most suitable one to be used and since speech is in the main focus of this material package their guideline will be followed in the present thesis. Bodie (2010:70-72) elaborates on PSA by stating that it is situation-specific anxiety that is caused by a real or anticipated situation in which one must give an oral presentation or speech.

4.3.2 Public speaking anxiety in practice

Having established how this common and unfortunate phenomenon is defined it is time to discuss how it becomes apparent in practice. In order to do this I will first present “three systems model” (Lang, 1968, as cited by Bodie: 2010: 72-76) which describes how people react in stressful situations, as for example public speaking, and as the model's name implies, there are three ways people respond; the physiological, cognitive and behavioral.

The physiological system consists of "the central, autonomic and somatic nervous systems as well as the cellular and humoral systems". These systems together are in charge of the human body and its responses to stress. In practice, these responses are for instance blood-pressure, heart rate and palmar sweat (Finn et al., 2009:420, Allen et al., 2010:346, Bodie, 2010:72–73). All of the above mentioned symptoms are surely familiar to everyone who has ever experienced nervousness during an oral presentation/speech.

The second system, i.e. the cognitive system, creates PSA, as a person who suffers from it has illogical and irrational cognitions of the communicative situation (Almonkari, 2007:37). The bottom line is that for the speaker him/herself these thoughts are real, which then causes that person to have a negative attitude towards his/her competence as a public speaker and the overall situation. Thus the speaker has his/her own "inner communication reality" which in the case of PSA negatively affects the "actual communication reality" in which the speakers behaves.

This leads the discussion to the third system, i.e. the behavioral system. If the previous system focused on PSA perceived by the speaker him/herself, this third system takes into consideration the viewpoint of the audience, meaning what is observable for them and how they interpret the speaker's anxiety level (Almonkari, 2007:29, Bodie, 2010:76). Almonkari (2007:29) lists several behaviors that can be observed by the audience and thus have the possibility to affect the audience's perception of the speaker's PSA. For example, the speaker's stiffness, lack of expressions, reserve, low volume and stammering speech as well as general restlessness are common indicators of PSA observed by the audience (Almonkari, 2007:29).

In addition to the above discussed three systems, PSA has also many further practical implications. First, a reduced level of performance and incompetent public speaking are issues mentioned by multiple scholars (e.g. Fordham and

Gabbin, 1996:89, Allen et al., 2010:346,). However, even though poor performance is already an unfortunate issue in itself it often also results in other more severe implications. From the point of view of the audience, a speaker's poor and overly anxious performance can result in perceived lack of credibility, meaning that the audience does not have confidence in the speaker's expertise nor do they find the speaker trustworthy (Allen et al., 2010:344–346). Thus, in worst case scenario an otherwise fully knowledgeable and honest expert can be regarded as an incompetent liar.

Another worst case scenario relating to deficient performance derives from the speaker's point of view. Fordham and Gabbin (1996:91) propose that poor performance can function as a basis for a vicious cycle. First of all, this type cycle can cause nervousness about any future public speaking situations (Allen et al., 2010:345) and secondly even complete avoiding of public speaking (Fordham and Gabbin, 1996:91, Finn et al., 2009:418, Allen et al., 2010:346, O'Hair et al., 2011:351).

As a summary of PSA's practical effects, one could state that whether a speaker merely thinks that (s)he is incompetent or if this in fact is the reality, the effects are indeed apparent and severe. The above discussed scenarios cannot help but affect the everyday lives of people suffering of public speaking anxiety. First of all, if PSA is viewed in the context of studying, it has been claimed that students with PSA have a tendency to skip oral communication classes and if they do they are usually rather inactive, which of course negatively affects their learning and grades (Rosenfeld and Berko, 1990:125). Therefore, the students who are especially in need of help do not receive it, as they refuse to accept that help provided in public speaking classes. Rosenfeld and Berko (1990:126) also report that some students even make the choice of a college major based on each majors' requirements concerning oral presentations. This of course implies that perhaps otherwise competent and motivated students may give up on careers, for example in the fields of law, medicine, teaching, business and social work, merely to avoid speaking in public and interacting with other people (Rosenfeld and Berko, 1990:291—292).

Secondly and rather unfortunately, the effects of PSA are not limited on studying as they also become apparent after a student graduates. According to Rosenfeld and Berko (1990:126) and O'Hair et al. (2011:351), in the working life PSA can result in missing promotions and pay increases as well as opportunities to take part in major projects. Large-scale effects, especially in the competitive business world, can be for example loss of sales and contracts (O'Hair et al., 2011:351).

Thus, similarly to inadequate language skills discussed in Chapter 2, also poor public speaking skills and PSA have real consequences in terms of one's career or even the reputation and finances of one's work place. In order to avoid such consequences, in the following I will present the most common and successful methods for coping with PSA.

4.3.3 Coping with PSA: Methods and cures

It is essential to remark that whenever dealing with such a complicated and touchy issue as public speaking anxiety, sensitivity and sympathy are absolute requirements (Lucas, 1999:81). The teacher as well as the fellow students ought to strive for creating a learning environment in which public speaking can be rehearsed in a safe and supportive environment. This is especially valid in the light of McKerrow's et al. (2007:5) statement of public speaking skills being often acquired through "the hit-and-miss process of practice". Having established this important bottom line for dealing with PSA, I shall move on to the actual methods and according to Allen et al. (2010:347—348) and Bodie (2010:86), there are three major approaches to treating PSA; *systematic desensitization*, *cognitive methods* and *skills training*. All these approaches have their own ideas of why people experience anxiety and thus they also vary in terms of the recommendations for dealing with the anxiety (Allen et al., 2010:347—348).

First, the method of systematic desensitization (SD) views that PSA derives from the emotional connections a person has about speaking in public.

Advocates of SD assume that people suffering from PSA have learned a certain negative emotional reaction which results in physiological reactions, such as higher blood pressure and racing heart rate (Allen et al., 2010:350—351). In other words, the psychological stimulus of the communicative event creates the physiological reaction. Therefore, when dealing with PSA the main focus is, as Bodie (2010:87) states, on reducing and/or changing those emotional connections. This if often done with the help of various means of relaxation, for example breathing exercises and muscle relaxation, which teach the individual to become less sensitive to the stimulus and thus gain conscious mastery of the physiological reactions. As a result, the individual is able to make use of his/her underlying public speaking skills without having to worry about the uncomfortable physiological reactions affecting the oral presentation (Allen et al., 2010:350—351).

It has been suggested, for instance by Allen et al. (2010:351), that every person should have their own preparation routine which would help them to deal with communicative challenges, such as public speaking. Each individual should thus be aided to find the relaxation methods that work for them. The routine should generate positive energy that would help the person to focus on succeeding in the task instead of giving the upper hand to the negative psychological and physiological reactions. However, Allen et al. (2010:352) also point out that the simple methods, i.e. soothing breathing and muscle relaxation, have been proved effective for number of people.

The second cure to PSA presented by Bodie (2010:87) and O'Hair et al. (2010:352) is cognitive modification, in short CM. The main assumption of CM is that PSA is caused by "the individual's negative and irrational cognitions about public speaking". Additionally, some people have exceptionally strong fears concerning failure, humiliation and embarrassment (Allen et al., 2010:349). Rosenfeld and Berko (1990:126) define PSA as curable, since it precisely depends on perceptions. Consequently, in order to get rid of PSA, those cognitions and fears must be replaced by more positive ones. The individual must learn to view public speaking and his/herself as a public speaker from a different angle.

The above mentioned different angles can be found in various ways. First of all, the individuals suffering from PSA can be engaged in confidential and honest discussion of their fears (Bodie, 2010:87—88). Secondly, the method of visualization is found to be very effective, as it forces the person to imagine him/herself succeeding in public speaking instead of merely dwelling on the possibility of failure (Bodie, 2010:88). According to Allen et al. (2010:349), visioning a successful oral presentation or speech in detail is regarded to contribute to actual success. Visualization thus functions as an intervention to the self-fulfilling prophecy of negative expectations actually resulting in negative outcomes. However, in case neither discussion nor visualization seem to work, CM also regards therapy as an option in terms of curing PSA (Bodie, 2010: 88). Cognitive modification therapy operates along the same guidelines as CM in general but it primarily focuses on helping speakers who have a performance-oriented view of public speaking. As Bodie (2010:88) points out, people holding this view tend to think that their audience's main interest is to evaluate the speaker and his/her skills. With the help of CM therapy the performance-oriented people are directed towards a more communication-oriented view of public speaking by emphasizing that public speaking is merely one form of normal interaction and actually rather similar to 'everyday conversation' (Bodie, 2010:88).

If a public speaking teacher is planning to make use of cognitive modification there are some things that ought to be taken into careful consideration. As already mentioned as a general guideline for dealing with PSA, cognitive modification in particular requires a special focus on creating an empathetic and safe environment in which students' feelings and thoughts can be discussed. It goes without saying that these issues are very delicate and thus cannot be addressed casually. Furthermore, it is of great importance to bear in mind that no teacher without a proper education and official competence is capable nor even entitled to operate as a therapist in a normal public speaking class. Thus in case a student(s) requires for example proper CM therapy, the teacher must contact a trained therapist who then takes charge (Bodie, 2010: 87—88). Of course for example performance vs. communicated-oriented public speaking, which is a common approach of CM therapy, can be addresses in a public speaking classroom but actual therapy ought to undisputedly be left for professionals. (Lucas, 1999:80—81)

In contrast to CM and CM therapy in particular, the third and thus last method for dealing with PSA is at its best in public speaking classrooms. Namely, skills training (ST) produces the best results when used in a classroom full of people as this corresponds the real-life situations in which students are required to speak to audiences. This method, which puts the authentic situation and thus the concrete public speaking skills, as for instance "organization, vocal and nonverbal delivery and topic selection" (Bodie, 2010:89), at its main focus, is advocated by a strong representation of scholars. For example, Rosenfeld and Berko (1990:126), Fordham and Gabbin (1996:91), Lucas (1999:81), Allen et al. (2010:348) and Bodie (2010:89) all promote skills training as an effective means to concretely address the issue of public speaking anxiety.

As can be assumed, ST relies on decreasing students' PSA level by developing their public speaking skills, as PSA is thought to result of a deficiency of these skills (Fordham and Gabbin, 1996:91). Skills training can either be viewed from a broad perspective or from a 'case by case' viewpoint. The broad perspective implies that communication should be incorporated more strongly in curricula (Fordham and Gabbin, 1996:96) and that people with PSA should make an overall effort to gain public speaking skills, i.e. they should attend classes and workshops (Rosenfeld and Berko, 1990:126, Allen et al., 2010:348). From the narrower point of view, as Lucas (1999:81) and Allen et al. (2010:349) suggest, individuals with PSA should prepare for each speech and oral presentation as profoundly as possible.

Having examined the main guidelines of systematic desensitization, cognitive methods and skills training it is undisputedly necessary to also discuss how successful they in fact are. Allen et al. (2010: 347—348) report that research has proven that all the three methods are effective in terms of reducing PSA. However, it has been suggested that in order to gain the best results a combination of the three methods is the most efficient solution (Allen et al., 2010:347—348, Bodie, 2010:91). Bodie (2010:87) furthermore even specifies that the best treatment is SD and/or CM followed by ST. In the present material package, nonetheless, the main focus will solely be on skills training. This is due to the fact that the language and communication teachers, to whom this material is supposed to be a resource, are likely not qualified to offer for example CM therapy and naturally I will want to provide them with tools that they can use with their students.

Even though Bodie (2010:89) claims that ST is the least effective means for reducing students' public speaking anxiety, he notes that it has, nevertheless, proven to be effective particularly when dealing with less severe cases. Au contraire to Bodie (2010), many scholars approach skills training with far less suspicion. For instance, McKerrow et al. (2007:5, 12, 17) Lucas (2009:10-12) and Beebe and Beebe (2012:9-17) all praise skills training by emphasizing the importance of speaking experience and thorough preparation. Furthermore, especially business communication scholars, such as Himstreet and Baty (1990:50) and O'Hair et al. (2011:351) are in favor of skills training and the latter even declare that practice is the *most* essential method for coping with PSA and that experience often equals confidence also when it comes to public speaking.

Consequently, it indeed seems to make sense to use skills training as the primary means for increasing the students' public speaking confidence. McKerrow's et al. (2007:17) advice to allow and encourage the students to speak whenever possible, i.e. both in public and in more casual occasions such as classroom discussions and conversations in general, shall be used as a valuable precept throughout this material package.

5 A brief description of the present material package

The target group of the present material package, *Let's talk business!,* is business students whose English proficiency level is either B2 or higher according to the Common European Framework, as they are required to engage in discussions of a wide range of topics. However, the tasks can be applied in both the teaching of university students as well as students of university of applied sciences and even when teaching business people who are already in the working life, since the bottom line of the material is to help all business professionals to cope in the international business world. Furthermore, the tasks are not only suited for Finnish business students but can also be used with foreign students and even native speakers of English. This is due to the fact that all the instructions are available in English and all in all the material itself is not tied into any other language than English.

Let's talk business! is designed to fill in the prevailing void in terms of BELF teaching materials. It is unique in the sense that it is steadily based on theory both from the viewpoint of its teaching philosophy and from the contents being taught. However, despite of its theoretical basis, it is still strongly tied to practice in order to prepare the students for real life communication.

The main purpose of the present material package is threefold. First of all it provides the business students with an opportunity to gain helpful *knowledge and skills* of public speaking and small talk that they will need in order to "get their jobs done" in the modern international business world. Secondly, the tasks of the package enable to students *to practice* putting their knowledge and skills into use. Thirdly, these two factors combined will likely add up to an increased confidence in terms of speaking in various business situations in English. In summary, it all comes down to helping the students to *communicate* in English in their future working context. In order to fulfill its communicative purpose in the best possible way, the present material package is based on communicative approaches to foreign language teaching and in particular on task-based language teaching. Moreover, the material sets the students' communicative competence as its first priority and related to this it also adopts a skills training approach to increasing the students courage and willingness to speak.

In practice these aforementioned pedagogical choices become apparent in the following ways. First, task-based language teaching is present, as the material is created around concrete tasks that derive from the practical needs of the business world. Many of them are even direct simulations of tasks the students will encounter when stepping into the working life. Secondly, the students' communicative competence is taken into consideration by emphasizing the communicative aspects of the task, for example getting their message across, instead of focusing on mere linguistic competence, such as the mastery of grammar. Lastly, the material puts the students in the core as it first and foremost aims at providing them with the maximum skills training. As a result, the students will presumably feel more comfortable and less anxious to speak in English and especially in public.

Let's talk business! consists of five separate but nevertheless interrelated sections. The first is a COURSE KICK OFF which contains introduction and self-reflection tasks as well as a needs analysis form. This is followed by three modules (MODULES 1-3) that all have a slightly different approach to public speaking and small talk. MODULE 1 focuses on informative speaking, MODULE 2 has persuasive speaking at its core and MODULE 3 introduces special occasion speaking. All the three modules entail a variety of speaking tasks, such as group discussions, public speaking and small talk. The fifth section of the present material package is the COURSE REVIEW and as the name already implies, it comprises of tools that can be used to review the course and the students' own learning.

The present material package is above all a helpful resource, not a strict curriculum. Hence, it is up to the teacher to decide when, how and to which extent the material will be used. The material is designed so that it can be used as a whole and the teacher can even create a complete BELF course around it. However, it can also be used in a way that teacher simply adopts certain modules or even merely individual tasks to his/her teaching. However, no matter how the material is used, the teacher should always put the students' communicative competence on a pedestal. This has been the guiding principle of preparing the material and this is what counts also outside the classroom, i.e. in the modern international business world.

6 Conclusion

There is no denying the fact that Business English Lingua Franca (BELF) is an essential component enabling the functioning of the modern international business world. Naturally mastering BELF is hence nowadays a requirement for those planning on working within this context. The present material package, i.e. *Let's talk business!*, was created to help the future business people to meet this requirement. Due to this purpose, it aims at increasing the students' knowledge and skill level of public speaking and small talk and strives for activating the students and thus it contains material and tasks that enable this.

However, if one desires to take the teaching and concomitantly the students' mastery of BELF to a next level there still remain certain factors that can be taken into further consideration when planning BELF materials in the future. First of all, the present material package relies to a great extent on the teacher's mastery of the topics or at least on his/her activeness to seek for more information. Many of the contents of *Let's talk business!* derive from the fields of speech communication and business communication. Naturally not all English teachers have prior knowledge of these fields and hence in order to help all BELF teachers to teach in the best possible way, there is a definite need for a more detailed and extensive guide for teachers.

Secondly, due to the limited scope of this master's thesis, the present material package merely contains tasks that relate to certain relevant issues of BELF communication, i.e. public speaking and small talk. Even though these two formats of oral communication are essential, they are not nevertheless the only important skills that business people need to master. Therefore, the possible future BELF materials ought to take also other formats of communication into account. Examples of these are for instance other oral skills, such as negotiation skills, all types of written skills, skills related to communication via technology and due to the multicultural nature of the business world also intercultural communication skills.

Thirdly, *Let's talk business!*, is very strongly targeted for students whose command of the English language is already rather solid. As already stated before, this is due to the fact the according to Louhiala-Salminen (1999:23—24) the teaching of business English can rely on the Finnish students' high proficiency level. However, it must also be taken into account that not all future or current business people are on this high level and hence there remains a need for materials that would also meet the needs of people who are on the B1, A2 or even A1 level according to the Common European Framework. Lastly, it is worth remarking that the present material package discusses business professions on a very general level whereas in reality not all business people will share the same job description or status in the working life. This respectively creates a need for materials that take this into a careful consideration by introducing some job and position specific tasks.

As becomes clear, there are still many issues that ought to be taken into account in relation to teaching of BELF. But for now, teachers of BELF can make use of the present material package, *Let's talk business!*. With the help of this material teachers can bring a little piece of the modern international business world into their classrooms. Furthermore, they can provide their students with the chance to talk business in a safe and inspiring atmosphere, in which communication is made central.

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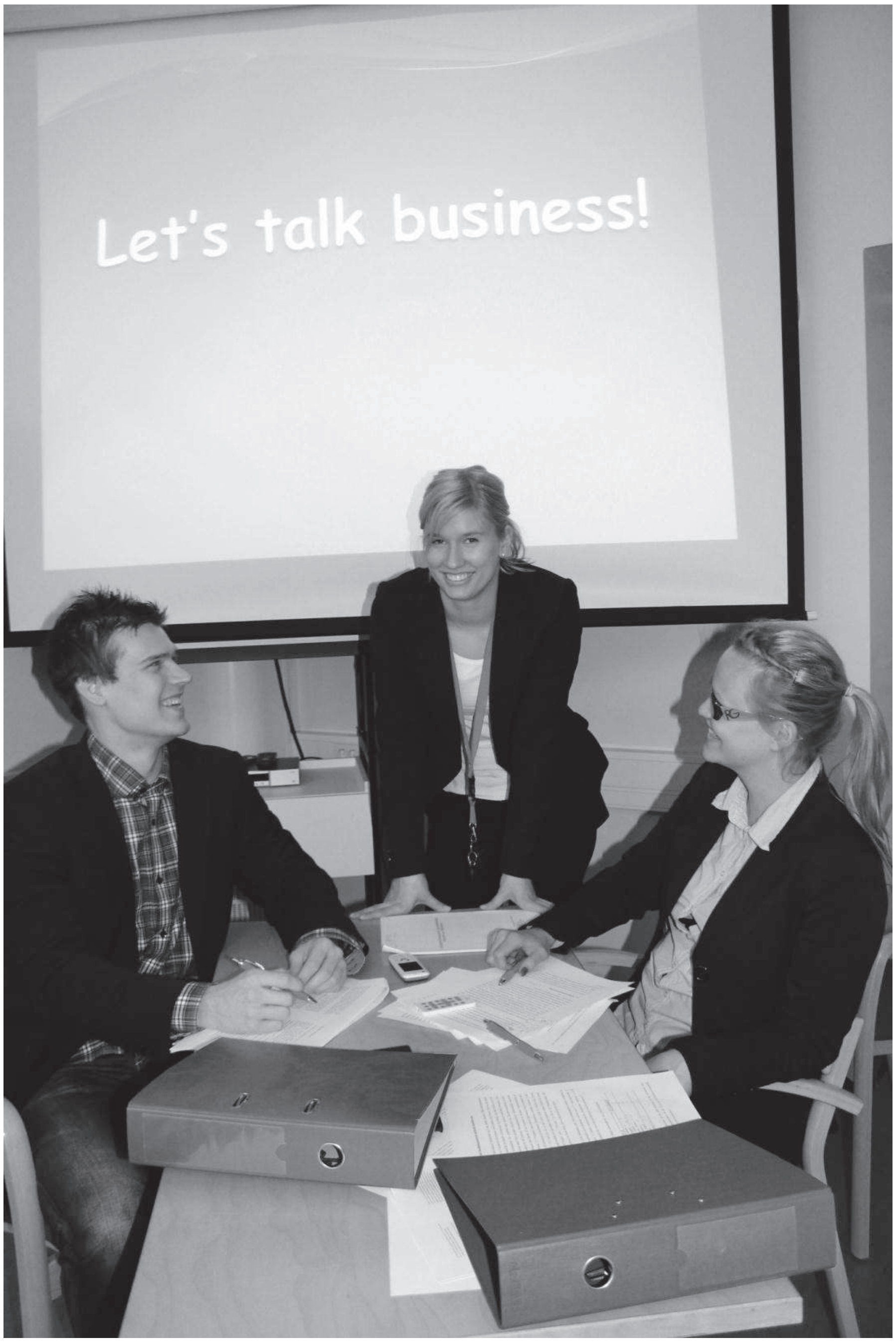
Let's Talk Business!

A Task-based material package of public speaking and small talk

in the BELF context



Miia Konttinen

Table of Contents

MODULE 3: Special Occasion Speaking

COURSE REVIEW:

To the Teacher

This material package addresses two issues that are strongly present in the modern international business world in which communication often occurs in English as a Business Lingua Franca (BELF). First, this material package aims at developing the business students' skills in terms of public speaking in English. Secondly, it strives for increasing the students' abilities and eagerness to engage in small talk in English.

PRACTICAL ISSUES

The material package is created around the aforementioned skills and it is organized in the following way. First there is a **COURSE KICK OFF**, which contains introduction and self-reflection tasks as well as a needs analysis form. The idea is that you can make use of this section in a way that best suits your idea of this type of a course and the needs of your students. It is by no means necessary or even reasonable that you require your students to complete all the tasks available. The COURSE KICK OFF is followed by three separate but nevertheless interrelated modules, i.e. **MODULES 1-3**. All the modules take a slightly different approach to public speaking, as **MODULE 1** includes tasks that relate to informative speaking, **MODULE 2** enables the students to rehearse their skills in terms of persuasive speaking and **MODULE 3** introduces issues and tasks related to special occasion speaking. Small talk and discussion in general is present in all of the three modules. The last section of this package is called **COURSE REVIEW,** and as the name implies, it consists of tools for reviewing this course from the viewpoint of the students as well as from the point of view of course feedback.

Each of the three modules consists of the following types of material and tasks;

* Information banks that present information in a concise way.
* Warm-up tasks and pre-communicative tasks that activate the students' existing English and communication skills as well as introduce certain part skills that they will need when working with whole-tasks.
* Communicative tasks and whole-task practice, which in this case refer to main tasks of this material package, i.e. the oral presentations and speeches. MODULES 1 AND 2 includes two major public speaking tasks and MODULE 3 entails three such tasks.
* Post-task assignments, which include for example self-reflection and peer-evaluation.

You can choose to use the present material package as a whole or you can alternatively adopt only certain individual tasks or modules to your teaching.

Each task includes instructions for both the teacher and the students. The instructions for the teacher cover all the essentials you need to know, i.e. the task's main idea as well as its purpose and aims. You are also provided with a tentative time frame, but naturally the tasks' duration vary according to the group's size and dynamics. Moreover, this section at times offers you useful sources in case you want to refresh your memory, deepen your knowledge or provide the students with additional information.

The instructions for the students are provided on separate sheets and hence you can easily print them out and give to your students or for example share them in class with the help of a document camera.

UNDERLYING TEACHING PHILOSOPHY

When it comes to public speaking and small talk, the present material package sets the first priority on developing the students' communicative competence, since this is an essential requirement of their future career in the modern international business world. Therefore, the underlying teaching philosophy and guidelines derive from the communicative approaches to language teaching and in particular task-based language teaching. Furthermore, the emphasis is put on increasing the students' eagerness and confidence to speak in public and hence the material is a practical illustration of aspects generated by literature concerning for example teaching of speaking and particularly public speaking. Lastly, the material adopts skills training as a method used to decrease public speaking anxiety.

The above mentioned theoretical background has on one hand guided the making of the material but on the other hand it also sets certain requirements for you as a teacher. First of all, since the students' communicative competence is made central in the material, it goes without saying that *the students* should be the ones doing most of the talking in the classroom. This naturally affects your role in the classroom. You are advised to function as a facilitator and a resource of tasks, who first and foremost allows the students to use their knowledge of the language. Secondly, it is of great value that you create a safe and inspiring learning environment to the classroom when working with this material. This guideline applies to this material package in particular because speaking in public and especially in a foreign language can be a delicate issue for some students. Hence, support and encouragement are surely needed throughout the learning process.

Instead of merely setting requirements, this material package also provides you with a variety of opportunities and options. First of all, with the help of this authentic and up-to-date material you can provide your students with an insight to their future careers in the business context and thus inspire them to develop their skills. Secondly, as the materials require the students to be the ones interacting the most in the classroom, you are able to step aside and take the time to profoundly observe the students, i.e. their skills, needs and problems. Thirdly, the package is compiled in a manner that allows great freedom to the teacher, namely, as already mentioned, you can either use the package as a whole or merely take tasks that seem helpful and relevant. Furthermore, the tasks can be done in the provided order or in some alternate order. The bottom line is that this material package is a resource, not a compulsion with strict restrictions.

So…Let’s talk business!

COURSE KICK OFF

TASK 1: Public speaking and small talk in the international business world

IDEA: The students first discuss the topic in small groups with the help of the guideline questions given below. This is followed by a discussion during which all groups present their ideas and thoughts and the teacher supplements the discussion in order to create an extensive view on the topic.

PURPOSE & AIMS: Instead of the teacher lecturing on the topic, this particular task is an alternative that puts the students in the center as they familiarize themselves with the topic of the material. Furthermore, they are able to activate their oral skills right from the beginning of the course by communicating with their peers.

TIME FRAME: about 30 minutes

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TASK 1: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

DISCUSSION

In groups of 3-5 students, discuss the topic “Public speaking and small talk in the international business world” with the help of the following guideline questions. Remember to always justify your opinions and provide examples, anecdotes and personal experiences whenever possible in order to elaborate on your ideas. Prepare to orally share your viewpoints with the rest of the class.

1) What is public speaking in general? What does it consist of? What is public speaking in the business context?
2) What is small talk in general and what does include? What is its role in the business world?
3) Are these skills important for you to master? Why/Why not?

Share your thoughts and ideas with the rest of the class and comment on those of the other small groups. Feel free to also consult your teacher concerning the issues in question.

TASK 2: Needs Analysis

IDEA: With the help of the following needs analysis form the teacher can easily gain further information about the students and their background, current situation and future prospects in terms of public speaking and small talk.

PURPOSE & AIMS: This needs analysis form provides the teacher with an opportunity to learn more about the students and hence conducting it enables the teacher to make better use of the present material package, i.e. the teacher can implement and supplement the material according to the needs of the group in question.

TIME FRAME: About 20 minutes

TASK 2: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

NEEDS ANALYSIS

Please answer the following questions on a separate sheet of paper and hand it in to your teacher once you are finished. When answering, be as specific and elaborative as possible. The teacher will handle all answers confidentially.

BACKGROUND

1) How much experience do you have of public speaking? What type of speeches and presentation have you delivered in the past?
2) In which ways have you been successful in terms of public speaking? What aspects of public speaking have been challenging to you?
3) What kind of small talk situations have you encountered? How did you handle them?

CURRENT SITUATION

4) What is your current attitude towards public speaking? How familiar are you with different types of public speaking?
5) What would you like to learn during this course? What skills would you like to gain?
6) What is your opinion of small talk and how do you react in small talk situations? How would you like to improve your small talk skills?

FUTURE PROSPECTS

7) How would you like to orientate yourself in the business world once you graduate (e.g. what is you major and minor subjects). What type of jobs will you think you will apply for?
8) In your opinion, how will public speaking and small talk be present in these jobs?

Any additional comments, ideas or questions…? Remember that this course is for ***you*** and thus all your viewpoints and suggestions are valuable.

TASK 3: SWOT-Analysis

IDEA: With the help of this analysis form the students can become more aware of their inner STRENGHTS and WEAKNESSES as well as the external OPPORTUNITIES and THREATS in relation to public speaking and small talk (especially in English). SWOT-analysis is often used to map out work-based learning and it is for example advocated by the Finnish National Board of education. However, it also serves the needs of the present material package, as the material focuses on work related skills.

PURPOSE & AIMS: In contrast to the previously presented needs analysis, the SWOT-analysis is first and foremost a self-reflection tool for the students. Completing the form forces the students to reflect on the four interrelated aspects (**S**trengths, **W**eaknesses, **O**pportunities and **T**hreats) that have an effect on the learning process. After completing this form they are better prepared to absorb the information provided in this material as well as able to develop their skills.

NB! In order to make the most of this analysis, the teacher can ask the students to fill in the form again after having worked with the present material package. This way the students will also gain a perspective on their development.

TIME FRAME: About 20 minutes

SOURCES:

http://www.oph.fi/english/sources_of_information/projects/wbl-toi/tools_and_methods/swot_analysis

TASK 3: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

SWOT-ANALYSIS

Fill in the SWOT-analysis (**S**trengths, **W**eaknesses, **O**pportunities and **T**hreats) form given to you. Fill it in based on your CURRENT notions, thoughts and feelings concerning public speaking and small talk, especially from the viewpoint of the English language.

This analysis is a means of self-reflection, i.e. a tool to help you learn in a more efficient way, and hence you do not need to show it to anyone. However, hold on to it at least until the end of this course, since this enables you to compare your starting point to what you have learned during this course.

	STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
I N T E R N A L		
	OPPORTUNITIES	**THREATS**
E X T E R N A L		

TASK 4: Goal-setting

IDEA: The students are asked to write down 5 clear and attainable goals that they want to achieve while working with the present material package. The bottom line is that these goals guide the students' learning and hence the teacher can decide whether or not (s)he wants to take a look at them.

PURPOSE & AIMS: Alongside with the SWOT-analysis, these goals will guide the students' learning, since having established these goals, the students will be more motivated to learn when they have a clear idea of what they want to achieve.

NB! In order to see whether the students have reached their goals, they should be asked to review these goals after completing this course. Furthermore, they could be asked to write a brief commentary on how well they achieved them or alternatively have a short discussion with the teacher.

TIME FRAME: About 10 minutes.

TASK 4: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

GOAL-SETTING

Write down 5 clear and attainable goals for this course. Make an effort to achieve them and bear them in mind throughout the course. Also, hold on to them at least until the end of the course. You may be asked to review them after this course.

1) ____

____

____

2) ____

____

____

3) ____

____

____

4) ____

____

____

5) ____

____

____

TASK 5: Audience-centered approach to public speaking

Audience-centered model of public speaking (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:375).

IDEA: The teacher divides all the 8 steps (i.e. the steps on the outer circle) of this model among the students. The students can either work in pairs or in small groups (3-4 students) but it is essential that every student has the opportunity to orally share their ideas with someone. When the students have gathered into groups and once the teacher has assigned them a part of this model the students will have a discussion guided by the questions provided below. After that each pair/group will orally share the results of their discussion with the whole class and the teacher can supplement the discussion with his/her own knowledge.

PURPOSE & AIMS: The students get acquainted with this helpful model by first discussing their and their peers' background knowledge and experiences. This method thus allows the students to interact orally instead of the teacher merely lecturing on the topic. As a result, the students are increasingly more comfortable with communicating in English and they gain an overall view of this model that is highly useful in public speaking taking place in the business world.

NB! The teacher is strongly advised to compile a written handout of this discussion and for this purpose the teacher can ask the students to make clear notes (e.g. bullet points) during their small group discussion. After the class, the teacher can then put together the handout and add information and tips that (s)he thinks that should be included. As a result, the students will have the handout as a tool that they can use throughout the course as well as during their careers.

TIME FRAME: About 40 minutes.

SOURCES:

Beebe, S.A. and S.J. Beebe. 2012. *Public Speaking: An audience-centered Approach*. Boston : Allyn & Bacon/Pearson.

Clinkscale, B.G. 1980. Thirteen Strategies to Improve Oral Communication Skills. In Douglas, G.H. (eds.), *Teaching Business Communication.* Urbana, Illinois: The Association for Business Communication, 147-153.

Himstreet, W.C and W.M. Baty. 1990. *Business Communications: Principles and Methods.* Boston: PWS-KENT Publishing Co.

Lucas, S.E. 1999. Teaching Public Speaking.In Vangelisti, A.L., Daly, J.A and G.W. Friedrich (eds.), *Teaching Communication: Theory, Research and Methods.* Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers, 75-84.

Lucas, S.E. 2009. *The Art of Public Speaking*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Education.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2000. *Principles and types of Speech Communication.* New York: Addison Wesley Longman Inc.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2007. *Principles and types of public speaking.* Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

O'Hair, D., G.W. Friedrich and L.D. Dixon. 2011. *Strategic Communication in Business and the Professions.* Boston: Pearson Education.

TASK 5: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

AUDIENCE-CENTERED APPROACH TO PUBLIC SPEAKING

Audience-centered model of public speaking (Beebe and Beebe, 2012:375).

Discuss the step of the audience-centered approach assigned to you with the help of the following questions. Make use of your prior knowledge and previous experiences of public speaking. Don't forget to justify your ideas and try to include practical examples whenever possible. Prepare to orally share your thoughts and ideas with the rest of the class.

1) In your opinion, what does this step include? What does it require from the speaker? List practical tips and guidelines.
2) What is the relevance of this particular step? Why is it included in the process of speechmaking?
3) How does the center of this figure, i.e. "Consider the audience", become apparent in your step? How can the speaker take the audience into account during this stage of the process?
4) Why do you think that this particular model of the speechmaking process is included in this course? What is its relevance to the business context?

MODULE 1: Informative Speaking

Information Bank: Informative speaking in a nutshell

- To provide the audience with new information about ideas, concepts, principles, processes, events or people.

- To convey information in an accurate, clear and meaningful manner in order to enhance the audience's knowledge and understanding of the topic.

- There are three different types of informative speeches:

  1) Description: providing facts, figures and other data to describe the topic.
  2) Demonstration: to elaborate on *how* something works
  3) Explanation: to answer 'why' questions by justifying the actions and decisions in question.

- The four most typical formats of informative speaking used in the business world:

  1) A Briefing: a relatively short presentation
  2) A Report: an oral account of the status quo
  3) A Training presentation: to help the listeners gain or improve on specific skills
  4) Routine/regularly scheduled meetings: a "telling format" wherein information is shared to be passed around in the company

TASK 1: "Let me introduce you our new colleague…"

IDEA: The students work in pairs and their task is to prepare an informative speech which introduces their peer to the rest of the class. However, they should imagine that they are introducing a new employee at their imaginary workplace.

Prior to giving this speech, they will need to orally interview one another and based on the interview they will construct and deliver an interesting and memorable speech.

PURPOSE & AIMS: First of all, the group members get to know each other, which creates the basis for a constructive and supportive group climate. Secondly, each student is provided with a chance to prepare and deliver an informative speech that could actually take place in the business world.

TIME FRAME: The speech itself: about 7 minutes. (Preparation done at home.)

SOURCES:

Beebe, S.A. and S.J. Beebe. 2012. *Public Speaking: An audience-centered Approach*. Boston : Allyn & Bacon/Pearson.

Himstreet, W.C and W.M. Baty. 1990. *Business Communications: Principles and Methods.* Boston: PWS-KENT Publishing Co.

Lucas, S.E. 2009. *The Art of Public Speaking*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Education.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2000. *Principles and types of Speech Communication.* New York: Addison Wesley Longman Inc.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2007. *Principles and types of public speaking.* Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

O'Hair, D., G.W. Friedrich and L.D. Dixon. 2011. *Strategic Communication in Business and the Professions.* Boston: Pearson Education.

TASK 1: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

"LET ME INTRODUCE YOU OUR NEW COLLEAGUE…"

Your task is to interview a fellow student and based on that interview you will prepare and deliver a **7-minute** informative speech that introduces this person to the rest of the class. However, since this is a business communication class, you will have to imagine that the person you are introducing is a new employee in your company and the remaining groups members are your co-workers.

Thus, in addition to merely covering the basics, try to come up with questions that will reveal interesting and memorable facts of this person especially from the viewpoint of the international business world (e.g. language skills, work history, international experiences).

Furthermore, do not forget to make use of the previously given audience-centered model of public speaking and the information bank discussion informative speaking.

TASK 2: Peer feedback form/Informative speaking

IDEA: Using peer feedback serves two major functions. First of all, it is naturally an essential learning tool for the speaker, as (s)he is made aware of the pros and cons of the given speech as well as his/her strengths and weaknesses as a speaker. Secondly, asking students to give feedback also activates them while listening to their peers' speeches and furthermore it draws their attention to important aspects of public speaking which then enhances their learning.

PURPOSE & AIMS: The speaker gains a better understanding of his/her speech and of him/her as a public speaker and the audience is also able to gain valuable insights that they can utilize when speaking in public.

TIME FRAME: The students write peer feedback during the presentation and they can be given a few minutes after the presentation to finish. In case of giving oral feedback as well, the discussion will likely take about 10 minutes per each presentation.

NB! The peer feedback form can also be used when the teacher gives feedback and it can either merely be handed in to the speaker or, if time permits, the teacher and the other students can also summarize their feedback orally to the speaker. The latter option allows the teacher and the students giving feedback to more thoroughly explain their viewpoints and moreover the speaker can ask questions also right then and there. This option is strongly advocated as it increases oral communication in the classroom and moreover enables the students to get better acquainted with public speaking.

It is up to you as a teacher to decide how many students give feedback at a time. The alternatives are for example the following; you simply ask one student to give feedback on one speech, you ask small groups (3-5 students) to give feedback on one speech or every single student gives feedback on each of the presentations.

TASK 2: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

PEER FEEDBACK FORM/ INFORMATIVE SPEAKING

Give feedback on your classmate's speech with the help of the following form. Please comment on the following issues in a clear and comprehensive manner and remember to constructively discuss both pros & cons and strengths & weaknesses. This way your feedback benefits the speaker in the best possible way.

1) **The beginning** (e.g. introduction, stating the purpose, getting the audience's attention…)

2) **The body** (e.g. logic and organization of the main points, use of signposting language, the content)

3) **The conclusion** (e.g. Was it effective and memorable? Did it provide closure?)

4) **Verbal communication** (e.g. ability to communicate in a clear and interesting manner, use of the English language)

5) **Nonverbal communication** (e.g. the speaker's voice and pace, eye contact, gestures, use of visual aids)

6) **Adherence to the task in question** (e.g. Did the speaker follow the given instructions? Did (s)he adhere to the guidelines of the audience-centered approach and informative speaking? Could this speech be an actual informative speech given in the business world?)

7) **How could the speaker improve his/her performance in the future? Provide 3-5 practical tips.**

8) **Any additional comments…?**

TASK 3: Dos and Don'ts of Informative Speaking

IDEA: The students work in small groups (3-4 students) and discuss the Dos and Don'ts of Informative speaking based on the first speech given in this course (i.e. based on their experience as a speaker and as an audience member). Each group should write down their tips and additionally prepare to orally summarize their ideas to the rest of the class. The teacher can supplement this discussion with additional viewpoints and tips in order to increase the students understanding of informative speaking.

PURPOSE & AIMS: This task draws the students' attention to what is successful informative speaking, as it allows them to ponder on the issue with their peers and reflect on the given speeches.

TIME FRAME: About 20 minutes.

NB! After the discussion the teacher collects the groups' notes and based on them compiles a handout for the students. This handout will surely come in handy later on in the course as well as during the students' careers in the business world.

SOURCES:

Beebe, S.A. and S.J. Beebe. 2012. *Public Speaking: An audience-centered Approach*. Boston : Allyn & Bacon/Pearson.

Himstreet, W.C and W.M. Baty. 1990. *Business Communications: Principles and Methods.* Boston: PWS-KENT Publishing Co.

Lucas, S.E. 2009. *The Art of Public Speaking*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Education.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2000. *Principles and types of Speech Communication.* New York: Addison Wesley Longman Inc.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2007. *Principles and types of public speaking.* Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

O'Hair, D., G.W. Friedrich and L.D. Dixon. 2011. *Strategic Communication in Business and the Professions.* Boston: Pearson Education.

TASK 3: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS:

DOs AND DON'Ts OF INFORMATIVE SPEAKING

In your group, discuss the Dos and Don'ts of informative speaking and write them down. Furthermore, prepare to present these tips orally to the other groups.

DOs	DON'Ts

TASK 4: Sample speeches from the business world

IDEA: In addition to reflecting and commenting on the students' speeches, the teacher can also make use of business speeches available online. The following Youtube-links include real-life business speeches given by some of the most successful businesspeople of our time.
These speeches can be watched and discussed in class either among the whole group or in smaller groups but it is essential that each student has an opportunity to orally examine and evaluate these sample speeches. To help the students get started with the discussion, they can be given the guideline questions attached to the instructions for the students.

PURPOSE & AIMS: This task offers the students a chance to observe real-life business speeches and discuss them critically with their peers. As a result, they will gain a better understanding of actual business presentations and they can absorb some good aspects to be incorporated in the students' own speeches.

TIME FRAME: About 20 minutes/one sample speech

LINKS TO THE SAMPLE SPEECHES:

- http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OBhYxj2SvRI

  (A speech by the deceased Steve Jobs, co-founder and former CEO of Apple Inc.)
- http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=daautsKE8tA&feature=r
  elated

  (A speech by Stephen Elop, CEO of Nokia Corporation)
- http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6jffYF3OMfA&feature=
  related

  (A speech by Olli-Pekka Kallasvuo, former CEO of Nokia Corporations)
- http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1nyktWcJL3c&feature=r
  elated

  (A speech by Muhtar Kent, CEO of the Coca Cola Company)
- http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wJfU0IVK4eI&feature=
  relmfu

(Dr. Donna E. Shalala, President of University of Miami, introduces Jim Skinner, CEO of McDonald's Corporation & A speech by Skinner himself)

- http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ycovtK0sIkE&feature=relmfu

  (Dr. Thomas J. LeBlanc, Executive Vice President and Provost of University of Miami, introduces Arun Sarin, former CEO of Vodafone group)

- http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NHIIH8eFX5k

  (A speech by Anders Dahlvig, former CEO of IKEA)

- http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=J7lD1go1k_I

  (A speech by Thorsten Heins, CEO of Research in Motion)

TASK 4: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

SAMPLE SPEECHES FROM THE BUSINESS WORLD

In your group, make use of the following guideline questions when critically discussing the sample speech(es) assigned to you. Remember to always justify your arguments and provide concrete examples to support your viewpoints whenever possible.

1) What is your first impression of the speaker and the speech? Where does this image derive from?

2) What do you think of the beginning of the speech? Does it get your attention? Why/Why not?

3) How about what is your opinion of the main body of the speech? What do you think of the content? Is it clearly organized and does it appeal to the audience?

4) Does the speaker provide a proper conclusion?

5) How would you describe the speaker's verbal communication and use of the language?

6) How about his nonverbal communication? Does it support the verbal message?

7) In which ways does it become apparent that this is a speech given in the business context?

8) What are the pros and cons of the speech/speaker? What can you learn from this particular speech?

TASK 5: An informative speech of own choice

IDEA: Now that the students have more profoundly familiarized themselves with the concept of informative speaking and gained some practical experience, it is time for them to prepare and deliver another informative speech. This time, however, they have to choose and narrow down the topic themselves but the topic must somehow be relevant to the course, i.e. it must be an informative speech that could be given in the business context (topics, types and formats of informative speaking in the business context are provided in this module's **Information bank**).

PURPOSE & AIMS: To allow the students to put their informative speaking knowledge and skills into use and provide them with an opportunity to improve their performance.

TIME FRAME: About 10 minutes per one speech (Preparation done at home.)

NB! The teacher is strongly encouraged to make use of the same feedback procedure as used in **TASK 2** of this module.

TASK 5: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

AN INFORMATIVE SPEECH OF OWN CHOICE

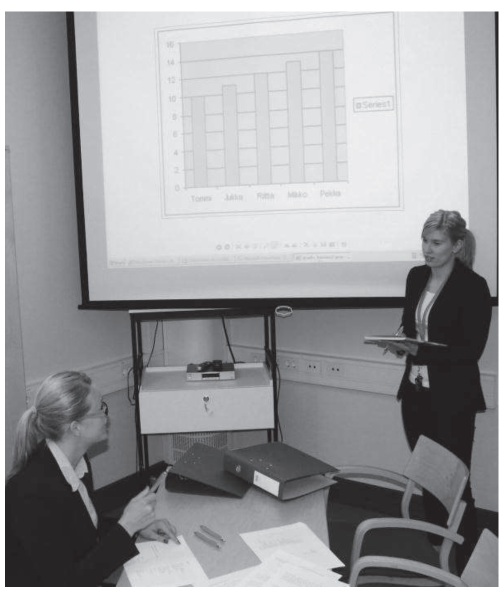
Your task is to prepare and deliver another informative speech. However, this time you will get to choose the topic as long as it fits the following guidelines (for more details, take a look at this module's **Information bank**).

1) It introduces an idea, concept, principle, process or an event
2) It provides a description, demonstration or explanation.
3) Its format is one of the following: a briefing, a report, a training presentation or "a telling format".

By using these guidelines you should choose and narrow down a topic that somehow relates to the modern international business world. In order to prepare and deliver the best possible informative speech, make use of the model of audience-centered public speaking as well as all the handouts given to you.

The timeframe for your speech is **10 minutes**.

You will again receive feedback with the previously used form and thus you can also use that as a tool when preparing.



TASK 6: In search of business small talk topics

IDEA: As homework, each student is asked to bring in one small talk topic from the real world to the classroom and these topics will then be discussed in class. The students are advised to look for topics from a variety of media, i.e. for example newspapers and their websites, TV-news, social media and other online sources. There are only three requirements.

1) Their primary sources ought to be in English.
2) The students must find topics that relate to the modern international business world.
3) The topics must be suited for small talk in multicultural encounters, i.e. they must be appropriate and not insult anyone.

PURPOSE & AIMS: First of all, with the help of this assignment, the students get acquainted with some field-specific vocabulary and issues also in English. Secondly, engaging in a variety of discussions enhances their ability and boosts their confidence when it comes to field-specific small talk in the modern international business world.

TIME FRAME: About 10-15 minutes per one topic (Preparation done at home.)

TASK 6: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS:

IN SEARCH OF BUSINESS SMALL TALK TOPICS

Your homework is to find a small talk topic that is somehow related to the modern international business world. Instead of coming up with a topic yourself, you are required to consult some sources that discuss business issues in English. Possible sources are listed below.

- http://yle.fi/uutiset/news/ (YLE news in English)
- http://europe.wsj.com/home-page (Wall Street Journal)
- http://www.ft.com/home/uk (Financial Times)
- http://www.economist.com/ (The Economist)
- http://www.forbes.com/ (Forbes)
- http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business/ (BBC Business news)
- http://edition.cnn.com/BUSINESS/ (CNN Business news)
- http://www.businessweek.com/ (Businessweek)
- http://www.guardian.co.uk/business (The Guardian business news)
- http://www.reuters.com/finance (Reuters finance section)

Find a topic that interests you and that could evoke small talk in class. Prepare to briefly present it in class and try to come up with comments, questions and opinions that you can use to keep the conversation alive.

MODULE 2: Persuasive Speaking

Information bank: Persuasive speaking in a nutshell

- The most common type of public speaking in the business context. It is used for example in sales presentations, business proposals, motivational sessions and crisis situations.

- Persuasive speaking aims at changing/reinforcing the audience's:
  1) Attitudes
  2) Beliefs
  3) Values
  4) Behavior

- Models of Persuasion:

  1) Aristotle's Classical Approach. Advices the speaker to make use of:

     a) ETHOS: the speaker's own credibility
     b) LOGOS: rational and logical arguments
     c) PATHOS: appeals to emotion

2) ELM's (Elaboration likelihood model) Contemporary Approach. Helps the speaker to understand *how* listeners *interpret* persuasive messages.

   a) DIRECT ROUTE- VIA ELABORATION: The audience critically examines evidence and arguments.
   b) INDIRECT ROUTE- WITHOUT ELABORATION: The audience is persuaded by the speaker's charisma and emotional appeals.

- How to motivate your listeners?

  a) Use cognitive dissonance: Inform your audience about existing problems and inconsistencies in order to create psychological discomfort.
  b) Appeal to the needs of your audience: Address their unmet needs, i.e. physiological needs, safety, social, self-esteem and self-actualization needs.
  c) Utilize positive motivation: Convince your audience that positive things will occur if they support what you are advocating.
  d) Make use of negative motivation: Convince your audience that something negative will happen in case they refuse to support what you are advocating.

TASK 1: Pre-meeting talk

IDEA: This task functions as a continuum of the homework assignment described in **TASK 6/**MODULE 1. The idea is that the small talk topics brought in by the students will be used in order to simulate pre-meeting talk in the classroom. Furthermore, the students should be required to make an effort to really keep the conversation going for the whole period of time designated by the teacher (e.g. 10 minutes per one topic).

You as a teacher can decide how this will be organized in practice but some alternatives are provided below:

1) You can have a session which is entirely dedicated to pre-meeting talk, i.e. students gather in groups of for example 4-6 and each student brings in a topic for discussion (about 10 minutes per one topic).
2) Small-talk is incorporated into multiple sessions by asking students to engage in small group discussions in the beginning of these sessions (e.g. 1-3 small talk topics per one session).

In order to profoundly prepare the students for this format of discussion, it is essential that in addition to merely engaging in pre-meeting small talk in the classroom the students are also asked to reflect on this task. After the students have practiced this skill in class, you as a teacher can lead a reflection discussion for example with the help of the guideline questions provided in the students' instructions.

PURPOSE AND AIMS: Pre-meeting talk plays an integral role in the international business world and thus mastering it is respectively important. With the help of this task the students gain practical experience of this discussion format as well as become acquainted with a variety of topical field-specific issues. Moreover, the reflection part of this task increases their understanding of methods and procedures needed in order to be able to engage in pre-meeting talk in international encounters.

TIME FRAME: About 10 minutes per one small-talk topic.

TASK 1: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

PRE-MEETING TALK

In this task you and your peers will simulate pre-meeting talk in English with the help of the small talk topics you have been asked to bring in to class. You will have about 10 minutes to discuss one topic and the idea is that you make a conscious effort to keep the conversation alive for the whole time.

After having engaged in small-talk with your peers, you should discuss this experience by reflection on the following questions with your peers. Prepare to orally share your ideas with the rest of the class.

Reflection questions:

1) How well did you succeed in this task? Were you able to keep the conversation alive the whole time? Why/why not?
2) What methods can a person use in order to maintain a conversation?
3) Based on this experience, what are in your opinion good and suitable business small-talk topics? Why do some topics work whereas others do not?
4) Which topics are appropriate for international pre-meeting talk? How should you take different cultures into account?
5) How do you think you will manage in this type of situations in the real-world? What do you still need to practice?
6) Any additional comments, questions for the teacher, concerns, ideas…

TASK 2: A sales pitch

IDEA: The students are asked to work in pairs and their task is to give a sales pitch to the rest of the class. They can either try to sell an already existing product/service or make one up themselves. The main point is that they make use of the information provided in this module's **Information bank**, i.e. they should have some kind of consistent strategy when persuading their classmates to buy their product or service. Furthermore, they should bear in mind the guidelines of Audience-centered model to

After each speech, the audience will vote whether or not they would buy the product/service being sold. Your task as the teacher is to oversee this and evoke discussion in the classroom, since this discussion is an essential part of the learning process both for the speakers and the listeners.

Similarly to the previous module, you are recommended to make use of the peer feedback form provided in **TASK 2** of this module.

PURPOSE AND AIMS: First of all, this task allows the students to put the theory of persuasive speaking into use when they need to apply it in their own speech. Secondly, their speaking skills are being activated as they plan a strategy together with their peer and as they give the actual speech in class.

TIME FRAME: About 7-10 minutes per one speech (Most of the planning done at home.)

NB! You are strongly advised to allow your students to discuss their sales strategy in class, since this enables them to consult you in case they need any clarification or help. Furthermore, this allows you to make sure that the students use English when discussing with their peer.

SOURCES:

Beebe, S.A. and S.J. Beebe. 2012. *Public Speaking: An audience-centered Approach*. Boston : Allyn & Bacon/Pearson.

Lucas, S.E. 2009. *The Art of Public Speaking*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Education.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2007. *Principles and types of public speaking.* Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

O'Hair, D., G.W. Friedrich and L.D. Dixon. 2011. *Strategic Communication in Business and the Professions.* Boston: Pearson Education.

TASK 2: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

A SALES PITCH

Work with a classmate and prepare together a persuasive speech in which you try to sell a product or service. You can either make use of an already existing product/service or alternatively invent one on your own. The main idea is that you have a clear sales strategy which you consciously throughout your speech. Therefore, you need to discuss the following aspects:

- What do you want to achieve with your speech, i.e. do you want to change the audience's attitudes, beliefs, values and/or behavior?
- How you will appeal to your audience, i.e. what methods and tools will you use (e.g. Aristotle's Classical Approach, Elaboration likelihood model)?
- How will you motivate your audience (cognitive dissonance, unmet needs, positive and negative motivation)?

Your sales pitch should last **about 7-10 minutes** and hence proper planning and preparation is needed. After your speech the rest of the class will vote whether or not they would buy your product/service. Moreover, you will also get written peer feedback so that you can reflect on your speech.

TASK 3: Peer feedback form /Persuasive speaking

IDEA: Using peer feedback serves two major functions. First of all, it is naturally an essential learning tool for the speaker, as (s)he is made aware of the pros and cons of the given speech as well as his/her strengths and weaknesses as a speaker. Secondly, asking students to give feedback also activates them while listening to their peers' speeches and furthermore it draws their attention to important aspects of public speaking which then enhances their learning.

PURPOSE & AIMS: The speaker gains a better understanding of his/her speech and of him/her as a public speaker and the audience is also able to gain valuable insights that they can utilize when speaking in public.

TIME FRAME: The students write peer feedback during the presentation and they can be given a few minutes after the presentation to finish. In case of giving oral feedback as well, the discussion will likely take about 10 minutes per each presentation.

NB! The peer feedback form can also be used when the teacher gives feedback and it can either merely be handed in to the speaker or, if time permits, the teacher and the other students can also summarize their feedback orally to the speaker. The latter option allows the teacher and the students giving feedback to more thoroughly explain their viewpoints and moreover the speaker can ask questions also right then and there. This option is strongly advocated as it increases oral communication in the classroom and moreover enables the students to get better acquainted with public speaking.

It is up to you as a teacher to decide how many students give feedback at a time. The alternatives are for example the following; you simply ask one student to give feedback on one speech, you ask small groups (3-5 students) to give feedback on one speech or every single student gives feedback on each of the presentations.

TASK 3: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

PEER FEEDBACK FORM/ PERSUASIVE SPEAKING

Please provide your classmates feedback with the help of the following form. Comment on the following issues in a clear and comprehensive manner and remember to constructively discuss both pros & cons and strengths & weaknesses. This way your feedback benefits the speaker in the best possible way.

1) **The beginning** (e.g. Does it get your attention? Does the topic appeal to you from the start?)

2) **The body** (e.g. How does the speaker try to persuade you? Is (s)he convincing? Are you able to detect his/her strategy and what is your reaction to it?)

3) **The conclusion** (e.g. Is it effective and memorable? Does it make you want to support what the speaker is advocating?)

4) **Verbal communication** (e.g. ability to communicate in a clear and interesting manner, use of the English language)

5) **Nonverbal communication** (Does it support the overall persuasion? Is the speaker enthusiastic and does (s)he seem confident of the topic?)

6) **Adherence to the task in question** (e.g. Did the speaker follow the given instructions? Did they adhere to the guidelines of the audience-centered approach (Beebe and Beebe, 2012) and persuasive speaking? Could this speech be an actual speech given in the business world?)

7) **How could the speaker improve his/her performance in the future? Provide 3-5 practical tips.**

8) **Any additional comments…?**

TASK 4: Sealing the deal: the soft sell VS. the hard sell

(Adopted from: Powell, M. 2002. Business Matters. The business course with a lexical approach. Boston: Thomson Heinle.)

IDEA: Students are asked to discuss in small groups (3-5 students) the concepts of Soft sell and Hard sell and their relation to persuasive speaking. In order to help them get started with the conversation they will be provided with some written claims that they must comment on.

PURPOSE AND AIMS: This task provides the students with a chance to learn more about sealing the deal in the business world, as this task allows them to share viewpoints and ideas with their peers. In addition to this, the task functions as an excellent opportunity for them to make use of their oral English skills and especially the field-specific vocabulary.

TIME FRAME: About 20 minutes.

NB! It is strongly recommended that while the students are talking, you circle around in the classroom, as this way you can observe the students and their discussion both from the viewpoint of content and language. Based on your observations you can then decide whether or not there is a need for a whole class discussion. Furthermore, you will know if there is some additional information or linguistic issues that the students should be made aware of.

TASK 4: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

SEALING THE DEAL: THE SOFT SELL VS. THE HARD SELL

Your task is to discuss the concepts of 'Soft sell' and 'Hard sell' in your group. In order to do this, pleas answer the following questions orally. Make sure that all your group members participate and contribute to the discussion by supporting their ideas with clear arguments and real life examples /anecdotes.

1) What is meant by 'Soft' and 'Hard' sell? What is their difference? How do they become apparent in practice?

2) What is their relation to persuasive speaking? How are the present in persuasive speaking in the business context?

3) Which one do you prefer? Which one of the two approaches is more successful (e.g. based on your experiences as a customer or seller). In order to find this out, put the following sales guidelines into an order of importance (1=the most important,10= the least important). You can first ponder on them individually and then decide an order that you all can more or less agree on. Notice that you may need to try to *persuade* your peers to support your ideas!

   a) Minimize the customer's chances to say 'no'. ____
   b) Follow up as many leads as possible. ____
   c) Secure as many sales appointments as possible. ____
   d) Listen to the customer. ____
   e) Don't take 'no' for an answer. ____
   f) Keep smiling! ____
   g) Don't waste time on people who aren't going to buy. ____
   h) Don't give the customer too much time to think. ____
   i) Ask questions that force the customer to say 'yes'. ____
   j) Spend time with the customer. ____

(Powell, M. 2002. Business Matters. The business course with a lexical approach. Boston: Thomson Heinle.)

4) Based on this listing, is your group more in favor of 'Soft' or 'Hard' sell? Depending on which is your favorite, try to come up with as many phrases (in English) as possible that you could use in real life when giving a persuasive sales speech. Write them down and do not hesitate to consult the teacher in case you need help.

TASK 5: A Persuasive speech of own choice

IDEA: This task allows the students to get acquainted with the remaining three formats of persuasive speaking in the business world, i.e. **business proposals** as well as speeches given in **motivational sessions** and **crisis situations**, as the students are asked to give a speech individually. The idea is that they can choose the topic themselves but it has to relate to one of the three persuasive formats mentioned above. Moreover, remind your students that they should consciously make use of the models and motivation strategies discussed in this module's **Information bank**).

PURPOSE AND AIMS: To enhance the students' public speaking skills in terms of persuasive speaking and offer them a chance to give a speech that could actually be given in the target context.

TIME FRAME: About 10 minutes per one speech (Preparation done at home.)

NB! The teacher is strongly encouraged to make use of the same feedback procedure as used in **TASK 3** of this module.

TASK 5: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

PERSUASIVE SPEECH OF OWN CHOICE

Your task is to prepare and deliver another persuasive speech. However, this time you will get to choose the topic as long as it fits one of the following formats;

1) An oral business proposal
2) A persuasive speech given in a motivational session
3) A persuasive speech given in a crisis situation

After choosing one of these formats, you should choose and narrow down a topic that somehow relates to the modern international business world. In order to prepare and deliver the best possible persuasive speech, make use of the model of audience-centered public speaking as well as all the information provided in this module's **Information bank,** e.g. models of persuasion and motivation strategies.

The timeframe for your speech is **10 minutes** and you expected to prepare and rehearse this speech in your own time at home.

You will again receive feedback with the previously used form and thus you can also use that as a tool when preparing.

TASK 6: In search of casual small talk topics

IDEA: As homework, each student is asked to bring in one small talk topic from the real world to the classroom and these topics will then be discussed in class. The students are advised to look for topics from a variety of media, i.e. for example newspapers and their websites, TV-news, social media and other online sources. There are only three requirements.

1) Their primary sources ought to be in English.
2) The students must find light and casual topics.
3) The topics ought to be suitable for the multicultural business context. The students should bring in topics that are neutral and by no means controversial, as the idea is to evoke polite and casual small talk instead of heated discussion.

PURPOSE & AIMS: First of all, with the help of this assignment, the students get acquainted with topics that they can utilize in real life business encounters. Secondly, engaging in a variety of discussions in English enhances their ability and boosts their confidence to participate in small talk.

TIME FRAME: About 10-15 minutes per one topic (Preparation done at home.)

TASK 6: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS:

Let's Talk Business!

IN SEARCH OF CASUAL SMALL TALK TOPICS

Your homework is to find a light and casual small talk topic that you can discuss with your peers in class. In order to find an interesting and current topic, you should take a look at some sources that discuss topical issues in English. Possible sources are listed below.

- http://yle.fi/uutiset/news/ (YLE news in English)
- http://www.bbc.co.uk/news (BBC news)
- http://edition.cnn.com (CNN news)
- http://www.guardian.co.uk (The Guardian)
- http://www.reuters.com (Reuters)
- http://www.telegraph.co.uk (The Telegraph)
- http://www.dailymail.co.uk/home/index.html (The Daily Mail)
- http://theweek.com/ (The week)
- http://www.usatoday.com/ (USA today)

Find a topic that interests you and that could evoke small talk in class. Prepare to briefly present it in class and try to come up with comments, questions and opinions that you can use to keep the conversation alive.

MODULE 3: Special occasion speaking

Information bank: Special occasion speaking in a nutshell

- Special occasion speaking refers to speeches given in more sociable situations, e.g. business dinners, office parties and courtesy visits of associates and clients. They often aim at fulfilling certain special needs set by some special occasion.

- This type of speeches are at best brief and their tone is very often positive. The focus should always be on the occasion or person in question, NOT the speaker.

- Most common special occasions in the business world:

  1) Speech of introduction
  2) Goodwill speeches
  3) Speeches related to celebrations, tributes and awards
  4) Farewells and retirement speeches

TASK 1: Casual small talk

IDEA: This task functions as a continuum of the homework assignment described in **TASK 6/** MODULE 2. The idea is that the small talk topics brought in by the students will be used in order to simulate casual small talk in the classroom. The students should be required to make an effort to really keep the conversation going for the whole period of time designated by the teacher (e.g. 10 minutes per one topic).

You as a teacher can decide how this will be organized in practice but one alternative is provided below:

- The topics will be used in order to evoke small talk in between the special occasion speeches given during this module. This creates an authentic atmosphere to the classroom, as special occasion speeches and casual small talk often are combined e.g. in real life business dinners and gatherings.

In order to profoundly prepare the students for this format of discussion, it is essential that in addition to merely engaging in small talk in the classroom the students are also asked to reflect on this task. After the students have practiced this skill in class, you as a teacher can lead a reflection discussion for example with the help of the following guideline questions:

1) How well did you succeed in this task? Were you able to keep the conversation alive the whole time? Why/why not?
2) What methods can a person use in order to maintain a casual conversation?
3) Based on this experience, what are in your opinion good and suitable small-talk topics? Why do some topics work whereas others do not?
4) Which topics are appropriate for international business encounters? How should you take different cultures into account?
5) How do you think you will manage in this type of situations in the real-world? What do you still need to practice?
6) Any additional comments, questions for the teacher, concerns, ideas…

PURPOSE AND AIMS: Casual small talk plays an integral role in the international business world and hence it is essential to master it. This particular task enables the students to gain practical experience of this discussion format. Moreover, the reflection part of this task increases their understanding of methods and procedures needed in order to be able to engage in casual small talk in international encounters.

TIME FRAME: About 10 minutes per one small-talk topic.

SOURCES:

Chaney, L.H. and J.S. Martin. 2011. *Intercultural business communication*. Boston: Prentice Hall.

TASK 1: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

CASUAL SMALL TALK

In this task you and your peers will simulate casual small talk in English with the help of the topics you have been asked to bring in to class.

You will have about 10 minutes to discuss one topic and the idea is that you make a conscious effort to keep the conversation alive for the whole time.

In addition to merely engaging in small talk, prepare to also reflect on this task afterwards.

TASK 2: "And the award goes to..."

IDEA: Each student will prepare and deliver a speech in which they give an award to a successful 'co-worker' (in reality one of their classmates). This 'co-worker' can for example be awarded as an employee of the month or as the best team leader. The main point is that this award fits the international business context and that the speaker follows the guidelines of special occasion speaking.

PURPOSE AND AIMS: The students gain experience of special occasion speaking in English.

TIME FRAME: About 3-5 minutes per one speech (Preparation done at home.)

NB! In order for the next task, i.e. **TASK 3**, to work in the best possible way, it is of great importance that the students do NOT share their ideas (e.g. speech content) with the person addressed in the speech. This enables the impromptu nature of the speeches given in the following task.

Furthermore, please ask the students to provide each other with feedback with the help of the peer feedback form in **TASK 4**.

SOURCES

Beebe, S.A. and S.J. Beebe. 2012. *Public Speaking: An audience-centered Approach.* Boston:Allyn & Bacon/Pearson.

Lucas, S.E. 2009. *The Art of Public Speaking.* Boston: McGraw-Hill Education.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2007. *Principles and types of public speaking.* Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

O'Hair, D., G.W. Friedrich and L.D. Dixon. 2011. *Strategic Communication in Business and the Professions.* Boston: Pearson Education.

TASK 2: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

"AND THE AWARD GOES TO…"

In this task you will need to prepare and deliver a special occasion speech in which you give an award (e.g. employee of the month or the best team leader) to a successful 'co-worker' (in reality to one of your classmates). Your speech must suit the context of international business and you are expected to take the audience-centered approach (Beebe and Beebe, 2012) as well as the guidelines for special occasion speaking into account.

Please note that your speech should last about 3-5 minutes and hence proper preparation is undisputedly needed.

Do NOT tell your classmates what award you will give and what you will say in your speech. This is important due to the nature of the next task, in which your classmate will deliver an impromptu thank you- speech, i.e. the less (s)he knows about your speech the more extempore his/her speech will be.

TASK 3: "I would like to thank..."

IDEA: Ask the students to give an *impromptu* thank you- speech **immediately after** they have been given an award by one of their classmates.

PURPOSE AND AIMS: This task allows the students to gain more experience of special occasion speaking and moreover of *impromptu* speaking.

TIME FRAME: About 2-3 minutes per one speech.

NB! Ask your students to give each other feedback with the help of the peer feedback form available in **TASK 4**.

SOURCES:

Beebe, S.A. and S.J. Beebe. 2012. *Public Speaking: An audience-centered Approach*. Boston:Allyn & Bacon/Pearson.

Himstreet, W.C and W.M. Baty. 1990. *Business Communications: Principles and Methods.* Boston: PWS-KENT Publishing Co.

Lucas, S.E. 2009. *The Art of Public Speaking*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Education.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2007. *Principles and types of public speaking.* Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

O'Hair, D., G.W. Friedrich and L.D. Dixon. 2011. *Strategic Communication in Business and the Professions.* Boston: Pearson Education.

TASK 3: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

"I WOULD LIKE TO THANK…"

After you have been given an award by one of your classmates, your task is to deliver an impromptu thank you- speech. Even though you do not have time to plan this speech you should nevertheless try to take into account the guidelines of audience-centered approach (Beebe and Beebe, 2012) and special occasion speaking.

Your speech should last about 2-3 minutes and after your speech you will get feedback from your peers so that you can gain perspectives on how you did in this task.

TASK 4: Peer feedback form/Special occasion speaking

IDEA: Using peer feedback serves two major functions. First of all, it is naturally an essential learning tool for the speaker, as (s)he is made aware of the pros and cons of the given speech as well as his/her strengths and weaknesses as a speaker. Secondly, asking students to give feedback also activates them while listening to their peers' speeches and furthermore it draws their attention to important aspects of public speaking which then enhances their learning.

PURPOSE & AIMS: The speaker gains a better understanding of his/her speech and of him/her as a public speaker and the audience is also able to gain valuable insights that they can utilize when speaking in public.

TIME FRAME: The students write peer feedback during the presentation and they can be given a few minutes after the presentation to finish. In case of giving oral feedback as well, the discussion will likely take about 10 minutes per each presentation.

NB! The peer feedback form can also be used when the teacher gives feedback and it can either merely be handed in to the speaker or, if time permits, the teacher and the other students can also summarize their feedback orally to the speaker. The latter option allows the teacher and the students giving feedback to more thoroughly explain their viewpoints and moreover the speaker can ask questions also right then and there. This option is strongly advocated as it increases oral communication in the classroom and moreover enables the students to get better acquainted with public speaking.

It is up to you as a teacher to decide how many students give feedback at a time. The alternatives are for example the following; you simply ask one student to give feedback on one speech, you ask small groups (3-5 students) to give feedback on one speech or every single student gives feedback on each of the presentations.

TASK 4: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

PEER FEEDBACK FORM/ SPECIAL OCCASION SPEAKING

Please provide your classmates feedback with the help of the following form. Comment on the following issues in a clear and comprehensive manner and remember to constructively discuss both pros & cons and strengths & weaknesses. This way your feedback benefits the speaker in the best possible way.

1) **The beginning** (e.g. Does it get your attention?)

2) **The body** (e.g. Does it fit the occasion? Does it make the occasion memorable?)

3) **The conclusion** (e.g. Is it effective and memorable?)

4) **Verbal communication** (e.g. ability to communicate in a clear and interesting manner, use of the English language)

5) **Nonverbal communication** (Does it support the overall atmosphere of the occasion and the speech in particular?)

6) **Adherence to the task in question** (e.g. Did the speaker follow the given instructions? Did they adhere to the guidelines of the audience-centered approach (Beebe and Beebe, 2012) and special occasion speaking? Could this speech be an actual speech given in the business world?)

7) **How could the speaker improve his/her performance in the future? Provide 3-5 practical tips.**

8) **Any additional comments… (**e.g. here you can comment on how well the speaker was able to deliver an impromptu speech assigned in **TASK 3**)?

TASK 5: The ABC of special occasion speaking

IDEA: Ask the students to work in small groups (3-5 students) and divide the alphabet among these groups (e.g. group 1 gets letters A-F, group 2 gets letters G-L and so on). Then ask the students to come up with words starting with these letters (e.g. **A**tmosphere, **B**ody language, **C**reativity…) that would help them and their peers to deliver successful special occasion speeches.

In addition to merely discussing these guideline words, they should also make notes of these words, i.e. to write them down and to briefly elaborate what is meant by each word and/or how they relate to special occasion speaking. After the students have completed this, you can ask them to briefly summarize their discussion to the rest of the class. Furthermore, in order to even more profoundly prepare the students for any upcoming special occasion speeches, it is strongly advocated that you make a handout including all the alphabet and the related words for the whole group.

PURPOSE AND AIMS: To draw the students' attention to the main aspects and components of special occasion speaking by allowing them to reflect orally with their peers. The written handout functions as a helpful resource and a reminder that they can utilize in the future.

TIME FRAME: All in all about 30-35 minutes (small group discussions + the discussion among the whole class).

NB! Give the students the opportunity to really ponder on these issues by themselves but if necessary do not hesitate to provide the students with any useful information during the whole group discussion.

SOURCES:

Beebe, S.A. and S.J. Beebe. 2012. *Public Speaking: An audience-centered Approach*. Boston:Allyn & Bacon/Pearson.

Lucas, S.E. 2009. *The Art of Public Speaking*. Boston: McGraw-Hill Education.

McKerrow, R.E., Gronbeck, B.E, Ehniger, D. and A.H. Monroe. 2007. *Principles and types of public speaking.* Boston: Pearson Education Inc.

O'Hair, D., G.W. Friedrich and L.D. Dixon. 2011. *Strategic Communication in Business and the Professions.* Boston: Pearson Education.

TASK 5: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

THE ABC OF SPECIAL OCCASION SPEAKING

In your group, come up with guideline words that will help you and your peers to prepare and deliver successful special occasion speeches. Note that in order to compile the ABC of special occasion speaking these words must start with the letters assigned to you!

Please write down these words and also include brief explanations of why these words are essential from the viewpoint of special occasion speaking. Furthermore, prepare to orally present your guideline words to the rest of the class.

TASK 6: A Special occasion speech of own choice

IDEA: The students will give one more special occasion speech. They can choose the topic themselves but it must suit one of the two special occasions:

1) A Goodwill speech
2) A Farewell/ retirement speech

In addition to this, the students must take into account the audience-centered approach to public speaking (Beebe and Beebe, 2012) as well as the guidelines for special occasion speaking discussed in class (e.g. the ABC of special occasion speaking).

PURPOSE AND AIMS: The students gain experience of special occasion speaking and they are provided with a chance to put all their skills and knowledge of this type of public speaking and of public speaking in general into use, since this is the last speech assignment of this material package.

TIME FRAME: About 4-6 minutes per one speech. (Preparation done at home.)**NB**! You are strongly encouraged to ask the students to give peer feedback to each other with the help of the form available in **TASK 4** of this module.

TASK 6: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

A SPECIAL OCCASION SPEECH OF OWN CHOICE

Your task is to prepare and deliver one more special occasion speech. However, this time you will get to choose the topic as long as it fits one of the following two formats;

1) A Goodwill speech
2) A Farewell/ retirement speech

After choosing one of these formats, you should choose and narrow down a topic that somehow relates to the modern international business world. In order to prepare and deliver the best possible special occasion speech, make use of the model of audience-centered public speaking as well as all the information provided in class, e.g. the ABC of special occasion speaking.

The timeframe for your speech is **4-6 minutes** and you expected to prepare and rehearse this speech in your own time at home.

You will again receive feedback with the previously used form and thus you can also use that as a tool when preparing.

COURSE REVIEW

TASK 1: Reviewing SWOT-analysis

IDEA: Ask the students to review the SWOT-analysis form they filled in relation to TASK 3/COURSE KICK OFF. They can either re-write the whole form or merely make additional notes on this form or delete some things that no longer apply to them after taking this course.

PURPOSE AND AIMS: As the students reflect on the thoughts and feeling they had prior to working on this material, they will gain an idea of how they have changed as a public speaker and a small talk interlocutor.

TIME FRAME: About 10-20 minutes.

NB! If time permits and the students are willing, you can also ask them to discuss their SWOT-analysis in small groups so that they can also orally reflect on this task.

TASK 1: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

REVIEWING SWOT-ANALYSIS

Remember the SWOT-analysis form you filled in at the beginning of this course? Now it is time to review what you wrote back then and reflect on how you have changed as a public speaker and as a small talk interlocutor.

You can either fully re-write the whole form or you can simply make some changes, e.g. enclose some additional comments or delete something.

In case you want to, you can furthermore orally reflect on your strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats with your classmates.

TASK 2: Reviewing personal goals

IDEA: Ask your students to review the personal goals they set in **TASK 4**/COURSE KICK OFF. In order to help them reflect on their goals you can advice them to answer the questions available in the students' instructions.

PURPOSE AND AIMS: To draw the students' attention to their own learning and the factors affecting this process. With the help of the guideline questions the students furthermore become more aware of the fact that this course is merely one step in this learning process and that their learning will or at least it should continue also after this course.

TIME FRAME: About 15 minutes.

NB! If time permits and the students are interested, you can give them a chance to discuss their goals and especially their plans for the future with their peers. This can help them to gain more concrete and practical ideas of the things that they can do in the future in order to become better at public speaking and small talk.

TASK 2: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

REVIEWING PERSONAL GOALS

Please take out the sheet of paper on which you listed some personal goals before starting to work with this course. Reflect on them by writing answers to the following questions:

1) How many of the goals did you achieve?

2) What helped you to achieve them? What did you do well in this course?

3) What stopped you from achieving them? What could you have done differently?

4) How did the external factors (e.g. the teacher, your peers, the material) affect your learning?

5) In case you achieved all your goals, what would you like to achieve next in terms of public speaking and small talk in English?

6) If you did not achieve all your goals, what will you do in the future in order to achieve them?

NB! In case you feel the need, do not hesitate to orally share your goals and these answers with your peers!

TASK 3: Course feedback

IDEA: Ask the students to fill in the course feedback form available in the instructions for the students and collect them for yourself.

PURPOSE AND AIMS: It is also essential for you as a teacher to get some help when you start reviewing this course as a whole and hence with the help of the course feedback form you can gain some valuable insights into what are the pros and cons of the course, your teaching and the material package.

TIME FRAME: About 10 minutes.

NB! It is up to you to decide whether the students provide feedback anonymously or with their name attached.

TASK 3: INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE STUDENTS

COURSE FEEDBACK

Please provide your teacher with some feedback on this course by answering the following questions. Be as insightful, constructive and elaborative as possible. Feel free to write also on the flipside of this sheet.

1) What is your overall impression of this course? What worked well? What could be improved? Did this course prepare you for your future career in the international business world?

2) How would you comment on the teaching? Did it help you to learn or could it be altered somehow?

3) What did you think of the material and the tasks? Did they enhance your learning? Were they relevant and motivating? Is there something that this course is lacking?

4) Any additional comments, observations, ideas….?

Thank you for your valuable feedback and for your participation in this course!