Making messages memorable

The influence of rhetorical techniques on information retention

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Aan Jolijn

Aan Joep, Guus en Sil

Preface and acknowledgements

In a travel guide for PhD students, this dissertation would probably feature in the chapter *Off the beaten track*. After graduating in Rhetoric and Argumentation (the specialisation Taalbeheersing of the Dutch language and Culture study programme) from Leiden University by the end of 2008, I found a job as a communication skills lecturer at Delft University of Technology. Teaching presentation, (academic) writing and debating skills formed the main focus of my work; officially, research tasks were not part of the position. Still, rhetorical research was never far away. In hindsight, that is perhaps no surprise: Bas Andeweg—copromotor of this thesis—was my colleague at the TU Delft's Centre for Languages and Academic Skills (ITAV: Instituut voor Talen en Academische Vaardigheden) and promotor Jaap de Jong worked there for quite some time. Jaap and Bas, who wrote their dissertation together, slowly lit my PhD fire: next to my teaching activities, I was continuously involved in some of their research projects.

In 2012, I decided to embark on my own PhD project. While keeping my teaching position at TU Delft, I took what turned out to be a long and winding road and started my research project as an external PhD student at Leiden University. In busy semesters, I was happy when I could spend one day a week on the research. Still, I enjoyed diving into the topic and soon I had reached the point of no return. Finally, by the end of 2020, there came the sun. I had reached the finish line in a year that would prove to be challenging for everyone, and would pose many people with challenges that make the task of writing a PhD thesis grow pale. Although I had thought of a clear step-by-step approach, with various teaching projects, articles and not to mention the arrival of three wonderful children my PhD journey regularly veered 'off the beaten track'. It is a journey I am proud of.

Of course, I could not have reached the finish line without support. First and foremost, Jaap and Bas deserve my gratitude. You have encouraged me to take this step, always gave constructive feedback and held faith in a positive wrap-up of the project. Thank you for countless inspiring meetings in which we discussed both the bigger picture and the "sterretjes" I needed to take care of. We were ahead of time in some respect, with our hybrid meetings from Jaap's (home) office and Bas zooming from Zelhem. It is an honour to have written a dissertation in the tradition of *De eerste minuten.*

Next, I would like to thank the bachelor and master students of the Dutch Language and Culture programme (specialisation Taalbeheersing) who have made an important contribution to this dissertation, Nanouk Bel, Bert Besterveld, Shari Helderman, Anna Hoogesteger, Sebastiaan van Loosbroek, Ave Luth, Lisanne Mijnders, Anne van Winkelhof and Carli van Winsen for their efforts and useful results. The experiments could not have been possible without guest speakers Tommy Hopstaken and Bob van der Laaken displaying their rhetorical skills.

This thesis could not have been written without the invaluable support from my colleagues at the Centre for Languages and Academic Skills (ITAV) at Delft University of Technology. Thank you for spending some of your precious lecture time on my experiments, for inspiring lunches and a wonderful atmosphere to work in. In particular, I would like to thank Pauline Post for supporting this project and giving me time and space to work on it. I also can't thank Nadia van Pelt enough for her sharp eye in the final editing process. With Gezinus Wolters, lecturer and researcher Cognitive Psychology at Leiden University, I had a valuable meeting to discuss the role of memory theory in this dissertation.

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Furthermore, I would like to thank my family and friends who have supported me in the past few years. I could always share my thoughts with you or take my mind off the project. A word of thanks to my parents, for encouraging me to take my first steps on the academic path, and especially to my mother for the cover picture of this book.

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Leiden, April 2021

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1. Introduction

1.1 Memorable messages in a knowledge society

If Aristotle would have been able to travel to the 21st century to observe rhetorical practices, this founding father of rhetoric would have seen striking dissimilarities with his day and age and ours. Although knowledge unmistakably already played an important role in ancient Greek (and later Roman) civilisation, today's society is often referred to as a *knowledge society,* in which "knowledge--understood as our abilities to access, process, analyse, store and manage information—becomes the main element of the social capital" (Kampka & Molek-Kozakowska, 2016, p. 9). At the heart of the current knowledge society are new media, which enable a growing number of people to have access to information and be connected to each other (Lytras & Sicilia, 2005).

In the current knowledge society, Aristotle would have seen people trying to inform and persuade each other in ways that he and other classical rhetoricians would be quite familiar with: via speeches and presentations. However, unlike in Aristotle's day and age, access to speech events is no longer restricted to those present at the actual event. Presentations are often almost instantly available to audiences around the world via recordings or live streams. TED talks for example, intended to make knowledge and ideas widely accessible, are among the most viewed online videos and have sparked renewed interest in public speaking. Political speeches, or fragments thereof, are almost immediately covered by media; virtually all politicians—not just party leaders or cabinet members—are professional policy-makers as well as professional speakers who regularly perform at public speaking events, both offline and online. Scholars perform in online courses such as MOOCs and travel around the world as speaking professionals to exchange their research with peers at conferences, using electronic media to support their stories. Moreover, the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and 2021 fast-tracked the development of online presentations. In a sheer omnipresent virtual communication situation online presentations quickly became the only available way to give a talk. This development forces speakers to adapt to such new presentation settings.

In order to successfully transfer or exchange knowledge in any presentation situation, speakers need to make their main message memorable for the audience. According to Kjeldsen, Kiewe, Lund and Hansen, "the fleeting character of the spoken word makes it rhetorically important that a speech is clearly organised, has memorable formulations, makes an impression, and sticks in memory" (2019, p. 13).[1] The time-

[1] This apparent focus on memorability in oral communication can be related to the way in which the information is offered to and processed by the audience. In oral communication events such as presentations and speeches audiences depend on the speaker to properly process the information. In written communication, information processing by readers is mediated by text and readers are able to follow their own pace. Mediated presentations, such as TED talks, are often viewed by an audience that did not attend the actual event. Although in such a context

traveling Aristotle might have primarily recognised this important position of memory in rhetorical theory and public speaking from the point of view of the speaker: in ancient rhetoric, the *memoria* was distinguished as the fourth of five stages an orator should go through in order to prepare a proper speech.[2] In this stage, the orator would memorise the speech using mnemonic techniques (memory aids) such as the *method of loci,* also known as the memory palace (cf. Yates, 2014; Foer, 2011).

However, the focus on the *audience's* as opposed to the *orator's* memory appears to be a more recent phenomenon, emphasised in modern public-speaking textbooks and expert weblogs. In his textbook on presentation skills, memory expert Wagenaar even claims that speakers' first and foremost purpose is to make a message memorable for their audience: "You have to be prepared to go to great lengths to achieve this, even if it means standing on your head on stage! I have stood on my head once" (Wagenaar, 1996, p. 7). Similarly, a characteristic entry of a public speaking weblog on how to give a "highly memorable" presentation states: "If your audience doesn't remember you once you've finished, what's the point?" (Suster, 2013). A third example: Philip Collins, former speechwriter to British prime minister Tony Blair, promises to unravel "the secrets of making people remember what you say"—the subtitle of his book on writing speeches and presentations (2012). Perhaps the most important secret to be memorable, Collins believes, lies within the material that the speaker shares: "the central argument of this book is that you need to have a central argument" (p. 10).

Moreover, popular-scientific books on memorability such as *Made to stick* (Heath & Heath, 2010) and *Moonwalking with Einstein* (Foer, 2011) surfaced during the past decades, reaching a wide audience. Heath & Heath's bestseller aims to advise the reader on "how to make your ideas stick", which means that they "are understood and remembered, and have lasting impact--they change your audience's opinions and behaviour" (2010, p. 17). Heath & Heath remark that 'stickiness' rarely receives the attention it deserves. They suggest that communication advice on making an idea stick is not comprehensive enough; it is often only focused on aspects such as delivery, structure and storytelling (2010, p. 18).

As a time-traveling rhetorician, Aristotle would also have noticed that rhetoric and public speaking still play their part in modern education, even though rhetoric's role

situation a viewer can control the viewing experience to a certain extent, for example by pausing, rewinding or fast-forwarding the recording, the speaker still influences the pace at which information is processed. In practice such viewing behaviour seems rare. Observations of listeners viewing recorded video lectures show that most listeners viewed the videos with little to no rewinding during playback (Gross & Dinehart, 2016, p. 11).

[2] In ancient rhetorical theory, the five orator's canons were the *invention* (selecting and determining subject matter for the speech), *dispositio* (structuring and ordering the information), *elocutio* (choosing the appropriate formulation and style), *memoria* (memorising and becoming familiar with the speech) and *actio* (delivering the speech). Cicero and Quintilian dwell on these stages the orator should move through when preparing and delivering a speech.

in students' general formation is probably not as prominent as it was in ancient times. The development of communication skills forms an integral part of academic curricula in both Europe and the United States (see Meijers, 2003; Bologna Group, 2005; Anderson, 2008).[3] Oral presentation skills or public-speaking courses are therefore embedded in most universities' educational programmes, such as the courses offered by the Centre for Languages and Academic Skills of Delft University of Technology.[4] Such courses can be seen as examples of contexts in which students should be prepared for conveying a memorable message in today's and tomorrow's societies.

However, while the orator's memory formed a key element of ancient rhetorical education, modern teachers and (often) inexperienced students cannot rely on such a theory about the audience's memory. Delivering a memorable message is seen as a key purpose in a public-speaking situation, but the topic of information retention by the audience is scarcely studied (see section 1.4). What specific rhetorical strategies can a speaker apply to enhance the audience's ability to retain information and to what extent are these techniques effective? Wagenaar (1996) knew that the answer is not that straightforward as standing on your head; still, evidence-based answers are not readily available.

This thesis provides insight into the way that rhetorical techniques influence how audience members retain information.[5] To do so, this introduction chapter first addresses three key factors that help to clarify the relationship between rhetoric and audience information retention. First, Section 1.2 discusses insights from (cognitive) memory psychology, which show that the process of storing and retrieving information in the long-term memory can depend on many variables. These insights are hardly ever (explicitly) linked to ideas and principles from classical and modern

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[3] In the United States, development of communicative skills was earmarked as one of the learning priorities for the 21st century (Anderson, 2008). In Europe, students' abilities to effectively communicate are one of the five criteria known as the so-called Dublin descriptors that form the framework for academic education (Bachelor, Master and Doctorate level/undergraduate and graduate level) (Bologna Group, 2005). This applies to all academic disciplines, including those that might not be immediately associated with a high valuation of communication skills, such as engineering. In fact, in a document that sets forth future cornerstones of higher engineering education in The Netherlands with 2030 as a benchmark, Kamp (2016) mentions communication skills as one of the key aspects to prepare engineers for their role in an information-dense knowledge society. He emphasises engineers' abilities to communicate complex technical and scientific content comprehensibly to a broader audience.

[4] The author works at the Centre for Languages and Academic Skills at Delft University of Technology in The Netherlands, which provides courses in oral presentation, (academic) writing and debating skills in bachelor's and master's programs, as well as in the Graduate School for PhD students. Next to that, the centre offers language courses (e.g. English, Spanish and Dutch) to (PhD) students and employees.

[5] 'Audience information retention' is the key concept of this thesis. Section 1.2 explains how information retention is understood in this thesis. As this concept is at the heart of this study, for readability reasons it will regularly be referred to as 'information retention' or 'retention'.

rhetorical advice. Next, Section 1.3 addresses how a public speaking event is a complex rhetorical situation that comprises a multitude of variables such as speaker, audience, topic and context; all of these may somehow be related to the purpose of making a message memorable, but the interplay between these variables is not easily predicted.

Section 1.4 introduces a rhetorical approach to making messages memorable. First it briefly addresses what is currently known about information retention by the audience in public-speaking situations, based on the scarce number of studies on retention effects of rhetorical techniques. The perspective is then turned to the approach of this thesis: the main research question and general approach are put forward in Section 1.4.1; the scope and contribution of the thesis are highlighted in Section 1.4.2. The introduction chapter is wrapped up in Section 1.4.3 with the outline and methodology, as the thesis structure reflects the three steps of the approach to answer the main question.

1.2 The psychology of remembering messages

Insights from memory psychology show that the process of information retention is not straightforward. Only few of the sensory stimuli people experience find their way to long term memory. The way information is initially processed or interpreted determines for a large part whether it will be stored for a longer period and can later be retrieved. Since Atkinson's and Shiffrin's memory model (1968), which became known as the 'modal model', these processes of storage and retrieval play an important role in memory theory (Baddeley, Eysenck & Anderson, 2009). When information is retained, it is stored and can be retrieved from long-term memory. In this thesis, information retention will therefore be understood as "having the information stored in long-term memory in such a way that it can be readily retrieved" (Bennett & Rebello, 2012, p. 2856).

Successful information retention depends on a number of conditions and processes. For this brief overview, I first address the role of 'attention' in filtering sensory information and processing it in the working memory system. Next, I touch upon how encoding processes are key factors in transferring the information to long-term memory and enabling its retrieval.[6]

1.2.1 Attention enables encoding

A key condition for the ability to store information is attention, defined by Bruning et al. as the "mental energy used to perceive, think, and understand" (2004, p. 16). When attention is focused, information perceived via the sensory system can be transferred to the working memory. The working memory system can hold a limited amount of

[6] This thesis by no means intends to provide an exhaustive overview of memory research, but the theory is used here to obtain insight into how retention processes could work when an audience listens to a presentation or a speech.

information[7] and at the same time has the capacity of mentally working with it, performing complex activities such as rehearsal (Baddeley et al., 2009). For the function of information retention, it is vital to know that the attentional focus, "the capacity to direct attention to the task at hand" (Baddeley et al., 2009, p. 54), is prone to disruption by external factors. Our attentional focus is limited, and dividing attention over various tasks (multitasking) most often leads to each task being poorly performed (Bruning et al., 2004). In public-speaking situations, audiences should be able to have a full attentional focus for the speaker and message. Speakers should aim to keep audiences attentive throughout the presentation, or at least during essential parts of the talk.

From the working memory, the information needs to be stored into long-term memory in such a way that it can be retrieved. The way in which information is "placed into long-term memory", known as the process of *encoding*, influences how it can be stored (Bruning et al., 2004). Three main encoding principles emerge from memory psychology: 'organisation', 'elaboration' and 'visualisation' (Baddeley et al., 2009). In this thesis I have mainly focused on organisation and elaboration, which will regularly recur in the core chapters to put rhetorical strategies and techniques in a 'memory perspective'. Although visualisation undeniably is a key retention factor, it is not the main focus of this thesis (Section 3.1.1 contains an extensive motivation for the decision not to focus on visualisation). Therefore, this introductory chapter next focuses on organisation and elaboration, and their connection to retention and rhetorical theory. The encoding principles referred to here are not always labelled as such in the literature and their characteristics show some overlap.

1.2.2 Encoding via organisation

How information is structured or categorised influences its storage in long-term memory. Organising strategies such as repetition contribute to this storage process. Repeatedly restating information can enhance retention, although it leads to shallow processing (Baddeley et al., 2009). This means that the repeated information might indeed be stored, but not in such a way that it encourages retrieval. To increase chances of retrieval, deeper processing is preferred (Craik & Tulving, 1975; Craik, 2019).[9] A learner can effectively achieve such processing by organising the subject matter in such a way that it supports the learning process—a so-called subjective organisation strategy (Baddeley et al.. 2009, p. 104).

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[7] In a renowned paper, Miller (1956) suggests that seven is the "magical number": the working memory can hold about seven chunks of information at the same time. As Baddeley (1994) points out, this idea has been influential in many disciplines, and probably continues to be. Later, Cowan (2000) summarised studies on capacity limits and concludes that four is more likely to be the magical number.

[9] In their experiments in 1975, Craik & Tulving encouraged deep levels of encoding by asking subjects questions about the category and meaning of words they were requested to process; subjects who engaged in deeper encoding performed better on memory tests (recall/recognition of the words) than subjects who engaged in shallow or intermediate levels of processing, which were related to form and sound features of the words (as opposed to meaning-related questions).

‘Chunking’ is an example of a subjective organisation strategy: learners create a limited number of categories that is more easily learned by categorising chunks of information that seem to be related to each other. Gobet et al. (2001, p. 236) distinguish goal-oriented chunking, which assumes a “deliberate, conscious control of the chunking process”, and perceptual chunking, which is “more of a continuous process of chunking during perception”. Organising information according to clear hierarchical relations is a second example of a subjective organisation strategy, For example, a list of animals can be organised into mammals, fish, birds and reptiles. This approach involves two ways of stimulating retention: the various members of the list are chunked into categories, and the relationship between the category and its members is specified. Organising the information in a story in which each element is linked by a logical storyline is a third example of subjective organisation; this strategy tends to be more effective when applied to information that is not easily categorised (Baddeley et al., 2009, pp. 105–106).

1.2.3 Encoding via elaboration

The encoding principle ‘elaboration’ entails to what extent information can be linked to prior knowledge and can be made meaningful (Baddeley et al. 2009; Bruning et al. 2004). Elaboration can be used as an overarching term to describe various encoding processes such as organisation of information by connecting it to existing knowledge. This way, chunking and categorisation processes can also be seen as examples of elaboration (cf. Bruning et al., 2004); we should therefore not view these processes as completely independent but as complementary.

Various instructional strategies can encourage elaboration by inciting students to actively process the information (Bruning et al., 2004, p. 87). Teachers can stimulate students to make new subject matter meaningful by linking it to their own knowledge or personal goals and beliefs, for example by asking questions. Rhetorical questions can influence message processing and elaboration, as they activate the audience to think about the answer (Petty, Cacioppo & Heesacker, 1981) and can influence the audience’s attention (Aluhwalia & Burnkrant, 2004).

Another strategy that encourages elaboration is to activate so-called *schemas*, for example via a story. Baddeley et al. describe schemas as “a well-integrated chunks of knowledge about the world, events, people or actions” (2009, p. 128). Schemas can be activated by connecting new information to fixed knowledge that we have about the order and sequence of events in familiar situations (e.g. going to a restaurant) or to existing knowledge about the physical world (objects) and their characteristics around us (e.g. ‘a bicycle has two wheels and a saddle’).[10] The extent to which we can relate information to such schemas can influence its retention.

[10] Schemas about familiar events or situations are called ‘scripts’ (in a restaurant, we expect a particular order of events, such as to be seated or to choose a seat, after which a waiter will arrive to take our order). Schemas about entities or the physical world around us are called ‘frames’ (related to but not to be confused with the linguistic/rhetorical definition of frames) (Bruning et al., 2004).

Next to the activation of schemas, a high interest in the topic is likely to encourage elaboration. Someone is more likely to process information via a central route when it is personally relevant, according to the Elaboration Likelihood Model by Petty & Cacioppo (1986). Furthermore, the use of imagery can stimulate elaboration: when information is mentally visualised, chances increase that it will be stored (Bruning et al., 2004; Baddeley et al., 2009). Although visualisation (particularly the creation of visual support aids) is not the core focus of this thesis, creating mental images via verbal strategies can also be seen as an influential elaboration factor. When information is mentally visualised, it is often associated with familiar information or images already stored in long-term memory.

1.2.4 Retrieval process

Encoding processes via organisation and elaboration can determine how the information is stored in long-term memory, but they can also play an important role in the retrieval of that information. In order to retrieve particular memories or information, we usually rely on so-called ‘retrieval cues’. Such cues are related to the moment that the memory or information was stored and can aid in retrieving it (Baddeley et al., 2009). For example, a speaker could illustrate the message ‘having a hearty breakfast is important’ with the personal story about forgetting to eat breakfast and fainting on the morning train to work—an uncomfortable situation. Regardless of the argument’s quality, listeners might have used the story to elaborate on the message and store it. Later, parts of the story (“fainting”, “train”, or the sequence of events) could serve as cues that help to retrieve the specific message. Other aspects that can function as a retrieval cue are, for example, the environment or location at the time of storage.

Retrieval cues have to be brought to the listeners’ attention to be effective. Moreover, the more distinctly the cue can be related to the memory or information that needs to be retrieved, the more effective the retrieval will likely be (known as ‘encoding specificity’, see Baddeley et al., 2009). The principle used to encode the information (for example, a specific organisation and/or elaboration strategy), can usually serve as a cue to retrieve the information.

So far, this section has presented concepts from memory psychology and educational psychology that are related to information retention. These concepts provide insight into how we learn, store and retrieve information. Therefore, they also seem highly relevant to study information retention by the audience in a public-speaking situation. However, most studies that led to these insights have not focused on public-speaking situations, but rather on contexts such as (individual) learning of information by students. Studies in educational and instructional psychology that did focus on public-speaking contexts, such as studies on the influence of classroom instruction on cognitive load and memory, show that instruction strategies regularly feature organisation, elaboration (interaction) and visualisation principles (cf. Sweller, Merriënboer & Paas, 2019).

Still, such instruction strategies are usually not explicitly linked to rhetoric, which offers a systematic approach to analyse public-speaking situations. At the same time, instructions and techniques in rhetorical theory are not concretely connected to insights from memory psychology. Although *memoria* techniques in ancient rhetoric often hinge on visualisation, organisation and elaboration or association (e.g. the technique of the memory palace mentioned in Section 1.1), such techniques are aimed at improving the speaker's memory as opposed to the audience's memory. This thesis intends to connect rhetorical ideas and techniques related to information retention by the audience more closely to insights from memory psychology. Therefore, the next section zooms in on the characteristics of public-speaking situations and explains how the interplay between these characteristics can influence information retention.

1.3 The rhetorical retention situation

The memory processes described in the previous section are expected to come into play in oral rhetorical events that strongly connected to audience information retention, such as presentations and speeches. The orality of a public-speaking situation contributes to an emphasis on memorability, as the audience has to be enabled to store important information then and there. In order to find out what factors can influence information storage in a presentation event, insight is needed into variables that constitute a rhetorical situation, such as audience, context, and rhetor (the speaker in a public-speaking situation).[11]

Kjeldsen et al. (2019, pp. 15–16) emphasise the key role that a speaker plays in a rhetorical situation:

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[11] This thesis does not aim to offer a theoretical account on the much-discussed concept of the rhetorical situation. Here, it is mainly used to help understand what factors can influence information retention in a public-speaking context. The term 'rhetorical situation' was introduced by Bitzer, who regards a rhetorical situation as "a natural context of persons, events, objects, relations, and an exigence which strongly invites utterance" (1968, p. 5). In a rhetorical situation, a rhetor's utterance can serve as a response to the exigence or (urgent) issue that the situation raises. Next to 'exigence', Bitzer discerns two other constituents of the rhetorical situation: 'audience', and 'constraints' such as persons, events, objects and relations that can influence exigence. He summarises the role of the speaker or orator and the contents (spoken word in a public-speaking situation) as follows: "When the orator, invited by situation, enters it and creates and presents discourse, then both he and his speech are additional constituents" (1968, p. 8). After publication, Bitzer's concept of rhetorical situation was critically reviewed, perhaps most notably by Vatz (1973). Critics claimed the concept relied too heavily on the 'situational aspect', attributing an all too contingent character to rhetoric and generating "the perception of rhetoric as an adjunct technique rather than an autonomous discipline" (Turnbull, 2017, p. 117). In his comprehensive summary of the rhetorical situation debate, Turnbull provisionally concludes that it "eventually converged on the general idea that both rhetoric and situation are important" (2017, p. 117).

> When a speaker is actually present and standing in front of an audience presenting her case, the message therein becomes more than just a position or an argument. It becomes a rhetorical situation whereby a speaker is an engaged person stretching herself toward other persons, hoping to touch them with her ideas and values in order to make them see the world as she sees it. The underlying assumption is that the speaker believes the audience is capable of changing the situation. This is a defining characteristic of speeches: a speaker who invests herself in the cause, trying to change the world by influencing her audience and believing in the potential of change.

The agency of the speaker is an important point of departure in this thesis. The relationship between variables in a rhetorical situation can influence information retention by the audience. Speakers are able to select and apply particular rhetorical techniques or strategies in their speech. This way, they can exercise some control over the rhetorical retention situation in order to realise their intentions.

Speakers can consciously attempt to create a situation that stimulates audience information retention. They can, for example, arouse attention and select rhetorical strategies related to the encoding principles organisation, elaboration and visualisation that contribute to encoding, storage and retrieval (e.g. dividing information into chunks or connecting it to existing knowledge via questions or stories). Ideally, speakers should consider whether such strategies fit into the rhetorical situation: do they match the expectations of the particular audience and suit the constraints imposed by a particular event or context? Such a consideration can make their public-speaking task more complex.

In (academic) presentation skills classes, students learn about the agency of a speaker. Students gradually find out that they have a range of options for selecting contents, arranging it, finding the right words, becoming familiar with the speech and delivering it. At the same time, they also need to be aware that the effects of these choices, the presentation's reception, depend on how they relate to other factors in the rhetorical situation. In their attempt to influence the rhetorical situation, speakers need to be aware that a certain extent of information retention by the audience is probably needed.

Next to the speaker's agency, the circumstances in which a presentation or speech is received should be considered. Roughly speaking, a traditional and mediated situation can be distinguished (Kjeldsen et al., 2019). In a traditional situation, the speaker and the audience are in the same space, which can create a greater sense of 'togetherness'. This does not mean that the speaker and the audience are aligned and in agreement by definition, but their close proximity in the same event might influence how the speech is received (Kjeldsen et al., 2019). The proximity of the speaker and the audience is a circumstance Burke (1969, p. 21) referred to as 'consubstantiality'. Audiences might receive mediated presentations such as online TED talk videos in another space and at another moment, which could create a greater distance between the speaker and the audience. It is well conceivable that variations in the public-speaking situation, such as the speaker's selection of rhetorical techniques, the relationship between the audience and the speaker, and the circumstances in which the audience receives the presentation, influence retention.

1.4 A rhetorical approach to making messages memorable

Sections 1.2 and 1.3 explain that information retention in a public-speaking situation is a complex process; a presentation event consists of many variables that could influence the retention process. What rhetorical techniques have been shown to be effective in achieving information retention? Until now, no detailed, evidence-based answer can be given to this question, because retention as a rhetorical function has never been systematically studied. Only few studies focused on the effects of rhetorical techniques on audience information retention in the specific communicative situation of a presentation or speech. Retention never appears to be the main focus of these studies, which may explain the diversity in techniques and strategies studied. In most cases, the possible retention effect of the selected technique(s) was one of several factors included in the research design, next to—for example—the speaker's ethos or comprehensibility of the speech. This suggests that the choice to measure retention did not directly follow from the research motivation, but was a sub-purpose.

What, then, are the main findings on retention effects of rhetorical techniques in a public-speaking situation so far? Some studies report a generally positive influence, albeit as a result of a single message design in a specific context. For instance, Kaplan and Pascoe (1977) found that the use of humour in a lecture increased the recall of the specific humorous examples that were used. Furthermore, in an experiment by Andeweg, De Jong and Hoeken (1998) the presence of an anecdote as an opening technique in a presentation led to an increased retention of the presentation's contents. Next, a study into the effect of visual aids in a presentation by Alley et al. (2006) shows that concise sentences used as titles on PowerPoint slides are more effective regarding retention than single words or short phrases.

Other studies report more ambiguous retention effects of presentation strategies. Baars and Andeweg (2019) investigated how different types of gestures made by a speaker influence retention. The use of so-called 'beat gestures' (repetitively using the same gesture as if indicating rhythm with two hands) led to an increase in retention compared to not using any gestures at all. However, the use of more metaphorical and pictorial gestures did not influence retention significantly more than beat gestures and absent gestures. The use of explicit transition sentences, another rhetorical strategy, did not cause an increase in information retention in an experiment by Andeweg & De Haan (2009). Furthermore, Lagerwerf, Boeynaems, Van Egmond-Brussee and Burgers (2015) showed that rhetorical schemes and negative framing in political speeches can increase recall; they found that attention and comprehensibility were important mediating factors in determining the recall effect of rhetorical schemes, but it was not possible to attribute the recall effect to one of the specific schemes they used ('contrast' and 'list of three', among others).

Overall, the results of this limited number of studies can be useful for speakers, but they are also diverse and ambiguous. Inexperienced speakers therefore mainly lean on advice they find in numerous public-speaking textbooks or examples of (experienced) colleagues or renowned speakers. When exploring these sources, novice speakers who are looking for advice on making their message memorable are likely to be confronted with many different strategies and techniques. An overview of the most prominent public-speaking advice on retention is lacking. On top of that, the already highlighted classical rhetorical mnemonic techniques for the orator appear to have lost their importance in public-speaking education and advice over time.[12] So, although the topic of memorability seems to be top of mind in popular culture—see the popularity of books like *Made to stick* (Heath & Heath, 2010)—and it is often linked to the context of public speaking, a comprehensive and systematic review of information retention by the audience is lacking.

1.4.1 Research aim

The aim of this thesis is to gain more insight into how rhetorical techniques influence the audience's ability to retain information. To this end, the following main research question is formulated:

How can rhetorical techniques in speeches enhance information retention by the audience?

The main research question is divided into three key questions, which will be formulated more precisely in each of the chapters in this thesis:

1. What techniques to make a message memorable are advised in public-speaking textbooks?
2. How do speakers apply advised retention techniques in public-speaking practice?
3. What is the effect of such retention techniques?

These key questions reflect the three methodological steps I take in this thesis. Answering the first question results in an overview of ancient and modern rhetorical advice related to retention. Such an overview offers insight into which techniques are most frequently connected to retention, how textbook authors believe that these techniques should be applied in a speech or presentation, and how the recommended retention techniques relate to insights from memory psychology.

The answer to the second question shows how speakers in various presentation genres currently apply the rhetorical retention techniques advised in textbooks. What do these retention techniques look like when applied in a speech (e.g. how are they phrased)? How can the rhetorical situation affect which retention techniques are selected and how they are applied? This second step serves two purposes: it shows how textbook advice relates to specific public-speaking contexts

[12] These mnemotechniques have gained popularity in recent years in books on memory (skills) such as Buzan (2009) and Foer (2011), but these works are not specifically aimed at public speaking.

(genres), and contributes to designing the approach for the final step: measuring retention effects.

With the third key question, I intend to show the retention effect of a limited number of rhetorical techniques in a specific public-speaking context (an informative presentation). To do so, insights gained from the first two key questions are used to design two experiments. Section 1.4.3 provides more details on the methodology.

1.4.2 Scope and contribution

The main question of this thesis has a broad scope. The term ‘speech’ in the main question is used as an umbrella term for a public-speaking event involving a speaker who directs a spoken message to an audience, such as a presentation, lecture or talk. The term ‘speech’ as it is used in the main question is not genre-specific and includes public-speaking events with and without visual support (e.g. slides). With each key question, the study zooms in on more specific public-speaking contexts. The first step is a broad collection of all rhetorical advice on retention in public-speaking textbooks, the second step focuses on three speech genres (informative, persuasive and inspirational presentations) and the final step is narrowed down to the context of informative presentations in an educational setting.

This thesis contributes to rhetorical theory and practice in three main ways. First of all, it intends to show that audience information retention deserves a more structural position in rhetorical theory. Ideas about factors that influence the way an audience stores and retrieves information are somewhat scattered around various elements in rhetorical theory, ranging from the canons of the orator to stylistics. This thesis provides a more comprehensive overview of retention in rhetoric. Results from experimental studies into the retention effect of particular rhetorical techniques are a step towards more detailed knowledge on retention in rhetorical theory.

Secondly, this thesis aims to connect insights on memory and retention from various disciplines: rhetoric, (cognitive) memory research and educational psychology. The emphasis in this thesis is placed on rhetoric, while theory on memory and retention from other disciplines is used to assess possible effects of rhetorical techniques, to be able to categorise ideas and to bring to light interdisciplinary similarities. This underlines that rhetoric essentially is a multi-disciplinary field of study.

Finally, this thesis offers insights to educational practitioners in rhetoric and public speaking skills. To teach students how their main message might ‘stick’, this study offers an overview of techniques related to retention and for a few relevant techniques in an educational context it assesses their effect. Although the thesis is not intended to be a guidebook, it can help teachers to get a grip on the concept of a ‘memorable presentation’; it offers reference points to discuss the topic more in-depth. Following from that, theory in this book may not only be applied to student presentations, but also presents insights to analyse the ‘retention impact’ of presentations in other contexts than an educational setting, such as political speeches and TED talks.

1.4.3 Methodology and thesis outline

This study used a three-way approach consisting of various research methods, which is reflected in the thesis structure: each core chapter discusses a key question.[13] Therefore, the thesis outline and methodology are presented together here.

To answer key question 1, a content analysis was performed of four ancient works on rhetoric[14] and a corpus of forty English-language and forty Dutch-language modern public-speaking textbooks from the period 1980–2009. Based on this analysis, chapter 2 provides an extensive overview of rhetorical advice and techniques specifically related to retention. Furthermore, it gives insight into warnings for speakers: what strategies are said to backfire or not to contribute to information retention? Although audience information retention is the key focus, the chapter also pays attention to how ancient rhetorical works advise orators to enhance their memory in order to memorise the speech (the orator's canon of *memoria*), and what traces of that advice have found their way into modern public-speaking textbooks. Moreover, the chapter evaluates to what extent the information about retention in modern public-speaking textbooks is supported, e.g. by academic studies and examples of (well-known) speakers.

Chapter 3 shows how seven rhetorical techniques that are advised to influence retention are applied in public-speaking practice (key question 2). These rhetorical techniques are related to the encoding principles organisation and elaboration (see Section 1.2). To this end, rhetorical analyses of three corpora of presentation and speech texts were conducted. These presentations and speeches differed in the type of speaker delivering them: scholars, politicians and TED speakers. The results exemplify how advice on retention techniques corresponds to public-speaking practice in three contexts and provide stylistic and structural characteristics of the selected retention techniques when applied in practice. The examples of applied retention techniques also serve as input for the next step: experimental effect studies.

Chapter 4, which answers key question 3, investigates the retention effects of three rhetorical techniques linked to the organisation of a presentation (in particular: the conclusion): the announcement of the conclusion, circle technique and summary, Two experiments were performed in the context of an informative presentation: the first experiment focused on announcing the conclusion of the presentation and the circle technique, the second centred on the summary in the concluding part of a presentation. Finally, chapter 5 answers the main research question and looks ahead to the future of rhetorical retention research.

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[13] In all three stages of the research, the help of colleagues at Delft University of Technology and the work of bachelor and master students in Discourse Studies (Rhetoric & Argumentation) at Leiden University has been invaluable: Bert Besterveld and Shari Helderman for the corpus analysis of modern public-speaking textbooks (chapter 2), Nanouk Bel, Anna Hoogesteger, Sebastiaan van Loosbroek, Ave Luth, Lisanne Mijnders and Carli van Winsen for the analysis of public-speaking practice (chapter 3), and Anne van Winkelhof for the experiment on the summary (section 4.2).

[14] Aristotle's *Rhetoric*, the *Rhetorica ad Herennium* (of the unknown *Auctor ad Herennium*), Cicero's *De Oratore* and Quintilian's *Institutio Oratoria*.

2. Rhetorical retention advice: classical and modern techniques

> For memory is most necessary to an orator, […] and there is nothing like practice for strengthening and developing it. (Quintilian, *Institutio Oratoria* I, 1.36).

> People will remember what you have to say if you just make it so *incredibly simple* that they *can* remember it. A theme acts as a retention tool. (Walters, 1993, p. 52)

While "strengthening and developing" the orator's memory was considered "most necessary" in ancient rhetoric, modern public-speaking textbooks seem to focus mostly on "retention tools" to help people "remember what you have to say". A first step to find out more about possible retention effects of rhetorical techniques is to investigate what strategies or 'tools' are considered effective in in public-speaking textbooks and how this so-called retention advice is related to insights from memory psychology (see Section 1.2). As of yet, no overview exists of ideas in public-speaking textbooks on audience information retention, neither of retention advice in influential ancient rhetorical works nor of that in the abundant present-day presentation skills books. Therefore, this chapter answers the following question:[15]

What techniques to make a message memorable are advised in public-speaking textbooks?

Section 2.1 discusses ancient rhetoricians' views on memory. It starts with an overview of the main ideas about the canon of *memoria* in ancient rhetoric (how a *speaker* can use memory skills to remember a speech). Although this dissertation focuses on the receiver's end (how audiences retain information), strategies on enhancing the orator's memory can provide valuable insights into ancient ideas on the memory process and information retention. After that, the section discusses classical ideas about influencing the audience's memory.

From Section 2.2 onwards, the spotlight is on modern public-speaking advice about retention. Sections 2.2 to 2.7 present various aspects of a corpus analysis that included forty English-language and forty Dutch-language influential public-speaking textbooks from the period 1980–2009. First, Section 2.2 explains the construction of the corpus and the method that was used to analyse the textbooks. Next, Section 2.3 shows how the speaker's memory skills, which are so prominently present in ancient rhetoric, are discussed in the corpus of modern public-speaking textbooks. After that,

[15] The main results of the analysis of modern public-speaking textbooks were summarised in Wackers, De Jong & Andeweg (2016a), Wackers, De Jong & Andeweg (2016b) and Wackers (2021). See the Overview of author's publications for the complete references.

Section 2.4 turns to the advice on the audience's information retention: it gives insight into the amount of advice that is related to audience retention in modern textbooks and it presents an overview of the most frequently advised retention techniques. These advised techniques are extensively described in Section 2.5, which forms the qualitative heart of this chapter. The connection to retention, characteristics of each technique, and possible contradictions between textbook authors are addressed. As its shorter counterpart, Section 2.6 then presents an overview and discussion of the main warnings of the textbook authors (*vitia*): strategies or applications of rhetorical techniques that possibly hinder information retention, which often indicate limitations of otherwise useful rhetorical retention techniques. Section 2.7 shows to what extent textbook authors support their claims about influencing audience information retention; it discusses the number of references and the types of references that were found in the textbooks.

The concluding section (2.8) reflects on similarities and differences between classical and modern public speaking advisory practice that are described in this chapter. Furthermore, it addresses the way in which retention advice in public-speaking textbooks is related to main insights from memory psychology. Lastly, it touches upon similarities and differences in the way that retention advice is addressed in modern English-language and Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks, which appeared noteworthy based on the content analysis of the textbooks.

2.1 Orator and audience memory in classical rhetoric

> [Marc Anthony:] How great the benefit of memory is to the orator, how great the advantage, how great the power […].
> (Cicero, *De Oratore* II, 87.355).

This contemplation of Marc Anthony, one of Cicero's characters in *De Oratore*, underlines the important position memory had in this and other well-known ancient works about rhetoric. For this thesis, four works were selected to collect the ideas about the orator's and audience's memory in ancient rhetoric: Aristotle's *Rhetoric*, the *Rhetorica ad Herennium* (written by the unknown *Auctor ad Herennium*), Cicero's *De Oratore* and Quintilian's *Institutio Oratoria*. These works were selected because they can be seen as the most comprehensive works from Antiquity that form the classical basis of modern rhetoric. To some extent, they are the forerunners of modern day public-speaking textbooks, although the works vary in the emphasis that is placed on instruction and advice.[16]

[16] The four selected ancient works can be divided into (1) books aimed to instruct (inexperienced) speakers and (2) books of a more reflective or philosophical nature (cf. Andeweg & De Jong, 2004, pp. 11–12). This way, the selection of works provides multiple classical-rhetorical prespectives. The works with a focus on instruction are the *Rhetorica ad Herennium* and Quintilian's *Institutio Oratoria.* Both works aim to put forward the complete

The *memoria* was considered to be one of the five canons of the orator, together with the *inventio* (collection of arguments), *dispositio* (arrangement or order), *elocutio* (style, embellishment) and the *actio* (delivery) (Corbett & Connors, 1999; Yates, 2014). As the *Auctor ad Herennium* puts it, the task of memory is "the treasure-house of the ideas supplied by invention" and "the guardian of all the parts of rhetoric" (*Rhetorica ad Herennium* III, 16.28). The classical authors on rhetoric were more interested in the orator's capability to memorise the structure and words of a speech than in the audience's ability to store information heard during a speech. Section 2.1.1 discusses classical *memoria* advice, which can provide valuable insights into ancient views on the memory process and the way in which these views relate to current memory theory. Section 2.1.2 recounts references to techniques that could enhance audience retention that were found in the classical works of rhetoric. Appendix A.6 provides an overview of the fragments related to retention that were found in the selected ancient works.

2.1.1 *Memoria*: places, images, and things

The art of memory is said to be invented by the poet Simonides of Ceos, whose story is recounted by the *Auctor ad Herennium*, Cicero and Quintilian (Danziger, 2008; Yates, 2014). The Greek poet attended a banquet of a nobleman and was called to meet someone outside. Just as he had left the house, the banquet hall collapsed behind him, killing everyone inside. In the ruin that was left of the building, relatives of the deceased could hardly recognise their family members; however, Simonides had remembered the exact order in which the guests had been seated and could thus help with their identification. According to Cicero:

> […] he is reported to have discovered, that it is chiefly order that gives distinctness to memory and that by those, therefore, who would improve this part of the understanding, certain places must be fixed upon, and that of the things which they desire to keep in memory, symbols must be conceived in the mind, and ranged, as it were, in those places; thus the order of places would preserve the order of things, and the symbols of the things would denote the things themselves; so that we should use the places as waxen tablets, and the symbols as letters. (*De Oratore* II, 86.353-354).

rhetorical system, e.g. with the five orator's canons and the conventional parts of a speech. Although Quinitilian also reflects on more theoretical concepts such as the ideal orator, the main part of the work is practically oriented and offers many examples for the early orator. The works of a mainly reflective nature are Aristotle's *Rhetoric* and Cicero's *De Oratore*. Although Aristotle's *Rhetoric* contains some practical pieces of advice for the orator, its emphasis seems to be on philosophic and theoretical features of rhetoric (e.g. the nature of a good speech and a good orator are discussed, just as the notion 'audience'). Cicero's *De Oratore* is written in the form of a dialogue (inspired by Plato); it does not focus on rhetorical guidelines, but rather on the ideal orator (Andeweg & De Jong, 2004). Cicero's well-known work *De Inventione* was not taken into account because it only focuses on a specific part of the orator's tasks (the invention).

The metaphor of the memory as a wax tablet upon which letters could be imprinted was not new. Plato and later Aristotle regularly refer to memory in terms of ‘inscription’ (Danziger, 2008, p. 31). However, the Roman classical authors use the Simonides story to more elaborately acknowledge that an orator can train the ‘artificial memory’ to benefit from when preparing for and delivering a speech (Yates, 2014). The natural memory that everyone possesses could be improved upon by ‘mnemonics’: strategies to train the memory. The most prominent technique to do so, as described by Cicero, is known as the ‘method of *loci*’ (Danziger, 2008; Yates, 2014). When this method is applied, the orator imagines a set of places or locations in which information can be held in a specific order. By making a mental tour past those locations at a later time, the orator is able to recall the information.

The *Auctor ad Herennium* is most detailed and specific about the method of *loci*, providing specific guidelines for creating effective imaginary places or ‘backgrounds’:

> Again, it will be more advantageous to obtain backgrounds in a deserted than in a populous region, because the crowding and passing to and from of people confuse and weaken the impress of the images, while solitude keeps their outlines sharp. Further, backgrounds differing in form and nature must be secured, so that, thus distinguished, they may be clearly visible; for if a person has adopted many intercolumnar spaces, their resemblance to one another will so confuse him that he will no longer know what he has set in each background. (*Rhetorica ad Herennium* III, 19.31)

The images created by the orator are also subject to specific criteria in the *Rhetorica ad Herennium*. So-called *imagines agentes*, striking images that stand out because of their unusual features or comic properties, are supposed to be retained in the memory the most effectively:

> We ought, then, to set up images of a kind that can adhere longest in the memory. And we shall do so if we establish likenesses as striking as possible; if we set up images that are not many or vague, but doing something; if we assign to them exceptional beauty or singular ugliness; if we dress some of them with crowns or purple cloaks, for example, so that the likeness may be more distinct to us; or if we somehow disfigure them, as by introducing one stained with blood or soiled with mud or smeared with red paint, so that its form is more striking, or by assigning certain comic effects to our images, for that, too, will ensure our remembering them more readily.
> (*Rhetorica ad Herennium* III, 22.37)

Cicero underlines that the orator must take care in developing these images; he remarks that they must be “impressive, striking, and well-marked, so that they may present themselves to the mind, and act upon it with the greatest quickness” *(De Oratore* III, 88.360).

Quintilian perhaps offers the most accessible description of how we should imagine this mnemonic technique of *loci* in practice. After the speaker has organised the facts and has constructed the images or 'symbols' that function as a memory aid, a building or house can serve as an organising principle to memorise the order of these facts:

> These symbols are then arranged as follows. The first thought is placed, as it were, in the forecourt; the second, let us say, in the living-room; the remainder are placed in due order all-round the *impluvium* and entrusted not merely to bedrooms and parlours, but even to the care of statues and the like. This done, as soon as the memory of the facts requires to be revived, all these places are visited in turn and the various deposits are demanded from their custodians, as the sight of each recalls the respective details. […]
>
> What I have spoken of as being done in a house, can equally well be done in connexion with public buildings, a long journey, the ramparts of a city, or even pictures. Or we may even imagine such places to ourselves. We require, therefore, places, real or imaginary, and images or symbols, which we must, of course, invent for ourselves. By images I mean the words by which we distinguish the things which we have to learn by heart: in fact, as Cicero says, we use "places like wax tablets and symbols in lieu of letters".
> (*Institutio Oratoria* XI, 2.20-21).

Although Quintilian extensively describes the method of *loci*, he is reluctant to attribute all too positive qualities to this memory strategy. He recognises the fact that such a mnemonic can be of assistance; however, he does not recommend to use the spectacular *imagines agentes*, but discusses more 'basic symbols'—common images such as weapons or nautical objects. Quintilian also vouches for another way of improving memory: writing down the speech and learning parts by heart. According to Quintilian, applying the method of *loci* could certainly help an orator to remember important fragments of the speech, but it would not be the only method for memorisation. Yates (2014) is not quite sure whether Quintilian's different views on the method of *loci* compared to Cicero and the *Auctor ad Herennium* are due to a mere individual preference or a sign of a changed societal perception of mnemonics over time.

All of the three Roman sources of classical rhetoric distinguish a 'memory for things' and a 'memory for words'. 'Things' entail the topic, subject matter or information of the speech, whereas 'words' represent the exact language in which the speech is delivered. In practice, speakers who relied on a memory for words had to find an image that represented every single word of the speech. Although Cicero thought that an orator ideally would have a 'firm perception in the soul' of both things and words, he admitted that a memory of things might be sufficient for an orator in practice. The *Auctor ad Herennium* and Quintilian agree, with the latter specifically questioning the use of such mnemonics for words; for some words, he argues, an image can easily be formed in the mind, but what to do with conjunctions or connecting words (Yates, 2014)? For practical use by a speaker, the memory for words seemed too cumbersome, while the memory for things can be a beneficial factor in delivering a successful speech, according to Cicero and the *Auctor ad Herennium*.

The classical authors' advice on how to train the orator's memory shows some similarities to modern memory psychology principles (see Section 1.2). Organisation and visualisation are highly important in ancient mnemonics: images are created and the order of placement in mental locations is decisive for the success of recall afterwards. Elaboration and association come into play as well, with the orator's use of familiar places and—especially for the *imagines agentes*—the memory strategy to connect the stored items and images, and provide them with some striking features.

Modern memory research into the method of *loci* has shown that it is effective (Baddeley et al., 2009, pp. 363–365): it increases recall and it appears to stimulate a more varied and extensive encoding process. As a disadvantage, to find a particular piece of information, the learner has to work through the sequence of items in the order in which they were remembered. The method's practical use is also questioned, since "the task of trying to remember a 2000-word text verbatim is not something any of us often tries to do!" (Baddeley et al., 2009, p. 365). This quotation pinpoints the difference between the ancient and modern attitude towards memorising a text or a speech (also see Section 2.3): in antiquity it was not uncommon and even recommended to use mnemonics and learn a long text by heart, as the four ancient rhetorical works point out. The question now rises to what extent classical rhetoricians referred to strategies to influence not just the orator's memory skills, but also to the audience's information retention.

2.1.2 Advice on audience information retention by the classical authors

The references to mnemonics and memory processes by classical authors might imply they also had clear views on how to influence the audience's memory. However, explicit references to the audience's information retention are needed to properly interpret the classical authors' views on that matter. This section discusses the explicit references to audience information retention that were found in Aristotle's *Rhetorica*, *Rhetorica ad Herennium*, Cicero's *De Oratore* and Quintilian's *Institutio Oratoria.* First it is explained how relevant passages were detected; afterwards, examples of retention advice are presented.

To detect references to audience information retention in the four classical works of rhetoric mentioned, digital versions of the works were searched using the following key terms: 'memory', 'memorable', 'remember', 'recall', 'retention' and 'retain'. For each instance of the key term that was found in the text, I took the following steps into account to decide upon the fragment's relevance:

1. I interpreted whether the passage was relevant to improving memory or information retention (the key words by itself have various purports or could be used more generically);[17]
2. when applicable to memory, I interpreted whether the passage would refer to either the orator's or the audience's memory;
3. when related to the audience's memory, I determined the nature of the advice and whether it refers to a specific part of the speech or rhetorical technique.

Few explicit references are made to audience information retention (see Appendix A.6). Most of the fragments that contained one of the key words were either not specifically linked to memory or were focused on the orator's *memoria*. The fragments that do refer to audience information retention can roughly be divided into three categories: (1) abstract references, (2) references to specific parts of the speech and (3) references to specific rhetorical techniques or categories.

Abstract references to retention

The first category is that of the more abstract notions that, according to the classical authors, could influence retention. 'Abstract' here means that a concept is connected to retention, but the author does not explain how an orator can use it in a speech on the levels of style, technique or parts of the speech. For instance, Cicero discusses the positive effect on retention that visualisation can have in general (not limited to the orator's memory skills):

> For Simonides, or whoever else invented the art, wisely saw, that those things are the most strongly fixed in our minds, which are communicated to them, and imprinted upon them, by the senses; that of all the senses that of seeing is the most acute; and that, accordingly, those things are most easily retained in our minds which we have received from the hearing or the understanding, if they are also recommended to the imagination by means of the mental eye; so that a kind of form, resemblance, and representation might denote invisible objects, and such as are in their nature withdrawn from the cognisance of the sight, in such a manner, that what we are scarcely capable of comprehending by thought we may retain as it were by the aid of the visual faculty. (*De Oratore* II, 87.357).

He relates this quality of the "visual faculty" to "us" and "our minds", which could be interpreted as applicable to people in general—in a public-speaking situation, the speaker and the audience alike. However, Cicero does explicitly note how a speaker

[17] For example, the use of 'memory' in the following passage from *De Oratore* (I,1.8) would be qualified as 'generic', not relevant to *memoria*, mnemonics or audience information retention: "There have been many [orators] also in our own *memory*, and more in that of our fathers, and even of our forefathers, who had abilities to rule and govern affairs of state by their counsel and wisdom; while for a long period no tolerable orators were found, or scarcely one in every age".

can implement this in a speech to benefit from the retention effect of “imagination by means of the mental eye”; could it be achieved by using analogies, or metaphors perhaps? The link between the retention quality of visualisation and more practically applicable rhetorical strategies or techniques is not emphasised.

The same goes for the following, more philosophical passage by Aristotle:

> Things that deserve to be remembered are noble, and the more they deserve this, the nobler they are. So are the things that continue even after death; those which are always attended by honour; those which are exceptional; and those which are possessed by one person alone—these last are more readily remembered than other. (*Rhetorica,* I.9)

For a speaker who is looking for advice about making a message memorable, these are not the most readily applicable fragments. Does Aristotle imply that a speaker should try to include “exceptional” or “honourable things” in the speech, or things possessed by a single person only? An inexperienced orator would probably be in need of some more context-specific advice that includes, for example, topic and audience. Although these passages are probably not intended to contain such detailed advice to the reader, they nevertheless contain some more abstract references to what is “retained” or “remembered” more easily.

Parts of the standard speech structure linked to retention

In the second category of references, parts of the standard speech structure are explicitly linked to retention, which makes this category more specific than the first category. Three parts of the speech are related to retention in particular: the statement of facts (*narratio*), the argumentation part (*confirmatio/refutatio*) and the conclusion (*peroratio*).[18]

The ‘statement of facts’ is connected to retention by Quintilian, the classical author who is most explicit in describing audience retention strategies and techniques:

> The statement will be either wholly in our favour or wholly in that of our opponent or a mixture of both. If it is entirely in our own favour, we may rest content with the three qualities just mentioned [that it should be lucid, brief and plausible], the result of which is to make it easier for the judge to understand, remember and believe what we say. (*Institutio Oratoria* IV, 2.33)

[18] Quintilian links the *partitio* (structure overview) to retention as well, but only by explaining how it might negatively affect the audience’s memory: “ No doubt there is a danger, if our partition is too complicated, that it may slip the memory of the judge and disturb his attention” (*Institutio Oratoria* IV, 5.1). Section 2.6 more extensively discusses such warnings (how rhetorical techniques can negatively affect retention) in modern public-speaking textbooks.

Here, Quintilian states that a good execution of the statement of facts can make it easier for a judge to remember what is said. Even more specific, a statement of facts should be lucid, brief, and plausible to have an effect on retention. These qualities will suffice if the statement is in favour of the speaker's party. With this, he also links the stylistic qualities of 'clarity', 'conciseness' and 'probability' to information retention.[19] The list of three "understand, remember and believe" is also remarkable: 'understanding' is required to remember information, 'remembering' to—in the end—believe it. In that respect, retention could be seen as part of the persuasion process a judge might go through.

A good argument structure, which would often be presented in the *argumentatio* (*conformatio* and *refutatio*) can be essential for remembering the argument, as explained in the *Rhetorica ad Herennium*. The author describes what happens when a speaker does not follow such a structure: problems occur such as elaborating too long on or repeatedly returning to the same issue, leaving a chain of argument before it is completed and not connecting arguments clearly. The *Auctor ad Herennium* then presents the order that should be followed:[20]

> By the following method, therefore, we can ourselves remember what we have said in each place, and the hearer can perceive and remember the distribution of the parts in the whole cause and also in each particular argument. The most complete and perfect argument, then, is that which is comprised of five parts: the Proposition, the Reason, the Proof of the Reason, the Embellishment, and the Résumé. (*Rhetorica ad Herennium* II, 18.27-28)

Thirdly, next to the statement of facts and the structure of an argument, the *peroratio* or *epilogue* (conclusion) is also explicitly referred to as a part of the speech that could influence retention. In a discussion about when to remove or excite prejudice, Aristotle refers to the "close" as the part of the speech to include information that should be retained:

> The defendant, when he is going to bring himself on the stage, must clear away any obstacles, and therefore must begin by removing any prejudice felt against him. But if you are to excite prejudice, you must do so at the close, so that the judges may more easily remember what you have said. (*Rhetorica,* III.14).

Quintilian emphasises the link between the peroration and retention even more firmly:

[19] According to Quintilian (IV, 2.31) "it is of no importance if we substitute clear for lucid, or credible or probable for plausible".

[20] After the author of *Ad Herennium* has presented an example of a good argument structure he adds that in some situations this complete five-part argument structure is not necessary. For example, "there is a time when the résumé should be dispensed with—if the matter is brief enough to be readily embraced by the memory" (*Ad Herennium* II, 19.30)

> I went on to point out that in all forensic cases speech consists of five parts, the exordium designed to conciliate the audience, the statement of facts designed to instruct him, the proof which confirms our own propositions, the refutation which overthrows the arguments of our opponents, and the peroration which either refreshes the memory of our hearers or plays upon their emotions. (*Institutio Oratoria* VI, Preface.11)

Rhetorical techniques related to retention

In the third category of advice, specific techniques or strategies are linked to information retention. Elaborating on his assertion that the peroration "refreshes the memory of our hearers", Quintilian also explains which aspect of the peroration may cause that effect (VI, 1.1):

> There are two kinds of peroration, for it may deal either with facts or with the emotional aspect of the case. The repetition and grouping of the facts, which the Greeks call ἀνακεφαλαίωσις and some of our own writers call the enumeration, serves both to refresh the memory of the judge and to place the whole of the case before his eyes, and, even although the facts may have made little impression on him in detail, their cumulative effect is considerable. (*Institutio Oratoria* VI, 1.1)

It is the enumeration ('summary' or 'recapitulation'), which is the specific part of the peroration that deals with the facts, that refreshes the memory of the judges. Quintilian also points out that the "cumulative effect" of the repetition of the facts could lead to the judge being more impressed (it is not entirely clear whether the "cumulative effect" also refers to "refresh the memory"). The *Auctor ad Herennium* also attributes a positive effect on the listeners' memory to the recapitulation or 'summing up of the facts':

> The summing up gathers together and recalls the points we have made — briefly, that the speech may not be repeated in entirety, but that the memory of it may be refreshed; and we shall reproduce all the points in the order in which they have been presented, so that the hearer, if he has committed them to memory, is brought back to what he remembers. (*Rhetorica ad Herennium* II, 30.47)

Next to the summary, the *Auctor ad Herennium* connects another structure technique to retention: the 'transition'. This figure reminds listeners of what has just been said and prepares them for what is to come:

> Transition is the name given to the figure which briefly recalls what has been said, and likewise briefly sets forth what is to follow next, thus: "You know how he has just been conducting himself towards his fatherland; now consider what kind of son he has been to his parents." Again: "My benefactions to this defendant you know; now learn how he has requited me." This figure is not without value for two

> ends: it reminds the hearer of what the speaker has said, and also prepares him for what is to come. (*Rhetorica ad Herennium* IV, 26.35)

The statement of facts, the transition and the recapitulation in the conclusion are parts and techniques of a speech that all appear to contribute to the rhetorical function of *docilem parare*: to enable the audience to understand the speech (Andeweg & De Jong, 2004).[21]

Another example of retention advice that concerns a specific technique is found in Aristotle's *Rhetoric*—in this case it is a stylistic feature: to make sure the audience remembers the speech, it is recommended to use a compact style (a periodic form that can be numbered) and apply verse.

> Such, then, is the free-running kind of style; the compact is that which is in periods. By a period I mean a portion of speech that has in itself a beginning and an end, being at the same time not too big to be taken in at a glance. Language of this kind is satisfying and easy to follow. It is satisfying, because it is just the reverse of indefinite; and moreover, the hearer always feels that he is grasping something and has reached some definite conclusion; whereas it is unsatisfactory to see nothing in front of you and get nowhere. It is easy to follow, because it can easily be remembered; and this because language when in periodic form can be numbered, and number is the easiest of all things to remember. That is why verse, which is measured, is always more easily remembered than prose, which is not: the measures of verse can be numbered. (*Rhetorica*, III.9)

Here, Aristotle states that the compact style is easily remembered, mostly because of its periodic form.[22] We even discover that "the easiest of all things to remember: is "number". An interesting notion is that the compact style can be easily followed, "because it can easily be remembered"—not the other way around. Finally, this fragment suggests that verse is more easily retained. Whether applicable to all speech situations or not, this quotation from Aristotle is an example of the most specific audience retention advice that can be drawn from the classical authors.

[21] This definition of *docilem parare*, enabling the audience to understand the speech, is derived from Andeweg & De Jong (2004) and most closely related to Greek authors' ideas about this introductory function. Andeweg & De Jong (2004, pp. 36–38) describe that Greek and Roman rhetoricians have a slightly diferent take on the *docilem* function. Greek rhetoricians (Aristotle, among others) believe that the speaker should enable the audience to understand the speech, whereas Roman authors (Cicero, Quinitilian) add that the audience should also be made interested in the speech. The term 'interested' is somewhat problematic, as it blurs the distinction with the other two introductory functions *attentum* and *benevolum parare* (raising attention and establishing goodwill). The Greek definition is more focused on comprehension, which distinguishes the *docilem* function more clearly from the *attentum* and *benevolum* functions.

[22] See Fahnestock (2011, pp. 210–213) for a description of periodic sentences and style.

2.1.3 Conclusion classical retention advice

In short, in the influential classical works of rhetoric most attention is given to the *memoria* task of the orator compared to the audience's information retention. The *memoria* task is often awarded a separate chapter or section by the author, which usually involves a discussion of the method of *loci* and the use of mental images and places to store 'things'. Such *memoria* strategies often involve visualising, organising and associatively connecting chunks of information (elaboration), which corresponds to insights from memory psychology into information processing and retention (see Section 1.2).

Strategies for a speaker to influence the audience's retention are discussed less frequently and extensively: only few explicit references on how to influence audience retention were found, distributed over different parts of the classical works on rhetoric. This suggests that influencing the audience's memory was considered less important than training the speaker's memory in ancient rhetoric. Another possible interpretation is that classical authors believed explicit attention to audience information retention was less necessary, due to the extensive attention to *memoria*. Finally, the judicial context in ancient rhetoric, in which judges formed a very specific audience, could play a role. However, such assumptions require corroboration by more thorough studies of the classical texts.

The following main ideas and techniques in the four classical works were found to be explicitly related to audience information retention:

- the speech function of *docilem parare* (enabling the audience to understand the speech);
- the concluding part of the speech, and more precisely the 'summary' or 'recapitulation of the facts' in the peroration;
- the 'statement of the facts' in the introduction;
- the figure *transitio* (transition sentence);
- the use of a compact style (a periodic form that can be numbered) and verse (specific stylistic advice by Aristotle).

Apart from Aristotle's style advice, all the specific ideas on audience information retention by classical authors can be related to organisation and structure of the speech. Compared to the *memoria* advice, techniques that can be linked to visualisation and elaboration processes appear to be absent in the scarce advice on audience information retention in ancient rhetorical works.

2.2 Method: construction and analysis of corpus modern public-speaking textbooks

Public-speaking textbooks are available in abundance to the modern reader; they form an almost inexhaustible source of rhetorical advice. Is there a clear-cut 'retention recipe' that a speaker can apply, according to the textbook writers? To be able to profile the modern retention advice, a corpus was assembled of the most influential English-language and Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks from the period

1980–2009. Section 2.2.1 discusses the construction of this corpus; it explains the selection criteria that were applied to form a collection of textbooks that is as representative as possible. Next, Section 2.2.2 explains the procedure for identifying and labelling ‘retention-related’ fragments in the textbooks.

2.2.1 Construction of the textbook corpus

The main objective was to select the most influential English-language and Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks from three decades, which together would provide a representative overview of retention advice.[23] The perspective of textbook users was guiding: the more readers have access to a textbook, the more influential it is considered to be. Ideally, the textbook selection should provide an overview of retention advice that an average reader or user would most likely find. Which techniques that are recommended to enhance information retention could a potential speaker encounter when taking a public-speaking textbook from a library’s bookshelf?

To select the most influential public-speaking textbooks in the period 1980–2009, it would probably be most reliable to consult publication and print figures of publishers. However, this method proved to be impractical for a corpus that spans three decades and eighty textbooks. For the same reason, an investigation into the number of references to specific public-speaking textbooks in relevant publications about the topic was dismissed. Instead, WorldCat, the largest online library catalogue, was used to construct a corpus of representative public-speaking textbooks. The underlying idea is that the books that are available in libraries have an impact on the public. Consequently, books that are present in more libraries have a higher impact in society. WorldCat facilitates an overview of a book’s presence in libraries worldwide.[24] Figure 2.1 shows a schematic overview of the corpus construction. The total corpus of eighty textbooks can be broken down into an English-language sub-corpus and a Dutch-language sub-corpus of forty textbooks each. Furthermore, the selection criteria for the sub-corpora are presented: for each year in the period 1980–2009 one book was selected based on the criteria of reprint, content and availability (geographical distribution). The corpus was completed with twenty prominent textbooks (ten for each sub-corpus) that were not included in the initial WorldCat draft. The procedure is further detailed below figure 2.1.

[23] The construction of the corpus took place in 2012, at the start of the PhD project that culminated into this thesis. This explains the focus on the period 1980–2009, which spans three decades.

[24] See the web page https://www.worldcat.org/whatis/default.jsp for more information on WorldCat.

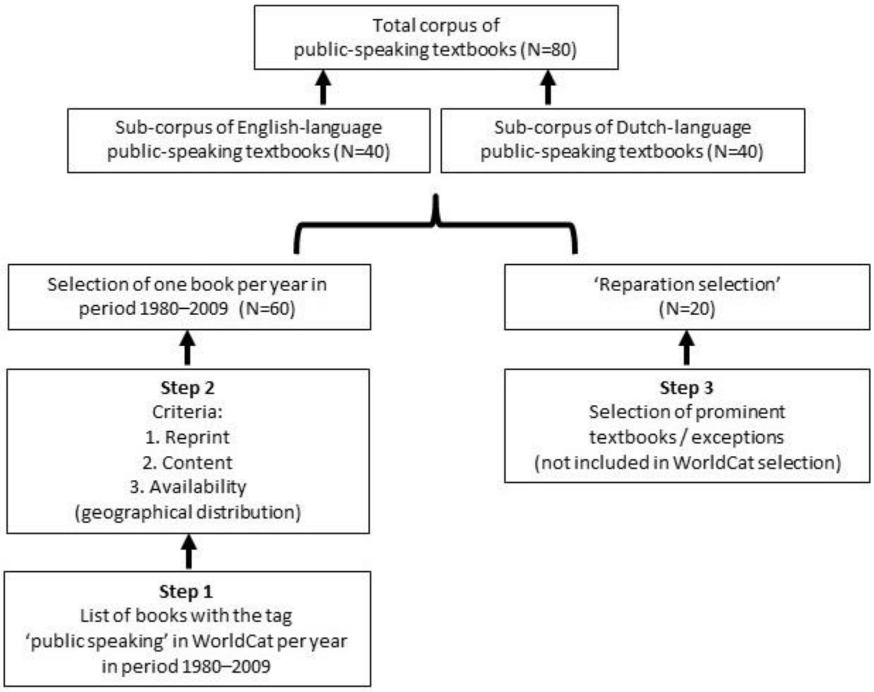

Figure 2.1: schematic overview of the construction of the corpus of public-speaking textbooks (N=80), consisting of the English- and Dutch-language sub-corpora, and the steps taken in the selection procedure of the textbooks.

The figure shows the three procedural steps that were performed. First, for each year in the period 1980–2009 a list of books about presenting and public speaking was compiled, using the tag 'public speaking' that is available as an advanced search option in WorldCat (step 1).[25] Next, three criteria were applied to narrow down the list of preliminary results (step 2). Adhering to the criterion 'reprint', books without a reprint were preferably dismissed. A reprint of a textbook suggests that it is popular and has a larger population of readers compared to textbooks that are not reprinted; thus, it appears to be more 'influential'. Based on the 'content' criterion, results that seemed less relevant (books which did not or only partially covered public speaking) were removed. Following the availability (geographical distribution) criterion, for each year within the period 1980–2009 the textbook that was available in most libraries was selected (according to WorldCat, reference point: January 2012). In

[25] WorldCat provides the works in its catalogue with one or more 'tags', which indicate the overarching topic of the book and the category it belongs to. The tag 'public speaking' covers subtopics such as 'oral presentation' and 'speeches'.

order to equally compare search results, the availability of English-language textbooks was checked in libraries in the United States of America (USA) only. For the Dutch-language corpus, the availability in Dutch libraries was taken into account. Using this procedure, sixty books were selected (thirty for both languages): the result of steps 1 and 2.

To this first selection of sixty books, ten English-language and ten Dutch-language textbooks were added to ‘repair’ possible side-effects of the selection method (step 3 in figure 2.1). As the criterion of availability for the English-language part of the corpus was based on American libraries, books with a more British or European perspective were added to the corpus, such as Atkinson’s *Lend me your ears* (2004). For the Dutch-language corpus, the list of thirty books obtained via the WorldCat selection was compared to a corpus of public-speaking textbooks constructed by Andeweg and De Jong in 2004. Books on Andeweg’s and De Jong’s list (2004) from the period 1980–2009 that did not yet appear in the thirty-book WorldCat selection were added to the Dutch-language corpus.[26]

The procedure resulted in a final corpus of forty English-language and forty Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks from the period 1980–2009 (total number of pages: 13,326). All books were scanned and made digitally accessible via text-recognition. The Dutch-language sub-corpus differs from the English-language sub-corpus in two respects. First of all, it contains eleven textbooks that deal with communication skills in general, in which only a specific chapter or part is explicitly devoted to public speaking or presentation skills.[27] In the English-language sub-corpus, all textbooks are specifically about public speaking. Secondly, the Dutch-language sub-corpus contains six textbooks that were translated into Dutch from either English or German.[28] Section 2.8.2 pays more attention to differences in retention

[26] Andeweg & De Jong (2004, pp. 90–92) used a different approach to construct a representative corpus of Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks. They initially selected 136 textbooks published in the 20th century. Most books were from the final two decades of the 20th century. Next, a group of eight experts awarded scores to the works on this longlist, which resulted in a shortlist of 42 books.

[27] The following textbooks in the Dutch-language corpus are on communication skills in general, or on both writing and presentation skills: Maks & De Koning (1985), De Boer (1986), Luijk (1987), Tilanus (1988), Claasen-Van Wirdum et al. (1992), Oomkes (2000), Janssen et al. (2002), Cornelis (2002), Jansen et al. (2004), Piët (2005), Steehouder et al. (2006).

[28] The following books in the Dutch-language are translations: Quick (1980) —original version in English, Blum (1982)—original version in German, Kirchner (1983)—original version in German, Krusche (1986)—original version in German, Morse (1987)—original version in English, Witt (2009)—original version in English. These translations stem from the (early) eighties, with the exception of Witt (2009). This can be viewed in the light of the emergence of ‘taalbeheersing’ (applied communication or discourse studies) as an academic discipline and applied communication skills as a school subject in the seventies and eighties of the twentieth century (cf. Braet, 2000). Oral communication skills were not emphasised as much as writing skills, but gradually the attention for public speaking increased – hence the increase of public-speaking textbooks that originate in The Netherlands from the mid-eighties. The

advice between the sub-corpora and how these could be related to the corpus construction and public speaking tradition. The complete list of selected books per corpus per year can be found in Appendix A.1, together with a more extensive motivation to account for the textbook selection.

2.2.2 Identification, labelling and categorisation of rhetorical retention techniques

The corpus of public-speaking textbooks was carefully inspected to determine the amount of retention-related contents and the rhetorical techniques linked to retention. For each textbook a form was filled out with the following categories: (1) the number of pages connected to retention, (2) an overview of fragments with retention advice or *vitia* ('warnings') containing a preliminary label of the technique involved and (3) an overview of retention techniques that are connected to a specific part of a speech (see appendices A.2 and A.8 for examples of such a form). This systematic procedure was first performed for the English-language sub-corpus (N=40), and later for the Dutch-language corpus (N=40).[29] The reliability of the procedure was monitored by critically discussing the definition of techniques and the attribution of labels in case of doubt. In some instances a definition or label was adapted after such a discussion. No inter-rater reliability was determined. The procedure consisted of three main steps:

1. Identification of retention fragments. The first step was to scan the textbook from cover to cover and select so-called 'retention fragments' based on the presence of key words such as 'memory', 'retention', 'remember' and 'stick' in the text (a complete list is to be found in Appendix A.2). To be labelled as a retention fragment, a fragment was required to contain an explicit link to retention.[30] To check for any retention advice that may have been overlooked, a digital search of the documents was performed with the aforementioned key words as search terms. For each textbook the fragments linked to retention were counted and expressed in number of pages (rounded off to ¼, ½ or ¾ of a page). Whenever a technique was explicitly linked to retention, the text that was related to this specific rhetorical technique was considered to be related to retention.

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influence of textbooks from the German public-speaking tradition in the early years of the Dutch-language corpus is noteworthy.

[29] The contribution of Bert Besterveld (English-language sub-corpus) and Shari Helderman (Dutch-language sub-corpus) to the analysis of the corpus has been indispensable. Both have written a Master's thesis on retention advice in public-speaking textbooks at Leiden University.

[30] For example, the following fragment contains an explicit reference to retention (bold-faced) and was therefore included in the analysis: "The close is really the most strategic point in a talk, what one says last, the final words left ringing in the ears when one ceases—**these are likely to be remembered longest**" (Carnegie & Carnegie, 1977, p. 203). An example of a fragment that was not taken into account is the following: "Statistics can give a speech a sense of precision if we **remember** to relate the statistics to known things and to make them meaningful to the audience" (Ross, 1980, p. 183). Although it contains a key word related to retention, 'remember' is not used here to refer to information retention—which is why the fragment was dismissed.

2. Analysis of retention fragments and labelling of techniques. The second step was to analyse each retention fragment to determine specific advice or warnings (*vitia* in classical rhetorical terms) for the speaker concerning retention, and to label the specific rhetorical technique that was connected to that advice or *vitium*. The point of departure was to stay as close to the author's description of the technique as possible. Therefore, the description or name of the technique used by the textbook author was used as a label, in case such a label was provided and clearly included in the fragment. For example, a fragment that referred to how the use of a graph can influence retention was tagged as 'graph'. The analysis of the retention fragments was user-centred and not author-centred; this means that it mainly focused on the contents of the retention advice as opposed to author or publication characteristics.

For attributing the labels to the fragments from the Dutch-language sub-corpus, the descriptions of the techniques acquired after analysing the English-language sub-corpus were used as a point of reference.[31] To thirteen retention-related fragments distilled from the Dutch-language sub-corpus, a label was applied that had not yet been used for the English-language sub-corpus.

Furthermore, we took stock of advice that was explicitly linked to a specific part of the presentation, such as introduction and conclusion. Whenever a specific part of the speech or a broader category of retention techniques was said to influence retention, related techniques were assumed to be connected to retention as well.[32] After this second step, a total of 92 different techniques were labelled.

3. Categorisation of techniques. As a final step, some labelled techniques were categorised to create a clearer overview. This was done for two reasons. First of all, some techniques were attributed to a broader category in the textbooks. For example, a variety of techniques were related to visual support, such as 'graph', 'presentation slides' and 'object/prop'. To avoid a scattered picture of advice on visual aids, these techniques were categorised into a broader category of 'visual aids' (see Section 2.5.1 for a more elaborate description of this process). Secondly, for categories such as 'visual aids' and 'humour', generic statements on retention were found in the textbooks (i.e. a general remark on the fact that visual aids or humour can influence retention, without mentioning specific techniques). Such statements were labelled as

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[31] An example: in the English-language sub-corpus, the technique 'imagery' is often connected to the use of concrete, vivid and ornate use of language. Whenever a retention fragment in the Dutch-language sub-corpus contained such descriptions, it was also labelled as containing the technique 'imagery'.

[32] An example: in a random textbook, it is found that the 'conclusion' (the concluding part of the speech) is explicitly linked to retention. Next, the book discusses various rhetorical techniques to prepare a proper conclusion. In such a situation, all these techniques were considered to be retention techniques and included in the analysis.

fragments that relate to a broader retention technique (e.g. 'visual aids').[33] After this final step, a total of 77 different types of techniques were definitively labelled. Section 2.4 contains an overview of the most frequent retention techniques that were found in the corpus.

2.3 *Memoria* task of the speaker in modern public-speaking textbooks

> Of course, you will be remembered if you tumble off the platform or split open your trousers. The unexpected and the embarrassing can be counted on to get the job done. Let's concentrate in this chapter on more positive ways to make a lasting impression. (Urech, 1998, p. 31).

As a characteristic fragment from a modern public-speaking textbook, Urech's quotation reveals a difference between the classical-rhetorical authors and the modern practice of presentation advice in the approach of retention. While classical rhetoricians mainly focus on the memory tasks of the speaker (*memoria*) and less explicitly discuss how to influence the audience's or judges' memories, the focus in today's public-speaking textbooks appears to be on giving a memorable presentation—one for the audience to remember. Still, the *memoria* task of the speaker receives some attention in present-day public-speaking advice and practice.[34] This section addresses the considerations of modern textbook authors about the functionality of memorising a speech, and the memory aids they propose. Appendix A.7 contains an overview of the fragments related to the *memoria* task that were found in modern public-speaking textbooks.

2.3.1 To memorise or not to memorise[35]

Should a speaker learn a speech by heart? Of the modern textbook authors in the overall corpus, 30% would advise against that strategy (English-language sub-corpus:

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[33] A categorisation took place for 'visual aids' (general statements on the retention effect of visual aids and specific techniques), 'humour' (general statements on the retention effect of humour and specific techniques), 'systematic order' (the Dutch-language technique 'kapstok' was considered a form of systematic order), 'rhyme' (alliteration and assonance), and 'repetition' ('redundance' in the Dutch-language corpus was considered a form of repetition and was only found in fragments that already included a reference to repetition as a technique).

[34] The role of human memory and memorisation is not overlooked in today's popular-scientific literature. Examples of recent books in which memory (skills) are the central theme are Joshua Foer's *Moonwalking with Einstein* (2011), Frances Yates's *The Art of Memory* (first published in 1966) and Douwe Draaisma's *Metaphors of Memory* (2000, first published in 1995). Although these works touch upon the function of memory in public speaking, they aim to provide a more general perspective on memory and its applications.

[35] Naistadt (2004, p. 178) uses this exact title for a section on memorising in the chapter "You can't dance until you know the steps: the power of rehearsal".

37.5%, Dutch-language corpus: 22.5%).[36] They tend to take a more negative position towards the speaker's memory than classical rhetoricians. In most public-speaking textbooks, especially in the English-language sub-corpus, four main types of "speech delivery" are distinguished: 'impromptu' (completely improvised or "off the cuff"), 'extemporaneously' (well-prepared but not exactly committed to a written text), 'from a written text or manuscript', and 'from memory'. The extemporaneous approach is favoured by most authors; often described as a well-structured speech that still comes across spontaneously, it mitigates disadvantages of the other approaches. Or, as Wilson and Arnold (1983) phrase it:

> Speaking extemporaneously allows speakers their best compromise between the cold mashed potatoes of rigidly learned talk and the haphazard mix of thoughts that impromptu speaking so often produces. [p. 35]

The main drawback of the "speaking from memory" method is that it can damage a speaker's ethos in two ways: (1) it makes a speaker come across unnatural and boring and (2) it increases the chance of getting a black-out and forgetting (parts of) the speech. Five English-language authors describe the presentation of a memorised speech as "stilted": it often appears to be "artificial" and "rehearsed" due to a particular intonation pattern and an increase in pace.[37] Mertens (1992, p. 31) states that a speaker should not learn the presentation by heart unless he is an "actor or performer", otherwise he will sound like a "parrot", which is "a horror to listen to".[38] Braas et al. (2001, p. 69) agree that such a delivery sounds "forced". Moreover, speakers run the risk of forgetting parts of the speech, which could have a detrimental effect, according to Linkletter (1980):

> … if you try to memorise a speech and forget one line, you're dead. You'll get flustered, flounder around, and may even find yourself standing before your audience unable to say a word. [p. 154]

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[36] *English-language sub-corpus*: Carnegie & Carnegie (1977), Walter & Scott (1979), Ehninger et al. (1980), Linkletter (1980), Ross (1980), Kenny (1982), Gondin et al. (1983), Detz (1984), Cook (1989), Smith (1991), Walters (1993), Dowis (2000), Verderber (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Laskowski (2001); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Krusche (1986), Van Eijk (1987), Korswagen (1988), Mertens (1992), Kruijssen (1993), Braas (2001), IJzermans & Van Schaaijk (2003), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Hertz (2005).

[37] Ehninger et al. (1980), Ross (1980), Detz (1984), Osborn & Osborn (1997) and Laskowksi (2001).

[38] Mertens (1992, p. 31): "Spreek nooit uit het hoofd, tenzij u de talenten hebt van de acteur of de cabaretier. Beschikt u daar niet over, dan wordt u een papegaai, en een mens in die vorm is een verschrikking om naar te luisteren. U wordt dan het toppunt van gemaaktheid en, aangezien het spreken natuurlijk en authentiek moet zijn, kan dat echt niet."

Wiertzema and Jansen (2004, p. 104) talk about "panic" that "hits" and will create a "total emptiness of the mind"—all no light consequences of memorising a presentation.[39]

2.3.2 Rehearsals, outlines and speaking notes

Instead of memorising the entire speech, almost half the number of public-speaking textbooks in the corpus (thirty-nine of the eighty textbooks) offer one or more preparatory strategies and memory aids that can help the speaker not to lose track of the storyline and speech content. The two most important preparatory strategies are 'rehearsal', and 'the use of speech outlines and notes'.

A little over one third of the authors advise speakers to practice and rehearse their speech.[40] The practice or rehearsal process can consist of various stages: speakers are advised to read the speech out loud, practise without a paper or with notes only (possibly in front of a mirror), practise to a (critical) friend, rehearse in front of a group of people (dry run) and finally to have a "dress rehearsal"—preferably at the presentation's location. Most authors only discuss a selection of these options. In addition, Naistadt (2004, pp. 184–185) discusses the "mental rehearsal": going over the presentation in the mind. To illustrate this strategy's effectiveness Naistadt recounts the anecdote of Liu Chi Kung, a Chinese pianist who practised mental rehearsal during seven years of captivity and was able to play a piece faultlessly upon his release.

About one out of five authors recommend speakers to design a speech outline and to keep it within reach during the presentation.[41] Outlines can come in various shapes and sizes. Cook (1989, pp. 120–126) offers quite a complete set of options by distinguishing a word-for-word script, a "traditional outline" (short descriptions of each main point), an outline with keywords only and a "pictograph" (icons or pictures representing main points, possibly combined with keywords). In the Dutch-language corpus, the notions "spreekschema" (speaking scheme) and "bouwplan" (construction

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[39] Wiertzema & Jansen (2004, p. 104): "De spreker loopt vast, de paniek slaat toe en er ontstaat een totale leegte in het hoofd. De black-out is dan een feit."

[40] Advised in 36.25% of the overall corpus. *English-language sub-corpus*, 57.5%: Carnegie & Carnegie (1977), Walter & Scott (1979), Linkletter (1980), Kenny (1982), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Wilder (1986), Allen (1987), Mandel (1987), Lucas (1989), Smith (1991), Simmons (1996), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Urech (1998), Verderber (2000), Laskowksi (2001), McConnon (2002), Valenti (2002), Booher (2003), DeVito (2003), Atkinson (2004), Naistadt (2004), Anholt (2006); *Dutch-language sub-corpus,* 15%: Morse (1987), Van Eijk (1987), Wagenaar (1996), Van der Spek (1998), Hilgers & Vriens (1983), IJzermans & Van Schaaijk (2003).

[41] Advised in 22.,5% of the overall corpus. *English-language sub-corpus,* 30%: Walter & Scott (1979), Linkletter (1980), Ross (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Allen (1987), Cook (1989), Lucas (1989), Rozakis (1995), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Qubein (1997), DeVito (2003), Anholt (2006); *Dutch-language sub-corpus,* 15%: Claasen-Van Wirdum et al. (1992), Kruijssen (1993), Janssen et al. (2002), Hilgers & Vriens (2003), IJzermans & Van Schaaijk (2003), Witt (2009).

plan) are popular. Occasionally, the advice on how to make an outline or "spreekschema" is accompanied by instructions on its design; these can include details such as the information that speakers should put in the margins of the scheme or the way in which they can graphically mark main points or words that need to be emphasised. A special kind of outline is based on an acronym, of which each letter represents a key point—helpful to both the speaker and the audience.[42] Furthermore, the use of index cards or cue cards is regularly advised.[43] Advantages of such cards appear to be that speakers resist the temptation of writing down too much information, and that they are less distracting to the audience than a sheet of paper.

The rise of the autocue and teleprompter in public speaking appears to form a sharp contrast with the classical concept of *memoria*. Janner (1999, p. 39) covers this speaking technology and recommends to use it for important occasions in which precision is key. Although a speaker might save time not having to learn the speech by heart, advocates of the classical *memoria* task would probably argue that a speaker would not become familiar with the speech and would not come across convincingly and authentically. Janner (1999, p. 39) agrees that it "sounds easy, but you must know how to do it". Therefore, Janner issues some basic guidelines, such as "do not be afraid to ad lib if you wish" in order to not "let the equipment turn you into a parrot or a zombie" (1999, p. 40).

2.3.3 Modern perspectives on *memoria*

Not all modern textbooks authors think memorisation can backfire. Some see a proper use of memory as an effective tool to become more acquainted with the speech, which is related to classical rhetoricians' ideas on the benefits of having a trained memory. For example, Allen (1987, pp. 51–52) responds to Linkletter's downright rejection of memorisation: "For most speakers Art's [Linkletter] advice will be perfectly sound. However, as is the case with all rules, there are exceptions to Art's rule, too." Allen explains that a trained memory can help the speaker to be more familiar with the topic. He recommends to record the speech, play it back and then practise out loud.

About 19% of all authors in the corpus propose to only memorise essential parts of the presentation.[44] The introduction and conclusion of a speech seem particularly suited to be memorised. Osborn & Osborn (1997) explain why:

> Because the introduction and conclusion of a speech are important in gaining audience attention and leaving a lasting impression, their

[42] Advised by Walters (1993), Booher (2003) and Tracy (2008).

[43] Advised in 17.5% of the overall corpus. *English-language sub-corpus*, 27.5%: Ross (1980), Kenny (1982), Gondin et al. (1983), Allen (1987), Mandel (1987), Cook (1989), Rozakis (1995), Gurak (2000), Dowis (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Tracy (2008); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*, 7,5%: Tonckens (1985), De Boer (1986), Hilgers & Vriens (2003).

[44] *English-language sub-corpus*, 27.5%: Walter & Scott (1979), Wilder (1986), Cook (1989), Rozakis (1995), Simmons (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Booher (2003), DeVito (2003), Naistadt (2004), Tracy (2008); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*, 10%: Blum (1982), De Boer (1986), Palm-Hoebé & Palm (1989), Pietersma (1999).

> wording should be carefully planned. These are the only parts of most speeches that we would advise you to memorise. [p. 347]

Other speech elements that authors recommend to be memorised are transition sentences between main points in the speech. Simmons (1996, p. 100) explains that such a memorisation can work as a “safety net to avoid blanking out during a speech”, because speakers are able to pick up the storyline any time they forget information. Pietersma (1999, p. 33) recommends to learn jokes and anecdotes by heart, as their “success or failure depend on the way they are told”,[45]

Three authors, Spolders (1997), Gurak (2000) and Khan-Panni (2009), even draw on *memoria* strategies from classical rhetoric (see 2.1.1), which makes them stand out in a corpus that can be characterised by its trend of rejecting memorisation. For instance, contrary to most authors, Gurak (2000) emphasises how memory can be advantageous to a speaker’s ethos:

> Memory is related to ethos, because the more you know your material, the more credible and understandable you will be to your audience. Presenters who have material well organised and placed in memory will make a good impression on the audience. It is impressive to audiences to hear speakers who know the material well and do not need to turn constantly to their notes. Good use of memory is also important for you as the presenter, for it relieves you of having too many objects (such as notes, index cards, and so on) and lets you concentrate on the topic and the audience. [p. 30]

Next, Gurak (2000) proposes techniques to improve the memorisation process. She recommends to link information to familiar ideas and to use memory “based on space”:

> You may wish to associate […] with some sort of spatial memory device: perhaps the room in your house where you memorised what you were going to say or something in that room, like a clock. You can train yourself to think of that item and associate it with your presentation material. [p. 31]

This advice relates to the ‘method of *loci’* discussed in the *Rhetorica Ad Herennium*, by Cicero and Quintilian (see Section 2.1.1). Gurak is not the only one to refer to these methods. Khan-Panni (2009, pp. 114–115) offers a detailed example of how to approach memorising a speech using the method of the memory palace.[46] What’s more, he also explains how a speaker should apply this to speechmaking:

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[45] Pietersma (1999, p. 33): “Maak je gebruik van grappen of leuke anekdotes? Bedenk dat ze staan of vallen met de manier waarop ze worden verteld. Leer ze dus letterlijk uit het hoofd.”

[46] Khan-Panni (2009, p. 114-115): “Think of your home, an imagine yourself walking through your home picking out ten places. You could start at the front door or on the roof. YOU

> Now, how is that relevant to speechmaking? It will help you to remember the sequence of your speech, but it will also encourage you to tidy it up. Here's how. Write out your speech. Then, in the margin, draw a line to mark the end of each section. In this way, break up your speech into 20, 30 or even 40 parts, and make up an image to illustrate each section. You may find that in some sections you have too many different little images. That will be a guide to the difficulty your listeners will have in visualising your messages, so simplify and group your images in pairs, placing them in your 10 locations. [p. 115]

Khan-Panni adds that "it is very important that you use your imagination, create outlandish images, and put in some action if possible" (2009, p. 115); this piece of advice appears to draw on the *imagines agentes* that the ancient rhetoricians discussed. Interestingly, neither Gurak nor Khan-Panni explicitly refer to the classical works. However, Khan-Panni (2009, p. 118) does provide a rare example of an explicit connection between the speaker's memory and that of the audience:

> The creation of images to help your memory could be a useful discipline in keeping your message consistent and easy for your audience to follow. As an old proverb puts it, *One hand washes another*. [p. 118]

Spolders (1997, p. 85) constructed her modern textbooks around the classical five canons of the orator, and she inevitably discusses *memoria* as the fourth. Offering a modern interpretation, Spolders dubs this canon "mental preparation"; she explains that speakers nowadays do not have to memorise a speech word by word, as we use more literal visual support. Spolders's modern take on the *memoria* task comprises three steps: preparing the presentation text, preparing the presentation setting and preparing yourself as a speaker.

Spolders, Gurak and Khan-Panni illustrate how memory can still have a place in the tasks of a modern speaker: it is a matter of effective mental preparation, for which a trained memory can be a valuable asset. Still, such a perspective is exceptional

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choose. If you have lots of rooms, each room could be a separate location. If you live in a small apartment, you might consider using each internal wall as a location. The only rule is that the locations should follow one another. Thus, front door would be followed by hallway ... then living room ... dining room ... kitchen ... stairway ... bathroom ... etc. If you are using the walls, be sure to go around the room either clockwise or anticlockwise, and do the same in every room. Visualise the locations. Now go back to the list and visualise each item, making exaggerated images and placing each air in one location. So, we have video and scissors as the first pair, and they will be place in the first location. For example, you might visualise a large sign on your front door, with a picture of a black videotape, with the brown magnetic tape spilling out and being cut by a red pair of scissors. Use colour and as much detail as you can. Make the images vivid. If the hallway is the next location, place a Mason Pearson hairbrush on a fancy barstool in the middle of the floor, so that, as you enter the hallway through the front door, you trip over the stool and just grab the brush as the stool crashes to the floor. Get the idea?"

in modern public-speaking textbooks. The orator's *memoria* task, once so prominently part of the speaker's speech preparation, has given way to other preparatory advice and to a focus on another kind of memory: that of the audience.

2.4 Amount of retention advice in modern public-speaking textbooks

From the role of the speaker's memory, this section moves to modern textbook advice on how to influence the audience's memory—the main focus of this thesis. Section 2.4.1 addresses the amount of retention advice: how many pages do the textbook authors explicitly devote to audience information retention? After that, Section 2.4.2 presents an overview of the most frequently advised rhetorical retention techniques in the English-language and Dutch-language sub-corpora.

2.4.1 Number of pages devoted to audience information retention

A little over 5% of the entire corpus comprises fragments in which a connection with retention is made (about 715 out of 13,326 pages). Considering the variety and scope of topics that are treated within most public-speaking textbooks, from preparation (invention), via style and visuals to delivery, 5% seems a sizeable portion.[47] To more precisely assess the value of this percentage and the role retention plays in public-speaking textbooks, this percentage should be compared with the attention for various other rhetorical functions and purposes in the corpus based on a similar analysis. However, the current analysis does show that establishing audience retention is regularly recognised in public-speaking textbooks as a function of giving a speech or presentation.[48]

The English-language textbooks spend more explicit attention to audience retention than the Dutch-language textbooks (6.8% versus 2.1%, respectively—see table 2.1). A possible explanation for the quantitative difference in attention for retention between the two sub-corpora is that the selected Dutch-language textbooks are more concise: the sub-corpus contains less than half the number of pages than the English-language sub-corpus (3990 pages versus 9336 pages). The selected English-language textbooks are more elaborate and can therefore describe public-speaking strategies and techniques more extensively—including possible retention effects, so

[47] Van der Holst (2009) applied a comparable approach to investigate the frequency of humour advice in a corpus English- and Dutch-language modern public-speaking textbooks that largely corresponded to the corpus used in this dissertation. She found that 3% of the total number of pages were dedicated to humour – less than the percentage related to retention in this study. However, a valid comparison is difficult due to small differences in corpus construction.

[48] It should also be taken into account that the selected textbook fragments did not all explicitly elaborate on the retention function of a presentation or speech; some fragments were included because they were related to a broader retention category such as visual aids (e.g.: if the beginning of a chapter on visualiation contained a general statement on the memorable quality of visual aids, this meant that the visual techniques mentioned in the rest of the chapter were also included in the analysis).

it seems. The quantitative difference is also expressed in the number of techniques labelled in each sub-corpus: on a total of 77 types of retention techniques, 38 were found in the English-language sub-corpus only, whereas three were unique to the Dutch-language sub-corpus.[49]

Table 2.1: Amount of retention-advice in the English-language and Dutch-language sub-corpora. Appendix A.3 contains an overview of the frequency of all retention techniques that were found in the corpus of public-speaking textbooks. More detailed information (e.g. the amount of advice per textbook and advice related to parts of the speech) can be found in the forms of analysis in Appendix A.8.

	English-language sub-corpus (N=40)	**Dutch-language sub-corpus (N=40)**
Percentage of corpus dedicated to retention (pages related to retention / total number of pages)	6.8% (631½ /9336 pages)	2.1% (83¼ /3990 pages)
Average number of pages devoted to retention per textbook	16	2
5 textbooks with highest percentage of retention-related content	1. Detz (1984) 17.7% 2. Atkinson (2004) 16.8% 3.Leanne (2009) 16.6% 4.Naistadt (2004) 16.0% 5. Smith (1991) 15.7%	1. Claasen-Van Wirdum et al. (1992) 8.8% 2. Wagenaar (1996) 6.5% 3. De Boer (1986) 6.3% 4. Bloch (1995) 4.5% 5. Gerritsen (2008) 4.4%
5 textbooks with lowest percentage of retention-related content	1. Walter & Scott (1979) 0.7% 2. Allen (1987 0.5% 3. Wilder (1986) 0.4% 4. Gurak (2000) 0.2% 5. Mandel (1987) 0%	1. Van der Spek (1998) 0.4% 2. Jansen et al. (2004) 0.4% 3. Maks & De Koning (1985) 0% 4. Mertens (1992) 0% 5. Kruijssen (1993) 0%
Textbooks with a distinct chapter or section on retention or memorability	Walters (1993) Simmons (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997) Qubein (1997) Urech (1998) Dowis (2000) Leanne (2009)	Oomkes (2000)

[49] Most of the 38 techniques limited to the English-language sub-corpus were not frequently advised. Section 2.4.2 more extensively discusses the frequency of the retention techniques.

Within the overall corpus quite a few differences between individual textbooks and authors exist, as table 2.1 points out. Of five textbooks in the English-language sub-corpus more than 15% of their contents is explicitly related to retention. This is quite a significant portion compared to the average. Seven textbooks contain a distinct chapter or section of which the title explicitly refers to retention or making a message memorable; remarkably, of these books only Leanne (2009) recurs in the list of works with the highest retention-related content. Except for Leanne (2009), the textbooks that spend most (quantitative) attention on retention do not categorise retention advice in a specific part of the book, but they contain references to retention throughout the book. This suggests that retention is connected to the wide range of topics that is usually covered in public-speaking textbooks, which is reflected in the variety of techniques that are related to retention.

2.4.2 Most frequently recommended retention techniques

A total number of 77 retention techniques were labelled, which suggests that a speaker can choose from a vast range of rhetorical techniques to influence information retention. However, not every technique is recommend equally as much. Table 2.2 presents an overview of the twenty most frequently mentioned rhetorical retention techniques in both the English-language and the Dutch-language sub-corpora. Appendix A.3 contains a complete list with all techniques, and the corresponding percentages, number of textbooks and fragments per technique. In table 2.2, the frequency of a specific rhetorical retention technique is expressed in a percentage of the total number of textbooks per sub-corpus. The total number of textbooks in which the techniques are related to retention is included in the table as well. Whenever a strategy or technique is advised in an equal number of textbooks, the number of fragments in which the technique is connected to retention determines its position in the table.[50]

[50] For example, the techniques ‘circle technique’ and ‘quotation’ are both included in 25% of the English-language sub-corpus; however, the circle technique is mentioned in thirteen fragments, whereas the quotation recurs in twelve fragments. Therefore, the circle technique is listed above the quotation.

Table 2.2: The most frequently advised retention techniques in the corpus of public-speaking textbooks (N= 80). For each technique, the percentage and number of textbooks per sub-corpus is shown.

English-language textbooks 1980–2009 (N=40)				**Dutch-language textbooks 1980–2009 (N=40)**		
#	**Technique**	**%**	**Text-books**	**Technique**	**%**	**Text-books**
1	Visual aids	60	24	Visual aids	50	20
2	Anecdote	52.5	21	Repetition	40	16
3	Summary	52.5	21	Summary	32.5	13
4	Repetition	52.5	21	Systematic order	25	10
5	Imagery	45	18	*Partitio* (structure overview)	17.5	7
6	Chunking	40	16	Circle technique	17.5	7
7	Humour	35	14	Clear message	12.5	5
8	Rhyme (alliteration & assonance)	35	14	Chunking	10	4
9	Metaphor	32.5	13	Comprehensible language	10	4
10	One-liner / slogan / soundbite	32.5	13	Final statement (final sentence)	10	4
11	Connecting to the audience	30	12	Metaphor	10	4
12	Final statement (final sentence)	30	12	Example	7.5	3
13	Circle technique	25	10	Quotation	7.5	3
14	Quotation	25	10	List of three	7.5	3
15	Example	22.5	9	Imagery	7.5	3
16	Audience participation	22.5	9	*Propositio*	7.5	3
17	Rhetorical question	20	8	Connecting to the audience	5	2
18	Call to action	20	8	Anecdote	5	2
19	Parallelism	20	8	Audience participation	5	2
20	List of three	17.5	7	Call to action	5	2

The overview of frequently advised retention techniques points to three main trends in the overall corpus of public-speaking textbooks:

1. Visualisation is a key retention strategy. ‘Visual aids’, the category that includes literal visual support techniques such as images, graphs, or an object/prop, are most frequently recommended in both of the sub-corpora. A few other techniques mentioned imply the stimulation of mental visualisation (e.g. ‘imagery’, ‘metaphor’, ‘example’), which can be related to the principle of elaboration as well as to visualisation.
2. Organisation techniques related to structuring a presentation are very frequently advised in the overall corpus, such as the techniques ‘summary’, ‘chunking’, and ‘systematic order’.
3. The conclusion is seen as the most important part of the speech to influence retention. Fifteen of the techniques in table 2.2 are related to the concluding part of a presentation, the most frequent of which are the ‘summary’ (in 42.5% of overall corpus), ‘final statement’ (20%) and the ‘circle technique’ (almost 19%).[51] In contrast: only four retention techniques were explicitly connected to the introduction, of which the *partitio* most often (10% of the corpus).

Besides general trends in the overall corpus, the overview in table 2.2 also indicates differences between the two sub-corpora. Some of these may be related to the fact that English-language textbooks spend more pages on retention and distinguish a larger number of retention techniques than the Dutch-language works (see 2.4.1). This quantitative difference accounts for the relatively low frequencies of retention techniques in the Dutch-language corpus compared to their counterparts in the English-language textbooks (see table 2.2, more precisely from the ‘summary’ downward to the ‘call to action’ in the Dutch-language sub-corpus). The most striking differences are the following:

- The technique ‘anecdote’ is considered one of the most important retention techniques in the English-language sub-corpus: it is advised just over half the number of textbooks (twenty-one, 52.5%). In contrast, only two Dutch-language authors connect it to retention (5%). Such a discrepancy between the sub-corpora exists for the technique ‘imagery’ as well (English-language corpus: 45%, Dutch-language corpus: 7.5%).
- The techniques ‘one-liner/slogan/soundbite’ and ‘parallelism’ are among the twenty most frequently advised retention techniques in the English-language sub-corpus, but they are not recommended by any author in the Dutch-language sub-corpus at all (see Appendix A.3). ‘Humour’ and ‘rhetorical question’ are

[51] Other retention techniques that are explicitly related to the conclusion: quotation, call to action, rhetorical question, anecdote, repetition, humour, visual aids (object), list of three, imagery, one-liner, rhyme, example. See the forms of analysis in Appendix A.8 for the techniques connected to parts of the speech.

considered to be quite important retention techniques in the English-language sub-corpus, but are only mentioned in a few Dutch-language textbooks (the rhetorical question in two textbooks, humour only in one—Witt (2009)—which has been translated from English).

- To the contrary, the techniques ‘systematic order’ and *partitio* (structure overview in the introduction) are quite popular among the Dutch-language authors, but are not among the twenty most frequently advised techniques in the English-language sub-corpus. The same goes for the techniques ‘clear message’, ‘comprehensible language’ and *propositio*.

To provide more context and concrete examples, Section 2.5 expounds on each of the twenty-five retention techniques listed in table 2.2.

2.5 Description of twenty-five most frequently recommended retention techniques

Most of the labels of the techniques presented in Section 2.4.2 do not immediately reveal the content of the corresponding retention advice in the textbooks. Do authors agree on how these techniques should be deployed in a presentation or speech? To what extent do the descriptions and definitions of rhetorical techniques in various textbooks correspond? What particular aspects of the techniques make them effective regarding the audience’s information retention, according to the textbook authors?

In this section, the twenty-five most frequently advised retention techniques are described more elaborately. The descriptions of retention techniques are structured as follows. All descriptions start with an overview of the number of textbooks in which the technique is recommended, both in the total corpus and in the English-language and Dutch-language sub-corpora. Afterwards, the main characteristics of the technique and some possible points for discussion are presented, illustrated with examples from the textbooks (see Appendix A.4 for the collected fragments about a specific retention technique, in this case the ‘repetition’, which give an impression of all advice about a particular retention technique). Whenever applicable, warnings about how the technique might hinder information retention (so-called *vitia*) are also discussed.[52] The order in which the techniques is presented is based on the frequency of techniques in the English-language sub-corpus, starting with the most frequently advised technique (Sections 2.5.1–2.5.20); after that, techniques are discussed that have a more prominent position as a retention technique in the Dutch-language sub-corpus than they have in the English-language sub-corpus (Sections 2.5.21–2.5.25).

2.5.1 Visual aids

Using visual aids is the most important retention strategy mentioned in the English-language and Dutch-language sub-corpora. In 55% of the total corpus, visual aids are

[52] Section 2.6 addresses the *vitia* that could not be directly related to one of the advised retention techniques.

somehow connected to audience information retention (English-language sub-corpus: twenty-four textbooks, Dutch-language sub-corpus: twenty textbooks).[53]

The category ‘visual aids’ contains retention advice on various levels of detail. Many textbooks contain a specific chapter or section that discusses a variety of visual aids that a speaker can use. These chapters usually contain an introduction in which the general concept of ‘visual aids’ is connected to retention, followed by a discussion of relevant visual techniques. However, these specific visual techniques are sometimes explicitly linked to retention as well. In a few cases, no general statement about the link between visual aids and retention is made, but only a particular visual technique is related to retention.

The approach of this section is as follows. First, it focuses on the textbook statements about the general relationship between visual aids and retention. Afterwards, it discusses examples of specific visual aids or techniques related to retention, divided into three categories: (1) presentation media, (2) graphics and video and (3) object and demonstration. Finally, it discusses warnings against the ineffective use of visual aids, which form the most frequently occurring category of warnings (*vitia*) in the textbook corpus.

Visual aids as a general retention strategy

42.5% of the textbooks contain a remark or paragraph in which the use of visual aids in general is linked to retention (nineteen English-language textbooks, fifteen Dutch-language textbooks).[54] These references vary from a brief remark that visual aids “help your audience remember” (Urech, 1998, p. 58) via authors who emphasise that retention is a function of visual aids (Ehninger et al., 1980) to more extensive explanations of the way in which visuals can contribute to information retention and

[53] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ehninger et al. (1980), Ross (1980), Linkletter (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Lucas (1989), Smith (1991), Walters (1993), Rozakis (1995), Qubein (1997), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Urech (1998), Janner (1999), Dowis (2000), Gurak (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), Laskowski (2001), McConnon (2002), Booher (2003), DeVito (2003), Anholt (2006), Tracy (2008), Khan-Panni (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Tonckens (1985), De Boer (1986), Van Eijk (1987), Luijk (1987), Morse (1987), Palm-Hoebé & Palm (1989), Bloch & Tholen (1991), Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994), Wagenaar (1996), Spolders (1997), Angenent & Van Vilsteren (1998), Pietersma (1999), Braas (2001), Cornelis (2002), Janssen et al. (2002), Hilgers & Vriens (2003), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Hertz (2005), Piët (2005), Gerritsen (2008).

[54] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ehninger et al. (1980), Linkletter (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Lucas (1989), Smith (1991), Walters (1993), Rozakis (1995), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Urech (1998), Janner (1999), Dowis (2000), Gurak (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), Booher (2003), DeVito (2003), Tracy (2008); *Dutch-language sub-corpus:* Tonckens (1985), De Boer (1986), Luijk (1987), Morse (1987), Palm-Hoebé & Palm (1989), Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994), Wagenaar (1996), Spolders (1997), Pietersma (1999), Janssen et al. (2002), Hilgers & Vriens (2003), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Hertz (2005), Piët (2005), Gerritsen (2008). The passage in Hilgers & Vriens appears to be an exact copy of Pietersma (1999).

the role that visual stimuli play in the process of storing information, e.g. via an auditive and visual channel (Smith, 1991; Vasile & Mintz, 2000; McConnon, 2002; Booher, 2003; Wiertzema & Jansen, 2004; Hertz, 2005).[55] Lucas (1989) and Rozakis (1995) refer to the famous adage "a picture is worth a thousand words" to back up their connection of visual aids to retention.

Nine authors support these claims with statistics and/or references to research.[56] Interestingly, the presented statistics differ between the various textbooks. Morse (1987, p. 55) claims that we "normally remember only 10% of what we hear", but that more than 50% sticks in memory when the "right visual aids" are used.[57] Gaulke (1997, p. 85) uses varying statistics regarding the percentage of visual information that is retained, referring to David Peoples from *Presentation's Plus* who states that "that people gain 75 percent of what they know visually" and to an unidentified study which states that "about 85 percent of the information stored in the brain is received visually". Booher (2003) explicitly backs up the numbers with academic sources, although the exact references could not be located in the textbook:

> At the University of Wisconsin, researchers determined that retention improves up to 200 percent when visual aids are used in teaching vocabulary**.** Studies at Harvard and Columbia revealed that presentations with visuals improve student retention by 14 to 38 percent over presentations without visuals. Studies at the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School of Business demonstrated that the time needed to make a point could be reduced by up to 40 percent when visuals accompany an oral presentation. [pp. 115–116]

Smith (1991) is more precise in breaking down the percentages of what people remember when information is offered via various sensory stimuli—he even offers a table with retention percentages after three hours and three days:

> We learn through our senses, using each one to a varying degree. Taste accounts for only one percent, and touch only one-and-one half percent. Smell is three-and-one-half percent, and hearing is a surprisingly low eleven percent**.** The remaining eighty-three percent of the data we gather is from sight! Learning is largely a visual phenomenon. In addition, some interesting statistics have been generated on retention, as shown in the table below.

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[55] Of these exposes, only Hertz (2005) refers to a more specific source: studies by Mayer on multimedia use.

[56] Morse (1987), Smith (1991), Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994), Gaulke (1997), Pietersma (1999), Verderber (2000), Booher (2003), Hilgers & Vriens (2003), Tracy (2008).

[57] Morse (1987, p. 55): "Normaliter onthouden we maar zo'n 10% van wat we horen, maar bij gebruik van de juiste visuele hulpmiddelen blijft meer dan 50% in het geheugen hangen."

Retention After …		
	3 hours	3 days
Tell Only	70%	10%
Show Only	72%	20%
Show and Tell	85%	65%

[p. 58]

Pietersma (1999, p. 14) and Hilgers & Vriens (2003, p. 40) also refer to enhanced retention by visual aids and claim that a difference in retention effect exists between presentations with and without visual aids, particularly on a longer term:

> Research shows that listeners can reproduce about 85% of a story with [visual] illustrations directly after the presentation. For a story without illustrations, that is about 75%. When tested after a longer period of time, the difference increases: 65% versus 10%.[58]

It is well possible that these statistics vary due to developments in research over time and different interpretations of (academic) sources. Since there is hardly a detailed reference to be found in the textbooks, it is not easy to establish an overview of possible developments in studies that the textbook authors may have consulted (see Section 2.7, which is about reference use in the textbooks).

Presentation media

The visual aids category 'presentation media' contains advice about tools that enable visual support, such as an overhead projector and a slide show designed using presentation software or a flip-over and the 'good-old' blackboard. These means of visual support are linked to retention in thirty textbooks (37.5% of the total corpus; fourteen English-language textbooks and sixteen Dutch-language textbooks).[59] It is one of the few retention techniques or categories that are more frequently advised in the Dutch-language sub-corpus.

The presentation media are usually not directly linked to retention in the textbooks; more often, they are listed as optional visual aids after a more general remark about visuals as a retention strategy. Still, some presentation media are explicitly linked to retention. This section discusses examples of such explicit links,

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[58] Pietersma (1999, p. 14) and Hilgers & Vriens (2003, p. 40): "Uit onderzoek blijkt dat luisteraars vlak na de voordracht een verhaal met illustraties voor zo'n 85% kunnen reproduceren. Bij een verhaal zonder illustraties is dat 75%. Bij een toets na langere tijd loopt dat verschil op tot 65% tegen 10%".

[59] *English-language sub-corpus*: Wilson & Arnold (1983), Lucas (1989), Smith (1991), Rozakis (1995), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Verderber (2000), Gaulke (1997), Urech (1998), Janner (1999), Gurak (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), McConnon (2002), Booher (2003), Anholt (2006); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Tonckens (1985), Luijk (1987), Morse (1987), Van Eijk (1987). Tilanus (1988), Palm-Hoebé & Palm (1989), Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994), Wagenaar (1996), Braas (2001), Cornelis (2002), Hilgers & Vriens (2003), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Piët (2005), Steehouder et al. (2006), Van der Horst (2007), Gerritsen (2008).

and includes two examples of advice in which presentation media are connected to retention only in combination with another (structure-enhancing) technique.

The blackboard or whiteboard is considered to be a useful visual aid by quite a few authors. However, Osborn and Osborn (1997) are the only authors who explicitly connect this medium to retention—more specifically, the act of writing down important terms on a board:

> A chalkboard or plastic marker board (used with broad-tipped markers) is a presentation medium available in almost every corporate conference room or classroom. These boards work well when you want to emphasise certain words or ideas, or clear up something the audience doesn't understand by creating a spontaneous presentation aid. Writing terms or names on the board calls the audience's attention to their importance and helps your listeners remember them. [p. 293]

Van Eijk (1987, p. 65) connects the retention-enhancing function of visual aids particularly to another presentation medium that enables writing, the flip-over, and also to a more modern tool for visual support than the blackboard: the overhead projector. Wagenaar (1996, p. 19) also explicitly refers to the overhead projector when he states that "with projection, you enable the visual memory as an extra aid". However, he makes clear that projection is only of added value when "you show something that could not be easily said" (p. 19).[60]

From the overhead projector, the textbooks move to "computer-assisted media": electronic slides that are shown on a projection screen. Nowadays this type of visual support is inextricably linked with presentations, but within the three decades that the corpus of public-speaking textbooks spans its application clearly emerges in the final few years of the twentieth century. The first time that the nowadays renowned presentation software is mentioned in the English-language sub-corpus is in 1997 (by Osborn & Osborn); in the Dutch-language corpus it is first mentioned in 1999 (Pietersma).[61]

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[60] Wagenaar (1996, p. 19): "De belangrijkste regel voor het gebruik van projectie is dat je iets laat zien wat niet net zo gemakkelijk gezegd had kunnen worden. […] Met behulp van projectie schakel je het visuele geheugen als extra hulpmiddel in."

[61] Of all the retention techniques presented, the category of 'presentation media' perhaps best reflects the fact that the corpus contains public-speaking textbooks across three decades (1980–2009). Osborn's and Osborn's description of "computer-assisted presentation media" (1997, p. 297) offers an interesting insight into the early adaptations of this type of visual aids in presentations: "To make presentation aids on a computer you will need access to spreadsheet, word processing, graphics, and/or presentation software such as ClarisWorks, PowerPoint, Persuasion, or Harvard Graphics. The prototypes for many of the illustrations of presentation aids in this chapter were originally prepared using ClarisWorks and a Macintosh Performa computer. […] To make a computer-assisted presentation you need specialised equipment in addition to the computer and software necessary to prepare the aids. You may need a CD-ROM

Three Dutch-language authors explicitly link the use of electronic slides (also referred to as 'sheets' in Dutch) or presentation software to retention. Cornelis (2002, p. 94) believes that the strength of slides is that they "make it possible to present complex information visually"; she adds that a speaker can use them to emphasise important information and "offer memory aids".[62] The two other Dutch-language authors view the use of slides as an additional retention tool in combination with a structural or organisational technique. Gerritsen (2008) connects the use of slides to the *docilem* technique of the *partitio* (see Section 2.5.23) to enhance retention:

> The second element of the docilem is presenting the outline; this entails that you tell how your presentation is structured. Preferably use a slide to do this, because the outline will better stick to your audience with visual support. [p. 38][63]

Wiertzema and Jansen (2004) seem to mirror this advice when they apply it to the conclusion and link it to the summary of the talk (see Section 2.5.3 for more information on the summary):

> The summary does not only provide them [the audience] with the repetition so desperately needed, but if you summarise with a slide, that repetition is also presented in their favourite way [visually]. Because of this, much more will 'stick'. [p. 73][64]

Graphics and video

The category 'graphics and video' comprises all advised types of visual support that are projected on a screen or overhead projector but that do not involve a physical object itself or the media/software needed to show visuals, e.g. a picture, graph, diagram, drawing, map, handout or video clip. Twenty-three textbooks present one of these visual aids in connection with retention (about 29% of the corpus; fourteen

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drive, an audioboard, and a color monitor for use in small group settings. You will need additional special projection equipment for use with large groups. The standard large group projection equipment includes LCD (liquid crystal display) projection panels that connect to the output port on a computer and are then sent through an overhead projector to a screen" [p. 297-298]

[62] Cornelis (2002, p. 94): "De sterke kant van sheets is dat ze het mogelijk maken complexe informatie op visuele wijze te presenteren. Je kunt er accenten mee leggen en geheugensteunen bieden."

[63] Gerritsen (2008, p. 38): "Het tweede element van het docilem is de presentatie van de opzet, dit houdt in dat je vertelt hoe je presentatie is opgebouwd. Gebruik hierbij bij voorkeur een dia, want met visuele ondersteuning blijft de opzet beter bij je publiek hangen."

[64] Wiertzema & Jansen (2004, p. 73): "De samenvatting verschaft ze niet alleen de broodnodige herhaling, maar als u samenvat met een sheet, komt die herhaling ook nog eens op hun favoriete wijze. Hierdoor blijft er veel meer 'hangen'."

English-language and nine Dutch-language textbooks).[65] Most authors list graphics, audio or video among the possible visual aids a speaker can choose from, after they have made a general statement about the positive effect that visual aids can have on audience retention. Some types of graphics, such as graphs and illustrations, are specifically related to retention.

Ehninger et al. (1980) connect a variety of graphics to retention:

> Visual research has demonstrated that bar graphs, especially, make statistical information more accessible to an audience, that simple (as opposed to complicated) drawings enhance recall, and that charts and even "human interest" visuals (especially photographs) help an audience retain data. [p. 261]

Other authors focus more on a single type of graphics. Braas (2001, p. 53), for example, states that a listener will "remember information much better" if "numbers are visually presented in a graph." It provides the listeners with "some time to take in the details".[66]

The use of illustrations is also explicitly connected to retention. Janssen et al. (2002, p. 355) argue that "functional illustrations do not only make the presentation more attractive, but also easier to remember."[67] Angenent and Van Vilsteren (1998) advise a cartoon, a specific kind of illustration, to summarise key points; this will lead to a better recall than a verbal conclusion, they claim.[68] De Boer (1986) relates the use of colours in illustrations to retention, albeit indirectly via an increase of attention:

> The use of colours in communication can make figures more attractive, but in itself it does not increase the chance that the we learn more.

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[65] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ehninger et al. (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Lucas (1989), Rozakis (1995), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Urech (1998), Janner (1999), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), DeVito (2003), Booher (2003), Anholt (2006), Tracy (2008); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: De Boer (1986), Palm-Hoebé & Palm (1989), Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994), Spolders (1997), Angenent & Van Vilsteren (1998), Pietersma (1999), Janssen et al. (2002), Hilgers & Vriens (2003), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004).

[66] Braas (2001, p. 53): "Door *getallen* visueel te presenteren in een grafiek, heeft de luisteraar even de tijd om de details in zich op te nemen. Hij of zij onthoudt de informatie dan veel beter."

[67] Janssen et al. (2002, p. 355): "Functionele illustraties maken de presentatie niet alleen aantrekkelijker, maar ook beter te onthouden."

[68] Interestingly, Wagenaar (1996, p. 19) warns that using a cartoon (among other visuals) can be counterproductive (also see the subsection 'Warnings: how not to use visuals'): "Don't use the visual memory for something that is not related to the core of the message, such as a cartoon, a beautifully coloured image with your own name and institution, a detailed table with research results." This warning can be related to Janssen et al.'s point that an illustration needs to be functional (2002, p. 355).

> Indirectly, the ability to learn is influenced. Colours draw more attention than black and white; because of this, we spend more time looking at coloured pictures than we do looking at black and white pictures. And that opens up the possibility that we remember more. [p. 152][69]

Object and demonstration

To use an object (prop) or to give a demonstration is recommended in twenty textbooks (25% of the total corpus; seventeen English-language textbooks and three Dutch-language textbooks).[70] The techniques 'object' and 'demonstration' are more extensively connected to retention in the English-language textbook than in the Dutch-language textbooks. Some English-language authors explicitly link these visual strategies to retention, while Dutch-language authors usually only list the strategies as one of several possibilities for using visuals.

Three authors specifically describe a connection between the use of an object and retention'.[71] While Linkletter (1980) talks about an "indelible impression of the major points", Gaulke (1997, p. 46) mentions that the use of a prop can "create the lasting effect". She lists the use of an object as a technique that can increase attention, which might lead to retention. Note that it seems to be the combination of the use of a prop and a powerful question that could lead to "an idea that sticks" in the following quotation:

> Bring out a prop and watch your audience's eyes light up. At the beginning of a speech about the benefits of chemical sprays, a Dow Chemical executive held out a big shiny red apple and said, "How would you like to have the worm back in your apple?" . . . long pause . . . His audience was motionless—captivated. The attention level was 150 percent.
>
> That's one speech I'll always remember. The Dow executive really made an impression. He left me with a thought that I'll never forget. That's what I call "making a dent." Not only was I paying attention for the moment, but that moment was so meaningful that it became permanent. That's the ultimate mission of a presenter: to plant

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[69] De Boer (1986, p. 152): "Het gebruik van kleuren bij de communicatie kan figuren aantrekkelijker maken, maar vergroot op zichzelf nog niet de kans dat we er meer van Ieren. Indirect vindt beïnvloeding van het leren weI plaats. Kleur trekt meer aandacht dan zwart/wit: daardoor kijken we langer naar gekleurde afbeeldingen dan naar zwart/ witte. En daardoor bestaat de kans dat we er meer van onthouden."

[70] *English-language sub-corpus*: Linkletter (1980), Ross (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Lucas (1989), Smith (1991), Rozakis (1995), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Qubein (1997), Urech (1998), Verderber (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Laskowski (2001), Booher (2003), DeVito (2003), Anholt (2006), Khan-Panni (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Morse (1987), Spolders (1997), Janssen et al. (2002).

[71] Linkletter (1980), Gaulke (1997) and Laskowski (2001).

> an idea that sticks. This speaker used both a prop and a powerful question to create the lasting effect. [p. 46]

Laskowski (2001) also discusses the retentive quality of the prop, but specifically links it to the conclusion (final part) of a speech:

> Although your conclusion is short, its significance is important. This is your last chance to drive your message home and leave a lasting impression. In some instances I combine my closing remarks or statements with a theatrical closing, one that involves props or even a costume. When I do this, each time an audience member picks up that object they are reminded of my presentation. [p. 187]

Most authors discuss positive effects of props. "Nothing beats being able to point to exactly what you are talking about", according to Osborn and Osborn (1997, p. 279). DeVito (2003, p. 80) agrees: "the best presentation aid is the object itself". Smith (1991, p. 62) even provides four reasons why: "Added 'reality'. High impact value. Versatility. Props and products are readily available." Should the actual object be unavailable or impractical, the speaker can consider using a model; Rozakis (1995) explains why and how:

> Models can be a great way to explain the structure, function, and design of something. They are especially useful when the original is too big, too difficult, or—as in the case of a DNA molecule, for instance—simply impossible to pass around. Be sure that the model is sturdy enough to withstand handling. If not, hold it up for display instead. [p. 209]

So, it seems that no harm can be done when using a prop. However, DeVito (2003, p. 80) adds that his statement is "a general rule (to which there are many exceptions)". Osborn & Osborn (1997) and Verderber (2000) both set two important conditions for the use of props: (1) the speaker should be able to carry the object around and (2) listeners in the back of the room should be able to clearly see it. Urech (1998, p. 66) adds that the object should "illustrate your message". So, if used wisely and under the proper conditions, an object can enhance audience retention.

In a demonstration, an object or several props are usually more extensively involved. Ross (1980) explains what a demonstration is and how it can be linked to retention:

> The purpose of a demonstration is to show how a skill, a procedure, a process, or a device is used so that the audience will find it easier to learn the skill or acquire the knowledge. A demonstration combines *showing with telling*. Many grade schools have sessions called "show and tell". These are essentially demonstrations and are excellent early speech-training exercises if conducted by teachers who have some basic speech experience. The value of demonstration is that the

> audience can learn by seeing what is demonstrated. Demonstration helps speakers remember their material; it appeals to several senses of the listener; it reinforces the message; it saves time; and finally, it has dramatic appeal and is more concrete than just telling. [p. 201]

The value of a demonstration seems to increase when the audience can take part (an apparent combination of the technique object and audience participation—see Section 2.5.16). Qubein (1997) recounts how a demonstration that involved the audience to illustrate a key point in the presentation made a lasting impact:

> Perhaps the most effective method of assisting an audience in understanding your image is to make them participants in its application. Once a speaker was cautioning his audience against compromising its stand against nudity and violence in movies. "Many times," he said, 'it's tempting to say, 'This movie is all right; it only has one or two questionable scenes in it.'" To dramatize his point, he held up a glass of clear water. "This water," he said, "was taken from a pure mountain spring." He took a drink to demonstrate its purity. Then he held up another glass, this one filled with a dirty-looking liquid. "This water," he said, "was taken from a puddle in a pig sty." His listeners crinkled their noses. Then the speaker used an eye dropper to extract some of the filthy water from its glass. He put two drops into the glass of clean water and stirred it until there was no visible trace of the filth. "Now," he said, passing the glass among his audience, "who would like a drink from this glass?" It was a point the audience would not forget. The speaker had drawn his listeners into the experience. The application was unmistakably clear. [p. 217-218]

An object is not necessarily part of a demonstration. Five textbooks emphasise that people can be used to demonstrate an idea, process or principle.[72] Such demonstrations could involve members of the audience or 'accomplices' of the speaker (who had helped to prepare the demonstration, cf. Osborn & Osborn, 1997), and it could also be the speaker himself or herself. Verderber (2000) describes how speakers can 'become' visual aids and when that might be effective:

> On occasion, you can become your own best visual aid. What you do and how you look may well reinforce or supplement what you say. Through descriptive gestures, you can show the size of a soccer ball or the height of a tennis net; through your posture and movement, you can show the motions involved in swimming the butterfly stroke or administering artificial respiration; through your own attire, you can illustrate the native dress of a foreign country, the necessary equipment for a cave explorer, or the uniform of a firefighter. In every one of these

[72] Lucas (1989), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Verderber (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000) and DeVito (2003).

examples, what you do and what you look like help you get your point across. [p. 157]

Warnings: ineffective use of visual aids

As visual aids are the most frequently advised retention technique, it is perhaps not surprising that the most frequent category of warnings (*vitia*) comprises various forms of ineffective use of visual aids. The five most important warnings are discussed in this section.

Distraction. The most important disadvantage of using visual aids is that they can divert attention (22.5% of the overall corpus; English-language sub-corpus: 32.5%, Dutch-language sub-corpus: 12.5%).[73] Distraction appears to go hand in hand with irrelevance: a visual that is irrelevant is likely to distract the audience from the main message. Van der Meiden (1991, p. 120) says that it is “a fairy tale that visual presentation will stick longer in the audience’s mind than oral presentation”.[74] According to him, visuals can “sometimes seriously distract from the storyline”. Wagenaar (1996, p. 19) states that because the visual memory is so powerful, a speaker should select visual aids carefully:

> Don’t use the visual memory for something that is not related to the core of the message, such as a cartoon, a beautifully coloured image with your own name and institution, a detailed table with research results. If you really want your audience to remember your name and institution, then show it at the end of the talk, so that there is no risk they will distract from the actual message. [p. 19][75]

Two visual aids that seems to be particularly prone to distraction are the prop and the handout. Rozakis (1995) meticulously explains the way to use a prop, so as to avoid the audience being distracted:

> Props such as models and objects can be tricky to use. Be sure to display the object long enough for everyone to get a good look. Lift the object into the air, hold it steady for a few moments, and then move it slowly

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[73] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ehninger et al. (1980), Allen (1987), Lucas (1989), Walters (1993), Rozakis (1995), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Janner (1999), Dowis (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), Booher (2003), Anholt (2006); *Dutch-language corpus*: Van der Meiden (1991), Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994), Wagenaar (1996), Janssen e.a. (2002), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004).

[74] Van der Meiden (1991, p. 120): “Het is een sprookje dat onder alle omstandigheden de visuele presentatie beter in het geheugen van de toehoorder blijft hangen dan de mondelinge. Visuele presentatie kan, omgekeerd, soms ernstig afleiden van de gang van een betoog.”

[75] Wagenaar (1996, p. 19): “Gebruik het visuele geheugen niet voor iets wat met de kern weinig te maken heeft, zoals 'een cartoon, een prachtig gekleurde plaat met je eigen naam en instituut, een gedetailleerde tabel met onderzoeksresultaten. Als je per se wilt dat het publiek je naam en instituut onthoudt, vertoon die dan aan het einde, zodat er geen risico is dat dit afleidt van de eigenlijke boodschap.”

> so that everyone in the audience has a chance to see it. Don't talk while people are looking at the object. This will ensure that people pay full attention to what you're saying. They also won't feel like they're missing something if they are studying the object and don't hear you. If the object isn't fragile or valuable, pass it around *after* the speech. This way, it won't distract from what you are saying. [p. 213]

Morse (1987) mentions the risk of distraction by props as well, while Verderber (2000) explicitly agrees with the advice to avoid passing round an object. Lucas (1989) recommends to cover or hide the object, only to reveal it or bring it on stage once it is needed in the presentation.

Osborn and Osborn (1997) agree with the possibility that objects cause distraction. They give a similar warning about handouts and explain how a speaker should use them to avoid attention loss:

> There is one serious drawback to handouts—they can distract listeners from what you are saying. If you distribute a handout before your speech, it will compete with you for attention. The audience may decide to read the handout instead of listening to your speech. Therefore, distribute handouts before your speech *only* when it is absolutely necessary for listeners to refer to them as you speak and *only* when you are confident of your ability to command attention. Never distribute handouts during your speech: this is a sure-fire way to divert, confuse, and lose listeners. [p. 293]

Dominance. 12.5% of the authors in the overall corpus warns against using visuals that are too dominant (English-language sub-corpus: 17.5%. Dutch-language sub-corpus: 7.5%).[76] Janner (1999) formulates this principle as follows:

> You are making a speech, illustrated by slides, not putting on a slide show, illustrated by speech. [p. 72]

Various authors refer to the meaning of the word 'aid' in the term 'visual aids', such as Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994, p. 40) who remind the reader that "it is about 'aiding' and that the means should never become an end or show by itself".[77]

Gerritsen (2008) explains that all the design possibilities of presentation software such as PowerPoint can also lead to 'visual dominance'; speakers might spend much time and effort into creating an overload of visually attractive slides, which might have the following consequence:

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[76] *English-language sub-corpus*: Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Janner (1999), Dowis (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), Booher (2003); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994), Piët (2005), Gerritsen (2008).

[77] Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994, p. 40): "Bij het gebruik van de middelen moet de spreker vooral niet vergeten dat het om 'hulp' gaat en dat het middel nooit doel of show op zich mag worden! Het gaat om ondersteuning, om het vergroten van de herinneringswaarde."

> […] nobody really understands and remembers your presentation, as it is quite difficult to quickly read and comprehend information on slides —especially if you are trying to follow the speaker as well. [p. 43][78]

Loss of audience contact. Another pitfall of using visual aids is the loss of contact between the speaker and the audience (mentioned in about 11% of the overall corpus, all English-language textbooks).[79] This loss of contact can be caused by the audience being distracted by the visuals, but most of the warnings in this category focus on the speaker's role, such as Verderber (2000):

> *Talk to your audience, not to the visual aid.*
> You may need to look at the visual aid occasionally, but it is important to maintain eye contact with your audience as much as possible—in part so that you can gauge how they are reacting to your visual material. When speakers become too engrossed in their visual aids, looking at them instead of the audience, they tend to lose contact with the audience entirely. [p. 174]

Janner (1999, p. 74) adds: "even if you are reading out what is on the screen, do not turn your back on your audience."

Illegibility. Visual aids that are illegible obviously cannot aid retention. About 11% of the textbooks in the overall corpus mention problems with visibility or legibility as bad presentation practice (all English-language textbooks).[80]

The warnings come in two flavours. First of all, the speaker can block visual aids by choosing an ineffective position. Anholt (2006, p. 106) for example brings to mind that it is "frustrating for an audience when the speaker stands in front of the board and obscures the information." Secondly, visuals can be ineffectively designed, which makes them hard to read. Factors which play a part in legibility are, among others, the chosen font and type size (cf. Gaulke, 1997; Verderber, 2000). Too crowded slides can also pose legibility problems. Gaulke (1997, p. 86) labels the "tiny-cluttered-numbers syndrome" as the "number-1 problem with visual aids." She cites an "unknown (but very wise)" author, who said: "A picture is worth a thousand words, but a picture of a thousand words ain't worth much" (p. 87). Osborn & Osborn (1997)

[78] Gerritsen (2008, p. 43): "Een bijkomend nadeel is dat niemand je presentatie echt begrijpt en onthoudt. Het is namelijk vrij lastig de informatie op dia's snel te lezen en te begrijpen, zeker als je ook nog probeert de spreker zelf te volgen."

[79] *English-language sub-corpus*: Lucas (1989), Rozakis (1995), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Janner (1999), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), Booher (2003), Anholt (2006).

[80] E*nglish-language sub-corpus*: Lucas (1989), Rozakis (1995), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Dowis (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), Booher (2003), Anholt (2006).

share an example to underline the possible damaging effect of using illegible visuals on a speaker's ethos:

> One of our students tried to illustrate a speech on baseball by showing the audience pictures from a book. He marked the pages that contained pictures he wanted to show with paper clips, so that he could open directly to them. Unfortunately, the order of pictures in the book did not match the order of ideas in his speech, so he kept opening to the wrong pages. The pictures in the book also were too small to be seen except by people in the front row. This presentation aid made his speech less effective and damaged his ethos. [p. 289]

Complexity. The risk of visuals becoming too complex for an audience to understand is mentioned in almost 9% of the overall corpus (all English-language authors).[81] As Osborn & Osborn (1997) put it:

> One major problem that often arises when using charts in oral presentations is that you may be tempted to load them with too much information. If they become too complex and "busy," they may compete with you for attention or confuse listeners. [p. 285]

Booher (2003, p. 124) agrees and states that "if listeners have to study the visual to understand it, the visual misses the target", as it is supposed to "simplify complex data". She also shares the two worst visuals, according to her: "a full page of text projected on the screen" and "a bulleted list of single words or topics" (2003, p. 119). Booher's problem with these crowded visuals is that "after a while, such charts all begin to look like your grocery list" (p. 119). Rozakis (1995, p. 211), who asserts that cluttering "too many statistics on a chart or graph […] will make it too difficult for the audience to follow the visual", uses a culinary comparison to underline why a graph should not contain more than three lines: "after that, the graph starts to look like an Italian dinner special, not a mathematical display".

2.5.2 Anecdote

The anecdote is a remarkable retention technique. It is mentioned in twenty-three textbooks (about 29% of the overall corpus). In the English-language sub-corpus, it is the second most frequently advised technique to influence retention, mentioned in just over half the number of textbooks (twenty-one). In the Dutch-language corpus however, only two textbooks (5%) discuss the anecdote as a means to influence audience retention.[82] The anecdote is not an ill-advised or unfamiliar rhetorical

[81] *English-language sub-corpus*: Wilson & Arnold (1983), Lucas (1989), Rozakis (1995), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Verderber (2000), Booher (2003).

[82] *English-language sub-corpus*: Carnegie & Carnegie (1977), Ehninger et al. (1980), Linkletter (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Detz (1984), Lucas (1989), Walters (1993), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gaulke (1997), Urech (1998), Dowis

technique in Dutch-language textbooks in general; Andeweg & De Jong (2004, 2006) showed that it is frequently advised as an introductory technique, for example. However, its retention function is emphasised much more frequently in the English-language textbooks. Atkinson (2004) describes the retention effect of anecdotes as follows:

> However, of all the techniques described in earlier chapters, the one that really comes into its own in social and duty speeches is the anecdote. A well-chosen story that represents some key characteristic of a person can be so effective that it is often the only thing that anyone ever remembers about such speeches. [pp. 228–229]

The textbook advice that connects the anecdote to retention points to five features of the technique: it is a story, it is vivid, relevant and brief, and it can be humorous.

Story

An anecdote can be characterised as a specific type of story or narrative. According to Witt (2009), who considers the anecdote to be a type of story, stories have a positive retention effect:

> Stories present abstract information or concepts in a simple, concrete way—such that people can picture it. Stories offer an overview over a large amount of information, so that it is coherent and easy to remember. [p. 114][83]

Linkletter (1980) attempts to uncover the reason why stories are of such memorable quality:

> The important thing to remember here is that a story will be more memorable for your listeners than a series of abstract points because we human beings are all natural storytellers and story listeners. It's much easier to remember a point if it's connected to a yarn about a little girl who ran away from her mother than it is to remember the five steps necessary to sell a widget if none of those five points are related to some sort of anecdote. [p. 42]

So, a story seems to be a preferred format for humans to process information. The relationship between the concepts 'story' and 'anecdote' appears to be ambiguous in various textbooks: while authors such as Witt (2009) consider the anecdote to be a

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(2000), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), Booher (2003), DeVito (2003), Naistadt (2004), Atkinson (2004), Tracy (2008), Leanne (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Van der Horst (2007), Witt (2009).

[83] Witt (2009, p. 114): "Verhalen presenteren abstracte informatie of concepten op een eenvoudige, concrete wijze die mensen voor zich kunnen zien. Verhalen bevatten een grote hoeveelheid informatie op een overzichtelijke manier zodat het een geheel is en gemakkelijk te onthouden."

subtype of the overarching category ‘story’, Janssen et al. (2002) suggest that an anecdote is a type of ‘example’. However, most authors seem to use the notions ‘anecdote’ and ‘story’ interchangeably, without commenting on any hierarchical difference between the two concepts.

A story usually contains a main character, a topic, and a development of events. According to some authors, these features could play a part in the retentive quality of the anecdote. Quite often, the main character is the speaker or someone related to the speaker, thereby making the anecdote personal. Urech (1998, p. 36) states that for inspiration, speakers should turn to their own lives: “Often the material for an anecdote may be staring you in the face.” She gives an example of Nick Rosa, manager of a beverage company, who successfully used a personal anecdote in an important speech. “By adding a personal touch, Nick helped make his speech memorable” (Urech, 1998, p. 31). Booher (2003) elaborates on the selection of the main character and the topic in an anecdote: common experiences (experiences shared or recognised by the speaker and the audience) are more effective.

> Particularly effective anecdotes are those the group can most identify with—those based on common feelings, predicaments, dilemmas, and decisions that we all experience as humans. Draw from your own experiences, those of “average” people you know, or those of the famous as related in their biographies or TV comments. [p. 71]

Vividness

An anecdote allows for the speaker to create a setting or a backdrop of the short story, which can contribute to its retention effect. Booher (2003) describes these qualities of the anecdote vividly in her “tip 122: add anecdotes to touch all five senses”:

> The setting creates the visual. Dialogue engages the ear. And if you can add details that help listeners smell, taste, and feel the atmosphere, you have increased your chances dramatically that they will remember your story and the point it illustrates. If you have ever had music change your mood, then you understand that the senses reach the emotions beyond the intellectual level. [pp. 70–71]

Linkletter (1980, p. 40) adds that a speaker needs to take enough time to “set the stage”. To phrase a vivid anecdote, the technique of ‘imagery’ can be used (see Section 2.5.5).[84]

Relevance

An anecdote is not just a story on its own, separate from the rest of the speech. It should be relevant and be clearly linked to the central idea(s) of the presentation or

[84] This characteristic of an anecdote resembles classical-rhetorical concepts such as *evidentia* and *enargeia*, which Quintilian viewed as vividly depicting a scene to the audience’s mind’s eye using words (Fahnestock, 2011, pp. 335–336).

speech, according to Ehninger et al. (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Walters (1993), Atkinson (2004) and Leanne (2009). Walters (1993, p. 79) quotes Terry S. Paulson, who states that "they [the audience] remember and retell memorable stories and anecdotes that can often illustrate the points and themes you want to advance."[85]

Brevity

Linkletter (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Atkinson (2004) and Leanne (2009) all agree an anecdote should be brief. This aspect of brevity sets an anecdote apart from a narrative that covers an entire presentation or speech. Some authors have very specific ideas about the length of anecdotes, although they do not appear to agree on the most effective duration. After attributing qualities to the anecdote in general, Linkletter (1980) elaborates on its ideal length:

> Generally speaking, I'd recommend that amateur speakers stick to short stories. Get to the point as quickly as possible and then move on to the next phase of your speech. The average story should probably take about a minute and a half to tell, and should almost always run at least a minute. Anything shorter usually wouldn't qualify as a full-fledged anecdote. […]
> Just as a good story has a minimum time limit, it also shouldn't run on too long, especially if you're giving a relatively short speech of fifteen or twenty minutes. The longer your story runs, the better is has to be, so it's best to protect yourself and have an improved chance of keeping your audience's attention with something short. I'd recommend that you limit all your illustrative anecdotes to no more than two minutes in a fifteen-minute speech, and I'd have one story ready to illustrate each major point in your speech. In other words, if you have five major points in your fifteen-minute speech, you should tell five stories, each between one and two minutes. [p. 40]

Contrary to Linkletter's advice, Atkinson (2004, p. 242) warns that anecdotes that last longer than a minute can turn into "shaggy dog stories".

Humour

Finally, anecdotes are often considered to be humorous. Ehninger et al. (1980, pp. 122–123) state that "humorous anecdotes […] all may serve effectively to illuminate your central idea in an entertaining and memorable way"—a quotation that suggests that non-humorous anecdotes may not be memorable or that anecdotes are humorous by default. Atkinson (2004) suggests that there is a link between humorous anecdotes and the long-term memory:

[85] Here, the emphasis that textbooks place on the relevance of an anecdote within the overall speech shows similarities with the classical-rhetorical narrative form *chreia*, which often took the form of an story that was expanded on and concluded with a deed or "pithy saying" (Fahnestock, 2011, p. 379). Atkins and Finlayson (2013, p. 163) note the *chreia* usually has a (moral) message, therewith resembling a parable, but differs from the parable because it is rooted in reality – just as the anecdote.

> "…if you illustrate a key point with an example or anecdote that makes an audience laugh, the laughter not only implies agreement with the point, but also increases the chances of it being remembered in the longer term." [p. 33]

2.5.3 Summary

The summary is the third most frequent retention technique advised in the English-language public-speaking textbooks (52.5%) and it is often recommended as a retention technique in the Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks (32.5%) as well.[86] Laskowski (2001) describes it as follows:

> To guarantee your audience walks away remembering the important points from your presentation, give a review or summary at the end of it. [p. 67]

Gaulke (1997, p. 33) even reserves a specific section to the summary's connection to retention, titled "Make your summary memorable". The summary can be viewed as a specific type of repetition that generally occurs at the end of a speech as a part of the closing statement. Audiences are said to like summaries: "audiences appreciate a linear repetition of what they have just heard" (Tracy, 2008, p. 166). This section covers the summary's purpose, recommended speech genres, formulation and style, placement and contents.

Purpose of the summary

A summary serves several purposes. Primarily, the summary sums up the main points of a presentation.[87] "If the people in the audience remember the main points, they will find it easier to recall the details" elucidates Qubein (1997, p. 216). Ross (1980, p. 151) says that the summary "is intended to rekindle attention and to assist the memory." A summary can "tie" the main points together (Gaulke, 1997, p. 138; see also Gondin, Mammen & Dodding, 1983, p. 69, and Sprague & Stuart, 1996, p. 157) and in a summary in the concluding statement a speaker "draws whatever inferences may be implicit in the speech as a whole" (Ehninger et al., 1980, p. 199).

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[86] *English-language sub-corpus*: Carnegie & Carnegie (1977), Ehninger et al. (1980), Ross (1980), Kenny (1982), Gondin et al. (1983), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Lucas (1989), Smith (1991), Walters (1993), Rozakis (1995), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Qubein (1997), Janner (1999), Verderber (2000), Laskowski (2001), McConnon (2002), Valenti (2002), Booher (2003), DeVito (2003), Tracy (2008); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Blum (1982), Kirchner (1983), Krusche (1986), Van Eijk (1987), Palm-Hoebé & Palm (1989), Van der Spek (1998), Angenent & Van Vilsteren (1998), Oomkes (2000), Janssen et al. (2002), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Van der Horst (2007), Gerritsen (2008), Witt (2009).

[87] Lucas (1989, p. 182), Janssen et al. (2002, p. 351), Braas et al. (2001, p. 41).

Genres

The summary is especially recommended to be used in informative speeches. Among others, Lucas (1989, p. 185) points out that the summary is useful when speakers aim to inform “because it gives you one last chance to make sure the audience remembers your main points”.[88] Still, several authors also recommend the summary for a persuasive presentation (see also: Verderber, 2000; Rozakis, 1995; Janssen et al., 2002):

> In persuasive speeches it is important that the content stays in focus. In those cases you can close your speech with […] a summary of your arguments. (Van der Spek, 1998, p. 27) [89]

A summary does not seem effective in an inspirational speech, according to Gondin et al. (1983):

> If the purpose of your speech is inspirational, however, a mere recapitulation may weaken its final effect. In that case you will find it more effective to end with a general re-statement of your theme in strongly inspirational terms. [p. 68]

Finally, Ehninger et al. (1980, p. 453) provide a recapitulation advice for a very specific genre: the group discussion. In that context, a final summary should not be exhaustive, as “its purpose is merely to review the more important points in a way that will cause them to be remembered and that will make clear their relationship to each other and to the general subject”.

Formulation and style

Authors can have specific ideas on how the summary should be phrased. Most importantly, the summary has to be short and concise. Qubein (1997) says:

> Distil the essence of your message into three or four short memorable sentences, so that the audience leaves with your ideas ringing in its ears [p.175]

Several Dutch-language authors point out that a literal repetition of the information is not a good practice, such as Wiertzema and Jansen (2004) (see also Van Eijk, 1987):

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[88] The following authors agree: Ehninger et al., (1980), Gondin et al. (1983), Lucas (1989), Rozakis (1995) Pietersma (1999), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), Booher (2003), Hilgers & Vriens (2003).

[89] Van der Spek (1998, p. 27): “Bij betogende toespraken is het belangrijk dat de inhoud centraal blijft staan. U kunt in zo'n geval afsluiten met […] een *samenvatting* van uw betoog.”

> A summary is not a mere repetition of what is said […] the moment that speakers almost literally repeat what they have said earlier it is getting annoying.[90] [p.74]

Osborn and Osborn (1997) stress this stylistic advice as well:

> Note that the [summary] statement does not simply repeat the main points verbatim. Rather, the speaker rephrases these points artfully so that listeners can picture themselves actually experiencing the message. [p.229]

Placement of the summary

The placement of the summary in the final part of the speech is a classical notion: Aristotle, Quintilian, and the *Auctor ad Herennium* situated the *recapitulatio* in the peroration (see Section 2.1.2). Almost all the authors in the English-language sub-corpus (90%) who advise the summary as a retention technique explicitly link it to the closing statements or conclusion. In the Dutch-language corpus this connection is somewhat less strong: just over half the number of authors (54%) who mention the summary as a retention technique connect it to the final part of a presentation.

Two other summary types can appear in the introduction and core of the presentation, respectively:

1. The initial summary. Some authors recommend the use of a summary in the beginning of a presentation (Ehninger et al., 1980; Valenti, 2002; Janner, 1999):

> Most well-constructed speeches should begin with a summary of what is coming (Janner, 1999, p. 57)

This type of summary seems to be closely related to the retention technique *partitio* (see Section 2.5.23). It is not entirely clear whether such a summary would only have an announcing function or also contain a concise preview of the main points' contents (the latter would distinguish the initial summary from a *partitio*).

2. The internal summary. Summaries are also useful as transition between main parts of a presentation. Osborn and Osborn (1997):

> An internal summary reminds listeners of the points you have already covered before you move on to the next part of your message. Internal summaries are especially useful in cause-effect and problem-solution speeches, where they can span the gap between the two dimensions of the design. An internal summary signals listeners that you have finished your discussion of the causes or problem and you are now ready to

[90] Wiertzema & Jansen (2004, p. 74): "Een *samenvatting* is iets anders dan een *herhaling* van wat net gezegd is […] op het moment dat sprekers vrijwel letterlijk gaan herhalen wat zij net hebben gezegd, wordt het irritant."

> describe the effects or solution. In addition, an internal summary condenses and repeats your ideas, which can help your listeners remember your message. [p. 216]

Kenny (1982, p. 16) claims that an internal summary can raise “the attention curve” and Atkinson (2004) points out that the internal summary can have a refreshing effect:

> You might, for example, have seen signs of puzzlement or boredom emanating from the audience, in which case you may decide to add […] a summary of the argument so far. [p. 56]

Contents of the summary

The heuristic ‘Tell them what you are going to tell them—Tell them—Then, tell them what you told them’ is often used to roughly indicate what should be in the summary.[91] Next to main points, other speech elements can be repeated:

> You may summarise your speech in a variety of ways. *Restate Your Thesis or Purpose. […] Restate the Importance of the Topic […] Restate Your Major Propositions* (DeVito, 2003, p. 140)

More details can be included as well, besides main points. The level of detail does not become very concrete in the textbooks studied:

> The completeness or amount of detail you put into your summary or review will depend upon the complexity of the subject, the time allotted, and your purpose. (Ross, 1980, p. 190)

Some authors give examples of summaries, which can be dived into two types: outline summaries and main point summaries, as shown in the examples below.[92]

Outline summary	**Main point summary**
Now that you know what cloning is and where the science stands at this point, you can make some decisions about the social consequences and how you can educate yourself for the future. (Gurak, 2000, p. 77)	To summarise, to deal with increased competition, we must improve the quality of our offerings and the speed at which we deliver them to our customers. To deal with shrinking markets, we must expand into new markets and increase our product offerings to attract new customers. […] (Tracy, 2008, p. 13)

[91] In the corpus the origin of this well-known speech formula is attributed to an “anonymous Irish politician” by Carnegie & Carnegie (1977, p. 204). Gondin et al. (1983, p. 68) ascribe it to an “old rustic [storyteller], with very little formal education”.

[92] These two types of summaries are also known as indicative (outline) and informative (main point) summaries, a distinction made by Van Eemeren (1975) which I will use in chapter 4 (Section 4.2.1).

Gurak (2000) proposes the outline summary; according to her, the summary should not be redundant, but it should remind the audience of what the speaker just said. “By reminding them of what you've just covered, you help refresh their memory and get them ready for the final points of your conclusion”, she argues (p. 77). A characteristic feature of an outline summary is the use of verbs such as “to talk about”, “to show” and “to know”, but also the use of nouns such as “problem”, “outcome” and “solution”. Other example outline summaries can be found in Urech (1998, p. 27) and Sprague & Stuart (1996, p. 158).

Tracy’s example is a restatement of the main points. “You should never expect the audience to memorise everything that you have said the first time they hear it,” he states (2008, p. 13). Regarding the possible retention effect, the outline summary indicates the most important information to remind the audience of the main points, whereas the main point summary (concisely) restates the main information. A main point summary offers listeners, who may have missed (some of) the main points, another chance to take in the key information.

2.5.4 Repetition

Textbook authors frequently advise ‘repetition’ to influence retention: in both of the sub-corpora, it is connected to retention in thirty-seven textbooks (about 46% of the overall corpus; English-language sub-corpus: 52.5%, Dutch-language sub-corpus: 40%).[93] The high retention value of repeating information is reflected in the strong claims that authors make about the possible retention effect. Qubein (1997, p. 216) says “information that sticks goes up markedly […] when we hear it repeated several times”. Oomkes (2000, p. 254) refers to studies that indicate that repetition of and practising with subject matter increases the chances that it will be stored.[94]

Based on the description ‘repetition’ in the textbooks studied, the repetition is defined as using the same words, ideas, sounds or sentence structure more than once. Repetition can be used on various levels in a speech, according to textbook authors. They disagree on the ideal number of repetitions in a speech and some warn against overusing repetitions.

[93] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ehninger et al. (1980), Ross (1980), Detz (1984), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Cook (1989), Smith (1991), Walters (1993), Simmons (1996), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gaulke (1997), Qubein (1997), Urech (1998), Janner (1999), Dowis (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), DeVito (2003), Leanne (2009), Khan-Panni (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Quick (1980), Blum (1982), De Boer (1986), Krusche (1986), Van Eijk (1987), Palm-Hoebé & Palm (1989), Claasen-Van Wirdum et al. (1992), Spolders (1997), Oomkes (2000), Janssen et al. (2002), Hilgers & Vriens (2003), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Hertz (2005), Van der Horst (2007), Gerritsen (2008), Witt (2009).

[94] Oomkes (2000, p. 254): “Als het gehoor de stof herhaalt en ermee oefent, blijft er er veel meer van hangen (Bligh, 1972, 62-63). Dit werd het meest overtuigend aangetoond door Bassey (1968).” The element of ‘practising with the subject matter’ could have the consequence for a speaker to actively expand the rhetorical strategy from a mere repetition of information to involving the audience and inciting it to apply or use the information (related to the elaborative technique of audience participation, see Section 2.5.16).

Various forms of 'repetitive language'

The concept of 'repetition' is an umbrella term for various forms of 'repetitive language'. An equivocal definition for 'repetition' as a retention technique does not appear to exist in the textbooks. Five forms of repetitive language are discussed and related to retention by the authors studied:

1. *Using the same sentence, phrase or combination of words a few times during the speech*. Detz (1984) advises this way to repeat information:

    > If you have an important word or phrase or sentence, be sure to repeat it. Again. And again. Jesse Jackson knew how to use this technique in his campaign speeches for the presidential I nomination: "We must give peace a chance. We must give peace a chance. We must, we must!" (pp. 70–71)

    Janssen et al. (2002) state that for a message to be "hammered" into the minds of the audience, literal repetition can be useful. They particularly advise this strategy for persuasive presentations; in advertisements for example, repetitions are a "magical force".[95]

2. *Restating the information.* Another way to repeat information is to 'restate' it: a speaker will not use a verbatim repetition with the exact the same words, but rather formulates the information in a slightly different way. As Qubein (1997, p. 215) puts it, "the key is to repeat the ideas, but to frame them and state them differently." Ehninger et al. (1980) also discuss different variants of "reiteration" next to literally repeating information:

    > Reiteration, as we are using the term, is intentional repetition, especially of two kinds:
    > (1) rephrasing of ideas of concepts in more than one set of words or sentences, and
    > (2) re-examination of ideas of concepts from more than one point of view. [pp. 212–213]

    In the Dutch-language corpus, the term "redundancy" is often used to refer to this type of repetitive language. Palm-Hoebé and Palm (1991), and Hilgers and Vriens (2003) explain that redundancy strictly speaking points to superfluous information, but that it is needed to repeat the information in various formulations in order for it to be retained. Spolders (1997, p. 68–69) reserves a spot for 'redundancy' in her own diamond-shaped model for effectively structuring short

[95] Janssen et al. (2002, p. 353): "Om een boodschap er goed in te hameren kan het nuttig zijn om deze verschillende keren letterlijk te herhalen. Vooral in overtuigende presentaties wil dat goed werken. Herhaling is de toverkracht van de reclame."

presentations. According to her, a speaker could emphasise the repeated information by an attention marker such as “remember (especially)…”.

3. *Repetition in different structural levels of a speech*. Sprague and Stuart (1996) advise to apply the use of repetition to the level of speeches, paragraphs and sentences:

> Repeat key words or phrases to make your listeners feel that your points are snowballing to a certain conclusion. […] Within a paragraph you can achieve a similar effect by starting a series of sentences with the same words, or by using a sentence as a connecting refrain. […] Or, you may end several sentences with the same words. […] Finally, for emphasis you can repeat key words or phrases within a sentence. [pp. 140–141]

4. *Repetition as a stylistic device.* The repetition of speech elements can also be a stylistic way of saying things. In her textbook that is dedicated to former president of the United States Barack Obama, Leanne (2009) explains how he uses repetitive figures to attain retention:

> A notable hallmark of Barack Obama’s communication style is his use of unique variations of repetition. Obama draws on a wide variety of repetition techniques that give power to his oration—*conduplicatio*, *anaphora*, *epistrophe* and *mesodiplosis* among them. These rhetorical techniques help him to structure his key ideas and themes and drive key points home. [p. 107]

5. *Repetition of sound*. Wilson & Arnold (1983) highlight the use of repetitive sounds (e.g. the same word or words that sound alike) as a possible retention technique. This form of repetition shows a resemblance with the technique ‘rhyme’ (see 2.5.8).

Ideal number of repetitions

The number of repetitions that a speaker should apply to achieve a retention effect ranges from about one to six, according to the authors in the textbook corpus. Wilson and Arnold (1983), for instance, have a strong idea on the desirable number of repetitions:

> Research on the usefulness of repetition suggests that with each of your first three repetitions of a thought or fact you further increase the likelihood that your listeners will actually grasp on what you say. It appears that after the third repetition, the gains achieved by each succeeding repetition diminish. There is also evidence that repetitions work best when you distribute them through other material rather than repeating the same item two, three, or more times in rapid succession. [pp. 138–139]

However, while Wilson & Arnold believe three repetitions is the maximum number, other authors such as Walters (1993) extend this number to six:

> Retention is aided when you repeat the information. Another study quoted the following statistics regarding repeats and retention:
>
> | Number of Repeats | Amount of Retention |
> |---|---|
> | 1 | <10% |
> | 6 | >90% |
>
> [p. 131]

Gaulke (1997, p. 31) appears to agree with Walters when she states that the message "should be repeated about six times during the presentation, most importantly at the end of the talk." Interestingly, Gaulke adds that the end of the talk is a preferred position in the presentation to use a repetition. The authors provide no explicit references to studies to back up the various claims on the number of repetitions.

Remarkably, the exact number of repetitions that is most effective does not appear to be an important issue in the Dutch-language textbooks. Four authors explicitly encourage multiple repetitions, but they never pinpoint an exact number of repetitions.[96] Witt (2009) admits to support many repetitions: "the truth is that you can never say important stuff too often."[97]

Warning: overuse of repetition

Five authors warn against the overuse of repetitions.[98] Although Ehninger et al. (1980, p. 213) state that "reiteration […] is a linguistic tactic which you may employ to clarify ideas and help your listeners remember them more readily", they cautiously add: "if carefully handled." Speakers should beware of "mindless repetition—too many restatements, especially restatements of ideas already clear to any alert member of your audience." Ross (1980, p. 204) agrees: "too much repetition can be as harmful as too little."

2.5.5 Imagery

The retention technique 'imagery' is mentioned in twenty-one textbooks (about 26%; eighteen English-langue textbooks and three Dutch-language textbooks).[99] It can roughly be described as verbally creating a mental image in the minds of listeners. Simmons (1996) defines 'imagery' as follows:

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[96] Blum (1982), Janssen et al. (2002), Hilgers & Vriens (2003), Witt (2009).

[97] Witt (2009, p. 120): "De waarheid is dat je belangrijke dingen nooit te vaak kunt zeggen."

[98] Ehninger et al. (1980), Ross (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Verderber (2000).

[99] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ross (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Detz (1984), Lucas (1986), Smith (1991), Simmons (1996), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Rozakis (1995), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Qubein (1997), Urech (1998), Noonan (1999), Dowis (2000), Vasile & Mintz (2000), McConnon (2002), Atkinson (2004), Leanne (2009). *Dutch-language corpus*: Krusche (1986), Van der Horst (2007), Witt (2009).

> Imagery is writing that uses words which appeal to the five senses and create mental images. In other words, imagery helps your audience "see" what you are talking about instead of just hearing what you are talking about. [p. 239]

The label ‘imagery’ is most often used to refer to this technique, although some authors talk about “picture language” (McConnon, 2002, p. 88) or “paint a picture with words” (Urech, 1998, p. 38).

Important features of this technique are (1) the fact that a mental image is created—as opposed to visualisation via actual images or objects—and (2) that this can be achieved via concrete and vivid use of language. These two features are further elaborated on in this section. Note that many—but not all—textbook writers combine these two features when discussing imagery as a retention technique.

Mental image

A key aspect of imagery is that the speaker aims to create a picture in the minds of the audience, or to stimulate the audience to visualise information that is mentioned in the presentation or speech. Rozakis (1995) explains that creating a mental picture in the minds of the audience can lead to retention:

> Imagery is important in speech because it can make your address memorable by telegraphing meaning. A memorable image can stay in your mind long after you have forgotten the rest of the speech. Good ideas can be expressed in visual terms. If you can get pictures rather than words floating through people's minds, your speech will be the one they remember. A striking image transforms a ho-hum address into an unforgettable experience. [pp. 90–91]

Wilson and Arnold explain that it is not a new idea that stimulating listeners to visualise information can be effective; according to them, Aristotle already noted that “people like communications that set pictures before their eyes” (1983, p. 135). A distinct feature of descriptive language is that it “usually sets the whole of something before a listener” as opposed to anecdotes, comparisons, contrast and definitions, which rather “emphasise the special details of whatever is being talked about” (Wilson & Arnold, 1983, p. 135). Interestingly, Wilson and Arnold explicitly connect the use of imagery to informative presentations:

> When your primary goal is to provide information, not to argue, the best descriptions for you to use will be those that allow you to create clear and precise images in the listeners’ minds. [p. 136]

Specific, vivid and colourful language

A second distinctive characteristic of imagery is that the visualisation is verbally infused: words are used to create an image, rather than literal visual aids such as pictures on a slide. Leanne (2009) stresses the possible memorable quality of using visual language as follows:

> In many cases, speakers present their talks in settings in which they cannot, or should not, use visual aids such as overhead slides or electronic presentations. For some speakers, the lack of visual aids might be a significant handicap. But outstanding orators master the art of using well-chosen descriptive words in lieu of visual aids. They paint pictures with vivid words, focusing at key points on words that call to mind rich images. When chosen carefully, rich language can affect a listener as significantly as any visual aid: a listener will visualise ideas and themes, which become more memorable. [p. 85]

In order to create an effective and memorable mental picture, speakers should use specific, vivid, and colourful language. Sprague and Stuart (1996, p. 239) argue that speakers should avoid using "dull, stale, and predictable language", as "the message may never get past their [the audience's] short-term memory if you do not infuse it with vigor and a sense of newness." Colourful words, on the other hand, are "memorable because they stand out in our minds" (Osborn & Osborn, 1997, p. 332). Detz (1984, pp. 69–70) agrees:

> Be specific, be vivid, be colorful ... and you will make your point. Even better, your audience will remember your point. Winston Churchill: "An iron curtain has descended across the continent."
> Franklin Delano Roosevelt: "When you see a rattlesnake poised to strike, you do not wait until he has struck before you crush him."

Van der Horst (2007, p. 69) remarks that "specific, vivid, and colourful words" can create a kind of 'aha-experience': "the image is stored in memory in such a way that it is easily accessible."[100]

Some authors argue that colourful and vivid language is best achieved when it is connected to emotions and personal experiences. McConnon (2002) puts it like this:

> Aim to use words that paint a picture your audience will never forget. By relating your own and your audiences' personal experiences, you can touch the minds and hearts of your audience. Illustrate with personal stories and reach the heart of your listeners so they can see, feel and touch what you are saying. As you prepare your words ask: What will my audience see in their imaginations if I say this? [p. 88].

[100] Van der Horst (2007, p. 69):"Indien u specifieke, levendige en kleurrijke beelden in uw betoog kunt verwerken, zal het publiek uw boodschap beter onthouden. Het beeld wordt zó opgeslagen in het geheugen dat het gemakkelijk bereikbaar is."

Along this line, Leanne (2009) introduces the concept ‘embodiment’ (tying emotions or ideas to concrete images). She connects it to retention and explains how Obama uses it:

> More often than employing a personification technique, however, Obama gives ideas physicality, such as when he sees “hope” in the “light” of eyes. In doing so, Obama ties emotions or ideas to concrete images. Giving ideas physicality is a highly effective way to present ideas in ways a listener will remember. The “embodiment” gives the imagery power; the words resonate at a deeper level and listeners are more likely to remember how the imagery makes them feel […] the image is vivid. Similarly, when Obama ties the notion of hope to honored history, he makes the notion more memorable and enables it to resonate at a deeper level. Obama’s practice of conferring physicality to ideas serves his purposes very well. [p. 91]

Most authors are very positive about deploying imagery via concrete and vivid language. For example, Krusche (1986) recommends speakers to use the complete range of instruments available for “flowery language”:

> […] deploy the complete set of instruments for flowery language and your dry lecture will be more vivid and will be taken in and remembered considerably better by your auditorium. [p. 117][101]

However, Simmons (1996) understands “flowery wording” to be an overuse of imagery techniques and warns against applying style mechanisms for concrete, colourful and vivid language throughout the speech:

> Be careful that you do not overuse imagery techniques. This is sometimes called "flowery wording." Consider this example:
> *As we walked down the lonely road, we noticed some tangled vines hanging from the trees like large ropes before us. The texture of the vines felt like soft rubber which was delicate to touch. I noticed that the vines felt very old and worn, such as a garment that has been in storage...*
> Now imagine an entire speech written like this. Imagery is a vital technique that can enhance your speech, but a little goes a long way. [p. 62]

[101] Krusche (1986, p 117): “[…] schakel het hele instrumentarium voor bloemrijk spreken in, en uw droge vak-voordracht zal er door verlevendigd en aanmerkelijk beter door uw auditorium opgenomen en onthouden worden.”

2.5.6 Chunking

The strategy 'chunking' is recommended to influence retention in twenty textbooks (25%; sixteen English-language textbooks and four Dutch-language textbooks).[102] In those textbooks, 30 excerpts are linked to chunking, which suggests that some authors discuss this technique rather elaborately. 'Chunking' is an organising or structuring principle, often explained as categorising or clustering information or subject matter into a limited number of main items. Verderber (2000) explains the technique as follows:

> Since listeners are more likely to remember three steps with three or four subdivisions than ten individual steps, the effective speaker reorganises the multistep speech into one with three to five steps. This reorganising process of grouping like ideas is called chunking. [p. 240]

All authors are positive about the retention-enhancing quality of chunking. This section first expounds on chunking as a means of selecting and organising information and how this relates to retention. Second, the only point of divergence between authors regarding chunking is explained: the (maximum) number of points or 'chunks' a presentation's main information should be divided into.

Organisation and selection principle

Most authors discuss chunking as a strategy for organising the subject matter of a speech. Speakers are often confronted with a large amount of speech material that needs to be organised in a clear way. Most textbooks authors see a solution in clustering information into a few main points to enhance retention. They usually support this with the argument that a few main points are easier to remember than many (minor) points, as the following quotations illustrate:

> No listener can remember a dozen different points, and the likelihood is that if you have located that many points some are main points and others are secondary. (Wilson & Arnold, 1983, p. 178)

> … three main points are much easier to understand and remember than twelve. (Lucas, 1989, p. 279)

> … it is easier to remember two to four items under each of three subheadings than it is to remember eight separate items. (Verderber, 2000, p. 240).

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[102] *English-language sub-corpus*: Walter & Scott (1979), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Wilder (1986), Lucas (1989), Walters (1993), Rozakis (1995), Simmons (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Gaulke (1997), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), Naistadt (2004), Khan-Panni (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Krusche (1986), Wagenaar (1996), Angenent & Angenent & Van Vilsteren (1998), Cornelis (2002), Witt (2009).

How should speakers divide information into chunks that are easy to digest? Wilder (1986), Lucas (1989), Simmons (1996) and Osborn & Osborn (1997) all give examples. For instance, Lucas explains how eight subtopics can be re-divided into three categories:

> So you have eight main points—which is too many. But if you look at the list, you see that the eight points fall into three broad categories: lasers in science, lasers in industry, lasers in medicine. You might therefore restate your main points in this way:
> I Lasers have many important uses in science.
> II Lasers have become indispensable to industry.
> III Lasers are revolutionizing the practice of medicine. [pp. 149–150]

Simmons (1996) explains that 'reorganising information' does not equal 'discarding information':

> You want the audience to remember your speech, so this is the best approach. You may have more points, and that is fine, but make sure your points do not overlap. For example, if you were giving a speech about the care of dogs, you may have four main points such as (1) feeding, (2) health, (3) grooming, and (4) training. Although these are different areas, health and grooming can be combined. Grooming is a part of a dog's health because it controls pests and protects the hair and skin, so the speech could still function with feeding, health, and training. You have not cut any information; you have just organised it differently. [p. 27]

While most authors view chunking as the reorganisation of existing information without "cutting information", others emphasise the selection of information. Walters (1993) discusses how a speaker should decide what main points to include in the speech.

> **Designing and Organising a Memorable Speech**
> When you're designing your presentation, decide what three or four points you want to make. These are the main points of your outline - the boughs of the tree. [p. 58]

Wilson & Arnold (1983) make a distinction between selecting main ideas and (re)organising into main points:

> You will often find that you have too much material for the available speaking time. It is paradoxical but true that beginning speakers tend to fear that they will not have enough to say but end up belaboring their rhetorical situations with too much detail. Sifting ideas and paring them down is an important part of organising. If you discover that you have support for a dozen ideas that seem significant, you should discard the least fruitful points or organise the material in another way. [p. 178]

Three textbooks elaborate on the effect of chunking as an organisation strategy on memory processes.[103] Osborn & Osborn (1997) point out the difference between a randomly organised and a categorised list:

> The way you organise your material also has an effect on retention. Suppose you were given the following list of words to memorise: north, man, hat, daffodil, green, tulip, coat, boy, south, red, east, shoes, gardenia, woman, purple, marigold, gloves, girl, yellow, west. It looks rather difficult, but see what happens when we rearrange the words: north, south, east, west - man, boy, woman, girl - daffodil, tulip, gardenia, marigold - green, red, purple, yellow - hat, coat, shoes, gloves. In the first example you have what looks like a random list of words. In the second the words have been organised by categories: now you have five groups of four related words to remember. Material that is presented in a consistent and orderly fashion is much easier for your audience to understand and retain. [p. 387]

Cornelis (2002, pp. 32–33) claims that our short-term memory can hold five to seven elements and calls chunking a "trick to enlarge memory capacity", provided that a clear coherence exists between the chunks; according to her, providing a pattern to the audience works as a memory aid.

Number of main points

Whereas the authors mainly agree on the positive retention effect of chunking, they have different views on the number of main points that the information should ideally be categorised into—ranging from one to nine. "The fewer main points you have, the better", according to Osborn & Osborn (1997, p. 205). Walter & Scott (1979) agree.

However, 'three' seems to be the number most authors settle for. Khan-Panni (2009, p. 74) provides the straightforward advice to "limit yourself to three main points"; similarly, Simmons (1996) advises to use "no more than three points". Nine textbooks leave a little more margin up or down, but all mention the number three (see Section 2.5.20 for more on the 'list of three').[104]

Sprague & Stuart (1996) and Cornelis (2002) advise the largest number of main points: seven, with a minimum of five and a maximum of nine. Sprague and Stuart seem to refer to a well-known study by Miller (1956) titled "The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two: Some Limits on Our Capacity for Processing Information" (not with an explicit reference, though):

[103] Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997) and Cornelis (2002).

[104] Two to three main points: Wilder (1986) and Angenent & Angenent & Van Vilsteren (1998); Three to four main points: Wilson & Arnold (1983), Walters (1993) and Rozakis (1995); three to five main points: Krusche (1986), Verderber (1988), Simmons (1996) and Naistadt (2004).

> Bear in mind the information-processing principle known as *seven plus or minus two*. Research suggests that this is how many points the average person can comprehend at one time, so select just a handful of points to develop. [p. 287]

2.5.7 Humour

Using humour to aid audience retention is advised in about 19% of the total corpus of public-speaking textbooks.[105] In English-language textbooks, it is a prominent retention technique: fourteen authors connect the use of humour to retention (35% of the English-language sub-corpus). The Dutch-language advice on humour as a retention technique forms a sharp contrast: only one textbook (Witt, 2009) mentions humour as a retention technique—a textbook translated from English. It seems that the Dutch-language authors focus more on making readers aware of the risks involved when using humour. These risks are acknowledged by English-language authors, as explained later in this section, but they discuss possible (retention) advantages of humour as well.

This section first elaborates on the alleged memorable quality of humour. Afterwards, it zooms in on a particular point of discussion that several textbooks address: does the audience only retain a humorous element, such as a joke, or (also) the key message of the presentation? Next, the section discusses specific parts of the speech and genres to which some authors connect humour, and it ends with possible drawbacks of this technique.

Memorable quality of humour

Walters (1993), Rozakis (1995), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Verderber (2000), Booher (2003), Atkinson (2004) and Witt (2009) are all outspoken about the fact that humour can positively influence retention. Booher (2003, p. 106) and Witt (2009, p. 185) say it straight and clear: “Humour makes your message memorable”. Sprague and Stuart (1996, p. 240) dedicate an entire chapter to the “attention factor” humour, in which they see retention as one of its assets:

> An infusion of humour into any speech can break tension, deflate opponents, enhance the speaker's image, and make points memorable. [p. 240]

Humour is regularly related to a ‘story’—perhaps not surprising, as humour was already described as a feature of anecdotes in Section 2.5.2. Walters (1993) and Verderber (2000) explicitly refer to humour in relation to a story:

[105] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ehninger et al. (1980), Ross (1980), Smith (1991), Walters (1993), Rozakis (1995), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gaulke (1997), Urech (1998), Dowis (2000), Verderber (2000), Laskowski (2001), Booher (2003), Atkinson (2004); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Witt (2009).

> Use humour to stress key points. Our own experience shows that of all the forms of presenting information, we are most likely to remember information in humorous story form. (Verderber, 2000, p. 232).

Osborn & Osborn (1997, p. 503) support their claim that humour can influence retention; they explicitly refer to a study that "has discovered that the use of humorous illustrations helps audiences remember the message of the speech."[106]

Retention of humorous element *or* key message

From the textbooks that discuss humour as a retention technique, the following question arises: will the audience remember the humorous element, such as a joke or punchline, or the key point in the speech that it is supposed to illustrate? Several authors explicitly refer to humour as a strategy to help the audience remember the key point, such as Atkinson (2004):

> If you illustrate a key point with an example or anecdote that makes an audience laugh, the laughter not only implies agreement with the point, but also increases the chances of it being remembered in the longer term. [p. 33]

Rozakis (1995, p. 144) specifically adds that "audiences might forget the actual joke, but they remember the point it was meant to reinforce".

To the contrary, some authors suggest that it is the joke or humour itself that will be remembered instead of the content of the speech. Walters (1993, p. 132) suggests that "you may not remember the exact information, but chances are you'll remember the joke or the story." Furthermore, although Booher (2003, p. 106) states that "humour anchors key points", she also adds that "a humorous story may be the only part of your presentation the audience remembers". With this, she indicates that the use of humour does not necessarily mean that the audience will retain the intended information. She illustrates this with a story that shows the precarious relationship between humorous examples, retention, speaker intentions and the actual outcome:

> This fact has hit me hard several times over the years. For instance, in our business-writing workshops for corporate clients, our instructors make the point that a careless change in verb tense and mood can alter the meaning of a document completely. For reinforcement, we show a 30-second video clip and close with a brief story about a frequent airline comment to passengers. Several years after attending a particular workshop, a participant saw me in the building lobby when I returned to do another workshop for his organisation and commented on the value of the training program to his career. I was about to pat

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[106] Osborn and Osborn (1997) refer to the study of Kaplan and Pascoe (1977). Kaplan's and Pascoe's findings appear to be more nuanced: in their study, specific humorous examples that were used in lectures were retained well, but the use of these examples did not incresde recall of the lecture's contents. See Section 2.7 for a discussion on textbook authors' use of references..

> myself on the back about all the valuable concepts that he probably remembered and was using daily—things tips for managing high volume e-mail. Then he added this comment: “Yeah, I’ll never forget that story about the flight attendant always saying, “We would like to thank you for flying with us today.” And then he quoted the exact punch line from my story of three years earlier. (Now, while I agree that the one-liner works in a way that is truly memorable, it unfortunately illustrated one of the least important concepts of the entire workshop.) [p. 106]

Humour related to specific genres or parts of the speech

Some authors connect humour to specific speech genres and parts of the speech. Osborn & Osborn (1997) specifically discuss humour as a vital element of an after-dinner speech. Laskowski (2001) discusses humour as a possible ingredient in the presentation’s conclusion. He refers to a particular type of humour, the “comic verse”, that appears to be suited for the wrap-up of a talk:

> I don't usually use comic verse in my presentations; however, when I do use a comic verse, it's at the end of my presentation to leave the audience with something to remember. [p. 137]

Warnings: humour is a precarious rhetorical technique

Humour can be a speaker’s best friend or worst enemy. The delicate nature of this retention technique is illustrated by the fact that authors who advise positively on using humour to enhance retention also report quite a number of pitfalls. Apart from the issue that the humorous content might be retained instead of the key message, a number of warnings recur.

First of all, a speaker needs to be careful with jokes that can be offending to (a part of) the audience. Urech (1998, p. 44) specifically mentions that speaker should refrain from using jokes or comments with “cultural, sexual or racial slurs”. Sprague and Stuart (1996) summarise it as follows:

> As important as humour is, a laugh should always be secondary to keeping the goodwill of your listeners. [p. 281]

Secondly, the effect of humour heavily depends on the quality of its delivery. Sprague and Stuart (1996, p. 282), who see quite a few obstacles for speakers that want to be humorous, state: “Do not tell jokes unless you have mastered the techniques of joke telling”. Among the possible things that could go wrong, they list “telegraphing the punchline”, “laughing hysterically at one’s own joke” and “apologising (“Well, it was funny when I heard it” or “I guess you had to be there”).” Smith (1991) handily provides a ‘self-assessment’ for a speaker to determine whether or not to start telling jokes in a presentation:

> You already have an idea of whether you can tell a joke well. Do you keep your friends in stitches when you bridge or poker group gets together, or at the office, or at cocktail parties, or in the clubhouse? If

> the answer is no, then don't start to think you will turn into a Whoopi Goldberg or Steve Martin the moment you stand up in front of a group of strangers. [p. 40]

Finally, a joke should not be overused or a cliché. Both Sprague and Stuart (1996) and Urech (1998) believe that humour will backfire if it is not original for the audience.

2.5.8 Rhyme

The rhetorical technique 'rhyme' can be seen as a similarity of sound in words that are not too far apart (Braet, 2007, p. 119). The technique comprises 'alliteration' (repetition of the initial consonants of words) and 'assonance' (repetition of stressed vowels). In 15 textbooks of the total corpus (19%), it is connected to retention. The frequency of retention advice on rhyme shows quite a discrepancy between the English-language and Dutch-language sub-corpora: fourteen English-language authors advise the technique, as opposed to only one Dutch-language author (35% versus 2.5% of the respective sub-corpora).[107] Alliteration is considered to be the most important type of rhyme related to retention; fourteen authors refer to it. Assonance or the term 'rhyme' is mentioned four times. Some authors discuss both alliteration and assonance; when authors use the more generic term 'rhyme', they often provide examples with end rhyme (e.g. "stride and glide" by Urech (1998, p. 40)).

This section first discusses alliteration and assonance as retention techniques. Afterwards, it addresses 'crossover functions' of alliteration, as this type of rhyme is sometimes explicitly connected to other retention techniques. Finally, the possible risks of using rhyme are expounded on.

Alliteration and assonance affirm audience retention

Spolders (1997) offers an explanation of the retention effect that similarity in sound could have, drawing on the famous Winston Churchill quotation "blood, toil, tears and sweat" as illustrative material (she is not the only author who refers to this quotation):

> Similarity in sound makes sure that the message sticks in the mind of the hearer. 'But blood' shows similarities in consonants but also in vowel sounds, 'toil, tears' continues the effect and 'sweat' follows as a final blow. [pp. 83–84][108]

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[107] *English-language sub-corpus*: De Vito (1981), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Wilder (1986), Cook (1989), Lucas (1989), Smith (1991), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Urech (1998), Verderber (2000), Laskowski (2001), Booher (2003), Atkinson (2004), Leanne (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Spolders (1997).

[108] Spolders (1997, p. 83): "Overeenkomst in klank zorgt dat de boodschap blijft hangen in het hoofd van de hoorder. 'But blood' heeft overeenkomst in medeklinker-, maar ook in klinkerklank, 'toil, tears' zet het effect voort en 'sweat' komt er dan nog als een soort klap op de vuurpijl achteraan."

The alliteration is the type of rhyme that receives the most attention of textbook authors. According to Lucas (1989, p. 223), “by highlighting the sound of words, alliteration catches the attention of listeners and can make ideas easier to remember.” This description of the alliteration’s possible retention effect covers the consensus of the fourteen authors who refer to it as a retention technique. The attention-drawing function of the alliteration, which could be a condition for a retention effect, is mentioned by Wilson & Arnold (1983), Smith (1991), Osborn & Osborn (1997) and Atkinson (2004) as well. Almost all authors provide examples to illustrate the possibilities of the alliteration, such as “democracy’s dilemma” (Wilder, 1991, p. 177), “refilling, reusing and recycling” (Urech, 1998, p. 13), “carat, clarity, color and cutting” (Verderber, 2000, p. 232) and, to top it off, Laskowski’s “nine *P's*: Prior Proper Preparations Prevents Poor Performance of the Person Putting on the Presentation” (2001, p. 124).

Fewer authors focus on assonance or ‘end rhyme’. Urech (1998, p. 40) implicitly offers an explanation for this lower frequency: rhyme at the end of words may sound a bit as if the speaker were composing a poem. With this, she suggests that end rhyme may have an unwanted effect on the speaker’s ethos (image). Still, she would advise the use of assonance, as “it is easy on the ear and perforates our memories, too.” Urech is particularly proud of her own creation “stride and glide”, since “it is short, sweet and memorable.” Osborn & Osborn (1997) use a concrete example of a case that had great societal impact, in which rhyme played a part:

> During the O. J. Simpson murder trial, the prosecution asked Simpson to try on a glove allegedly worn by the killer during the crime. It was a high moment of the trial, but a low moment for the prosecution, when Simpson struggled to put the glove on. Who then can forget how defense attorney Johnny Cochran, in his summary to the jury, impressively intoned: “If it doesn't fit, you must acquit.” [p. 314]

Alliteration as a repetitive retention technique to structure a speech

Two authors combine the alliteration with organisational retention techniques. Osborn & Osborn (1997, p. 314) state that “rhythm may also be paired with rhyme to make oral language even more memorable” and give an example of a presentation’s purpose statement or *propositio* (see Section 2.5.25) that includes alliterations: “Today, I will discuss how the Mississippi River meanders from Minnesota to the sea.” Here, two retention techniques could reinforce one another. Furthermore, Cook (1989, p. 71) provides an example in which alliteration and the *partitio* (structure overview, see Section 2.5.23) are combined:

> The head of a large hospital was asked to give a speech on “Marketing the Nursing Profession.” She broke the topic down into the classical subparts of marketing—product, price, place, promoting. She then discussed how well the profession was being “sold,” from the perspective of each of the four—in other words, are nursing services available in the right places? For the right price? And so forth. [p.71]

Warning: use alliteration with moderation

Authors point to 'excessive use' as the main risk of applying rhyme. Lucas (1989) describes that a fine line exists between the right number of alliterations and its excessive use:

> Used sparingly, it is a marvelous way to spruce up your speeches. Used to excess, however, it can be laughable and draw too much attention, so that listeners get more involved in waiting for the next alliteration than in absorbing the content of the speech. [p. 223]

Atkinson (2004, p. 242) agrees with the idea that moderation is key, as "too much alliteration or rhyme is likely to be so obvious that it deflects the audience's attention away from the message to the technique itself, and can therefore be counter-productive". He gives the example of the famous orator Jesse Jackson, who could sometimes be a little too enthusiastic in his application of alliteration: "my constituency is the desperate, damned, disinherited, disrespected and the despised."

2.5.9 Metaphor

Using metaphors to aid retention is advised in sixteen textbooks (20% of the total corpus; twelve English-language textbooks and four Dutch-language textbooks).[109] A metaphor is a form of figurative speech. Often, the metaphor is discussed together with other forms of figurative speech, such as the simile or analogy. Rozakis (1995) provides a good example of the way that 'metaphor' is regularly treated in the corpus:

> A *simile* is a figure of speech that compares two unlike things. Similes use the words "like" or "as" to make the comparison. "A dream put off dries up like a raisin in the sun" is an example of a simile. A *metaphor* is also a figure of speech that compares two unlike things. However, metaphors do not use the words "like" or "as" to make the comparison. "The rush-hour traffic bled out of all the city's major arteries" is a metaphor. [p. 91]

In this section the link between the use of metaphors and retention is addressed first. Second, the preferred position for deploying metaphors in a presentation is discussed.

Link between metaphor and retention

Cook (1989), Gurak (2000), Janssen et al. (2002), Booher (2003) and Wiertzema & Jansen (2004) all mention the function of a metaphor to make complex and abstract information more conceivable. Gurak (2000) uses a metaphor herself to explain this principle:

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[109] *English-language sub-corpus*: Wilson & Arnold (1983), Cook (1989), Smith (1991), Rozakis (1995), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gurak (2000), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), Booher (2003), DeVito (2003), Atkinson (2004); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Krusche (1986), Janssen et al. (2002), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Witt (2009).

> Often, you can help yourself remember a new or complex idea by linking it to something with which you are familiar. If you are seeking to understand and explain how a computer organises information, you might mentally compare an electronic file system to an old-fashioned file cabinet. A file cabinet has drawers, and each drawer contains items related to a specific topic. Each drawer is then subdivided into folders. If you can find a particularly useful metaphor, it will not only help you remember the concept, it will help your audience, too. [p. 31]

Krusche (1986), Verderber (2000) and DeVito (2003) emphasise that the metaphor enhances vividness or can leave a 'striking image' in the audience's minds. Metaphors can connect two concepts in an unexpected way, as is stressed by Rozakis (1995), Sprague and Stuart (1996), Osborn and Osborn (1997) and DeVito (2003). Osborn and Osborn (1997, p. 232) state that the combination of "two apparently unlike things" makes us "see unexpected relationships".

While most authors list the metaphor as a form of figurative speech, McConnon (2002) includes the technique in a different category, which is called "whole brain wrapping":

> This multi-sensory approach involves more of the brain and, hence, learning is more effective, retention is enhanced and spare capacity is utilized. [p. 88]

The metaphor is presented as a technique that enables the audience to use various brain processes, such as visualisation and association (e.g. with existing information). Cook (1989, p. 101) mentions the metaphor as a technique that can aid comprehension and retention and that works "exceptionally well in introducing new ideas" as it refers to ideas that are already familiar to the audience.

Position in the speech

In what particular part of the speech should the metaphor preferably be used? Osborn and Osborn (1997) and Witt (2009) advise the technique to create an effective conclusion. Witt (2009) suggests that it is also effective as an opening technique, as a means to establish some sort of 'circle technique' (also see Section 2.5.13):

> Use a technique to capture attention as you did in the introduction. […] For instance, if you used 'hunger' as a metaphor in your opening story, your wrap-up story should be about something like 'food'. [p. 131][110]

Wiertzema and Jansen (2004) and Booher (2003) suggest that a metaphor could be used as a theme or 'allegory' throughout the entire speech. Booher (2003) elaborates

[110] Witt, (2009, p. 131): "Gebruik een techniek om de aandacht te vangen zoals je in je inleiding deed. […] Als je in je openingsverhaal bijvoorbeeld honger gebruikte als metafoor, moet je afsluitende verhaal gaan over zoiets als eten."

on this idea by providing suggestions for transition phrases that fit within a theme, for example by using the same metaphor:

> Look for a theme or metaphor to use as a transitional hinge between presentation segments. For example, consider this one built around the theme of myths: "The first competitor myth that I'd like to dispel among our sales earn is that. . . . Another myth that we need to allay is. . . . Another pervasive myth in the marketplace is that. . . ." A second example: "Our department has been holding onto security blankets far too long to generate revenue. One security blanket for last year was our income from product *X*. . . . Another security blanket that we came to depend on in the third quarter was. . . . Then there was the security blanket of revenue from product Y that we grabbed and clung to in the fourth quarter. . . ." In addition to providing excellent transitions, these metaphors create memorable images in listeners' minds. [p. 79]

2.5.10 One-liner, soundbite and slogan

"A catchphrase or short sentence that reflects the themes a speaker wants people to remember": that is how Leanne (2009, p. 124) defines the *slogan* and links it to retention. She provides a few examples of Barack Obama's effective slogans: "Yes we can", "Change we believe in" and "Our moment is now" (Leanne, 2009, p. 124). Together with Leanne, twelve English-language authors advise a similar technique to influence audience retention: a few words, a brief sentence or a couple of short lines that leave a lasting impression, often called a 'one-liner', 'soundbite' or 'slogan' (advised in 32.5% of the total corpus).[111] Although the one-liner, soundbite and slogan are all mentioned in the Dutch-language corpus, they are not explicitly connected to retention —contrary to the English-language sub-corpus.

This retention strategy is ill-defined in the textbooks, which is most notable in the descriptions of the term 'soundbite'. A soundbite can vary in length from about twenty seconds (Osborn & Osborn, 1997, p. 18), to thirty seconds (McConnon, 2002, p. 84) or even a very specific twelve seconds (Khan-Panni, 2009, p. 80). Noonan (1999), who has included a complete chapter about soundbites, puts in perspective the variety of 'buzzwords' to label this retention strategy:

> What is now called a sound bite was once called a "sentence" or "paragraph" or "phrase." Great sound bites of political history are great *sentences* and *phrases* of political history: "Gentlemen may cry peace, peace, but there is no peace." "With malice toward none, with charity for all ..." "I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears and sweat." "We have nothing to fear but fear itself." Those are four of a hundred that would come to mind if you sat down and thought for an hour or two. [p. 95]

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[111] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ehninger et al. (1980), Linkletter (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Detz (1984), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gaulke (1997), Urech (1998), Noonan (1999), McConnon (2002), Valenti (2002), Booher (2003), Leanne (2009), Khan-Panni (2009).

Although the textbook authors studied do not agree on the definition, they do agree that a one-liner, soundbite or slogan can have a powerful retention effect. However, some warn against possible negative side-effects.

Retention effect

Most authors seem to feel very strongly about the one-liner's or soundbite's possible retention effect, judging from their use of adjectives and the concrete descriptions. To name a few, Valenti (2002, p. 168), views "these pithy two- and three-word phrases that people can store up in memory" as "the essence of vivid indelible speechmaking". Gaulke (1997, p. 35) states that "one word, one phrase, one sentence" is "a great way to plant an everlasting memory" that can "stick forever". Booher (2003, p. 106) talks about how the one-liner can work in a way that is "truly memorable". All authors agree that a one-liner or slogan should not be about just any information, but they feel that it should capture the central idea or key points in a concise way.

How might a one-liner or slogan work? A few authors articulate their ideas on this matter. Ehninger et al. (1980), Linkletter (1980) and Wilson & Arnold (1983) all believe repetition is a factor of influence (remarkably enough, all three sources are from the early eighties). Wilson and Arnold (1983) explain it as follows:

> Any repetition—whether in the same or in different terms—increases the probability that the repeated idea will be perceived by a listener. […) You see and hear this principle used much in advertising, as slogans are repeated, sometimes in the same way and sometimes in different ways. [p. 139]

The reference to advertising slogans is also made by Gaulke (1997) and Khan-Panni (2009).

Noonan (1999) and Khan-Panni (2009) think that it is the idea itself that must be clear and original. Only then the one-liners, slogans or soundbites will be effective. As Khan-Panni (2009) puts it:

> They are not merely clever ways with language. They are clever ideas. Find clever ideas and the phrases will take care of themselves. [p.81]

Noonan (1999, p. 95) claims that the most effective soundbites and phrases are those that "are natural", that "bubbled up from the creative process", and "naturally emerged from the process of thinking and writing".

Warnings

Two authors signal possible negative side-effects of using a one-liner or advise against a speaker forcing himself to find a one-liner. Booher (2003) warns that a one-liner connected to unimportant information or contents can backfire, as the retention effect can be so strong that it could overrule the retention of key points. She experienced this herself, she explains, when she bumped into someone who followed one of her workshops some time ago; she discovered that he remembered a one-liner that "unfortunately illustrated one of the least important concepts of the entire workshop" (Booher, 2003, p. 106).

As a consequence from her idea that effective soundbites are "natural", Noonan (1999, p. 95) does not recommend to "self-consciously fashion a phrase that would grab the listener". She emphasises that the best soundbites "were all created—they came to live in history because their writers weren't trying to write 'a soundbite' or 'a line'."

2.5.11 Connecting to the audience

"Listeners remember information best when they see it as relevant and useful to their own needs or goals" (DeVito, 2003, p. 205). This quotation summarises the retention principle behind the advice 'connecting to the audience': speakers should put effort into making the information relevant, useful and interesting to the audience. In fourteen textbooks, this technique is linked to retention (17.5%; twelve English-language textbooks and two Dutch-language textbooks).[112] Five other authors use statements similar to DeVito's quotation.[113] How do the authors believe the relationship between connecting to the audience and retention is established, how can this connection take shape in a speech and in which part of the speech should it be applied? Those questions will be addressed in this section.

Connection to retention

A few authors expand on the connection between relevance to the audience and retention. Osborn & Osborn (1997)[114] and Verderber (2000) both use the term "filter" to explain this principle:

> Relevance is also important to retention. Our minds filter new information as we receive it, associating it with things we already know and unconsciously evaluating it for its potential usefulness or importance. (Osborn & Osborn, 1997, p. 388)

> Rather than acting like sponges that absorb every bit of information, most of us act more like filters: We listen only to that information we perceive to be relevant. Relevance is the personal value that people find in information when it relates to their needs and interests. Relevance might be measured by an audience's "need to know." (Verderber, 2000, p. 230).

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[112] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ehninger, Gronbeck & Monroe (1980), Ross (1980), Walters (1993), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gaulke (1997), Dowis (2000),Vasile & Mintz (2000), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), DeVito (2003), Naistadt (2004), Khan-Panni (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Morse (1987), Witt (2009).

[113] Ross (1980), Walters (1993), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002).

[114] Osborn & Osborn (1997) consider this to be an important retention technique, judging by no less than 9 excerpts in which they refer to it.

Following these explanations, audience members often unconsciously retain information that is connected to their own interests, knowledge or needs. McConnon (2002) formulates this most explicitly:

> Juries remember only 60% of what they are told. Why? The case is not about them. No matter how hard they try, people have difficulty paying attention to presentations that aren't about them. People are primarily interested in themselves. [pp. 83–84]

So, according to these authors, it is in a speaker's best interest to make the relevance clear to the audience and help the information be processed.

Speaker strategies to make relevance clear

How can speakers make this relevance clear to the audience? Authors discuss several options. According to Morse (1987), thinking about the relevance should be part of the preparation for a presentation. A speaker should be able to answer the question which points are most important for the audience to remember. Naistadt (2004) underlines the importance of taking the audience's perspective when preparing the speech:

> Just as a perfect hostess knows whether to serve dinner guests an exotic meal of Tibetan yak or simple American steak and potatoes, communicators must know their audience in order to deliver an effective message. This requires an intimate understanding - of your listeners' needs and concerns - an understanding you acquire by investing some time analyzing your audience up front, and using the information you gather to tailor your message so that it speaks to the values and interests of that audience, thereby giving it a reason to want to hear you. [p. 105]

After the preparation phase, a speaker can clarify the relevance in the speech itself by relating information to examples that the audience is familiar with, as Verderber (2000) explains:

> […] always ask yourself in what way the material you plan to present is truly important to the audience, and emphasise that connection in your speech. For example, in a speech on Japan, a topic that may seem distant from the audience's felt needs and concerns, you can increase the perception of relevance by focusing on the importance of Japanese manufacturing to the U.S. economy and local jobs. In a speech on the Egyptian pyramids, you can increase perception of relevance by relating their construction to contemporary building construction. In any speech you give, it is up to you to show how the information relates to the audience's needs and interests. [pp. 230–231]

Osborn and Osborn (1997, p. 388) also advise to choose “examples close to the lives of audience members”. McConnon (2002) opts for a more direct approach for involving the audience:

> Talk about them, their problems and their concerns. The more times you can add the words 'you' or 'yours' the more interest you create for your audience. While it is your presentation, it is all about *them* and for *them.* [p. 84]

Part of the speech

Some authors prefer specific parts of the speech to connect to audience. Osborn and Osborn (1997) and Gaulke (1997) point to the introduction and conclusion to most effectively connect to the audience. Both textbooks recommend to make the relevance clear in the beginning of the speech and to refer to it once more in the conclusion (“reinvolve” the audience, as Osborn and Osborn call it—p. 233).[115] Verderber (2000) and DeVito (2003) think establishing the relevance is most important in the introduction. Lastly, Khan-Panni (2009) sees the core message (or *propositio*) as the main part of the speech for connecting the speaker’s intentions to the audience’s needs:

> The core message is a single sentence that summarises your speech or presentation and states your main purpose. That last bit is most important: you must have a purpose that links your passion with the value or benefit that your listeners will derive. Both must be present for it to be meaningful. [p. 71]

2.5.12 Final statement

The final statement is attributed to retention in 20% of the corpus (twelve English-language and four Dutch-language textbooks).[116] In the textbooks, it is unmistakably connected to the concluding part of a presentation. This final position in the speech may explain its ‘retention value’. Detz (1984) emphasises the pivotal position of the final sentence:

> If you wrote a good speech, your final words were strong and memorable. In fact, your ending was probably the best part of the whole speech. Allow it to sink in. [p. 124]

Korswagen (1988) underlines this importance as well:

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[115] This particular advice is closely related to the circle technique (Section 2.5.132.5.13).

[116] *English-language sub-corpus*: Gondin et al. (1983), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Detz (1984), Wilder (1986), Lucas (1989), Rozakis (1995), Simmons (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Urech (1998), Atkinson (2004), Anholt (2006), Leanne (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Korswagen (1988), Oomkes (2000), Steehouder et al. (2006), Van der Horst (2007).

> Be sure to use a resonating final sentence, which, owing to a concise or witty formulation, attaches itself to your audience's memory. [p. 108][117]

Connection to main message

Ten authors who link the final statement to retention also recommend to connect it to the main idea or message of the presentation.[118] With this strategy, the speaker kills two birds with one stone: the presentation has a clear wrap-up, and a preferred position to influence memory is used to reinforce the central idea. The authors studied use a varied terminology, from "drive home the central idea" (Wilson & Arnold, 1983, p. 184) via "help the audience to remember the essence of the message" (Osborn & Osborn, 1997, pp. 90–91) and "a […] statement that encapsulates the key message" (Atkinson, 2004, p. 291) to "take-home message" (Anholt, 2006, p. 64); these are all variations on the theme 'linking the final statement to the main message'. Simmons (1996) is the most detailed and elaborate about the "final punch":

> Basically, this is a one-sentence statement that hits the audience with the most important idea of your speech. It is your last chance to influence your audience, and this statement is one of the main ones it will remember. [p. 38]

Furthermore, Urech (1998) suggests that this strategy can help the audience to remember it over a longer period of time (two weeks):

> What one fact or word do you want your audience to remember for two weeks? It might be the name of your company or your desired end result. Phrase it as the very last sentence of your presentation. [p. 4]

Preferred rhetorical techniques for the final statement

The final statement first and foremost refers to a part of the presentation that is strongly connected to influencing retention—the conclusion. Textbook authors describe it as "the final punch", the "final sentence" or the "last words". This way, this strategy shows a resemblance to the 'one-liner' or 'soundbite', a retention strategy discussed in Section 2.5.10; the main difference is that the 'final sentence' is explicitly connected to the concluding part of the presentation. 'Final sentence' can be seen as an umbrella term; it is a rhetorical strategy that can be applied via various rhetorical techniques. Atkinson (2004) describes this as follows:

> Given that this [the final statement] is the last thing the audience will hear, every attempt should be made to package it in as punchy and

[117] Korswagen (1988, p. 108): "Zorg ook voor een klinkende afsluitende zin, die zich door kernachtige of geestige formulering vasthaakt in het geheugen van uw publiek."

[118] Gondin et al. (1983), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Wilder (1986), Lucas (1989), Simmons (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Urech (1998), Atkinson (2004), Anholt (2006), Oomkes (2000).

> memorable a way as possible—which can often be done by using the rhetorical toolkit described earlier. [p. 291]

The "rhetorical toolkit" that Atkinson refers to contains a large variety of rhetorical techniques, some of which are highlighted in the textbooks. Lucas (1989, pp. 182–183) for instance advises to use a "brief quotation that […] captures your central idea" or a "dramatic statement". The dramatic statement contains a significant portion of pathos in Lucas' view; he gives the example of a student who gave a speech on the topic of suicide; only in the final sentence did he reveal that the "friend" that he had talked about during the speech was in fact himself.

Osborn and Osborn (1997, p. 229) state that "to provide some concluding remarks that stay with your listeners" and to "develop memorable conclusions", the speaker can use "many of the techniques that create effective introductions". They explicitly refer to the circle technique—"using the same technique to close a speech that you used to open it can balance your speech"—which, in turn, is a rhetorical strategy that can entail a variety of rhetorical techniques (e.g. tropes and figures—see Section 2.5.13).

2.5.13 Circle technique

"Refer to the opening", "come full circle", "tie the speech together", or the Dutch "cirkelstructuur": textbook authors use various descriptions for the technique in which the speaker refers to the opening of the presentation in the concluding part. In this thesis, I refer to this rhetorical technique as 'circle technique' (following Andeweg, De Jong & Wackers, 2008). In almost one fifth of the textbooks (fifteen in total; eight English-language and seven Dutch-language textbooks) authors relate such a reference to the introduction to information retention.[119] Regarding frequency, the English-language and Dutch-language sub-corpora seem to be rather balanced.

Most authors explicitly connect the concluding part of the speech (*peroratio*) to retention and consider the circle technique to be an element of an effective conclusion. In doing so, they establish a somewhat indirect link between the circle technique and retention. However, some authors connect the circle technique more explicitly and directly to retention, such as Bloch and Tholen (1991):

> You can finish powerfully by restating your initial idea in more or less the same words. By doing so, your listeners will better recognise your message and will remember it more easily. This 'round' structure of your presentation will help you to keep applying the same style, as it

[119] *English-language sub-corpus*: Kenny (1982), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Detz (1984), Lucas (1989), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gaulke (1997), Urech (1998), Laskowksi (2001); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Bloch & Tholen (1991), Oomkes (2000), Janssen et al. (2002), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Hertz (2005), Van der Horst (2007), Witt (2009)

> were to draw the bow with which you will release the arrow—your message. [p. 28][120]

Urech (1998) agrees and provides an example of an effective circle technique—returning to an analogy used in the introduction:

> The last words out of your mouth are the most important words you utter because they have the best chance of being remembered. The most elegant and satisfying way to end your speech is to refer back to your beginning. In his speech to EDS managers, Dick King began by talking about the magnificent Swiss Alps and mountain climbing. In his conclusion he returned to his analogy to illustrate how his group had reached the summit. [pp. 28–29]

The circle technique could have an attention drawing function, since the technique to which the speaker refers in the conclusion is often applied to draw the attention in the introduction. Gaulke (1997, p. 33) argues that the conclusion is "a flip-flop of the introduction": it should end with grabbing the attention one last time and an ideal way to achieve this is to "return to the theme of your opening".

Four authors[121] propose to use a structure marker to explicitly indicate the reference to the introductory technique, such as "when I began my session today … Let's go back and review…" (Laskowski, 2001, pp. 186–187) or "in the beginning of my presentation I asked myself…" (Wiertzema & Jansen, 2004, p. 62).[122]

A side-effect of the circle technique appears to be that the audience will appreciate its use. Six authors who relate the circle technique to retention also use various phrases to describe its affective effects.[123] They refer to the circle technique as "elegant and satisfying" (Urech, 1998, p. 28–29), mention its ability to provide a "sense of closure" as it creates symmetry (Osborn & Osborn, 1997, p. 233) or state that it gives the speech "psychological unity" and an "extra touch of class" (Lucas, 1989, p. 183). So, the circle technique does not only remind the audience of the speech structure, but is also particularly effective as a pathos technique in the *affectus*—the final part of the conclusion which is traditionally reserved for an emotional appeal to the audience. It

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[120] Bloch & Tholen (1991, p. 28): "Zo kun je ook een krachtig eind aan je verhaal maken door je beginidee met ongeveer dezelfde woorden te herhalen. Je luisteraars herkennen je boodschap daardoor beter en ze zullen hem gemakkelijker onthouden. Deze 'ronde' opbouw van je presentatie helpt jou om dezelfde stijl te blijven hanteren, en om als het ware de boog te spannen waarmee je de pijl – je boodschap – afschiet."

[121] Detz (1984), Laskowksi (2001), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004) and Van der Horst (2007).

[122] Wiertzema & Jansen (2004, p. 62: " 'Aan het begin van deze presentatie vroeg ik mij af of ...' "

[123] Kenny (1982), Lucas (1989), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gaulke (1997), Urech (1998), Laskowksi (2001) and Wiertzema & Jansen (2004).

is not clear whether this aspect of the circle technique could also be related to information retention.

2.5.14 Quotation

"Certain words and phrases you hear or read are so forceful and unforgettable that you exclaim 'I wish I'd said that'"—here, Sprague & Stuart (1996, p. 183) express why they advise speakers to "use short quotations to make ideas clear and memorable". They are not alone: the quotation is connected to retention in twelve other textbooks (in 32.5% of the total corpus; ten English-language textbooks, three Dutch-language textbooks).[124]

The 'quotation' is a rhetorical technique that is suitable for clarifying or illustrating abstract ideas, which accounts for its quality to make a message more memorable, according to four authors.[125] Ironically, Walters (1993, p. 131) uses a quotation by motivational speaker and author Mark Sanborn; he mentions the quotation as one of his favourite illustrative techniques, as illustration "is what makes the point understood and memorable". Booher (2003, p. 83) describes the quotation as one of the "extras" that "make your key points memorable". In case a speech is too long, Booher advises to cut some key points rather than extras such as quotations.

Eight authors list the quotation as one of the techniques to design an effective conclusion—the part of the speech they believe the audience remembers best.[126] Osborn & Osborn (1997) give the most elaborate example of how a quotation can be embedded in the conclusion:

> Brief quotations that capture the essence of your message make effective conclusions. For example, if one literary quotation opens a speech, another on the same theme can provide an elegant sense of closure. Susie Smith opened her speech on job satisfaction with a quotation from William Faulkner that linked work and unhappiness. She closed the speech with a more positive quotation from Joseph Conrad that summed up the meaning of satisfying work:
> *I like what is in work - the chance to find yourself. Your own reality - for yourself, not for others - what no other can ever know.*
> These concluding remarks put the seal on Susie's message: that the search for work must be much more than finding a job; rather, that we must prepare ourselves for an occupation that will help us find, define, and create ourselves and our world. [p. 231]

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[124] *English-language sub-corpus*: Wilson & Arnold (1983), Detz (1984), Walters (1993), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Laskowski (2001), Booher (2003), Anholt (2006), Tracy (2008); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Blum (1982), Van der Horst (2007), Witt (2009).

[125] Blum (1982), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Walters (1993), Booher (2003).

[126] Detz (1984), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Laskowski (2001), Anholt (2006), Van der Horst (2007),Tracy (2008), Witt (2009). The example by Osborn and Osborn (1997) is reminiscent of the circle technique (see Section 2.5.13).

2.5.15 Example

In order for the audience to remember key points of the presentation, the speaker should use examples to clarify and animate them. At least, that is advised in 15% of the textbooks in the total corpus (English-language sub-corpus: nine textbooks, Dutch-language sub-corpus: three textbooks).[127] Most authors connect the example to concepts such as *illustration*, *anecdote* and *story*. “Illustration” and “example” appear to refer to similar techniques. According to Lucas (1989), “example” is an overarching category; he considers illustrations, anecdotes and narratives to be “extended examples”. However, Rozakis (1995), Osborn and Osborn (1997) and Booher (2003) suggest that the example is a specific type of illustration (e.g. Booher, 2003, p. 153: “Example: specific illustration that will clarify and make the key points memorable”). For this overview of retention techniques, I have assumed that the terms ‘example’ and ‘illustration’ refer to the same category. This category does not include ‘anecdote’, ‘story’ or ‘narrative’ (for those, see Section 2.5.2).

This section first focuses on the possible retention effect of the example, which occasionally appears to be ascribed only to specific types of examples. Second, it addresses how the use of the example that might establish an unwanted (retention) effect.

Various types of examples connected to retention

Examples influence retention because they clarify the more content-specific information and offer a varied way of explaining and detailing the key points of the presentation. Naistadt (2004) explains that examples can be used to balance out the presentation (in this case the example is a form of “anecdotal support material”):

> If a recipe calls for two tablespoons of curry powder and you add one cup, you are in danger of sending your gourmet meal down the drain and your dinner guests for the water jug. Public speaking works the same way. The body of your communication puts forth the key ideas or messages you want your audience to take away and act upon. Therefore, you must ask yourself, "How can I present them in a way that is both credible and memorable?" The answer is to balance the nuts-and-bolts data (statistics, factual evidence) in your case with enough anecdotal support material (examples, personal stories, analogies) to engage and convince your listeners so they'll want to remember and act upon what you've told them. [p. 128]

Oomkes (2000, p. 255) proposes to “try and come up with an example for every essential point in the speech: they could be the only things people remember.”[128]

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[127] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ehninger et al. (1980), Lucas (1989), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Rozakis (2005), Simmons (1996), Verderber (2000), Booher (2003), Naistadt (2004), Atkinson (2004); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Blum (1982), Oomkes (2000), Janssen et al. (2002).

[128] Oomkes (2000, p. 255): “Probeer bij ieder essentieel punt in de lezing een treffend voorbeeld te bedenken: het zouden wel eens de enige zaken kunnen zijn die men onthoudt.”

Authors distinguish quite a few subtypes of examples. Osborn and Osborn (1997) first connect the general technique *example* to retention, after which they discuss the specific types of brief, extended, factual and hypothetical examples:

> Examples serve as verbal illustrations. They help arouse interest, clarify ideas, sustain attention, personalize a topic, emphasise your major points, demonstrate how your ideas can be applied, and make it easier for listeners to remember your message. Brief examples mention specific instances. Extended examples contain more detail and give the speaker more time to build impressions. Factual examples are based on actual events and persons. Hypothetical examples are invented by the speaker to represent reality. Use people's names to personalize examples and magnify their power. [p. 197]

Some other authors only link a specific subtype of the example to retention. Simmons (1996, p. 156) only attributes a memorable quality to so-called "qualifying examples", which "qualify, or make significant, statements or content in your speech". Atkinson (2004) however believes only humorous examples will do the trick.

Warnings

Just as with the use of anecdotes (Section 2.5.2) and humour (2.5.7), a speaker who uses examples to illustrate a key point runs the risk of the examples being remembered instead of the message. Janssen et al. (2002) illustrate this warning with an example:

> Avoid that people will only remember the example and not what it intended to illustrate. Think of the marketing expert who asked all present to stare at their zipper. He would have failed when the audience would have only remembered the staring and would have forgotten that it was all about increasing brand awareness. [p. 356][129]

Lucas (1989, p. 125) believes "the easiest way to ruin a fine example is to read it dully from your notes". To prevent this, he recommends to "'talk through' your extended examples without relying on your notes" while practising.

2.5.16 Audience participation

Actively involving the audience in the presentation can increase retention. Hertz (2005) promotes it as follows:

[129] Janssen et al. (2002, p. 356): "Voorkom dat men zich later alleen het voorbeeld nog herinnert en niet meer weet wat daarmee geïllustreerd werd. Denk bijvoorbeeld aan de marketingdeskundige die alle aanwezigen naar het lipje van de ritssluiting van hun gulp liet staren. Hij zou gefaald hebben als het publiek zich later alleen maar het staren zou herinneren en vergeten zou zijn dat het om het belang van naamsbekendheid ging."

> When you can motivate the audience not to listen and look passively to what you are presenting, but actively participate, you will keep them more attentive and they will better remember what it is about. [p. 23][130]

In almost 14% of the textbooks in the total corpus, this technique is explicitly linked to retention (nine English-language textbooks, two Dutch-language textbooks).[131] The authors of these textbooks generally feel that audience participation is a promising retention strategy and present a great deal of possible activities to stimulate it, but they also feel that it is a challenging and time-consuming technique.

Retention effect of audience participation

The retention effect is often related to the fact that an active participation will increase learning effects.[132] Walters (1993) is most explicit about this connection between active learning and retention:

> Get the audience to experience the concepts themselves through audience participation. Audience participation is—in my humble opinion—the best learning tool. Listeners explicitly remember the things you have them do themselves. [p. 128]

She also presents some statistics by the scholar Edgar Dale, which suggest that "people will remember 80 percent of what they hear, see, and do" (Walters, 1993, p. 131). In this case, the "doing" represents the audience participation and it is the superlative—the addition of "doing" to "hearing" and "seeing" would provide the highest retention effect. McConnon (2002) also presents numbers to back up the idea that audience participation leads to an increased retention. Although Walters and McConnon both draw the conclusion that "doing" enhances retention most, McConnon's figures differ:

> People remember: […]
> + 70% of what they read, hear, see done and explain to someone else.
> + 90% of what they read, hear, see done, explain and do themselves [p. 92]

Walters' and McConnon's statistics suggest that audience participation is one of the most effective techniques to enhance retention, which makes it all the more remarkable that this strategy is not advised more frequently.

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[130] Hertz (2005, p. 23): "Als je ervoor kunt zorgen dat je publiek niet passief luistert en kijkt naar wat je presenteert, maar zelf actief meedoet, dan houd je hun aandacht beter vast en zij onthouden beter waar het om gaat."

[131] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ross (1980), Smith (1991), Walters (1993), Gaulke (1997), Vasile & Mintz (2000), Laskowski (2001), McConnon (2002), Booher (2003), Anholt (2006); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Hertz (2005), Witt (2009).

[132] This is discussed by Ross (1980), Walters (1993), Laskowski (2001), McConnon (2002), Hertz (2005) and Anholt (2006).

Strategies for audience participation and related warnings

Audience participation may not be frequently advised for two reasons: it takes considerable effort and involves risks. Gaulke (1997, p. 49) underlines that it "takes a little more time to use audience involvement than to give a straight lecture", but he states that "the increased attention and retention factors are worth it". As in most other textbooks that discuss audience participation, Gaulke uses the term as a container for more specific rhetorical techniques and activities to establish audience involvement. He lists no less than fourteen activities, of which "discussion", "audience-initiated questions" and "brainstorming" are a few. Smith (1991) and Laskowski (2001) both suggest that the activity of a "final exam" or "summary by the audience", in which the audience will be asked to put forward the most key points of the presentation rather than the speaker listing them. Smith (1991, p. 45) advises that "the questions should deal with those points that you particularly want the audience to remember", and even proposes to reward the audience with prize money: "If you gave a good presentation, you should have no money left over at the end of the test."

Although such activities can increase retention, textbook authors warn against the risks. Atkinson (2004) is particularly critical on audience participation and sees quite a few possible bumps in the road, most often caused by a lack of preparation and management by the speaker. For example, if not managed well, a discussion could lead to a digression from the key points or make audience members feel ignored. Furthermore, when audience participation is overdone it could harm a speaker's ethos, as the listeners might feel that they have to put in too much work themselves.

2.5.17 Rhetorical question

Asking a rhetorical question—a question that encapsulates the answer or that the speaker does not expect the audience to answer—is advised to enhance retention in 12.5% of the textbooks in the corpus (English-language sub-corpus: 20%, Dutch-language sub-corpus: 5%).[133] The memorable quality of the rhetorical question lies in the fact that it involves the audience and makes the listeners think, according to most of the textbook authors. Leanne (2009, p. 105) mentions the rhetorical question as one of the "practices" that make Obama "excellent at driving points home". The former US president "raises rhetorical questions as a useful technique for focusing attention on key information"; these questions "help to emphasize points and crystallize attention around important issues" (p. 106). Atkinson (2004) explains the elaborative effect of a rhetorical question as follows:

> The fact that questions in everyday conversation put us under pressure to come up with a response means that, even though members of an audience know that they are not actually going to have to answer the speaker's question, it will still make them sit up and start wondering what's coming next. [p. 192]

[133] *English-language sub-corpus*: Detz (1984), Cook (1989), Gaulke (1997), Osborn & Osborn (1997), McConnon (2002), DeVito (2003), Atkinson (2004), Leanne (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Van der Horst (2007), Witt (2009).

Two authors link the retention function of the rhetorical question to the conclusion. Van der Horst (2007) claims that what is said at the end of a speech will be remembered best and consequently advises readers to end with a rhetorical question as an invitation for a follow-up presentation.[134] Osborn and Osborn (1997) show that a rhetorical question can make the end of a presentation more memorable with the following example:

> Annette Berrington opened her speech on the use of seat belts with a rhetorical question, "How many of you buckled up on your way to school this morning?" Her final words were "Now that you know what a lifesaver seat belts are, how many of you will buckle up on the way home?" This final question echoed the beginning and served as a haunting reminder to use seat belts. Had she closed with "Remember, seat belts save lives," the effect would not have been as dramatic and memorable. [p. 230]

2.5.18 Call to action

Inciting the audience to do something, to get involved or to undertake some form of action is mentioned as a retention technique in 12.5% of the textbooks (English-language sub-corpus: 20%, Dutch-language sub-corpus: 5%).[135] In almost all cases (nine out of ten textbooks), the call to action is explicitly restricted to the concluding part of the speech. As Tracy (2008, p. 165) says:

> A call to action is the best way to wrap up your talk with strength and power. […]
> Drive the final point home. Regardless of whether the audience participants agree with you or are willing to do what you ask, it should be perfectly clear to them what you are requesting. [pp. 165–166]

The remaining advice about the call to action is generally quite similar to Tracy's. A few authors specify their advice. Verderber (2000) and Booher (2003) indicate that the preferred genre for a call to action is the persuasive speech. Gaulke (1997) is the only author who does not limit the use of a call to action to the wrap-up of the speech. She lists the advice "make them do" as one of the three ways to "reach into their souls", which is an important overall strategy in order to achieve retention:

> How many presenters have you heard over the years? What do you remember from what was said? If you're like most people, you don't remember much. Most presenters fade quickly from our memories. The

[134] Van der Horst (2007, p. 55): "Wat u aan het einde zegt, wordt onthouden. […] Eindig met een sterke retorische vraag; u zet daarmee uw publiek aan het denken en uw toespraak krijgt hoe dan ook een vervolg: 'Zal de toekomst een andere ... ?'"

[135] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ross (1980), Detz (1984), Gaulke (1997), Verderber (2000), Laskowski (2001), McConnon (2002), Booher (2003), Tracy (2008); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Van der Horst (2007), Witt (2009).

> ultimate connection for any speaker is to have some type of long-lasting effect on the audience. Here are three ways to reach into their souls:
> […]
> *Make them do.* Give them the “how to” tools to make the change. Tell them how. Tell them why. Tell them to go do it. If they're not going to change in some way after your presentation, why bother making it in the first place? Give them a pat on the back. Give them encouragement. [p. 21]

2.5.19 Parallelism

“Phrase your ideas in parallel (similar, matching) style for ease of comprehension and memory” (DeVito, 2003, p. 177) —a similar advice can be found in seven other textbooks (10% of the total corpus, all English-language textbooks).[136] All eight authors treat parallelism as a stylistic device, defining it more or less as Simmons (1996) does:

> Basically, parallel structure groups words or phrases that "copy" or echo each other for emphasis and impact. [p. 62]

As this rather abstract definition might be difficult to grasp for most readers, six out of seven authors back up their advice with examples.[137] Detz (1984, p. 69) relies on a few presidential phrases to make her point clear, such as the following Richard Nixon quotation: “Where peace is unknown, make it welcome; where peace is fragile, make it strong; where peace is temporary, make it permanent.”

While Detz’s examples discuss parallelism as a ‘local’ stylistic phenomenon, three other textbooks advise a parallel formulation of the presentation’s overarching main points. Lucas (1989) provides the following example:

> *Try to Use the Same Pattern of Wording for Main Points*
> Consider the following main points for an informative speech about the benefits of running.

Ineffective	More effective
I Regular running increases your endurance.	I Regular running increases your endurance
II Your sleeping pattern is improved by regular running.	II Regular running improves your sleeping pattern
III It is possible to help control your weight by regular running.	III Regular running helps control your weight

> The set of main points on the right follows a consistent pattern of wording throughout. Therefore, it is easier to understand and easier to remember than the set on the left. [p. 156]

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[136] *English-language sub-corpus*: Wilson & Arnold (1983), Detz (1984), Lucas (1989), Simmons (1996), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Dowis (2000), DeVito (2003).

[137] Only Wilson & Arnold (1983) do not provide an example of parallelism.

Sprague and Stuart (1996, p. 135), who claim that "ideas that are phrased in concise, colorful, parallel language are more likely to be remembered both by speaker and by listeners", also emphasise this link to the overall speech structure; they state that the use of parallel sentence structures "augments the techniques of signposting, previews, and reviews […], all of which you use to make your organisation clear to your listeners." Osborn and Osborn (1997) believe that parallel phrasing as a "strategic repetition helps listeners remember the message" (p. 206). In two other fragments in their book, they explicitly connect formulating key points in a parallel structure to retention.

2.5.20 List of three

According to Fahnestock (2011, p. 248), "…many memorable phrases have just three elements, usually ordered by increasing syllable length". The retention advice to use a 'list of three', also referred to as 'tricolon' by some authors, is found in 12.5% of the overall corpus (English-language sub-corpus: 17.5%, Dutch-language sub-corpus: 7.5%).[138]

Authors seem to agree with the general remark that "descriptive phrases, lists, and adjectives are more memorable when they travel in threes" (Cook, 1989, p. 176), but some authors emphasise more specific variants of the list of three. Atkinson (2004) even dedicates a few pages to this technique and discusses a variety of types and subtypes, such as a list of three identical words (Tony Blair's "education, education and education"), different words (liberté, egalité, fraternité), phrases, clauses and sentences. Leanne (2009) introduces the term "triadic extension", with which she refers to variants of the 'tricolon':

> When seeking to drive points home and paint clear pictures, Obama sometimes uses three words, three phrases, or even three parallel paragraphs, to underscore his points. These practices are variations of "tricolon." I will refer to them here as "triadic extension." For example, on the night of his Iowa Caucus win, Obama stated: I know how hard it is. It comes with *little sleep*, *little pay*, and *a lot of sacrifice*. [p. 119]

Favourite sources for exemplary lists of three appear to be Caesar ("veni, vidi, vici", mentioned in two books), Lincoln (e.g. "government of the people, by the people, for the people", mentioned by three authors) and—the source that is cited most frequently—Churchill (four authors).[139] The authors studied seem to be keen on the well-known "blood, sweat and tears" anecdote to explain the force of the series of three, as this quotation from Cook (1989) illustrates:

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[138] *English-language sub-corpus*: Detz (1984), Cook (1989), Urech (1998), Dowis (2000), Atkinson (2004), Tracy (2008), Leanne (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus:* Spolders (1997), Janssen e.a. (2002), Van der Horst (2007)

[139] Caesar: Detz (1984), Janssen (2002); Lincoln: Detz (1984), Cook (1989), Atkinson (2004); Churchill: Cook (1989), Spolders (1997), Janssen (2002), Atkinson (2004).

> So great is the ear's affection for triplets, that it altered Winston Churchill's most famous line. People remember Churchill as having said "blood, sweat, and tears." But he didn't. He actually said, "I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears, and sweat." [p. 177]

Van der Horst (2007, p. 68) moves away from the word or sentence level by referring to the memorable effect of tripartite division in the overall speech structure. He claims that "this stylistic device […] will be easier remembered by the audience." He gives the example of dividing a speech into "thesis, antithesis and synthesis".[140] Although he refers to it as a "stylistic device", Van der Horst's take on the list of three seems to be closely related to the technique 'systematic order' (see Section 2.5.22).

2.5.21 Comprehensible language

Keeping it short and simple is advised as a retention technique in nine textbooks of the overall corpus (English-language sub-corpus: 12.5%, Dutch-language textbooks: 10%).[141] According to the authors, speakers can make their text more comprehensible on various levels: by keeping their sentences short and by choosing words that are easy to understand.

Keeping it short

According to DeVito (2003, p. 177) short sentences are "more forceful and economical", "easier to comprehend" and "easier to remember". Detz (1984) and Cook (1989) explain that the effectiveness of short sentences lies within the context of public speaking: a presentation is meant to be listened to, which means that the sentence length should be limited. Kirchner (1983) warns against using long sentences, as they can ask too much of the listeners' ability to absorb information and can unnecessarily complicate the speech delivery by the speaker as well.

Keeping it simple

The use of short sentences goes hand in hand with the use of comprehensible vocabulary. Oomkes (2000) explains its relationship with retention as follows and supports it with a reference:

> A listener remembers meaningful information more easily. […] People can remember normal sentences two to five times better than nonsense sentences (e.g. "rich pencils have learnt to sniff!" (Marks & Miller, 1964)). That is an argument for each speaker—and certainly the more intellectual one—to use comprehensible language. [p. 254][142]

[140] Van der Horst (2007, p. 68): "Dit stijlmiddel ligt gemakkelijk in het gehoor en de structuur wordt door het publiek ook sneller onthouden."

[141] *English-language sub-corpus*: Detz (1984), Cook (1989), Noonan (1999), Dowis (2000), DeVito (2003); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Kirchner (1983), Krusche (1986), Oomkes (2000),Witt (2009).

[142] Oomkes (2000, p. 254): "De toehoorder onthoudt gemakkelijker informatie die betekenis heeft. Uit het hoofd leren van nonsenswoordjes (fieg, ijft, sli, gnop, enz.) is veel

The idea that using an easily accessible 'register' or vocabulary can influence retention is shared by several authors. Cook (1989) gives the following example of making a complex sentence easier to understand:

> Both comprehension and retention can be increased by following the same rules.
> […]
> *Complex:*
> I wish to underscore the necessity of adopting a frugal mentality.
> *Simpler:*
> I want to stress the need for greater care in spending.
> *Simpler Yet:*
> We've got to be more careful about how we spend our money. [p. 96]

Detz (1984, pp. 49–50) quotes Mark Twain, who revealed that he rather used "city" and "cop" instead of "metropolis" and "policewoman": "If most of your words have three, four, or (God forbid) five syllables, your writing will be too weak to impress your audience." Additional advantages of simple language are that it is usually shorter, and that one will still receive the same price if one is paid by the word—according to Twain (in Detz, 1984). Noonan (1999) rigorously refutes the riposte that simple language is not eloquent. She cites part of a speech from the film *The Godfather part II*, which is short and to the point, and states:

> It is simple, unadorned, direct, declarative. There isn't anything in it that is "eloquent", and yet taken as a whole it is deeply eloquent: It tells you something big in an unforgettable way. [p. 50]

2.5.22 Systematic order

To aid the audience in remembering important information, the speaker should provide a logical, comprehensible structure of the presentation. According to 17.5% of the authors in the overall corpus, such a 'systematic order' of a speech can increase retention (English-language sub-corpus: 10%, Dutch-language sub-corpus: 25%).[143]

According to quite a few authors a systematic order will enable the audience to follow the storyline and allows them to see the coherence between key points, which causes a possible retention effect. Interestingly, in the Dutch-language corpus a specific variant of the systematic order is found: the 'kapstok' (literally: hall stand

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moeilijker dan van bestaande woorden. Mensen kunnen twee tot vijf keer zo goed normale zinnen onthouden als onzinzinnen (b.v. 'rijke potloden hebben snuiten geleerd'! (Marks & Miller, 1964). Dat is een argument voor iedere spreker - en zeker van belang voor de meer geleerde - om begrijpelijke taal te gebruiken."

[143] *English-language sub-corpus:* Ross (1980), Cook (1989), Rozakis (1995), Naistadt (2004); *Dutch-language sub-corpus:* Krusche (1986), Luijk (1987), Van der Meiden (1991), Claasen-Van Wirdum et al. (1992), Bloch (1995), Braas (2001), Cornelis (2002), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Steehouder et al. (2006), Van der Horst (2007).

or coat rack, more generally translated as 'something to hold on to'). Some authors already offer some templates for a logical order.

Enabling the audience to connect the key points

A systematic order helps the audience to understand the relationship between key points and the main message. Ross (1980, p. 190) supports this view with a reference to a study which, according to him, shows that "audiences listening to well-organised speeches score higher on retention tests than audiences hearing poorly organised speeches"—with the nuance of "other things being equal".[144] Ross stresses that a systematic order can be useful for both the audience and the speaker:

> A well-organised message and outline should help give you the confidence that results from the knowledge that you have done your homework and that you have a system. The systematic structure should make it easier for you to remember your material and easier for the audience to understand and retain it. [p. 127]

Quite a few authors refer to the limited human capacity to process information to explain why a systematic order is an effective retention strategy. Cornelis (2002) explains that speakers should categorise the information and create patterns as a memory aid for the audience, also on the level of overall speech structure.[145] Speakers should not rely on listeners to deduce such patterns and make logical connections themselves, Claasen-Van Wirdum et al. claim (1992, p. 255). As soon as listeners are trying to do so, they will no longer have attention for the speech. Therefore, speakers should design a "building plan" for an informative speech, draw up a clear structure and provide enough reference words and connecting sentences to allow the main points to "stick better".

Van der Meiden (1991, p. 10) adds a historical perspective to the effectiveness of a systematic order: the eras in which rhetoric and science "flourished" were characterised with a strong emphasis on the spoken and written word, as opposed to our current "massive visual culture". Most performances were "live", which caused speakers see the importance of a clear structure and to stress that structure of their story in a speech. This way the "subject matter would be easier to remember". The speaker could still employ structural varieties, but the "building" would "remain intact". It is not quite clear whether he feels that speeches still benefit this much from such a structure nowadays.

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[144] Ross (1980, p. 190) refers to Thompson (1960) as one of the studies that support this advice.

[145] Here, the similarity of 'systematic order' and 'chunking' (Section 2.5.6 becomes evident. As a nuance, chunking appears to be more related to the process of information selection, whereas systematic order is more about a logical organisation of the key points. Still, authors also refer to a logical order when they discuss chunking. Both techniques underline the importance of organisation as an overarching rhetorical retention principle.

Offering the audience a 'kapstok'

In the Dutch-language corpus, four authors mention what seems to be a specific form or interpretation of a systematic order: offering the audience a *kapstok* (literally a hall stand or coat rack, in English).[146] In short, it means that the speaker gives the audience a few mental 'hooks' to 'hang the speech to'. Wiertzema and Jansen (2004, p. 48) explain that people "cannot absorb 'new' information limitlessly". They state that the relationship between "old" (familiar) and "new" knowledge in a speech should be 70% to 30%. The audience can use the old knowledge as a "kapstok" to understand and interpret new information.

Cornelis (2002) uses the term when explaining the importance of a clear speech structure:

> A good structure takes into account how people absorb and process information. […] Hence, structuring means combining the elements, the information. You can organise these by putting together what belongs together and labelling their coherence. You can consider such 'overarching' message as the 'kapstok' the details hang on to. In jargon, it is also called 'synthesis'. [p. 23][147]

She explains that the "kapstok" of a story is not the same as its summary: "… a summary is a collection of miniature jackets; without a coat rack, they would fall to the floor" (Cornelis, 2002, p. 23).[148] Bloch (1995, p. 83) connects this technique to the main message of the speech: once a speaker has established what message the audience needs to "take away", it needs "stepping stones" or a "carrier". Bloch explains this idea with a few examples, such as the following:

> Situation: Saturday afternoon before the official opening of the Floriade [large agricultural/horticultural exhibition]. I have the task to harmoniously motivate all employees.
> I start by sweeping the floor with a broom and telling the story of my recent visit to Cape Kennedy. In a huge hangar I bump into a man who is sweeping that large space all by himself. "What are you doing?" "Can't you see I am busy helping or astronauts to set foot on the moon?" The 'kapstok' is a combination of the broom (a visual element) and the words (an auditive element). At the end of my presentation I

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[146] Bloch (1995), Cornelis (2002), Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Steehouder et al. (2006).

[147] Cornelis (2002, p. 23): "Een goede structuur houdt rekening met de manier waarop mensen informatie tot zich nemen en verwerken […] Structureren betekent dus het samennemen van de elementen, de gegevens. Je ordent deze door bij elkaar te zetten wat bij elkaar hoort en de samenhang te benoemen. Die overkoepelende boodschap kun je beschouwen als de 'kapstok' waaraan de details hangen. De vakterm ervoor is ook weI 'synthese'."

[148] Cornelis (2002, p. 23): "Een kapstok is dus niet hetzelfde als een samenvatting. Een samenvatting zou slechts een korte weergave van de resultaten zijn, juist zonder toevoeging van dat betekenisvolle kader. Om in de metafoor te blijven: een samenvatting is een verzameling verkleinde jasjes; zander kapstok vallen die op de grond."

> return to the broom, to indicate that everyone—from ticket salesperson to guide, from gardener to hostess—contributes to the success of the Floriade. [p. 83] [149]

Standard structures for a speech

Some authors do not only state that a logical structure could help to increase retention, but they also offer a few frequent structure templates. Rozakis (1995, p. 95) advises that "in order to help your audience understand your points and recall them with clarity and pleasure, you need to organise your speech into a recognisable and easy-to-follow pattern"; she discerns the largest variety of standard structures a speaker could adhere to, such as a chronological, numerical, spatial, cause-effect or topical order. Cook (1989) relies on the well-known philosopher Kant to provide the most effective structures for enhancing retention:

> Well, twentieth-century psychologists say Kant was right, at least to this extent: Information that comes to us pre-organised according to *when* things happen (time), *where* things happen (space), or *how* things happen (cause/effect) is much easier to understand and remember than information that is not organised at all. [p.71]

2.5.23 *Partitio*

The *partitio* can be described as the overview of the speech structure or indication of its main points, often provided in the introduction. It is considered to be a retention technique in twelve textbooks. Dutch-language authors advise the *partitio* more often than their English-langue counterparts: the technique is connected to retention in 17.5% and 12.5% of the respective sub-corpora.[150] Remarkably, most English-language textbooks that refer to the *partitio* as a retention technique are published between 1983 and 1995, whereas most Dutch-language textbooks are from a more recent period (2002-2008). The technique seems to be closely related to 'chunking' (see Section 2.5.6) and 'systematic order' (see Section 2.5.22).[151]

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[149] Bloch (1995, p. 83): "Situatie: de zaterdagmiddag voor de officiële opening van de Floriade. Aan mij de taak om het voltallige personeel eensgezind te motiveren. Ik begin door met een bezem het podium te vegen, en het verhaal te vertellen over mijn recent bezoek aan Cape Kennedy. In een enorme hangar kom ik een man tegen die in z'n eentje die grote ruimte veegt. 'Wat bent u aan het doen?' 'Ziet u niet dat ik bezig ben te helpen onze astronauten op de maan te zetten?' De kapstok is een combinatie van bezem (een visueel element) en woorden (het auditieve element). Aan het einde van mijn presentatie kom ik terug met de bezem, om aan te geven dat iedereen – van kaartjesverkoper tot gids, van tuinman tot gastvrouw – een steentje bijdraagt aan het succes van de Floriade."

[150] *English-language sub-corpus:* Ross (1980), Lucas (1989), Walters (1993), Rozakis (1995), Verderber (2000); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Palm-Hoebé & Palm (1989), Bloch (1995), Janssen et al. (2002), Jansen et al. (2004), Hertz (2005), Van der Horst (2007), Gerritsen (2008)

[151] The retention techniques *partitio*, 'chunking' and 'systematic order' are related, as they all emphasise the importance of the organisation of a speech. However, while chunking and

Tell them what you are going to tell them

Textbook authors often link this technique to the well-known three-step "Tell them" principle, to which Lucas (1989) refers in the following fragment:

> …follow the old maxim: '"Tell 'em what you're going to say; say it; then tell 'em what you've said." In other words, preview the main points of your speech in the introduction, and summarise them in the conclusion. This will make your speech not only easier to understand but also easier to remember. [p. 284]

Four more authors refer to this adage, in which the *partitio* is the first of the three steps.[152] Among those authors is Hertz (2005), who also explains why announcing the main points and repeating them throughout the presentation is very important—even though it might seem superfluous:

> … listeners find it very difficult to follow the main storyline well and remember what is told when all that is offered is spoken information. [p. 19] [153]

Part of the introduction

Not surprisingly, the *partitio* is closely linked to the introduction of the speech. Nine authors explicitly make that connection.[154] In classical rhetoric, the *partitio* was one of the techniques to fulfil the *docilem* function in the introduction (enabling the audience to understand the core of the presentation, cf. Andeweg & De Jong, 2004). Gerritsen (2008) is the only advisor to use this classical jargon:

> The second element of the *docilem* is the presentation of the organisation; this means you will tell how the presentation is structured. Preferably use a slide for this, as with visual support the organisation will better stick with your audience. [p. 38][155]

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systematic order deal with the general structure principles 'categorising related bits of information into main points' and 'logically ordering main points', the *partitio* is specifically concerned with the explicit announcement of those key points or the speech structure, preferably in the introduction.

[152] The final step, "tell them what you told them", is often used to describe the retention technique 'summary' (see Section 2.5.3).

[153] Hertz (2005, p. 19): "…dat het voor toehoorders heel moeilijk is om de draad van het verhaal goed te volgen en te onthouden wat er wordt verteld, als ze alleen gesproken informatie aangeboden krijgen."

[154] Ross (1980), Lucas (1989), Walters (1993), Bloch (1995), Rozakis (1995), Verderber (2000), Jansen et al. (2004), Van der Horst (2007), Gerritsen (2008).

[155] Gerritsen (2008, p. 38): "Het tweede element van het docilem is de presentatie van de opzet, dit houdt in dat je vertelt hoe je presentatie is opgebouwd. Gebruik hierbij bij voorkeur een dia, want met visuele ondersteuning blijft de opzet beter bij je publiek hangen."

Although Gerritsen refers to such a classical introductory function, she links the retention quality of the *partitio* to the modern presentation strategy of visual support. Gerritsen is not alone in this: Hilgers & Vriens (2003) also suggest that a visual display of the main points might increase retention.

Warning

Not all authors agree that announcing the key points of the presentation in the introduction helps the audience to remember them. Angenent & Van Vilsteren (1998) are outspoken in their warning against using the *partitio*:

> Don't use the introduction to tell how the presentation is structured. It is boring to tell and the audience will not remember it anyway. [p. 74][156]

However, Gerritsen (2008) has anticipated this objection against the use of the *partitio* and confidently refutes it:

> Experienced speakers sometimes think that presenting the structure is 'didactic'. They feel a well-structured presentation does not need to be introduced with an explicit overview of its structure. Practice shows otherwise. I have never experienced that the audience could follow the presentation effortlessly whenever the structure was not indicated in advance, even if the presentation was clear in terms of structure. The essence is that, apart from the goal, the audience also needs a 'stepping stone' when listening. The concrete expectation of what is to come, makes it easier to follow and remember the story. [p. 38][157]

Bloch (1995), finally, states that an effective structure overview should be not be too extensive:

> Provide the tenor of your talk in a short sentence.
> Take the following metaphor: "Today, we will drive our black company vehicle from Groningen to Venlo, and we will go via Den Bosch [three Dutch towns]"
> The inexperienced speaker would already explain in the introduction how he would get into the car, start the engine, turn left here and right there, before stopping to get some coffee… Anyway, all unnecessary

[156] Angenent & Van Vilsteren (1998, p. 74): "Gebruik de inleiding niet om te vertellen hoe de presentatie is opgebouwd. Dat is namelijk saai om te vertellen en het publiek onthoudt dat toch niet."

[157] Gerritsen (2008, p. 38): "Ervaren sprekers vinden soms dat het weergeven van de opzet 'schools' is. Zij vinden dat een goed opgebouwde presentatie niet hoeft te worden ingeleid met een expliciete aanduiding van de opzet. De praktijk weerspiegelt dit echter. Ik heb nog nooit meegemaakt dat het publiek de presentatie moeiteloos kon volgen als vooraf de opzet niet wat aangegeven, hoe helder de presentatie qua structuur ook was. De crux is dat het publiek naast het doel als kapstok bij het luisteren ook de opzet nodig heeft. De concrete verwachting over wat gaat komen, maakt het eenvoudiger het verhaal te volgen en te onthouden."

> and superfluous. Who would remember? Allow yourself the freedom to change course while you talk. A concise overview offers this possibility. [p. 74][158]

2.5.24 Clear message

To make sure that the audience will retain the main information, the speaker needs to determine a clear message of the presentation—this is a paraphrase of the advice that was found in seven textbooks (English-language textbooks: 5%, Dutch-language textbooks: 12.5%).[159] Two views on determining a clear message can roughly be found in the advice: the first is oriented on the selection of the most important information, the second is focused on the formulation of the main message.

Selection of information

The orientation on the need for the speaker to select key information is mainly found in the Dutch-language textbooks. Eckhardt and IJzermans (1994) describe it as follows:

> …it is important that you clearly establish which purpose you prioritize. If you emphasise the transfer of information, you will have to choose what information should be most important. A selection is necessary, because the human ability to absorb and the memory are limited. [p. 20][160]

Tonckens (1985), Bloch (1995), Wagenaar (1996) and Braas (2001) discuss similar advice. Wagenaar (1996) is most specific and states that a speaker should never present more than two basic ideas in a presentation. Braas (2001) provides the reader with a simple rule of thumb for selecting the key message:

> You should be able to formulate the answer to your central question in a few sentences: it represents the core idea of your presentation. Moreover, it indicates what listeners should have remembered afterwards at the very least. [p. 25]

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[158] Bloch (1995, p. 74): "Geef in een korte zin de strekking van uw presentatie aan. Bij wijze van metafoor: 'Vandaag rijden we in onze zwarte bedrijfsauto van Groningen naar Venlo, en wel over Den Bosch. De onervaren spreker zou tijdens zijn inleiding al vertellen hoe hij de auto instapt, hem start, hier linksaf slaat, daar rechtsaf, waar hij stopt voor een kopje koffie... Enfin, allemaal onnodig en overbodig. Wie onthoudt het? Gun uzelf de vrijheid om van koers te veranderen terwijl u praat. Een beknopt overzicht biedt deze mogelijkheid."

[159] *English-language sub-corpus*: Allen (1987), Walters (1993); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Tonckens (1985), Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994), Bloch (1995), Wagenaar (1996), Braas (2001).

[160] Eckhardt & IJzermans (1994, p. 25): "……is het belangrijk dat u duidelijk vaststelt welke doelstelling u voorop wilt stellen. Als u de nadruk legt op informatie-overdracht, zult u moeten kiezen welke informatie er uit moet springen. Een selectie is nodig, omdat het menselijke opnamevermogen en het geheugen beperkt zijn."

Formulation of the main message

The English-language authors—Allen (1987) and Walters (1993)—are not so much concerned with the way to select a main message, but rather focus on its "clear" or "simple" formulation. Allen (1987) explicitly connects the clarity of the message to human memory:

> Sometimes members of your audience won't seem to get any of what you are saying. Others may retrieve it correctly at the moment, but the human memory is so poor that only minutes later several components of the message will have simply been lost and no longer available to a listener's consciousness.
> […]
> To return to our point: Since your message is going to have to get through a number of psychological roadblocks, you would be well advised to keep the message itself as clear as possible. [pp. 40–41]

For Walters (1993), it is all about keeping it simple. She explains that 'simplicity' is connected to memorability and clarity, and emphasises in clear lists of three that the word 'simple' should have a positive meaning:

> They will remember your talk, if they can. So make sure they can. Try the "kiss" system: keep it sweet and simple. Simple does not mean insignificant, foolish, or childish. It means memorable, clear, and understandable.
> […] People will remember what you have to say if you just make it so *incredibly simple* that they *can* remember it. [p. 54]

2.5.25 *Propositio*

In classical rhetoric, the *propositio* formed an important part of the speech order. The *propositio* was considered to be the central thesis of the speech around which the remainder of the speech revolved and for which the speaker provided arguments. This rhetorical strategy is connected to retention in 7.5% of the overall corpus modern public-speaking textbooks (both in the English-language and Dutch-language textbooks: 7.5%).[161] The modern terminology for techniques similar to the *propositio* varies, but it is often referred to as 'central idea' or 'purpose statement'.

Wilson and Arnold (1983) explain that stating a purpose or central idea has been shown to positively affect retention:

> All experiments testing what happens when speakers assert their central ideas and purposes in so many words show that this practice helped the listeners to understand and retain what they heard. l This argues that you ought to tell your listeners exactly what your purpose is, unless

[161] *English-language sub-corpus*: Wilson & Arnold (1983), Walters (1993), Khan-Panni (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Oomkes (2000), Braas e.a. (2001), IJzermans & Van Schaaijk (2003).

> more will be lost than gained from early revelation of your central idea. [p. 109]

The important role that is attributed to the purpose statement suggests that the speakers should take enough time to formulate the main idea of the presentation when they prepare their presentation. Walters (1993, p. 54) states that, as a speaker, "you need to make a decision on what you want them to *remember*". That decision will then evolve into a purpose statement:

> First decide what your mission is—what you want your listeners to do differently after they hear you. What main thought *must* they remember to accomplish that? That is the core of your presentation. [p. 54]

After formulating the central idea, the speaker needs to decide where in the speech to include it. What is the preferred position for the *propositio* or purpose statement? The retention advice on the *propositio* shows that it can be included in the entire speech, with a preference for the introduction and conclusion. IJzermans and Van Schaaijk (2003, p. 131) refer to Wagenaar (1996), who claims that it is best to start a presentation with the conclusion of a study, as "that is the core of the message and it is most important that this message will stick".[162,163] As an answer to the question "what do you want them to remember and apply?", Khan-Panni (2009, p. 71) advises to "write down your core message and refer to it constantly". Oomkes (2000, p. 270), treats the *propositio*—in relation to retention—as a concluding technique. He states that the audience usually recalls the concluding part best, and therefore a speaker can wrap-up with "a sentence that represents the contents of the purpose statement and possibly with a playful or humoristic paraphrase of such purpose statement".[164]

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[162] IJzermans & Van Schaaijk (2003, p. 131): "Volgens Wagenaar kan een wetenschappelijke voordracht het best beginnen met de conclusie van uw onderzoek. Dat is immers de kern van de boodschap en het belangrijkste is dat deze kern blijft hangen."

[163] The quotation by IJzermans & Van Schaaijk (2003) shows that the retention advice on the *propositio* needs to be treated with nuance and that the technique's effect might depend on various factors. For one, genre seems to be important: in the quotation, it is advised to start a presentation with the conclusion of a study, which then should be treated as the core message. That points to the genre of informative or—more specific—research presentations. However, in another presentation genre, e.g. in a persuasive context, it might not be advised to start with the conclusion or core message. Furthermore, it shows that the definitions of purpose statement and core message are closely related and sometimes seem to overlap, as a quotation from Khan-Panni (2009, p. 72) underlines: "the core message is a single sentence that summarises your speech or presentation and states your main purpose". However, a purpose statement does not always have to be similar to the concluding statement of the presentation. The purpose of a presentation could be announced in the introduction as "the intention to answer main question X", whereas the conclusion would be the actual answer to such main question. This shows that definitions of specific rhetorical techniques are not always clear and can vary per advisor.

[164] Oomkes (2000, p. 270): "Sluit dan de lezing af met een zin, die de inhoud van de doelzin weergeeft en eventueel met een speelse of humouristische parafrase daarvan."

The *propositio* is not connected to retention very frequently, which can be seen as remarkable considering its historical significance and the outspoken way in which some authors stress its retention effects. The overlap between the *propositio* and retention techniques as ‘summary’, ‘repetition’ and ‘clear message’ (see Sections 2.5.3, 2.5.4 and 2.5.24, respectively) might account for this. In the summary, it is often advised to repeat the core message of the speech. The current section discusses advice that is dedicated to the *propositio* as a ‘stand-alone’ technique; in such advice, it is not categorised as part of another, related retention technique.

2.6 Warnings (*vitia*): how information retention can be hindered

Next to advice on techniques that can positively influence retention, authors also regularly issue warnings about how audience information retention can be hindered (*vitia*, in classical rhetorical terms). As Andeweg & De Jong (2004) described in their study into speech introductions, warnings are conceptually closely related to techniques. The didactic function of warnings can be described as making readers more sensitive for the limitations of a technique and for the circumstances in which it can be applied effectively. This way, the discussion of *vitia* shows that public speaking can be an exercise for a speaker in preparing a balanced speech.

Section 2.6.1 first presents a general overview of the warnings that are most frequently mentioned connected to audience information retention. For the retention techniques to which it applied (such as visual aids or humour), relevant warnings were already discussed in Section 2.5. Therefore, the sections that follow discuss warnings which could not (completely) be connected to specific rhetorical techniques that are discussed in Section 2.5: information overload (Section 2.6.2), ineffective conclusions (Section 2.6.3), complex language use (Section 2.6.4), and two warnings less frequently given: ineffective delivery skills and ineffective use of style (Section 2.6.5). Appendix A.5 contains a collection of textbooks fragments related to one specific warning (information overload), to give an impression of all text fragments related to a single warning.

2.6.1 Overview of most frequent warnings

The most important warnings are listed in table 2.3 and can be characterised as ineffective variants of some of the most important techniques advised in the overall corpus (see Section 2.4.2): an ineffective use of visual aids and an ineffective structure and organisation (information overload, ineffective conclusion). The warning categories ‘ineffective conclusion’ and ‘ineffective visual aids’ contain various subtypes of warnings. Some textbooks contain references to multiple subtypes. Table 2.3 also shows that the techniques which are specifically related to one of the sub-corpora (e.g. ‘humour’ in the English-language sub-corpus or ‘clear message’ in the Dutch-language sub-corpus) have their counterparts in the most frequent types of warnings per sub-corpus (‘ineffective use of humour’, ‘complex language’).

Table 2.3: Overview of most frequent warnings in the total corpus of public-speaking textbooks from the period 1980–2009 (N= 80). See Appendix A.5 for a complete overview.

English-language textbooks 1980–2009 (N=40)			**Dutch-language textbooks 1980–2009 (N=40)**		
Vitia	**%***	**Text-books**	***Vitia***	**%***	**Text-books**
Information overload	**50**	**20**	Ineffective use of visual aids	**17.5**	**7**
Ineffective use of visual aids	**35**	**14**	*Visuals: distraction*	12.5	5
Visuals: distraction	32.5	13	*Visuals: dominance*	7.5	3
Visuals: legibility	27.5	11	Complex language	**17.5**	**7**
Visuals: complexity	22.5	9	Information overload	**15**	**6**
Visuals: loss of contact with audience	22.5	9	Ineffective conclusion	**10**	**4**
Visuals: dominance	20	8	*New information in conclusion*	7.5	3
Visuals: sloppiness	12.5	5	*Abrupt ending*	5	2
Visuals: boring	10	4	Focus on details	7.5	3
Visuals: ineffective variant	7.5	3	Speech is too long	**5**	**2**
Visuals: no variation in titles	2.5	1	Unbalanced time distribution	**5**	**2**
Ineffective conclusion	**32.5**	**13**	*Partitio*	**2.5**	**1**
Postponed ending	22.5	9	Ineffective delivery skills (reading the speech)	**2.5**	**1**
Abrupt ending	15	6	Using jargon	**2.5**	**1**
Details in conclusion	10	4	Euphemisms	**2.5**	**1**
Summary	2.5	1	Abbreviations	**2.5**	**1**
Announcement of the conclusion	2.5	1	Non-supportive language	**2.5**	**1**
Ineffective delivery skills	**17.5**	**7**			
Ineffective use of humour	**12.5**	**5**			
Ineffective use of style and figures of speech	**7.5**	**3**			

* Bold-faced are the frequencies for the main categories of warnings. The warning categories 'ineffective conclusion' and 'ineffective visual aids' contain various subtypes of warnings; the frequency for the main category is based on the number of textbooks that contain at least one warning related to that main category. Some textbooks contain references to multiple subtypes of the main categories 'ineffective visual aids' and 'ineffective conclusion'. For a complete overview of the *vitia* and examples of fragments from the corpus related to a specific type of warning, see Appendix A.5.

Table 2.3 indicates differences between the corpora as well. First of all, it shows a difference in quantity: the English-language sub-corpus contains more warnings, which is probably related to the fact that a larger part of the English-language sub-corpus is devoted to retention (see Section 2.4.1). In line with this, the English-language sub-corpus contains a greater diversity of warnings. An example is the category 'ineffective use of visual aids': while the English-language sub-corpus discusses nine variants, the Dutch-language sub-corpus only refers to two subtypes of warnings.

2.6.2 Information overload

The most important retention-related warning that was found in the corpus of textbooks is not to overload your audience with information (32.5% of the overall corpus; English-language sub-corpus: 50%, Dutch-language sub-corpus: 15%).[165] Roughly, two subtypes of information overload warnings can be distinguished: a general warning against using too much information in the speech and a more specific warning against using too many main points in the speech. Both are addressed in this section.

Too much information in general

Authors who warn against information overload usually make a general remark on the danger of a knowledge overflow. Ehninger et al. (1980) pour this idea into a paragraph that is quite representative for similar warnings by other authors:

> Whatever form you speech takes, however, your purpose remains the same: to help the audience grasp and remember important data and ideas about your subject. Hence, you should not view an informative speech as an opportunity to parade your knowledge; nor should you try to see how much ground you can cover in a given period of time. Rather, you should concentrate on securing understanding and on presenting materials in such a way that they will remain firmly planted in listeners' minds. [pp. 274–275]

Atkinson (2004, p. 95) underlines the significance of this warning by calling it "the biggest single problem I have come across since starting to study speeches and presentations". Audiences that are "subjected to massive and painful information overload" will "at best, […] retain no more than a fraction of what was said" and "at worst […] give up making the effort to pay attention altogether, fall asleep and end up no wiser than they were at the start" (Atkinson, 2004, p. 95).

Two authors use the metaphor of a bombardment in this respect. Van der Spek (1998, p. 5) states that a speaker should "limit the information on offer"; a presentation should be aimed at making an audience "understand, accept and

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[165] *English-language sub-corpus*: Carnegie & Carnegie (1977), Walter & Scott (1979), Ehninger et al. (1980), Ross (1980), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Cook (1989), Lucas (1989), Walters (1993), Rozakis (1995), Simmons (1996), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Urech (1998), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), DeVito (2003), Booher (2003), Naistadt (2004), Atkinson (2004), Khan-Panni (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Bloch (1991), Wagenaar (1996), Angenent & Van Vilsteren (1998), Van der Spek (1998), Hertz (2005), Gerritsen (2008).

remember" a single proposition which is supported by "two or three arguments", and an "information bombardment is not the road to follow" (Van der Spek, 1998, p. 5).[166] Booher (2003, p. 73) focuses on statistics and states that a speaker should be "wary of using too many", as "bombarding your listeners with numbers confuses them, reducing their chances of recalling any".

Too many main points

Authors in the English-language sub-corpus seem to particularly advise against using too many main points. This type of warning is closely related to the retention advice on the techniques 'chunking' (2.5.6) and 'systematic order' (2.5.22); most authors discuss it together with the advice to be selective in choosing key points or to turn a list of many sub points into a limited number of main ideas.

Interestingly, this warning can be found across the whole English-language sub-corpus, spanning all three decades studied. Carnegie & Carnegie (1977) give a detailed example of how overloading your talk with information can lead to an unfeasible and undesirable presentation situation:

> In one of his talks to teachers, Professor William James pauses to remark that one can make only one point in a lecture, and the lecture he referred to lasted an hour. Yet I recently heard a speaker, who was limited by a stop watch to three minutes, begin by saying that he wanted to call our attention to eleven points. Sixteen and a half seconds to each phase of his subject! […] If, for example, you are to speak on Labor Unions, do not attempt to tell us in three or six minutes why they came into existence, the methods they employ, the good they have accomplished, the evil they have wrought, and how to solve industrial disputes. No, no; if you strive to do that, no one will have a clear conception of what you have said. It will be all confused, a blur, too sketchy, too much of a mere outline. Wouldn't it be the part of wisdom to take one phase, and one phase only, of labor unions, and cover that adequately and illustrate it? It would. That kind of talk leaves a single impression. It is lucid, easy to listen to, easy to remember. [pp. 120–121]

One of the more recent works in the English-language sub-corpus, Naistadt (2004), provides a similar warning and vividly sketches the listeners' mood and condition when they are subjected to an overloaded message:

> A client of mine had to give an update on departmental progress to the president and CEO of his organisation. I was invited to listen to a demonstration of the presentation and provide feedback. The presentation was to last twenty minutes and, in that time, cover all of

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[166] Van der Spek (1998, p. 5): "Beperk de informatie die u wilt aanbieden. Een duidelijke stelling, geschraagd door twee of drie argumenten, is meestal al voldoende voor een toespraak. Uw presentatie moet erop gericht zijn dat de toehoorders die ene stelling begrijpen, accepteren en onthouden. Een informatiebombardement is daarvoor niet de aangewezen weg."

> the department's achievements (approximately fifty) over the past year, and go through each one. After the first few, I became distracted. After the tenth I found myself trying to keep my eyelids from visibly drooping. By the time the demonstration was finished, I had mentally itemized all of my Christmas gifts, birthday presents, and vacation plans for the upcoming year! It was impossible to remain engaged, an although the department had indeed accomplished much to be proud of, I had no idea what was truly important. The message was lost in the details. […] We are on information overload and cannot process, let alone remember, all that you may want to give us, which is all the more reason why you have to be selective and make it easy for us to digest your ideas. [pp. 112–114]

The examples by Carnegie and Carnegie (1977), Naistadt (2004) and most other authors who warn against using too many points show that the consequences could be serious: the audience is hardly able to absorb any information and it will not be able to take home the presentation's main message.

2.6.3 Ineffective conclusion

The importance of the conclusion as a part of the speech in which retention can be influenced was highlighted in Section 2.4.2. It is also reflected in the number of warnings about ineffective conclusions. In just over 21% of the corpus, authors warn against an ineffectively executed conclusion (English-language sub-corpus: 32.5%, Dutch-language corpus: 10%).[167] A speaker can ineffectively conclude a speech in various ways: by postponing the conclusion, by ending abruptly, or by including details or new information in the conclusion.[168]

Postponing the conclusion

Ten authors recommend not to postpone the conclusion (12.5%; English-language sub-corpus: 22.5%, Dutch-language corpus: 2.5%).[169] Kenny (1982) and Rozakis

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[167] *English-language sub-corpus*: Carnegie & Carnegie (1977), Ehninger et al. (1980), Kenny (1982), Wilson & Arnold (1983), Rozakis (1995), Simmons (1996), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Urech (1998), Gurak (2000), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), Anholt (2006), Tracy (2008); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Steehouder et al. (2006), Van der Horst (2007), Witt (2009).

[168] When discussing the conclusion, most authors include a general remark about the conclusion's aptness to make a memorable statement. The warnings are often treated in the same section or chapter, which suggests that an ineffective conclusion will consequently not positively influence audience retention—according to the authors. This should be kept in mind reading the textbook quotations in this section: to quotations that do not contain a direct reference to retention, it applies that a general remark on the connection between conclusion and retention was already made in the textbook.

[169] *English-language sub-orpus*: Carnegie & Carnegie (1977), Ehninger et al. (1980), Kenny (1982), Rozakis (1995), Simmons (1996), Urech (1998), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), Anholt (2006); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Witt (2009).

(1995) call this phenomenon the "false ending". Rozakis (1995) explains how it works and why it can have such a negative effect:

> Few things annoy an audience as much as a false ending. Sensing that the speech is coming to a close, the audience begins to gather up its psychological and physical belongings only to find that the speaker has taken a deep breath and started anew. False endings cheat the audience and destroy much of the effect of a speech. An effective conclusion ties together all the strands of your speech while telegraphing to the audience that the end is indeed in sight. [p. 136]

Kenny (1982) agrees that "If you have already said 'and finally…' three times", a speaker should not be "surprised if some of the audience are already chatting among themselves."

Urech (1998) compares conclusions of speeches with endings in "real life":

> Don't end by saying, "In conclusion" and then not concluding. Endings are tough. In speeches as well as in real life. Far too many speakers just do not know how to get those final words out. They wander farther and farther down the path of indecisiveness hoping against hope that someone or something will intervene. These are the same people who linger at your front door after a dinner party and cannot bring themselves to say "good night" and leave. [p. 28]

McConnon (2002, p. 50) can relate to Urech's comparison and describes the situation of a postponed ending as a speaker "who can't get the landing gear down" and therefore "keeps looping".

Anholt (2006, p. 64) suggests that such postponed endings could also be linked to problems with the organisation of the speech: the speaker cannot select the main points to address in the conclusion and ends up including "a diverse array of conclusions" which is "impossible for an audience to absorb". Anholt also gives a clear account of audience behaviour that can be the result of an ineffective conclusion: "They started to look at their watches, and some sheepishly sneaked out of the room when the speaker turned toward the screen" (2006, p. 66).

Abrupt ending

At the other end of the scale are presentations that do not contain a conclusion at all, or in which speakers do not clearly indicate to the audience that the concluding part has started. Such presentations often end abruptly, leaving the audience "startled" (Verderber, 2000, p. 126). Such an abrupt ending is considered as a missed opportunity to influence retention. Overall, nine authors warn against such a sudden ending (a little over 11% in the overall corpus; English-language sub-corpus: 15%, Dutch-language sub-corpus: 7.5%).[170]

McConnon (2002, p. 50) observes that abrupt endings by speakers are often accompanied by a so-called "emergency stop": "you can almost hear the screech of the brakes as he or she says: *It's 4 o'clock. That's all I have time for. So I'll stop.*" Gurak (2000, p. 75) recognises the practice of speakers who suddenly end with an uninspired final sentence: "all too often, a presenter will give an excellent introduction and a great presentation but then fall flat at the end saying something such as 'Well, that's all I have for you today'".

Osborn and Osborn (1997, p. 228) suggest that an abrupt ending is a common problem for inexperienced speakers, who often "end their presentations awkwardly". "Saying 'That's it, I guess' or 'Well, I'm done,' accompanied by a sigh of relief, suggests that you have not planned your speech very carefully" and such endings "violate the audience's need for closure" (Osborn & Osborn, 1997, p. 228). Steehouder et al. (2006, p. 280) also connect the abrupt ending phenomenon to poor planning and preparation, which could lead to a speaker uttering "'that's it', or a similar cliché".[171]

Details and new information in the conclusion

According to Kenny (1982, p. 37), in order for the listeners to remember the concluding remarks "to their dying days", speakers should "resist the temptation to add something extra". This means that a speaker should not "thank the audience" or "offer any apologies of any kind" (Kenny, 1982, p.37). Three other authors agree that speakers should not include details such as extensive acknowledgements in the conclusion (5% of the overall corpus; all English-language authors).[172] Anholt (2006, p. 65) prefers "to show the names of […] collaborators on slides just before I discuss their contributions to the overall work", in order to "prevent the credits from diluting your final take-home message".

Remarkably, while the warning not to include distracting details in the conclusion is only discussed in the English-language sub-corpus, the warning against adding new information in the conclusion is only treated by Dutch-language textbooks (just under 4% of the overall corpus, 7.5% in the Dutch-language corpus). Wiertzema and Jansen (2004), Van der Horst (2007) and Witt (2009) all state that the conclusion is the part of the speech that is remembered best, before adding a concise warning

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[170] *English-language sub-corpus*: Carnegie & Carnegie (1977), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gurak (2000), Verderber (2000), McConnon (2002), Tracy (2008); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Wiertzema & Jansen (2004), Steehouder et al. (2006), Witt (2009).

[171] Steehouder et al. (2006, p. 280): "Een goed slot blijft het best bij de toehoorders hangen. Om voldoende zeker te zijn dat er op dit punt niets verkeerd gaat, is het verstandig om ook het slot volledig uit te schrijven. Dat geldt in elk geval voor de uitsmijter: als u die niet van tevoren hebt bedacht, is de kans groot dat u op het moment van de presentatie niets meer weet te bedenken dan *'dat was het'* of een soortgelijk nietszeggend cliché."

[172] Wilson & Arnold (1983), Urech (1998) and Anholt (2006).

such as “the conclusion should never contain new subject matter or new arguments” (Wiertzema & Jansen, 2004, p. 61).[173]

2.6.4 Complex language

The *vitium* not to use complex language is more popular in the Dutch-language textbooks than in the English-language works (mentioned in 17.5% versus 10% of the sub-corpus, respectively).[174] This warning can roughly be divided into two subtypes: the use of complex, long sentences, and the use of incomprehensible words (e.g. jargon). It appears to be the counterpart of the technique ‘comprehensible language’ (Section 2.5.21).

Firstly, speakers who would like their message to be retained should not use complex sentences. Complexity is often connected to sentence length, as Detz’s quotation (1984) illustrates:

> Try this experiment: Take a sample page from your draft and count the number of words in each sentence. Write the numbers down and average them. If you average twenty or more words per sentence, you'd better start cutting. Why? Because an audience can't follow what you're saying if you put too many words in a sentence. Your message just gets lost. If you don't believe me, read your longest sentence aloud, then read your shortest sentence aloud. See which one is more powerful—and more memorable. [p. 62]

Kirchner (1983) and Hilgers & Vriens (2003) agree and point to the cognitive load of an audience: as they can only absorb a limited amount of information, audience members will only selectively remember information when long and complex sentences are used.

Complex language also refers to using a register that is not familiar to the audience, often labelled as ‘jargon’.[175] Walters (1993) explains why using jargon may hinder retention:

> One barrier to learning may be the presenter's use of unfamiliar terminology. We like to use big words so people will think we're smart. Unfortunately, your listeners don't want you to know just how

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[173] Wiertzema & Jansen (2004, p. 61): “Mensen onthouden van een presentatie het beste de dingen die zij het eerst en het laatst horen. Het middengedeelte wordt minder goed opgepakt. Daarom moeten in de afsluiting de belangrijkste punten van de kern kort maar krachtig worden herhaald. Het slot mag nooit nieuwe stof of nieuwe argumenten bevatten.”

[174] *English-language sub-corpus*: Carnegie & Carnegie (1977), Detz (1984), Walters (1993), McConnon (2002); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Kirchner (1983), Krusche (1986), Palm-Hoebé & Palm (1989), Oomkes (2000), Hilgers & Vriens (2003), Hertz (2005), Van der Horst (2007).

[175] Five textbooks advise against jargon: Detz (1984), Walters (1993), Oomkes (2000), Hertz (2005) and Van der Horst (2007).

> "unsmart" they are. They'll nod with a sage expression on their faces and a fog in their minds. [p. 5]

Van der Horst (2007, p. 67) adds that even when "playing a home game" speakers should be "careful using jargon".

2.6.5 Less frequent warnings: ineffective delivery skills and ineffective use of style

Finally, textbooks contain a few less frequent warnings regarding retention. This section discusses two of those: the warning categories 'ineffective delivery skills' and 'ineffective use of style and figures of speech'.

Ineffective delivery skills

Distracting the audience's attention from the main message by an ineffective delivery or appearance is mentioned as a *vitium* by 10% of the authors in the corpus.[176] Allen (1987) suggests that the audience's attention should be on the subject matter, not on the speaker as a person:

> If you are a blurt-it-all-out type, it may occur to you that you ought to let the audience know that you're nervous. I recommend against it. A comedian can do it, for his own unique purposes, but others ought to just get down to work and concentrate on the subject matter, not on self. Since the audience, too, ought to be attending to the subject matter, you should not deliberately distract them by making them think of you. Naturally they'll be reacting to your physical self, but after the speech you certainly won't want them to recall nothing but your nervousness, your hairdo, your attire, and your eyeglasses. You'll want them to recall what you said. [pp. 12–13]

In line with this example, Walters (1993, p. 106) quotes Judi Moreo—a well-known personal trainer/coach/speaker—who "watched a famous woman golfer speak once" that "carried a huge white handbag loaded with junk and plunked it on the lectern".[177] As Moreo puts it: "I don't remember a word she said, but I do remember the handbag". Other habits a speaker should avoid as they might distract the audience from the speech content are making too many or repetitive gestures (with a nervous tic as the ultimate problem), moving around too much or not varying the tone of voice (using a 'mechanical' intonation). Laskowksi (2001) and Khan-Panni (2009) pay most attention to these delivery issues.

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[176] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ross (1980), Kenny (1982), Wilder (1986), Allen (1987), Laskowski (2001), Anholt (2006), Khan-Panni (2009); *Dutch-language sub-corpus*: Wagenaar (1996).

[177] According to her personal website, Moreo is a "one of the most recognised personal growth trainers and coaches in the world." (Meet Judi. https://judimoreo.com/, retrieved October 3rd, 2018).

Ineffective use of style and figures of speech

An ineffective use of style and figures of speech could create a confusing or distracting effect as opposed to enhance retention. This warning is mentioned in 7.5% of the corpus, only in English-language textbooks.[178] Simmons (1996) highlights how antithesis and parallelism can be counterproductive:

> Both parallel structure and antithesis are effective techniques, but again, use them sparingly. Remember to only use these techniques on points or sections that are most important for your audience to remember. [p. 63]

Laskowski (2001, p. 124) states that an overuse of stylistic elements can "become distractions for your audience and may steer them away from listening to your message". Kenny (1982) does not mention specific stylistic techniques, but he explains that an inappropriate word choice can backfire:

> The result of trying to be informal can be disastrous. The address can degenerate into conversation, the audience will interrupt and talk among themselves, and the speaker can wander from his theme. Timing goes astray and the event is anything but memorable. [p. 122]

2.7 Support for advice and warnings: references and sources in the textbooks

Sections 2.4.2, 2.5 and 2.6 described the various retention techniques and warnings covered in the English-language and Dutch-language sub-corpora of public-speaking textbooks. It is not always easy to assess the value of recommendations and warnings: to what extent are they supported by references? To find out, the use of references in the public-speaking textbooks was included in the analysis. This section first discusses the number of references that were used (Section 2.7.1); next, it turns to the quality of the references and the way in which sources are integrated into the advice (Section 2.7.2).

2.7.1 Number of references

For each piece of advice or warning mentioned in the public-speaking textbooks, it was registered whether the authors referred to a source. The authors studied tend to use various types of sources, which differ in the extent to the information referred to can be verified. Four different types of references were distinguished: (1) academic sources, (2) other public-speaking textbooks, (3) 'third-party experiences' (e.g. the experience of a specific speaker, well-known or unknown—not the author) and (4) authors' personal presentation experiences. Academic sources can be considered most trustworthy and transparent in order to support public-speaking advice, when based on relevant studies. References other public-speaking textbooks can be checked and to some extent indicate agreement between authors, but the advice is usually not based

[178] *English-language sub-corpus*: Kenny (1982), Smith (1991), Simmons (1996), Sprague & Stuart (1996), Noonan (1999), Atkinson (2004).

on academic studies. References to a presentation experience of a third party and to the author’s personal experience are usually comparable to anecdotal evidence—they can be valuable, but are more difficult to verify.

Table 2.4 gives an overview of the total number of references used in the English-language and the Dutch-language sub-corpora. The number of references is broken down into the four types of references mentioned above. The forms of analysis in Appendix A.8 contain an overview of the reference use in each textbook.

Table 2.4: overview of the total number of references used in the English-language and the Dutch-language sub-corpora, and of the percentage of references related to the four source types distinguished. For each source type the percentage of textbooks in the total corpus or sub-corpus containing at least one reference to the source type concerned is represented.

Reference use when providing retention advice/warning	**Corpus overall (N=80)**	**English-language textbooks (N=40)**	**Dutch-language textbooks (N =40)**
Total number of references	257	241	16
% references to an academic source*	15.6%	12.0%	68.8%
% references to a public speaking textbook*	8.2%	8.7%	0
% references to a third-party experience*	69.6%	73.9%	6.2%
% references to personal experience (of the author(s))*	6.6%	5.4%	25%

* Percentage of textbooks in the (sub-)corpus that contain at least one reference to the source type concerned

Overall, in half the number of public-speaking textbooks at least one reference is given to support a recommendation or warning related to retention. A third-party experience is most frequently used as a reference, followed at some distance by references to academic sources. In absolute figures, quite a large gap exists between the number of academic sources and the number of references to a third-party’s experiences. Other public-speaking textbooks and the authors’ personal experiences are the source types that are least frequently used.

Within the two sub-corpora, a different pattern of reference use can be recognised. The English-language sub-corpus contains thirteen times as many references compared to the Dutch-language corpus. The Dutch-language authors do not seem to value references as highly as the English-language authors, although this claim should be nuanced when taking into account the number of pages dedicated to retention per sub-corpus (see Section 2.4.1). In the English-language sub-corpus, a reference is found in every two and a half pages dedicated to retention, as opposed to a reference in about every five pages in the Dutch-language sub-corpus. Dutch-language authors prefer references to academic sources. In doing so, they seem to be more selective than their English-language counterparts, who prefer references to other people's experiences. Still, the English-language sub-corpus contains a larger number of references to academic sources than the Dutch-language corpus (twenty-nine versus eleven).

2.7.2 Quality of references

Table 2.4 gives a general impression of the way in which sources are used, but it does not reveal the way in which authors apply references in their textbook. On one end of the spectrum, references are explicitly mentioned and highlighted, but on the other end of the spectrum, sources used are described in an abstract way. How are the various source types integrated into the public-speaking textbooks? This section explores that question by providing examples of reference use of the four source types that are distinguished.

References to academic sources

References to academic studies in the public-speaking textbooks are roughly applied in three ways: (1) a reference to author and year and (sometimes) the full reference in a reference list, resembling common academic practice, (2) an incomplete reference to one or a few source elements (e.g. author, place or research institution), and (3) a generic reference to 'studies' without any details of the source provided.[179]

First, an example is given of an extensive reference to an academic source. Here, Atkinson (2004) refers to the authors in the text and provides a complete reference in a footnote. Atkinson also uses the study's results to support his retention advice about the use of anecdotes:

> Anecdotes too can be used as illustrative examples to get key points across in a vivid and memorable way, a point that has been underlined by the results of research by Tim Clark and David Greatbatch* into presentations by business gurus such as Tom Peters, Rosabeth Moss Kanter and Gary Hamel. A main finding was that all of them make very extensive use of carefully selected stories, many of which are designed to prompt laughter from the audience. They show how the gurus play on the laughter to make the audience feel part of an 'in-group' that shares the line of criticism or praise being meted out by the speakers to different styles of management. And humour tends to be deployed at those points where an audience might disagree with them, so that it has

[179] Studies that are frequently referred to are Ehrensberger (1945) and Miller (1966) —not the most recent studies. Lucas (1989) provides the most complete references to various academic sources. He refers to Houston (1966) for the technique 'chunking', to Dooling & Lachman (1971) for 'title', to Berg & Paivio (1969) and Jorgensen & Kintsch (1973) for 'imagery', to Quinn (1982) for 'antithese', to Levin & Lesgold (1978) and Jabusch (1982) for 'visual aids', and to Lefferts (1981) for the warning 'visual aids: too complex' (more elaborately described in Besterveld, 2012).

> the effect of deflecting any possible dissent. As a result, the world's leading management gurus are never booed from the stage and typically generate very positive audience reaction and a high feel-good factor. [p. 272]

Although it is possible to question the translation of the research results into advice, Atkinson explains the studies quite elaborately and uses cautious language (e.g. "main finding", "tends to"), which implies a critical and careful interpretation of the source.

Extensive use of references, as shown by Atkinson, is scarce in the corpus of public-speaking textbooks. Even when academic sources are used, the conversion of the study's content into practical public-speaking advice can sometimes be questioned, which is illustrated by the following example (Oomkes, 2000):

> A listener remembers meaningful information more easily. […] People can remember normal sentences two to five times better than nonsense sentences (e.g. "rich pencils have learnt to sniff!" (Marks & Miller, 1964)). That is an argument for each speaker—and certainly the more intellectual one—to use understandable language. [p. 254][180]

Oomkes regularly refers to academic sources in his textbook and his way of integrating references reflects academic practice: a claim is supported with a reference to the author(s) and year of publication; the full reference can be found in the reference list. Such transparent referencing allows a reader to consult the source used—a positive side-effect, for which Oomkes is applauded.

However, in its transparency, it also reveals a possible problem with the translation of research results into public-speaking advice. Related to the example above, Marks & Miller (1964) indeed suggest that syntactically and semantically correct phrases are better recalled than nonsense sentences; however, Oomkes's immediate connection to "understandable language" and reference to "more intellectual speakers" seems a bit hasty. Oomkes appears to refer to comprehensibility on the level of linguistic or stylistic register: using complex, more 'intellectual' terms rather than simpler, 'everyday' synonyms. Although this line of reasoning might be sensible, such a piece of advice cannot directly be based on Marks's and Miller's study. Just as in Atkinson's example, Oomkes could have used more cautious language instead of affirmative and positive language. Still, Oomkes's reference practice is transparent: it is possible to consult the original source and critically reflect on this rhetorical strategy.

[180] Oomkes (2000, p. 254): "De toehoorder onthoudt gemakkelijker informatie die betekenis heeft. Uit het hoofd leren van nonsenswoordjes (fieg, ijft, sli, gnop, enz.) is veel moeilijker dan van bestaande woorden. Mensen kunnen twee tot vijf keer zo goed normale zinnen onthouden als onzinzinnen (b.v. 'rijke potloden hebben snuiten geleerd'! (Marks & Miller, 1964). Dat is een argument voor iedere spreker - en zeker van belang voor de meer geleerde - om begrijpelijke taal te gebruiken."

A second practice of source use, public-speaking textbooks contain incomplete references to academic sources. For example, authors only refer to a location or institution where the study was performed. This practice is more abstract and less transparent, as it is more difficult to check the original source. The following, rather long, excerpt of Booher (2003) about visual aids contains such 'circumstantial' references (the references are bold-faced for clarity reasons):

> Why all the visual stimuli? Two reasons — retention and impact. […] Visuals clarify ideas, aid listener retention, and create audience interest that is difficult to generate any other way […]Some learn more by what they see, others learn better by what they hear, and still others by what they feel or experience. However, no one would disagree that using all three techniques increases retention and impact dramatically. University studies suggest the same results. **At the University of Wisconsin**, researchers determined that retention improves up to 200 percent when visual aids are used in teaching vocabulary. **Studies at Harvard and Columbia** revealed that presentations with visuals improve student retention by 14 to 38 percent over presentations without visuals. **Studies at the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School of Business** demonstrated that the time needed to make a point could be reduced by up to 40 percent when visuals accompany an oral presentation. […] ***Presentations* magazine and 3M Corporation sponsored a study** to measure the effectiveness of multimedia presentations specifically. The study gauged the reactions of audiences to the same information presented with three different kinds of visual support: electronic slides, overhead transparencies, and text only. Here is what they discovered about information recall, comprehension, and fact recognition: Multimedia presentations were more successful in helping listeners recognise facts, slightly superior for recall of all types of information generally, and markedly superior in helping audiences actually comprehend what the presenter was explaining. [p. 131]

The fragment shows quite a few references to what seem to be academic sources. However, details are absent, which makes the references less transparent and, at first glance, less trustworthy. A reader interested in these studies would have to conduct a small literature study to find them, using the limited amount of information Booher provides. The final reference is an interesting case: it only mentions the sponsors of a study, which leaves the reader to question whether this is an academic study and, if so, how trustworthy it is.

Thirdly, textbooks refer to 'research' or 'studies' in general, without providing any details whatsoever. Readers will just have to take it for granted that the author has consulted sources on a particular issue; the following examples—by Luijk (1987) and Korswagen (1988), respectively—reflect such a reference practice:

> Research shows that we forget ± 50% of the transferred information within 24 hours. In the following days we forget another 25%. If you

> would listen to the same story next week, you would hear many new aspects. A classic example is that of a message that is passed on by five persons in a company, from top to bottom. 22% of the message reached its final destination.[181] [p. 50]
>
> Research shows it is 'normal' that a human being forgets about 50% of the total amount of offered information within 24 hours, even when listening attentively. In the following 14 days to 2 months he forgets 15 to 25% of the remaining information. So, a very large portion of the offered information will not travel farther than the immediate memory, the so-called short-term memory.[182] [p. 53]

Both Luijk and Korswagen seem to refer to the same studies, as they mention similar numbers.[183] Korswagen is a bit more precise in paraphrasing the results. However, a reader is not informed about who conducted the study and where it was performed, making it difficult to assess the quality of such a reference.[184]

In some fragments, the use of an academic source is only implied: the word 'research' or 'study' is not mentioned, but the statistics presented by the advisor suggest that some form of empirical research was used to back up advice. An example is Smith's advice (1991) on retention via visual aids:

> We learn through our senses, using each one to a varying degree. Taste accounts for only one percent, and touch only one-and-one half percent. Smell is three-and-one-half percent, and hearing is a surprisingly low eleven percent. The remaining eighty-three percent of the data we gather is from sight! Learning is largely a visual phenomenon. In addition, some interesting statistics have been generated on retention, as shown in the table below.

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[181] Luijk (1987, p. 50): "Onderzoekingen tonen aan dat wij ± 50% van de overgedragen informatie binnen 24 uur vergeten. In de daarop volgende dagen vergeten we nog eens 25%. Als je de volgende week hetzelfde verhaal beluistert, hoor je veel nieuwe aspecten. Klassiek is het voorbeeld van een boodschap die mondeling in een bedrijf van boven naar beneden werd doorgegeven door 5 personen. 22% van het bericht bereikte de uiteindelijke bestemming."

[182] Korswagen (1988, p. 53): "Onderzoekingen hebben uitgewezen dat het 'normaal' is dat een ens binnen 24 uur zo'n 50% van het totaal aan aangeboden informatie vergeet, zelfs als hij aandachtig luistert. In de daarop volgende 14 dagen a 2 maanden vergeet hij 15 à 25% van de rest. Een zeer groot gedeelte van de aangeboden informatie komt dus niet verder dan het onmiddellijke geheugen, het zgn. korte-termijngeheugen".

[183] Korswagen and Luijk appear to refer to the work of Herman Ebbinghaus, first published in 1885, who carried out an experiment that is considered to be a 'classic' in the field of memory psychology (Ebbinghaus, 1913). Being the subject of the experiment himself, he learned lists for a period of 70 hours and attempted to 'relearn' the list items with after 20 min, 1 hour, 9 hours, 1 day, 2 days, or 31 days. The results of this led to the well-known Ebbinghaus 'forgetting curve' (Murre & Dros, 2015; Baddeley et al., 2009, pp. 193–194). Ebbinghaus's experiment has been successfully replicated by Murre & Dros (2015).

[184] Remarkably, these two quotations are from textbooks in the end of the 1980s, which might suggest that the study at hand had received some publicity in that time period.

Retention After …		
	3 hours	3 days
Tell Only	70%	10%
Show Only	72%	20%
Show and Tell	85%	65%

[p. 58]

References to other public-speaking textbooks, third-party experience and personal experience

References to other public-speaking textbooks are made by English-language authors only. Gaulke (1997, p. 85) for instance refers to advisor David Peoples, who "in his book *Presentation Plus,* says that people gain 75 percent of what they know visually, 13 percent through hearing, and 12 percent through smell, touch, and taste." Walters (1993) takes up a special position in this category, as she collected quotes from interviews she had with—amongst others—presentation experts and uses them to support her advice.

However, academic sources and other public-speaking textbooks are the source types to which English-language authors refer to most frequently; they use third-party experiences most often. These 'third parties' can roughly be divided into two categories: well-known and ordinary people. The first category contains 'usual public speaking suspects' such as Martin Luther King, John F. Kennedy, Winston Churchill and Barack Obama. In fact, Leanne's work (2009) is completely about Obama (*Say it like Obama*), so it is not surprising that he is the most frequently quoted speaker in the corpus. The following passage by Noonan (1999) gives an impression on how such celebrity is used as a 'reference'—in this case Bill Clinton in a warning against using clichés:

> A cavalcade of cliches. But the problem was not that it was written badly. It was thought badly. No one left the Capitol that day knowing what Clinton had said, as they knew what Lincoln had said, and Kennedy, and FDR, and Reagan.
>
> Clinton himself didn't seem to know what he wanted to say in his speech. Perhaps he calculated that if he just said sort of pretty phrases it would sound as if he were communicating big thoughts. But he wasn't. And so his speech will be little noted and not long remembered. This is unfortunate, because every inaugural address is an opportunity to locate and define the truth, or a truth, of one's age. Which is, among other things, a public service. [p. 81]

Not only celebrities are included as examples. Urech (1998) for instance uses the experiences from lesser known speakers such as Jan Bergman, President of NutraSweet AG, and more abstract examples such as "a French sales representative" or "a California fitness expert".

Finally, the authors sometimes explicitly include their own presentation or public-speaking coaching experience to back up their recommendations or warnings.

Quite often, these are examples of anecdotal evidence. Naistadt (2004) takes this very literally, as she presents a personal anecdote to support the memorable quality of anecdotes:

> I have discovered through my own experiences as a public speaker that people will remember a well-told story related to a point I've made in a seminar or other speaking engagement for a long time. In some cases, they've come up to me years later and said, “I am still thinking about that story you told! Every time I get into a particular situation, I am reminded of that story.” What they are really saying is: they are reminded of the point I was making, which that story I told supported. [p. 129]

2.8 Conclusion and discussion: retention advice in public-speaking textbooks

This concluding section sketches the landscape of rhetorical retention advice. Section 2.8.1 provides an answer to the main question:

What techniques to make a message memorable are advised in public-speaking textbooks?

The section categorises the main retention techniques from the perspective of key concepts in memory psychology. After that, the results of the English-language and Dutch-language sub-corpora are compared (Section 2.8.2).

2.8.1 Retention in modern public-speaking textbooks and ancient rhetoric

This section first summarises the main insights on retention advice and retention techniques that were found in modern public-speaking textbooks and ancient rhetoric, and relates these to insights from memory psychology. Next, it addresses the role of the speaker’s memory (*memoria*) and reflects on the public speaking advisory practice (the way techniques are described and the use of sources in textbooks).

Main retention advice and techniques

Just over 5% of the total number of pages in the corpus of modern public-speaking textbooks and a total number of 77 techniques are related to audience information retention. The amount of retention advice and the variety of retention techniques suggests that retention is an important function of a presentation that can be related to almost all steps required in the process of preparing and delivering a presentation. The most frequently mentioned techniques are ‘visual aids’, ‘summary’, ‘repetition’ and ‘anecdote’.[185] Furthermore, according to the textbooks consulted, the conclusion is the preferred part of a presentation for a speaker to apply techniques that influence retention.

[185] See Section 2.4.2 for an overview of the twenty most frequently mentioned retention techniques in both the English-language and the Dutch-language sub-corpora of public-speaking textbooks and Section 2.5 for the descriptions of these techniques.

Audience information retention receives less attention in the classical works than it does in the modern public-speaking textbooks. Ancient rhetoricians focus more extensively on the speaker's memory. The few retention techniques advised in classical works can be linked to the classical speech function *docilem parare*: enabling the audience to understand the speech. Similar to the modern textbooks, the concluding part of the speech and the summary (*recapitulatio*) are referred to as influencing listeners' memory. Other ancient retention techniques are the 'statement of the facts' in the introduction, the 'transition', the 'use of a compact style' and the 'use of numbers' (the final two are specifically mentioned by Aristotle).

Upon closer inspection, the overview of frequently advised retention techniques shows similarities to encoding principles from memory theory—visualisation, organisation and elaboration (cf. Baddeley et al., 2009, see Section 1.2). These principles offer a helpful organising perspective (a systematic order) to discuss the varied collection of techniques that was found, and to divide it into three digestible chunks. Such a perspective offers more insight into how the recommended techniques could affect audience retention. At the same time, the classification is a step towards bringing public-speaking advice, rhetorical theory, and memory psychology closer together.

Visualisation. The most frequent strategy to influence audience information retention is the use of visual aids. The retention category 'visual aids' comprises techniques to support a presentation with visuals, such as presentation media (e.g. presentation slides, flip-over), graphics and video (e.g. pictures, graphs) and objects or props (possibly to be used in a demonstration). Next to specific visualisation techniques, the use of visual aids in general is also regularly promoted in the public-speaking textbooks (see Section 2.5.1). Furthermore, techniques linked to mental visualisation are promoted ('metaphors', 'imagery', 'concrete examples'). Warnings on how ineffective use of visual aids can hinder retention are the most frequent *vitia* in the corpus.

Organisation. Secondly, quite a few retention techniques are linked to structuring and organising the presentation. For example, one of the most frequently advised techniques is the 'summary' (see Section 2.5.3). The summary concerns the recapitulation of main points, usually in the conclusion. The summary (or *recapitulatio*) is also one of the few retention techniques that were found in ancient rhetoric. It represents the important retention function that is attributed to the conclusion: both in modern public-speaking textbooks and ancient rhetoric the conclusion is considered to be the part of a speech that is most relevant to influence retention (see Section 2.4.2). The summary can be seen as a specific form of 'repetition', which is another organisational retention technique that is often advised. Repetition forms a broader category that includes repetitive language on various levels in a presentation, such as literal repetition of words, restating information in other words, or using stylistic devices that include repetition (e.g. *anaphora*; see Section 2.5.4). The technique 'repetition' shows some overlap with techniques such as ‘summary’ and ‘parallelism’ (on a stylistic level); this is a consequence of taking the textbook descriptions of techniques as a point of departure to label the techniques.[186] Other frequently advised organisational retention techniques are ‘chunking’, ‘systematic order’, *partitio*, ‘circle technique’ and ‘final statement’. The focus on organisation and structure is also reflected in one of the most important warnings related to retention issued in the modern textbooks: ‘information overload’. Speaker who does not carefully select and order information, run the risk of hindering audience information retention (see Section 2.6.2).

Elaboration. Finally, the overview of retention advice contains techniques that can be associated with the encoding principle of elaboration. Such techniques seem to encourage the audience to associate new information with existing knowledge, to actively participate in the presentation or to make an effort in processing the information. As examples, I will briefly discuss four frequently advised retention techniques that can be attributed to elaboration: ‘anecdote’, ‘audience participation’, ‘rhetorical question’ and ‘metaphor’. The anecdote is a narrative technique, which requires the audience to understand the situation that is explained, the main characters that are involved, the story development and the anecdote’s relevance to the presentation’s key point(s). Audience participation, for example by answering questions, taking part in a quiz or carrying out a physical assignment (clapping, singing), requires the audience to actively work with the information presented. When the speaker asks a rhetorical question, it is said to incite the audience to think of a possible answer, thereby processing the information. Finally, metaphors usually require some mental effort to understand the similarity between the compared elements—especially when it is an original metaphor a listener is hardly ever confronted with in daily language.

The aim of the classification according to encoding principles is to provide a clearer overview of the main retention techniques that were found in the modern public-speaking textbooks and highlight underlying relations between rhetorical ideas and memory psychology. The criteria for the categories are not clearly defined; some techniques could be classified in various categories. For example, anecdotes and metaphors often require the audience to visualise and elaborate on information. In the case of the anecdote, which is classified as an elaboration technique, the relevance of its connection to the main message or key point of the speech could also be considered as an organisational aspect.[187] Compared to the visual and organisation retention techniques, the way in which elaborative retention techniques could influence information retention seems less straightforward. Still, the classification points to a

[186] Section 2.5 shows that textbook descriptions of techniques related to retention diverge. Therefore, definitions and (textbook) examples of retention techniques that are closely related to each other, such as ‘summary’ and ‘repetition’, are likely to show some overlap.

[187] This confirms the perception of modern public-speaking textbook authors that the anecdote is a ‘jack-of-all-trades’, as reported on by Andeweg & De Jong (2005) in their study into the anecdote as an introductory technique.

relationship between existing rhetorical ideas on retention and memory theory, which could prove to be insightful in further stages of studies into information retention.

Role of the speaker's memory (*memoria*) in textbooks

The memory focus has shifted from the speaker in antiquity to the audience in modern times (1980–2009). In the classical rhetorical works the speaker's memory is a central theme, as it is the subject of one of the five orator's canons (*memoria*—see Section 2.1.1). Influential rhetoricians such as Aristotle, Cicero, Quintilian and the *Auctor ad Herennium* elaborately discuss techniques for an orator to memorise the speaking notes, which often deal with visualising information, associating it with existing knowledge and placing it in a logical order. These techniques culminate in the use of mnemotechniques such as the memory palace and *imagines agentes* (striking images).

In modern public-speaking textbooks, the *memoria* task of the orator seems to play a marginal role (see Sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2). The general stance towards memorising the whole speech in the modern textbooks appears to be negative: it can do more harm than good. Authors usually advise other memory aids and strategies to prepare for delivering the speech, such as using outlines, cue cards and various strategies for rehearsing the speech. Parts of the speech that are viewed as eligible for exact memorisation are the introduction, conclusion and transition sentences.

Only a small number of modern authors stress the advantages of training memory and refer to classical techniques such as the 'method of *loci*' and the use of *imagines agentes* (see Section 2.3.3). They do not claim that a speech should be entirely memorised; they also advise strategies such as notes and cue cards, just as Quintilian did not rule out the use of some speaking notes. However, these authors consider a well-developed memory as a valuable tool that could be beneficial for the speaker's ethos: when speakers are completely familiar with the speech, they can focus on other aspects such as delivery and audience contact. By presenting it as a helpful and powerful alternative in preparing the delivery of a presentation, these few authors take a more nuanced position towards the use of memory and try to put it in a modern context—a rather refreshing perspective in the light of the warnings against almost any type of memorisation that are found in most modern textbooks.

Reflection on advisory practice

The attention given to audience information retention varies between public-speaking textbooks in the corpus. While some authors do not or hardly refer to retention, other authors spend 15% of their textbook on retention. Eight textbooks even include a reference to retention (e.g. 'memorable') in a chapter or section title (see Section 2.4.1). Furthermore, the level of detail with which retention techniques are described in the textbooks varies, as the descriptions of frequent techniques in Section 2.5 show. On the one hand, some authors such as Osborn & Osborn (1997) and Atkinson (2004) often provide examples of techniques connected to retention and explain that factors such as audience and genre need to be taken into account. On the other hand, some textbooks only contain a brief reference to retention ("technique X makes your talk memorable").

The analysis of retention technique descriptions brought to light differences and contradictions between textbooks. For instance, some authors advise to repeat the main points of the presentation in a summary, whereas other authors believe that this redundancy is not necessary and that the audience only needs to be reminded of the outline of the talk. Another example of contradictory advice: the *partitio* (structure overview) in the introduction is recommended by several authors, but the analysis also revealed a warning against its use. Furthermore, textbooks sometimes vary in the distinct features that they attribute to retention techniques. Various characteristics are connected to the versatile anecdote, such as narrative elements, vivid language, brevity, a relevant pointe and humour, but which of these characteristics are discussed depends on the textbook that is selected. Such variations in definitions and descriptions of techniques make it difficult for users to assess the value of distinct features of retention advice.

The analysis of public-speaking textbooks showed that retention advice is rarely supported by references to academic sources. Authors generally opt for other source types, such as (anecdotal) experiences from well-known speakers, to corroborate their advice. Moreover, textbooks regularly provide advice about retention without any indication of the source or knowledge it is based on. It is possible that authors with a relevant (academic) expertise (e.g. a background in communication studies) rely on academic sources to back up their advice without providing any references. However, such an approach is not reader-friendly; textbook users benefit from a clear insight into the sources used, regardless of the author's background or nature of the publication.

Therefore, the relationship of textbook authors with (academic) sources and knowledge can be qualified as ambivalent: supporting the advice with clear references to trustworthy sources is good practice, but it can also pose the authors with practical problems such as correctly interpreting the source and upholding the readability of the textbook. At the heart of this ambivalence towards reference use might be the nature of the public-speaking textbook as a genre: it is not an academic treatise in the first place, but it should be accessible and easy to read for a general audience.[188] This means that authors have to find a balance between transparency and readability—this is a tight rope to walk, as results from academic studies are usually not straightforward, let alone the fact that (empirical) research on effects of public speaking strategies hardly exists. Moreover, academic studies are often specialised and focus on a particular (presentation) situation, leaving textbook authors with the challenge to extrapolate the results to a broader presentation context. Within the

[188] Keith and Lundberg (2014, p. 140) offer possible explanations on the lack of theory and academic references in textbooks: "Of course, if current textbooks are theoretically barren, there might be structural reasons for it. Their writing is driven in part by market forces that value imitating successful books (even the less sensible parts of successful books), and it is a market that responds to instructors who don't easily decide to change their teaching; since almost everyone learns to teach public speaking by apprenticing in graduate school, without their pedagogy being particularly informed by the scholarship studied in their coursework, there is little training or motivation to reflect about the public speaking course."

corpus, examples of textbooks exist that attempt to be accessible while acknowledging the sources used via in-text references or an extensive notes section (e.g. Osborn & Osborn, 1997; Oomkes, 2000; Atkinson, 2004).

2.8.2 Differences in retention advice in English-language and Dutch-language textbooks

The analysis of the corpus public-speaking textbooks (N=80) indicated differences between the English-language (N=40) and Dutch-language sub-corpora (N=40). This section first discusses three main differences—the (quantified) attention for retention, the focus on elaboration techniques and the use of references—and wraps up with a reflection on how both sub-corpora focus on retention. However, this study did not intend to systematically compare Anglo-Saxon and Dutch public speaking culture. The differences between the two sub-corpora are impressions based on the content analysis of the textbooks; the differences and their interpretation can therefore only be attributed to this study's selection of textbooks and not to cultural attitudes towards public speaking or rhetoric.[189]

Main differences: quantity, elaboration, source use

First, the two sub-corpora contain a different amount of retention advice: about 88% of the number of pages devoted to retention in the overall corpus was found in the English-language sub-corpus. Two aspects must be kept in mind: (1) the English-language sub-corpus is more comprehensive overall and comprises about 70% of the total number of 13,326 pages in the corpus, and (2) the Dutch-language corpus contains a few 'general communication textbooks' which only partially focus on public speaking, whereas the English-langue corpus only contains works on presentation skills.[190] Still, the quantitative difference in the focus on retention is remarkable. The English-language public-speaking textbooks that were selected in this study tend to attribute a higher value to the function of information retention and dedicate more explicit attention to retention.

As a second main difference, retention techniques linked to elaboration are more prominently represented in the English-language sub-corpus. This is illustrated by the position of the anecdote as an elaborative retention technique in both of the sub-corpora. The characteristics of the anecdote, such as a narrative structure and vivid style, can be said to incite audiences to elaborate on information. In more than half the number of English-language textbooks (twenty-one) it is linked to retention,

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[189] The approach to the textbook analysis is user-centered and therefore focuses on the contents of the retention advice. A systematic investigation into possible cultural differences between (corpora of) public speaking textbooks requires a different approach, for example an approach as described by Tieken-Boon van Ostade (2020) in her study into usage guides and usage problems in British and American English.

[190] The English-speaking market for public-speaking textbooks is larger; consequently, for the period 1980–2009 a larger number of English-language textbooks are available for selection than Dutch-language textbooks. Furthermore, in the Dutch-speaking world of professional communication, advice on effective oral communication traditionally appears to have received less attention than advice on writing skills (Janssen, Jansen & Jansen, 2000).

compared to a mere two textbooks in the Dutch-language corpus. Another example is the position of 'humour' as a retention technique. The audience generally interprets a situation as humorous when it is out of the ordinary or contrary to what was expected in advance, which requires elaboration or association (a connection to existing knowledge, cf. Martin, 2007). The authors in the English-language sub-corpus recommend humour in relation to retention quite frequently and also warns against its ineffective use. In the Dutch-language corpus however, the retention role of humour is almost non-existent (see Section 2.5.7). Next to the anecdote and humour, other techniques that can be linked to elaboration such as 'imagery' and 'rhetorical question' are also more prominently connected to retention in the English-language sub-corpus.

The third main difference concerns the use of references in both sub-corpora: English-language authors mainly refer to experiences of other (well-known) speakers, whereas the Dutch-language authors mainly refer to academic sources. The nature of the Dutch-language textbooks seems such that they either refer to an academic source or—to a lesser extent—to their own experience; using experiences of other people to support advice does not appear to be common, whereas English-language authors frequently use such experiences to make their advice come across more trustworthy.

Characterisation of English-language and Dutch-language sub-corpora

Although the sub-corpora to quite some extent contain similar retention advice, they appear to have their own retention focus. The Dutch-language sub-corpus is structure-driven and organisationally oriented. 'Clarity' is a key concept throughout the most frequent retention techniques in the Dutch-language corpus. The Dutch-language textbooks appear to be more aimed at transferring information; they tend to contain relatively more references to academic sources than to other source types (other textbooks and other speakers' or authors' personal experience).

English-language textbooks are more diverse and extensive regarding retention. Quantitatively, they dedicate more space to retention advice; qualitatively, they cover a wider range of alleged retention techniques—not only techniques that are mostly linked to informative speeches, but also strategies that are closely related to persuasive speeches. Moreover, the retention techniques discussed in the English-language textbooks appear to correspond more evenly to encoding principles from memory psychology.

The differences in the retention focus of English-language and Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks may be explained by the approach of rhetorical or applied communication education in The Netherlands and the United States (and to a lesser extent the United Kingdom, as most textbooks in the English-language sub-corpus are of a US origin). In The Netherlands, the academic study of 'taalbeheersing' (applied communication or discourse studies) traditionally emerged in the 1970s of the 20th century. In its early days it mostly focused on texts and informative genres, with a strong emphasis on text qualities such as 'clarity' and 'correctness' (Braet, 2000; Janssen et al., 2000). Influenced by this focus, the educational practice of and textbooks on communication skills appeared to focus most on writing clear and cohesive texts and oral communication skills received less attention (Janssen et al., 2000). Rhetorical theory has long played a marginal role in Dutch educational practice of applied communication (Jansen, 2016a). Recent years have shown a renewed interest in and appreciation for the ancient rhetorical perspective; Jansen (2016b, p. 142), for example, advocates a revaluation of classical rhetoric in language and communication education, because it can serve as “a basis for conscious language proficiency”.[191] The emergence of Minor programmes in rhetoric at the universities of Groningen, Nijmegen and Leiden and the attention for rhetoric at University colleges in for example Amsterdam, Utrecht and Middelburg (University College Roosevelt) reflect the recent increase of interest in rhetoric in Dutch (academic) education.

In the United States, public speaking and rhetorical theory seem to have a more established position in (higher) education curricula (cf. Keith & Lundberg, 2014; Rood, 2013; Benson, 2011). American textbooks appear to focus more on persuasion; public speaking is related to the public debate and the notion of ‘civility’ (Rood, 2013; Rood, 2016).[192] Keith and Lundberg (2014, p. 144) distinguish between a humanistic public speaking tradition, which focuses on the speaker as part of a community in which mutual influence between the speaker and the audience exists, and a social science tradition, which views public speaking as a form of communication and as the transfer of knowledge or information from the speaker to the audience. Roughly speaking, the English-language public-speaking textbooks appear to be more in line with this humanistic tradition, whereas the Dutch-language textbooks in the corpus tend to emphasise the social science tradition.

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[191] This increased attention for rhetoric in the landscape of Dutch communication studies already revealed itself with the introduction of ‘strategical meneuvering’; this approach takes into account a rhetorical perspective in the pragma-dialectical argumentation theory (Van Eemeren & Houtlosser, 1999). However, the more recent focus on ancient rhetoric in Dutch applied-communication education is more clearly visible in educational material, for example in the attention for rhetoric in the most recent (seventh) edition of the popular communication textbook *Leren communiceren,* published in 2016 (Steehouder, Jansen, Van Gulik, Mulder, Van der Pool & Van Zeijl)—see Jansen (2016a). The fifth edition of *Leren communiceren* (2006) is part of the Dutch-language sub-corpus of public-speaking textbooks tjhat is used in this study.

[192] Although Rood (2016) signals a gap between rhetorical education and civic discourse in the United States, the discussion about public speaking as a civic act indicates that such conceptualisation of knows a richer and longer tradition in the English-language public-speaking domain (mostly in the United States). The vivid scholarly tradition of American research into the role of rhetoric in democracy and civic discourse (cf. Asen, 2004; Zarefsky, 2014) underlines this idea. Although this tradition differs from the general approach in Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks, it appears to be more relevant elsewhere in Europe. For instance, Kock and Villadsen from the University of Copenhagen have published influential works on rhetoric and citizenship (e.g Kock and Villadsen, 2012) With the emergence of the Rhetoric Society of Europe (RSE), such different traditions in the European rhetorical discipline have become more visible.

3. Organisation and elaboration techniques in public-speaking practice

"I will summarise what we have found." This is how a communication scholar announced the summary of his research presentation at a conference on applied linguistics. This seems like an effective strategy to influence audience information retention: summarising your presentation in the conclusion is one of the most frequently advised retention techniques, as chapter 2 shows. However, how exactly speakers should formulate the summary seldom is described in public-speaking textbooks. Chapter 2 shows that retention advice in public-speaking textbooks is not always supported with concrete examples and that examples are selective—either of well-known or experienced speakers (a professional speaker), or taken from daily speech practice (from a speaking professional). Furthermore, chapter 2 indicates that textbook descriptions of rhetorical retention techniques leave room for discussion: characteristics of techniques vary between textbooks, references to academic sources are scarce and some contradictory advice was found. In order to evaluate possible retention effects of rhetorical techniques, knowledge of public-speaking advice alone is therefore not sufficient. To paint a more complete picture of how information retention by the audience can be affected, public-speaking practice needs to be taken into account as well. How are rhetorical retention techniques that are recommended in textbooks applied by speakers in a public-speaking situation?

An analysis of public-speaking practice will result in systematically collected examples from rhetorical retention techniques used by speakers in specific public-speaking contexts. This is of added value for two reasons. First, the results of such an analysis put the textbook advice into perspective. For example, it can indicate similarities and discrepancies between public-speaking advice and practice. It can show whether speakers indeed apply frequently recommended techniques and whether the public-speaking context influences speakers' preferences for particular retention techniques. Furthermore, such an analysis can provide insight into the behaviour of speakers and their choices in the style and formulation of retention techniques. The analysis offers (new) examples of techniques in a particular context that can be used to both evaluate and complement textbook advice.

Secondly, an analysis of public-speaking practice serves as a preparatory step for investigating retention effects. It establishes which techniques or strategies further (experimental) research into retention effects could focus on. Discrepancies between advice and practice or observed variants of retention techniques can serve as starting points for effect studies. Moreover, a clearer insight into textual and stylistic features of retention techniques in practice contributes to the design of more ecologically valid research. It enables scholars to design example presentations or texts based on (the relationship between) advice and practice.

The current chapter therefore aims to answer the following question:[193]

How do speakers apply advised organisation and elaboration retention techniques in public-speaking practice?

To this end, I investigate the use of retention techniques in presentations and speeches from a variety of speakers in three different contexts: research presentations, political speeches and TED talks, which include presentations and speeches from professional speakers and speaking professionals.[194] I focus on a selection of retention techniques that are linked to organisation and elaboration (further explained in Section 3.1).

The study in this chapter has an explorative character: it intends to describe usage of a variety of techniques, instead of zooming in on a specific phenomenon. Rhetorical research, and more specifically rhetorical criticism, often focuses on a single case study: a particular speech or presentation is analysed with its specific context in mind, limited to on one or a few particular rhetorical strategies or means of persuasion (cf. Zarefsky, 2008). While such an approach generally leads to valuable insights, the current study aims to obtain a broader perspective of the use of rhetorical retention techniques. The method of the rhetorical analysis that is applied in this chapter therefore differs from 'standard' rhetorical criticism. It departs from defining textual features of a selection of organisation and elaboration techniques. Next, these features are used to detect and label these techniques in presentation texts of scholars, politicians and TED speakers. Then, the quantitative and qualitative usage of the techniques by these three different types of speakers are compared and interpreted in the context of their rhetorical situation (see Section 3.3 for an extensive description of the method).

The chapter is structured as follows. Section 3.1 discusses the selection of retention techniques for this analysis; it explains which techniques that are linked to organisation and elaboration were included and why visualisation techniques were not taken into account. Next, Section 3.2 details how three corpora of speech texts were constructed. Each of these corpora contains a collection of presentations or speeches from a specific type of speaker: (1) scholars who give research presentations, usually geared at informing the audience, (2) Dutch political party leaders that give political speeches, usually focused on persuasion, and (3) speakers at TED(x) events who give TED talks, usually aimed to inspire (a purpose that is in between informing and persuading and often involves a call to action for the audience). The method of analysis is described in Section 3.3: it explains how the selected retention techniques

[193] This chapter is partly based on the following publications: Wackers, De Jong & Andeweg (2016a),Wackers, De Jong & Andeweg (2016b) and Wackers (2021). See the Overview of author's publications for the complete references.

[194] For professional speakers such as politicians, presenting is an important part of their daily job. Speaking professionals are speakers who occasionally present as part of their job, such as scholars. This distinction will be further explained in this section, when the characteristic 'type of speaker' is addressed.

are defined and labelled in the presentation texts, and it accounts for the reliability of the analysis. After that, Sections 3.4 and 3.5 present the quantitative and qualitative results for the organisation and elaboration techniques, respectively. These sections cover the frequency of the selected techniques in the three corpora, and discuss examples of various ways of usage by the types of speakers. The discussion in Section 3.6 presents the characteristic use of the selected organisation and elaboration techniques by scholars, politicians and TED speakers in practice, and shows how such practice relates to textbook advice.

3.1 Selection of retention techniques

The analysis of public-speaking textbooks described in chapter 2 led to 77 techniques that are said to enhance the audience's information retention. For an effective and meaningful rhetorical analysis of public-speaking practice, the number of techniques needs to be narrowed down. Therefore, the current analysis focuses on a limited number of retention techniques. This section explains the selection process of the retention techniques. First Section 3.1.1 presents general criteria and considerations for the selection of techniques. Next, Section 3.1.2 discusses the selected organisation techniques, after which Section 3.1.3 zooms in on the elaboration techniques.

3.1.1 Considerations for selecting techniques

The following point of departure was formulated for the selection of techniques: it should be a reflection of the main retention advice in public-speaking textbooks, while allowing for a feasible analysis of the presentations in the corpora. This means that the selection leans on the main conclusions about retention advice in public-speaking textbooks (see chapter 2); it particularly focuses on frequently advised techniques and, where possible, on techniques whose descriptions in textbooks indicated variations or even contradictions. At the same time, the focus on feasibility means that only a limited number of techniques should be included in the analysis, and that multiple analysts should be able to detect the use of these techniques in the presentation texts.

Based on this point of departure, I made the following decisions in selecting the techniques. Based on the classification of retention techniques made in Section 2.8.1, I decided to focus on organisation and elaboration techniques and not to include visualisation techniques, to keep the analysis text-based. This decision was not straightforward, since 'visual aids' form the most frequently recommended category of retention techniques in the overall corpus of public-speaking textbooks (see Section 2.4.2). Visualisation techniques were not included for the following complementary reasons, mainly related to feasibility:[195]

[195] In a follow-up of the current study, the use of visual aids could certainly be taken into account. Visual aids are the most frequently advised rhetorical retention technique (see Section 2.5.1), so they would be suitable for a more detailed study. Theories on dual coding (Clark & Paivio, 1991) and multimedia learning (Mayer, 2009) provide valuable insights into how we process textual and visual information, and the interplay between these two. Such study requires

1. *Large number of visualisation techniques leads to narrow focus on visuals*.
As shown in Section 2.5.1, the category 'visual aids' consists of various retention techniques such as 'presentation media' (e.g. slides), 'graphics and video', and 'objects (props)'. Due to the number of visual techniques, a focus on visual retention techniques means that organisation and elaboration techniques cannot be taken into account for feasibility reasons. For an explorative study into the use of retention techniques in practice, such a sole focus on visual techniques was considered too narrow: it would not reflect the variety in retention techniques that was found in textbooks.

2. *Lack of available visual material to be analysed*.[196]
The analysis of visual aids requires the recordings or files of those visual aids (e.g. PowerPoint-slides or other visuals). This limits the presentation genres that can be selected. Of the corpora of presentations that I used for the analysis, which were selected based on the different types of speakers, recordings were available for the TED talks and research presentations, but not (immediately) for the political speeches. An added complicating factor is the fact that political speeches often do not include visual support, which makes a proper comparison of visualisation techniques between the corpora challenging.

3. *Personal research experience with textual and stylistic analysis.*
Finally, my personal background and affinity is with linguistic, stylistic and text-related research. An analysis of visual aids would require a method derived from the fields of visual rhetoric and argumentation, and/or studies on multimodal communication and multimedia instruction (cf. Mayer, 2009; Mayer & Fiorella, 2014)—disciplines in which I am less trained and informed.

As a next step, I selected a limited number of organisation and elaboration techniques that reflected the main retention advice and appeared to be reliably detectable in presentation texts. Based on this criterion, frequently advised techniques such as 'chunking' and 'systematic order' were not included. These two techniques concern the selection and clear order of (a limited number of) main points, which seem part of the speaker's preparatory work for the presentation. Therefore, they are not easily distinguished in a presentation text; it can be challenging and to some extent subjective to reliably assess whether the chosen order is 'systematic' and how a speaker selected 'chunks' based on the available material. Furthermore, techniques

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a method of analysis that relies on visual rhetoric and argumentation, and/or multimodal communication studies (see for example Mayer, 2009). Hertz (2015) already analysed the use of the PowerPoint slides that the scholars applied in the research presentation corpus that is used in the current study. Although she did not specifically focus on retention techniques, this could be a useful starting point.

[196] For the same reason, delivery skills (e.g. non-verbal communication) could not taken into account in the analysis either. Moreover, delivery skills did not have priority as they were not frequently connected to retention in public-speaking textbooks.

were left out that were too broadly defined in the textbooks or appeared to form an umbrella category for various techniques, such as ‘repetition’, ‘imagery’, ‘connecting to the audience’ and ‘audience participation’ (see sections 2.5.4, 2.5.5, 2.5.11 and 2.5.16).

The final selection consists of seven techniques: five organisation techniques, which are further explained in section 3.1.2, and two elaboration techniques, which are discussed in section 3.1.3. The characteristics of these techniques appear to be recognisable in presentation and speech texts, for example because they are commonly found in specific parts of a speech (e.g. the introduction or conclusion). The operationalisation of these textual features in the labelling procedure is detailed in section 3.3.

3.1.2 Selected retention techniques linked to organisation

Five organisation techniques were selected: *partitio*, ‘announcement of the conclusion’, ‘summary’, ‘circle technique’ and ‘transition’. These techniques have in common that they are regularly advised as retention technique or are linked to frequent retention advice in textbooks. They are generally used to shape a presentation on a higher hierarchical level (i.e. focusing more on the overall speech structure than on more detailed organisation levels, such as sentence structure). Table 3.1 gives an overview of the selected organisation techniques and their descriptions. For the descriptions of the techniques, the public-speaking textbooks and—if available—rhetorical resources into the specific techniques were consulted; Jeanne Fahnestock’s *Rhetorical Style, The Uses of Language in Persuasion* (2011) proved to be a useful resource, due to its comprehensive (historical) overview of rhetorical figures and their varieties. Below table 3.1, I discuss the way in which the techniques relate to the main point of departure for the selection (reflecting retention advice while allowing for a feasible analysis).

Table 3.1: Overview of the selected organisation techniques. The first four techniques are presented in the order in which they are commonly found in presentations and speeches, from introduction to conclusion. The fifth technique, 'transition', can appear throughout the entire presentation.

Technique	Description
1. *Partitio* (see Section 2.5.23)	At the end of the introduction of the speech, the speaker gives an overview of the speech or presentation structure (the main points to be addressed). (Andeweg & De Jong, 2008)
2. Announcement of the conclusion	The speaker explicitly announces the final part of the presentation (e.g. "I will wrap up…" , "to conclude…"). (Andeweg et al., 2008)
3. Summary (see Section 2.5.3)	In the conclusion of the speech, the speaker recapitulates or restates the main points. (Andeweg & De Jong, 2008)
4. Circle technique (see Section 2.5.13)	In the conclusion of the speech, the speaker refers to an example or phrase that was used in the introduction of the speech. (Andeweg et al., 2008)
5. Transition	The speaker explicitly marks the transition to a new part or topic of the speech, for example using a transition sentence ("First I will discuss the method of research. For this method… etc."). (Andeweg & De Haan, 2009).

Partitio

According to Fahnestock (2011, p. 384) "the *partitio* […] defines the key issue and forecasts the coming parts, on the assumption that listeners will retain these parts longer if they expect them." The *partitio* is among the twenty-five most frequently recommended retention techniques that were found in textbooks, and it reflects the trend that organisation is seen as an important retention principle (see Section 2.4.2). It is closely linked to the regularly advised retention techniques 'chunking' and 'systematic order': the *partitio* can be seen as a way for the speaker to inform the audience about key points (chunks) or a systematic order of the speech. Because it is linked to the introduction of a presentation and involves the announcement of main points in the presentation, the *partitio* appears to be recognisable in a presentation text. Although most textbook authors agree on the retention value of the *partitio*, a warning that it can be counterproductive was also found (see Section 2.5.23).

Announcement of the conclusion

The 'announcement of the conclusion' is a structure marker that signals the concluding part of the speech, such as "in conclusion" or "to wrap up". Such a specific transition sentence that signals the conclusion is recommended in 5% of the overall corpus (four English-language textbooks), which means that it is not among the twenty most frequently mentioned techniques in the English-language and Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks.[197] The authors generally agree that such an announcing sentence raises the audience's attention. The conclusion is considered to be the most important part of the speech connected to retention in modern public-speaking textbooks (see Section 2.4.2) and ancient rhetoric (see Section 2.1.3). From this perspective, the announcement of the conclusion is clearly related to the main retention advice that was found. Moreover, it requires an explicit structure marker, which means that is recognisable in a presentation text. Next to the four recommendations on the announcement of the conclusion found in the textbooks, a warning against its use is issued by Laskowski (2001). He believes that "most audiences tune you out the second they hear these phrases" and adds: "Don't say what you're going to say, just say it" (p. 186).

Summary

The 'summary' is considered to be one of the most important retention techniques (see Section 2.5.3), both in modern public-speaking textbooks and ancient rhetoric. Moreover, the summary is seen as a characteristic element of the conclusion (*peroratio* in ancient-rhetorical terms), which is the most important part of the speech that is related to retention. As Fahnestock (2011, p. 384) states: "the *peroratio* […] was designed to include a recapitulation of the key parts in order to mass their persuasive force." The summary is clearly linked to the conclusion and it refers to the main points of the presentation, which makes it plausible that summaries in presentation texts are recognisable. In textbook descriptions of the summary, two main types are recommended: the outline summary and main point summary (see Section 2.5.3). The outline summary can be seen as a 'reflective *partitio*': in the conclusion, the presentation topics are indicated. The main point summary is different: it does not only indicate the main points, but it also concisely restates their key information. It is unclear whether both of the summary types are regularly found in public-speaking practice.

Circle technique

The 'circle technique' is regularly advised in English-language and Dutch-language textbooks (see Section 2.5.13). It is a specific form of repetition in the conclusion of the speech, which consists of a reference to elements that were used in the introduction. The circle technique may be announced by an explicit structure marker such as "I already said in the introduction". Textbook authors believe that it raises the audience's attention and that listeners appreciate its use (it creates a 'sense of closure').[198] It is clearly connected to the introduction and the conclusion part of a

[197] The announcement of the conclusion is advised as a retention technique by Kenny (1982), Lucas (1989), Gaulke (1997) and Osborn & Osborn (1997). Laskowski (2001) advises against its use (vitium). A more elaborate discussion of the announcement of the conclusion can be found in Section 4.1,1 on the experimental study on the *announcement of the conclusion* and *circle technique*. See Appendix A.8 for an overview of all textbook fragments related to retention.

[198] See Section 4.1.1 for a more elaborate discussion of this technique, as a preparation to the experimental study that was partly aimed at the effects of the circle technique.

presentation; in a presentation text, the use of a circle technique is marked by a reference to the introduction that is provided in the concluding part of the speech.

Transition

The transition is connected to retention in the classical text *Rhetorica ad Herennium,* in which the *transitio* is described as "the figure which briefly recalls what has been said, and likewise briefly sets forth what is to follow next" (IV, 26.35; see Section 2.1.2). This way, a speaker can use a transition for "shepherding the reader from one section to another" (Fahnestock, 2001, p. 386)[199] and reminding the audience of the higher-order structure throughout the speech. The transition is considered to be a retention technique in almost 9% of the modern public-speaking textbooks studied (six English-language textbooks, one Dutch-language textbook).[200] This means that it does not belong to the twenty most frequently advised retention techniques in the sub-corpora of textbooks; however, the transition is linked to higher-order organisational techniques such as 'systematic order' and 'chunking'. For example, when describing the retention technique 'systematic order', Claasen-Van Wirdum et al. (1992, p, 255) state that a speaker should provide enough reference words and connecting sentences to allow the main points to "stick better" and prevent the audience from losing track. Verderber (2000, p. 113) summarises: "So, in a speech, if we forecast main points, then state each main point, and use transitions from one point to the next, not only are audiences more likely to follow, they are also more likely to remember the organisation." In this analysis, I have also considered longer previews of parts of the speech (similar to Verderber's forecasting statements or Fahnestock's *praeparatio* (2011, p. 385)) to be a transition. The transition seems recognisable in presentation texts, as it often involves structure markers and references to parts of the speech.

3.1.3 Selection of retention techniques linked to elaboration

Two elaboration techniques were selected: 'anecdote' and 'question'. Retention techniques linked to elaboration are most frequently advised in the English-language textbooks (see Section 2.8.1); this also goes for the anecdote and the rhetorical question (see Sections 2.5.2 and 2.5.17, respectively). Because of the explorative character of the current analysis, I decided not to focus on the rhetorical question alone but to include a broader category of question techniques that can divided into four question types: 'rhetorical question', *quaestio*, *subiectio* and 'direct/literal question' (cf. Braet, 2007; Fahnestock, 2011). Table 3.2 presents the elaboration techniques and their descriptions that were used as a point of departure for the current analysis. Below table 3.2, I motivate the selection of elaboration techniques (they reflect retention advice, while allowing for a feasible analysis).

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[199] The transition belongs what Fahnestock (2011, p. 384) calls "figures of discourse management". These are especially important for "an audience that cannot turn the page" (p. 384), which applies to audiences in an oral communication setting.

[200] *English-language sub-corpus*: Ross (1980), Cook (1989), Osborn & Osborn (1997), Gurak (2000), Verderber (2000), Booher (2003); *Dutch-langaue sub-corpus*: Gerritsen (2008). See Appendix A.8 for an overview of all textbook fragments related to retention.

Table 3.2: Descriptions of the selected elaboration techniques ‘anecdote’ and ‘question’.

Technique	**Description**
Anecdote (see Section 2.5.2)	An anecdote is a short story that: • is brief (it usually is an isolated short story within a longer talk, not a longer narrative within the overall presentation) • contains (elements of) a narrative structure, such as an orientation (time or place), a sequence of events / complication, an evaluation and a coda (not all elements are required) • contains one or more story characters • can be humorous, vivid, and relevant (in relation to the presentation’s main message or a main point in the core of the presentation). (cf. Labov, 2003; Andeweg, De Jong & Hoeken, 1998; Andeweg & De Jong, 2005)
Question	
Rhetorical question (see Section 2.5.17)	A question in which the answer is implicit within the question. (Fahnestock, 2011; Braet, 2007; Ahluwahlia & Burnkrant, 2004). It is often a statement that takes the shape of a question, for example to express emotions.
Quaestio	An uninterrupted series of two or more (often rhetorical) questions (Braet, 2007); a “pileup of rhetorical questions” (Fahnestock, 2011, p. 299; Fahnestock refers to this question type as *pysma*).
Subiectio	A question that the speaker proposes and immediately answers. It can be used to express emotions as opposed to making a statement, or to mark the structure of a speech (e.g. as a transition to a new topic) (Braet, 2007; Fahnestock, 2011). Fahnestock (2011, p. 299) refers to this question type as *rogatio* or *anthypophora*.
Direct / literal question	A “genuine question when the speaker wants an answer” (Fahnestock, 2011, p. 304—there classified as *interrogatio*). The question can be directed to all audience members or to a specific person/agent in the audience or elsewhere; it can also prepare the audience for an answer that will be provided later in the speech (e.g. in the case of a research question).

Anecdote

Together with the techniques ‘visual aids’, ‘summary’ and ‘repetition’, the anecdote is most often recommended in the English-language textbooks as a technique to influence retention. Interestingly, Dutch-language textbooks refer to its memorable qualities much less frequently. Textbook authors usually see the anecdote as a specific type of narrative, as explained in Section 2.5.2. It is related to the classical figure *demonstratio*, which entailed the lively description of an event "that supposedly has occurred" (Fahnestock, 2011, p. 335).[201] The idea that narratives can positively affect retention is not only found in public-speaking textbooks; studies also show that narratives can increase recall, for example when used as a learning strategy (Bower & Clark, 1969) or when contrasted with expository text (Graesser et al., 1980). This suggests that narrative figures such as the anecdote stimulate the encoding processes of elaboration and mental visualisation, for example by linking new information to existing knowledge and creating a mental picture of a sequence of events (e.g. by relating it to schemas—see Section 1.2). According to Dahlstrom (2014, p. 13615): "… narratives seem to offer intrinsic benefits in each of the four main steps of processing information: motivation and interest, allocating cognitive resources, elaboration, and transfer into long-term memory."

As a type of story, it can be assumed that anecdotes will contain one or more of the following narrative elements: a main character, time, place, temporal organisation of events and a termination or coda (Labov, 2003). These narrative elements can serve as points of reference for recognising anecdotes in presentation texts, just as the feature 'brevity' (the idea that the anecdote is a short, uninterrupted story). The characteristics humour, vividness, and relevance (to the main message or a main point) are seen as optional, as not all textbook authors attribute them to the anecdote. In the current analysis, they were therefore not required for recognising anecdotes in a presentation text.[202]

Questions

The most important question type is the rhetorical question, which is regularly advised in the English-language textbooks (see Section 2.5.17). The use of questions is

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[201] The anecdote seems to have more in common with the *demonstratio* than the *descriptio*, which is another figure that appears to be closely related. Fahnestock defines the *descriptio* as "visualising consequences that have yet to occur and may not occur" (2011, p. 335). The anecdote is about retelling an event that has already taken place.

[202] The narrative features of anecdotes that are distinguished in public-speaking textbooks have been the topic of various studies into the persuasive effect of narratives in texts. For example, the extent to which a reader can identify with the main character of a narrative can positively influence persuasion (De Graaf et al., 2012; Hoeken et al., 2016); driving mechanisms for persuasion via identification are a higher perceived similarity of the reader with the main character, and the use of a first-person perspective (Hoeken et al., 2016; De Graaf et al., 2016). The narrative feature 'vividness' appears to be closely related to the notions of 'transportation' and 'absorption', which entail that readers can be transported into a story and experience the emotions and events as if they were in the shoes of the main character (Green & Donahue, 2009). The 'transportability' of a narrative relies on craftsmanship in style and the quality of the story (Green & Donahue, 2009). Based on these studies, the use of a vivid, well-crafted anecdote in a presentation that enables identification of the audience with the main character could possibly influence retention via increased elaboration. However, it should be noted that these studies focused on persuasion (not retention) in documents (not presentations).

generally viewed as a strategy to stimulate audience participation (see Section 2.5.16), both explicitly (audience members answer a direct question) and implicitly (audience members mentally answer a (rhetorical) question). Andeweg and De Jong (2004) attribute the following functions to questions: they can activate the audience, draw attention, increase involvement and enhance the information processing. These functions can stimulate elaboration; as Atkinson explains, questions motivate the audience to think of a response, which will "make them sit up and start wondering what's coming next", even if audience members "know that they are not actually going to have to answer the speaker's question" (2004, p. 192).

As table 3.2 shows, four question types were included in the analysis: rhetorical question, *quaestio*, *subiectio* and direct question. These question types are sometimes labelled differently in rhetorical literature.[203] They are not mutually exclusive; their descriptions of the question types show some overlap, as the following discussion if these four question types shows.

The 'rhetorical question' or *erotema* is the most common type of question that is distinguished in rhetorical manuals (Fahnestock, 2011, p. 298). According to Fahnestock, "…strictly speaking, the rhetorical question is not a question at all, but a statement intoned or punctuated as a question" (2011, p. 299). Various studies have focused on how rhetorical questions are processed and can stimulate elaboration. Slot (1993), for example, analyses rhetorical questions as indirect speech acts: as they are not meant to be answered, their use violates the sincerity condition of a direct speech act. Ahluwahlia and Burnkrant (2004) consider the rhetorical question to be a stylistic deviation from an assertion and found that the salience of such a deviation can influence the way in which a rhetorical question is processed. Petty, Cacioppo and Heesacker (1981) report that rhetorical questions enhanced thinking for messages with a low personal relevance, but disrupted thinking for messages with a high personal relevance. Abioye (2011, p. 295) found that newspaper articles with rhetorical questions were preferred over articles with conventional statements and concludes that using rhetorical questions is "a strategy used in marshalling evidence, facts and information in one's mind", which "equally allows readers to participate in the 'discussion', so to say, by questioning their opinion." Finally, a rhetorical question positioned prior to an argument appears to influence the persuasiveness of such argument (Howard, 1990; Hoeken & Anderiesse, 1992).

The *quaestio*, multiple questions in a row (also known as *pysma*), often consists of rhetorical questions. When speakers apply a series of rhetorical questions, they may aim for an amplified effect of a single rhetorical question (Braet, 2007). However, a *quaestio* does not necessarily exclusively consist of rhetorical questions. In the situation of a political speech, a speaker may ask multiple direct questions to—for example—a minister, which could either be answered immediately or be left until

[203] In this study, the Latin names for question types as described in Braet (2007) are used as labels; as explained in the current section, these question types are also known under various other names (Fahnestock, 2011, pp. 298–300).

another debate. The *quaestio* is sometimes used in the *partitio*, in which case the speech structure is announced by posing the main questions that the speech will answer. These questions in a *partitio* usually correspond to key points of the speech (e.g.: "What is X? How is it used? How can we improve its design?"). Here, organisation and elaboration functions overlap.

The *subiecto* or *rogatio* can also combine elaboration and organisation effects. Usually, the *subiectio* is not a rhetorical question, as it is immediately answered by the speaker. This way, Fahnestock argues, "it is useful for managing issue construction and flow of support in arguments and arranging the subtopics in expository texts" (2011, p. 299). She refers to examples of *subiectios* as "single-voiced-dialogues", which can make a text "highly interactive" (elaboration function). At the same time, *subiectios* can have a "text-forming function" (organisation function): "by asking and then answering questions, the speaker or writer can foreground the organisation of the discourse" (p. 299). When the *subiectio* is used as an organisational technique (discourse marker), it seems to be a specific type of *transitio* (see Section 3.1.2).

Finally, the 'direct question'. Speakers intend for direct questions to be answered, either by (a specific person in) the audience, or by the speaker at a later stage (for example in the case of a research question). With a direct question, speakers can interact with the audience and they can encourage listeners to participate. It is related to the figure of *interrogatio*, as distinguished by Peacham in the *Garden of Eloquence* (1593, as referred to by Fahnestock (2011, p. 304)).[204]

3.2 Construction of corpora research presentations, political speeches and TED talks

To analyse the usage of the selected organisation and elaboration techniques, three speech corpora were constructed that reflect different types of speakers in public-speaking practice: scholars, politicians and TED speakers. Each corpus consists of sixteen speeches or presentations, of which the available texts were analysed. The current section describes the construction of these corpora based on six characteristics: context, type of speaker, audience, main purpose, source text, and length. The characteristics 'context', 'type of speaker', 'audience' and 'main purpose' give insight into the rhetorical (retention) situation of the speeches and presentations (see Section 1.3). The characteristics 'source text' and 'length' provide information on the nature of the texts within a corpus.

Table 3.3 presents an overview of the three corpora and their respective characteristics. Each of these characteristics is described more extensively in

[204] Fahnestock (2011, p. 304) explains that besides a "genuine question when the speaker wants an answer", according to Peacham an *interrogatio* could also be a "question where there is no desire for answer" but that "'would make our speech more sharp and vehement'" (Peacham as cited by Fahnestock, 2011, p. 304). This form of the *interrogatio* is not considered in this study.

subsections 3.2.1 to 3.2.5. Appendix B.1 contains an overview of all speeches in the corpus, including their length in number of words.

Table 3.3: Overview of the main characteristics of the speech/presentation corpora.

Corpus characteristics	**Research presentations (N=16)**	**Political speeches (N=16)**	**TED talks (N=16)**
Context	Dutch-Flemish conference on (applied) communication, rhetoric and argumentation in 2008	Annual governmental policy debates between 2010 and 2013 in Dutch Parliament	Most popular TED talks online, as determined on April 1, 2015
Type of speaker	Speaking professionals	Professional speakers	Speaking professionals and professional speakers
Audience *(direct/indirect and estimated size)*	*Direct*: fellow scholars / experts (between 10 and 50) *Indirect*: not applicable	*Direct*: members of parliament and the government, audience on the public stands (+/- 200-250 people) *Indirect*: electorate, (up to a few million people)	*Direct*: live audience at the venue, usually with a mixed background (100 up to 1000 people) *Indirect*: all the online viewers (up to several millions)
*Main purpose**	To inform	To persuade	To inspire (inform, persuade and call to action)
Source text	Transcriptions of video recordings	Text used as recorded in the Proceedings of the Dutch Parliament	Text published online on www.ted.com
Mean number of words (sd); shortest / longest presentation in number of words	3419 (402) Shortest: 2592 Longest: 3969	2555 (1548) Shortest: 226 Longest: 5438	2861 (901) Shortest: 914 Longest: 4285
Total corpus length (number of words)	54,704	40,832	45,768

*The main purpose as stated here does not rule out the existence of other (secondary) purposes; e.g.: a researcher or a TED speaker might also intend to persuade the audience to a certain extent or of a certain aspect of their presentation. Here, the type of goal that appeared to represent the purpose of the overall presentations in the sub-corpus was selected as 'main purpose'.

3.2.1 Context

The Research Presentation Corpus consists of sixteen presentations that were held at the triennial 'VIOT conference' for Dutch and Flemish communication scientists, rhetoricians and argumentation theorists.[205] The presentations fit into a fixed format of about twenty minutes, followed by a short discussion. The discussions after the presentations were taken into account in this analysis. The construction of this corpus has also been described by Hertz (2015, p. 99).

The Political Speech Corpus comprises sixteen speeches given by the leaders of four large Dutch political parties during the annual governmental policy debates between 2010 and 2013. These debates evolve around the policy that the government has proposed for the upcoming year. Political parties have the opportunity to criticise the policy, propose amendments and debate each other's points of view. The speech that each party leader gives during these debates is considered to be one of the most important speeches of the year. In the corpus used for the current analysis, the speeches of the following four parties that played an important role between 2010 and 2013 were selected: the Liberal party (VVD) of prime minister Mark Rutte (part of the government coalition in all selected years), the Party for Freedom (PVV) of Geert Wilders (both government support and opposition in the selected period), the Labour Party/Social Democrats (PvdA, first an opposition party, later part of government coalition) and the Liberal Democrats (D66, four years in the opposition).

The TED Talk Corpus consists of the sixteen most popular (most viewed) talks online on TED.com, as measured on April 1st, 2015. These talks were selected from the playlist of the twenty-five most popular TED talks of all time. In that playlist, the number of views per talk is indicated. The earliest talk in the selection was held in 2004, the most recent talks were given in 2012. Most talks (six) took place in 2009.[206] The popularity of the talks is an indicator of a positive reception, although the current analysis did not include the extent to which viewers appreciated the talks. Six talks were presented by scholars, the remaining speakers were popular science writers, authors of fiction, and consultants.

3.2.2 Type of speaker

In the three corpora, the speakers can be characterised as either speaking professionals, professional speakers or a combination of these two categories. According to Andeweg and De Jong (2004, p. 236), speaking professionals are speakers who need to present "quite regularly" as part of their profession, whereas for

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[205] A collection of papers of each VIOT conference is published in conference proceedings (in Dutch). These volumes present a cross-section of three years of research into applied communication, rhetoric and argumentation in The Netherlands and Flanders, and they are recommended for anyone interested in Dutch and Flemish studies within the aforementioned disciplines.

[206] On March 1st, 2019, fourteen of the sixteen selected speeches were still in the playlist '25 most popular talks' on ted.com. This shows that the selected talks remain quite popular over time. The fact that they are included in such a playlist possibly contributes to their ongoing popularity.

professional speakers giving a speech is part of their "essential professional skills": presenting is an activity they carry out several times a week.[207]

The scholars in the corpus of research presentations can be qualified as speaking professionals: it can be assumed that scholars present quite regularly (particularly if their job also included lecturing), but not necessarily every week. It is customary for scholars to attend a few academic conferences a year that are relevant to their topic of research.

The politicians in the Political Speech Corpus are professional speakers. At the time of their speech, they were all leaders of their political party in the national parliament. Such a position requires giving some form of presentation almost on a daily basis, ranging from a contribution to parliamentary debate, via a media interview to a speech at a party congress. Seven different speakers are part of the Political Speech Corpus.[208]

The speakers in the TED corpus can best be described as a mix of speaking professionals and professional speakers. TED speakers are usually selected based on the quality of the idea they would like to share (TED, 2018a). Quite often, scholars—speaking professionals—give a TED talk to make a complex scientific idea more accessible to a wider audience. However, some of the TED speakers can be more easily qualified as professional speakers who regularly give speeches, such as well-known publicists, (management) coaches or writers.

Furthermore, the way TED speakers generally prepare for their talk needs to be considered as well: because of the popularity of the event and possibility of a large online outreach TED talks are generally extensively prepared. TED talks usually are rehearsed various times and speakers often receive training and coaching (TED, 2018a), whereas research presentations at conferences are usually only rehearsed a few times or even not at all (cf. Romanelli et al., 2014, who compare TED talks and academic lectures). Moreover, the online list of most popular TED talks contains talks both held at the global annual TED conference and talks held at local TEDx events.[209] Speakers for the global TED events include professional speakers, such as former presidents or CEOs of multinationals (TED, 2018a), whereas the locally organised TEDx events will generally include speaking professionals (TED, 2018b). Still, even though a scholar might usually be categorised as a speaking professional, scholars who are invited to give a TED(x) talk will generally prepare the talk as if they are professional speakers—or at least more thoroughly than the average academic lecture or conference talk.

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[207] Andeweg and De Jong (2004) based these labels on the distinction between 'writing professionals' and 'professional writers' introduced by Janssen, Jansen & Jansen (2000, p. 212).

[208] Due to changes in the party leadership in parliament in the period 2010-2013, three party leaders of the Liberal Party and two party leaders of the Labour Party are included. No changes in the party leadership of the Freedom Party and Liberal Democrats took place. Appendix B.1 presents an overview of speakers in the Political Speech Corpus.

[209] TEDx events are locally organised events based on the philosophy and guidelines of the TED organisation (TED, 2018c).

3.2.3 Audience

The composition of the audience could prompt speakers to select rhetorical techniques that they consider to be suited for the specific audience and occasion. The presentations in the three corpora are held to audiences that differ in features such as knowledge of and interest in the topic. For the political speeches and TED talks, a distinction between a direct and indirect audience can be made.

The audience for the research presentations usually consists of fellow scholars, who are often experts in the same discipline as the speaker or in a discipline that is closely related. The scholars can therefore assume that the listeners have a basic knowledge of the presentation topic. Furthermore, the listeners' attitude towards the topic is likely to be positive, as they usually attend a conference within their area of interest and expertise. Still, factors such as the time of day and fatigue could influence this attitude.

The political speeches are held in the Dutch parliament. The direct audience consists of members of parliament and the government (prime-minister, ministers and state secretaries). Leaders of the opposition parties often use the annual policy debates to try and influence the proposed policy for the coming year. In their contributions, they can emphasise the topics that they would like to see adapted and they can incite other parties to support their proposals. However, a part of the audience is formed by the electorate, which is not present in parliament and will learn about the policy debates via (social) media. The annual policy debates usually generate considerable media attention. The party leaders will keep in mind that the electorate will most likely see snippets of the debates in various media, which calls for concise and concrete phrases that are easily understood beyond the parliamentary context. Furthermore, the political speakers may try to attract the electorate's attention by addressing issues that voters will be interested in, especially when elections are in sight.

TED talks are generally held in front of an engaged, interested audience (Romanelli et al., 2014) that has bought a ticket or is invited to the event. The audience members can have various backgrounds (differences in expertise, profession, education, etc.). Listeners to a TED talk are not necessarily knowledgeable on the presentation's topic, which means that the speaker is more likely to apply rhetorical techniques that engage the audience in the topic and enable them to understand it. Next to the audience that is physically present at the actual event, TED speakers also need to consider the online audience that will view the video of the talk, which is made available sometime after the event. This circumstance may influence the rhetorical techniques that a speaker applies: online viewers can decide more easily to stop watching, so it appears even more important to draw their attention and engage them throughout the presentation.

3.2.4 Main purpose

Following from the difference in audience composition, the main purpose of the corpora differs as well. The 'main' purpose is distinguished here, because a mixture of secondary purposes can be ascribed to the presentations in the corpora. For example, although scholars mainly intend to inform and TED speaker mainly aim to inspire, as they may to a certain extent also intend to persuade the audience of a certain aspect of their presentation. The type of goal that appeared to represent the overall purpose of the presentations in the sub-corpus was selected as 'main purpose'. From Bitzer's perspective on the features of the rhetorical situation (1968), the distinction between main purpose and secondary purposes can be related to the act of formulating a fitting response to the rhetorical situation. Does the situation and audience call for an informative or a persuasive purpose, or a combination of those aims?

The research presentations are mainly aimed at informing the audience about recent studies. Academic conferences are places to share knowledge and become up to date with recent developments in a particular field. Next to their the main purpose to inform the audience, scholars can also aim to persuade the audience; for example, scholars sometimes want to justify their research approach or validate the choices that they made in the research process. Here, I consider persuasion to be a secondary purpose of research presentations.

The political speeches chiefly focus on persuading fellow members of parliament present and the electorate (cf. Van Leeuwen, 2015, p. 93). The context of the speeches in the Political Speech Corpus, the annual policy debates in the Dutch parliament, appears to be particularly geared at persuasion. The leaders of each political party aim to show to what extent they agree and disagree with the proposed governmental policy. In the case of coalition parties, political leaders are inclined to defend the proposed governmental policy, whereas opposition parties tend to disagree with the proposed policy and put forward adapted or new proposals. To some extent, politicians may be required to inform the audience about the proposed policy, but this purpose seems secondary to the purpose of persuasion.

The TED talks are aimed at inspiring the (broader) audience. As the TED organisation states, their mission is to "spread ideas", make them "accessible" and to "spark conversation" (TED, 2018d). 'To inspire' is a somewhat ambiguous purpose.[210] Scotto di Carlo (2014, p. 592), who focuses on how TED talks can be a genre to popularise science, refers to it as the "hybridity" of TED talks: the purpose of inspiring appears to comprise both informative and persuasive elements. It contains informative elements, as transferring knowledge is usually needed to some extent in a TED talk. According to the TEDx Speaker Guide (2018),[211] the idea worth spreading of a talk could be something (completely) new to the audience, or it could offer a fresh perspective on an existing issue. At the same time, in order to "spark a conversation" or perhaps even encourage the audience to take action, TED speakers need to persuade the audience of the urgency and importance if the topic. Still, persuasion does not seem to be the main purpose; an audience does not have to agree with a speaker to be triggered to talk about a subject.

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[210] Charteris-Black (2018) sees 'to inspire' as a possible purpose for a political speech; he states, for example, that political speeches can "inspire through the power of creative language" (p. xv) and how the rhetorical purpose of a Barack Obama speech was to "motivate and inspire" (p. 52).

[211] The TEDx Speaker Guide (2018) is a document that contains guidelines for speakers who are invited to give a TEDx talk.

Despite of the difference in main purposes, it is plausible that retention is a (secondary) purpose for speakers in all the corpora. In order to inform, persuade and inspire an audience, a certain extent of knowledge transfer and retention of information appears to be indispensable.

3.2.5 Source text and length

Source text. Only the texts of the speeches and presentations were used. As explained in Section 3.1.1, the analysis was aimed at organisation and elaboration techniques that can be recognised by textual indicators (e.g. linguistic and stylistic features). Delivery aspects and visual aids (gestures, voice, expression) were not taken into account. The nature of the texts varies to some extent. The texts of the research presentations were transcribed from video recordings, which means that they contain conversational cues such as gap fillers ("uh…"), and mispronunciations or mistakes. The texts from both the political speeches and the TED talks were slightly edited to make them more easily readable. The political speeches were taken from the Proceedings of the Dutch Parliament (exclusive of interruptions by other speakers), in which parliamentary clerks register transcripts of the debates. The clerks work for the Reporting and Editing Service (Dienst Verslag en Redactie, DVR), which uses specific guidelines from the Parliamentary Language Guide to edit the transcripts (De Jong & Van Leeuwen, 2011).[212] The texts of the presentations in the TED corpus were obtained from the TED website (www.ted.com). These speech texts are as close to the spoken word on the video as possible, but they can be slightly edited to make them more easily readable; they do not contain conversational cues such as pauses.[213] These differences in source text are marginal and they are therefore not expected to influence the quality of the results of the analysis to a great extent.

Length. The average length of a single speech and the total number of words within a corpus differ between the corpora. The research presentations are the longest on average and do not vary much in length between one another. This is due to the fixed

[212] De Jong & Van Leeuwen (2011) give a few examples of text revisions made by the DVR. The clerks make long-winded sentences more concise and complete enumerations that are announced but are not finished ("On the one hand…" without "on the other hand"). Arguably, these revisions could somewhat influence the results of the analysis regarding structural techniques. The motive for adaptions made in the texts can be to clarify the texts in case comprehensibility problems might occur. This means that it is imaginable that the texts of the political speeches in the corpus are slightly more structured than the actual spoken texts; it is unlikely that the texts in the corpus are less explicitly structured than the actual spoken texts.

[213] TED talks are transcribed by volunteers around the world (TED, 2018e). TED offers online resources with tips and guidelines for transcription (TED, 2018e; TED Translators, 2018a). The online Wiki environment of the TED Translators (2018a) community offers some more insight into transcription guidelines. The English Style Guide of the TED Translators (2018b) community indicates that "the style should not be cleaned up too much, in order to prevent the subtitles from sounding unnecessarily formal and more like written language than speech". This suggests that the transcripts do not differ too much from the actual spoken words.

format of the research conference: the presentations last about twenty minutes, and are followed by a short question and answer session that was not taken into account in the analysis. The corpus of political speeches has a higher standard deviation of speech length; this is because the amount of time allotted to each party leader depends on the number of seats a party holds in parliament.[214] The average length of a TED talk resembles that of a political speech, but the standard deviation in the TED Talk Corpus is not as high as it is in the Political Speech Corpus. The TED format requires talks to have a duration of approximately 6 minutes up to a maximum of about 18 minutes, with steps of three minutes in between (categories of 9, 12, and 15 minutes).

The variation in length of the political speeches and—to a lesser extent—of the TED talks needs to be taken into account when interpreting quantitative results. Speakers in the corpus might have different preferences regarding rhetorical techniques, which means that rhetorical techniques are not likely to be evenly distributed over speakers in the first place. A large variation in speech length might contribute to observed differences between speakers, as a short speech length limits speakers in applying rhetorical techniques. It is imaginable that some selected techniques are not that suitable for a short speech, such as a detailed anecdote or an extensive summary.

Despite of the differences between the corpora, I believe that the texts are suitable for the current analysis, which is based on rhetorical techniques whose features are recognisable in a presentation or speech text. At the same time, it should be noted that some factors that could possibly amplify a retention effect, such as visual aids and delivery by the presenter, were not analysed (see Section 3.1.1).

3.3 Method of analysis

Now that the selection of retention techniques and the corpora of presentation texts for the analysis of public-speaking practice have been explained, this section turns to the method of analysis. Section 3.3.1 makes clear how the organisation and elaboration techniques were operationalised for the analysis of presentation texts; it details which textual indicators were used to recognise and label the techniques. Next, Section 3.3.2 walks through the labelling procedure and Section 3.3.3 accounts for the reliability of the analysis.

[214] Regarding the length of the Political Speech Corpus, the speeches from 2012 are atypical; that year the annual policy debates followed shortly after the parliamentary elections. A new government coalition was in the process of being formed, which means that no policy for the following year could be presented. The contributions of the party leaders in 2012 were more concise than the speeches that were given in the other three years in the corpus, particularly Political Speeches #9 and #10 from the Liberal Party leader and the Labour party leader (the two winners of the election who were exploring the formation of a coalition together)—see Appendix B.1.

3.3.1 Operationalisation of retention techniques for text-based analysis

As a first step of the method, textual indicators of the techniques were determined that serve as point of reference for analysts. These indicators formed the basis of a labelling instruction for multiple analysts. The operationalisation of the organisation techniques is discussed first, followed by that of the elaboration techniques.

Organisation techniques

Table 3.4 presents the selected organisation techniques and their textual indicators.

Table 3.4: Textual indicators of the selected organisation techniques, used to recognise and label the techniques in the speech and presentation texts of scholars, politicians and TED speakers.

Technique	Textual indicators (operationalisation of the analysis)
Partitio	• Appears in the introduction of the presentation / speech, ***and*** • signalled by a reference to the speech structure (e.g.: "I will first tell you how… and then I will…")
Announcement of the conclusion	• Appears at the start of the conclusion of the presentation / speech, ***and*** • Signalled by structure markers such as "to wrap up" or "to conclude".
Summary	• Appears in the conclusion of the presentation / speech, ***and*** • Signalled by a structure marker that indicates an overview of main points will follow, such as "to summarise".
Circle technique	• Appears in the conclusion of the presentation / speech • A reference to the introduction is included in the conclusion ("As I said in the introduction…") ***or*** • A repetition of specific words (only) used in the introduction (e.g. reference to main character used in the opening anecdote of the speech)
Transition	• The use of explicit structure markers such as "first, second, third", "next", "furthermore", etc. • A reference to the previous topic that was addressed (e.g.: "Now that we have discussed…") • A preview of the topic that is addressed next (e.g.: "Now, let's move on and take a look at…")

Following from the textual indicators described in table 3.4, the techniques *partitio*, 'announcement of the conclusion', 'summary' and 'circle technique' have in common that they can only occur once in every speech and are connected to a particular part of the speech (the introduction or conclusion). For the text analysis this means that, for example, a structure overview occurring after the introduction will not be labelled as a *partitio*; similarly, a so-called ‘internal summary’ that a speaker might give prior to the conclusion (see Section 2.5.3) will not be labelled as a summary. As the ‘announcement of the conclusion’ is found at the start of the conclusion, it also serves as an indicator for marking the ‘conclusion’ as a part of the speech. The first four organisation techniques are strictly connected to a part of the speech, which follows from their descriptions in textbooks, ancient rhetoric and related rhetorical studies (see Sections 2.5 and 3.1.2). The ‘transition’ differs from the other four organisation techniques in two ways: it is not connected to a specific part of the speech, and multiple instances of the transition can occur throughout the speech.[215]

All organisation techniques in table 3.4 are signalled by specific structure markers. The structure markers in the table are examples to which the labelling of techniques was not limited. In case of the circle technique, not only an reference to the ‘introduction’ or the beginning of the speech was included, but also a less explicit reference, such as a repetition of an example that was provided in the introduction, was taken into account (see Section 2.5.13 for textbook advice about the circle technique). In order to label a text fragment without a reference to the introduction as a circle technique, it is required that the words or the information that the speaker repeats is clearly relatable to the introduction part of the speech and does not regularly recur (e.g. as a theme or storyline) throughout the presentation text. The transition can be recognised by structure markers that indicate an enumeration, by a link to the previous topic or by a preview to the next topic(s). These structure markers are not all required. This way, structure overviews or summaries that do not occur in the introduction or conclusion can be seen as (elaborate) transitions.

An advantage of taking these structure markers as points of reference is that they leave less room for interpretation when labelling the techniques. A disadvantage of the focus on explicit structure markers is that more subtle, less clearly marked variants of these techniques are not taken into account. However, if such a more subtle usage of organisation techniques is not easily recognised by analysts, then it may not be noticed by listeners during a presentation either.

Elaboration techniques

Table 3.5 presents the selected elaboration techniques and their textual indicators. The category ‘questions (general indicators)’ shows the textual indicators that apply to all four question types and that were used to determine whether a question was applied, prior to specifying the question type.

[215] The ‘transition’ most likely occurs in the core part of the speech, in between the introduction and conclusion, to connect the key points. However, it is not always explicitly described as such in textbooks.

Table 3.5: textual indicators of the selected elaboration techniques, used to recognise and label the techniques in the speech and presentation texts of scholars, politicians and TED speakers.

Technique	**Textual indicators (operationalisation of the analysis)**
Anecdote (see Section 2.5.2)	• The presence of one or more story characters • A (change of) story perspective in the text (e.g.: from general information or to an 'I' / first-person perspective) • The presence of elements of a narrative structure, such as orientation, a sequence of events and a wrap-up • The story is uninterrupted and does not comprise more than half of the presentation's length
Question (general indicators)	• The presence of a question mark • Inversion (reversed order of subject and verb, mainly applicable to the Dutch language) • Question words (e.g.: who, what, which, when, where, how)
Rhetorical question (see Section 2.5.17)	• The question is not addressed to the audience or a particular person • The question can be rephrased as a statement • The question is targeted at general knowledge / information the audience is familiar with • The question contains a negation ('Isn't it true that…?') • Question tags such as "isn't it", "don't you think", "right" • Elliptic phrases posed as a question ("Clear or not?")
Quaestio	• Multiple questions in a row are asked (two or more) • The series of questions is not interrupted by other sentences
Subiectio	• The answer is given immediately after the question has been posed (in the following sentence) • The answer is related to the question (e.g. starts with a conjunction such as 'because' repeats information from the question)
Direct / literal question	• The audience or a specific person is addressed (e.g. "have you"…, "who here has…", "madam, can you…"?) • The question is not (immediately) answered by the speaker • The question cannot (easily) be rephrased as a statement • The question is aimed at specific information (facts or figures), ideas or opinions (e.g. in the case of research questions and questionnaire questions)

Anecdote. The most prominent indicators of anecdotes in the presentation texts are narrative elements. A story usually has one or more main characters, which are often introduced at its start. A linguistic or stylistic cue for the use of an anecdote is a change in perspective. An anecdote is often recounted from the first person-perspective (if it is a personal anecdote of the speaker) or from a more descriptive third-person perspective ('she/he' or 'they'). Next to that, an orientation of time and place is often given at the start of the story. After that, a sequence of events unfolds, with a wrap-up (e.g. a punch line or moral). The end of the anecdote can be indicated with a transition from the 'story perspective' to the 'main speech perspective'. Finally, the anecdote is usually considered to be a short, rounded off story within a speech; therefore it should not be interrupted and should not account for more than half of the presentation's length.[216] For a text fragment to be labelled as anecdote, not all indicators are required to be present; however, it is likely that a combination of indicators is needed.[217] As explained in Section 3.1.2, the characteristics 'humour', 'vividness' and 'relevance' are not taken into account in the labelling process.

Question. Before labelling specific types of questions, the first step was to identify the use of questions (in general) in the text. Three indicators were used to recognise questions: a question mark, inversion and the use of question words. A question mark in the text usually is a solid indication that a question is used. However, as presentation texts are transcribed based on audio/video footage, the use of a question mark to some extent is based on the transcriber's interpretation (see Section 3.2.5 for details on the source texts). Furthermore, sometimes question marks are not used to indicate questions, for example when questions are part of a longer sentence or text fragment. In such cases, the other two indicators could serve as a safety net for recognising questions. The indicator 'inversion' is mainly applicable to the speech texts in the Dutch language; in English, questions can also be formulated via the auxiliary verb 'to do'.

Rhetorical questions are recognised by interpreting the question's contents: does the author expect a reply from the audience? In case no one in particular is addressed and the contents can also be phrased as a statement, the question likely is rhetorical. This assumption is also based on the idea that a presentation traditionally is a monologue; a speaker who would like a response from the audience will have to make an effort (cf. Fahnestock, 2011, p. 299). Other indicators are question tags such as "isn't it?" (cf. Frank, 1990), the presence of a negation (Petty et al., 1981) and elliptical statements intoned as a question.

The indicators for labelling *quaestios* and *subiectios* are quite straightforward. A text fragment that is labelled as a *quaestio* should meet two clear requirements: at least two questions in a row are asked, and these questions are not interrupted by an assertion. A *subiectio* should always be immediately answered by the speaker. In case it is not immediately clear whether the statement that follows the

[216] A narrative that comprises more than half of the speech length can hardly be seen as an anecdote, but seems to be another type of narrative (a longer story).

[217] For example, a change to a first-person perspective alone does not necessarily signal the start of an anecdote; it could just as well be a self-reference of the speaker in another context (e.g. in a proposition: "Today, I will tell you…"). However, such a change in perspective is an indicator to inspect a text fragment more closely.

question indeed is intended as an answer, causal conjunctions ('because') or words repeated from the question are indicators of a link to the question.

The most important indicator for a 'direct or literal question' is the presence of an addressee (either the audience—'you'—or a specific person). Furthermore, direct questions are not answered by the speaker and usually cannot be easily rephrased as a statement. For example: 'who of you came here by train?' is not easily rephrased into a statement without losing its essential meaning or without the use of a verb that indicates that a question or a request ("I would like to ask / inquire…").

3.3.2 Labelling procedure

The second step of the method involved labelling the techniques in the presentation texts of the three corpora. To be able to distinguish the selected retention techniques in the presentation texts, a labelling instruction was developed that was used by multiple analysts (or: raters). The complete instruction can be found in Appendix B.3. The procedure for labelling the techniques in the presentation texts consisted of the following steps.

1. *Upload of presentation texts in Atlas.ti and creation of labels*
   The speech and presentation texts from the corpora were uploaded into the data analysis software Atlas.ti. This software enables the creation of labels, which can be linked to a specific part of the text. After the attribution of labels, Atlas.ti can provide an overview of all text fragments with a particular label. Labels were created for all of the selected techniques and the generic 'question'.

2. *Scan of presentation text*
   Each presentation text was first read completely. This way, the analyst could obtain a first impression of the topic and basic structure of the text, which could help to detect techniques upon a second reading. TED talks were viewed as well as read.

3. *Determination of the introduction and conclusion of the presentation*
   For the organisational techniques that depend on their position in the speech (*partitio* in the introduction, 'circle technique' and 'summary' in the conclusion), the introduction and conclusion of each presentation text was determined based on textual indicators. The ending of the introduction and start of the conclusion are marked by indicators in the speech structure (e.g. for the introduction: the purpose of the speech, a *partitio* or outline, and a transition to a new topic; for the conclusion: an announcement of the conclusion, a transition to a new topic, and a circle technique/reference to speech purpose) and in text format (e.g. via a heading or a blank line) (cf. Andeweg & De Jong, 2004, pp. 329–330; Andeweg & De Jong, 2008). See Appendix B.3.

4. *Attribution of labels to techniques*
   Next, the presentation text was closely read from the beginning until the end. The labelling instruction was used to detect possible occurrences of the selected retention techniques. The instruction contained the descriptions and textual indicators of techniques as described in tables 3.1, 3.2, 3.4 and 3.5, together with examples of text fragments that did or did not meet the criteria. The inter-rater reliability was determined for the organisation and elaboration techniques separately, after which the labels of some presentation texts were revisited (see Section 3.3.3 for more information on the reliability). As a final step, all text fragments in Atlas.ti that were related to a particular label were scrutinised and compared in order to filter out any text fragments that did not meet the labelling instruction.

5. *Quantitative and qualitative analysis*
   After completion of the labelling process, the results were quantitatively and qualitatively analysed. First, the frequency of each technique per corpus was determined on three levels: the total number of occurrences, the average occurrence per speech and the average occurrence per thousand words (for the technique 'anecdote', the average length was determined as well). The length of the overall corpus was taken into account in the process of determining the average occurrence per thousand words; this may present a more nuanced picture of the frequency of a retention technique within a specific corpus.

   Next, the labelled examples of each technique were scrutinised to gain insight into the style, formulation and form of the techniques on a detailed level. Similarities and differences in usage within and between text corpora were noted; examples that showed similarities in usage were categorised. This qualitative analysis aimed to show the use of retention techniques in practice, to pinpoint variations of the techniques (possibly between types of speakers), and to enable a comparison of practical use to textbook advice.

3.3.3 Reliability of the analysis

The texts from all corpora were systematically analysed via the data analysis software Atlas.ti, adhering to the aforementioned labelling instruction. To evaluate the effectiveness of this instruction and the reliability of the results of the analysis, the inter-rater reliability was determined. A total of six raters were involved, four of which were master students of Discourse studies (Rhetoric and Argumentation) at Leiden University. Each rater focused on different retention techniques (organisation or elaboration techniques) and analysed different corpora (scholars and politicians, or TED speakers) in their master thesis projects. For these practical reasons, the determination of inter-rater reliability was segmented: each round of analysis involved two raters, a focus on specific corpora (either scholars and politicians or TED talks) and either organisation or elaboration techniques. Appendix B.4 contains an overview of the process and all the scores obtained.

Procedure. Prior to each reliability analysis, the raters participated in a brief instruction session on the labelling procedure, which included an explanation of the labelling instruction and a discussion of example fragments related to each technique. Based on this discussion, the labelling instructions were further clarified.

After that, a number of presentation texts (in most cases eight) were randomly selected from the texts that had not served as example in the instruction session. Next, the raters independently analysed these speeches and labelled text fragments, after which the agreement between raters was determined with Cohen's kappa.

The reliability scores showed a substantial agreement (κ = .69, p<.001) up to a good agreement (κ = .91, p < .001) (cf. Landis & Koch, 1977). Table 3.6 presents an overview of the scores.

Table 3.6: Overview of the reliability scores per type of technique and corpus.

Techniques	**Corpus (type of speaker)**	**Reliability score**
Organisation techniques	Scholars and politicians	• κ = .68 (p < .001) for all techniques • κ = .91, (p < .001) excluding *transition*
Organisation techniques	TED speakers	• K = .82 (p<.001) for *partitio*, announcement of conclusion. circle technique and summary • κ = .87 (p < .001) for the *transition* (second round of analysis focused on this technique only, after discussion between raters)
Elaboration techniques	Scholars, politicians	κ = .69 (p<.001) for all techniques
Elaboration techniques	TED speakers	κ = .79 (p<.001) for all techniques

The raters obtained the highest reliability for text fragments of organisation techniques that could only occur once every presentation text (according to their definition in Section 3.1.2) and were required to be in the introduction (*partitio*) or in the conclusion of the presentation (announcement of the conclusion, circle technique, summary). The determination of transitions, anecdotes and questions, which could occur multiple times throughout the presentation text, proved to be more challenging. In some cases, a second analysis was needed based on a revised labelling instruction for these techniques in order to achieve acceptable scores. This revised instruction, which contained more detailed descriptions and examples of distinct features of a specific technique, was then used to analyse all presentation texts (Appendix B.3 contains the final version of the labelling instruction). After the determination of the inter-rater reliability, the remaining presentation texts were analysed by a single researcher.

3.4 Results organisation techniques

How did the scholars, politicians and TED speakers apply the organisation techniques? First, Section 3.4.1 presents the frequency of the techniques per corpus. This quantitative overview provides insight into the overall use of the techniques and can indicate general trends in the use of the organisation techniques per type of speaker. Next, Sections 3.4.2 to 3.4.5 have a qualitative character; they contain examples of the organisation techniques that were found in the three corpora and they offer insight into variations in content, structure and style of each of the techniques on a more detailed level. This way, the quantitative and qualitative approaches are complementary. All the examples that are taken from the speech and presentation texts contain references to their specific presentation number, which corresponds to the overview in Appendix B.1. Section 3.4.2 zooms in on the *partitio*, after which the announcement of the conclusion and summary are the focus of Section 3.4.3. The circle technique takes the stage in Section 3.4.4, after which Section 3.4.5 evolves around the use of transitions.

3.4.1 Frequency of organisation techniques per corpus

How often do the organisation techniques occur in each corpus? Table 3.7 presents the frequency of the organisation techniques per type of speaker. The first four techniques could only be labelled once in every presentation; the frequency of the transition, which could occur throughout the presentation text, is expressed in average occurrence per speech and per thousand words of the (sub-)corpus.

Table 3.7: Overview of the frequency of organisation techniques per corpus.

Organisation technique	**Scholars (N=16)**	**Politicians (N=16)**	**TED speakers (N=16)**
Partitio	8	1	4
Announcement of the conclusion	10	5	7
Summary	9	0	4
Circle technique	2	7	0
Transition (average per speech / per 1000 words)	5 per speech / 1.5 per 1000 words	2 per speech / 0.7 per 1000 words	3 per speech / 1.0 per 1000 words

Per type of speaker, the frequency of organisation techniques as shown in table 3.7 is discussed. Scholars apply nearly all organisation techniques most often: they use eight *partitios*, ten announcements of the conclusions, nine summaries, and on average, they use more transitions than the politicians and TED speakers. Only the circle technique is applied more frequently by another type of speaker (the politicians). The scholars' preference for organisation techniques is in agreement with their main purpose to inform their audience. Speakers who aim to inform their audience usually rely on establishing a clear structure. The (complex) research topic and audience might also call for such an emphasis on structure: fellow scholars are not only interested in the final conclusion, but also in the various steps that were taken in the study. Researchers in the audience may also expect that characteristic elements of a research presentation are clearly marked (e.g. the research question, method, results, and discussion). Although scholars comparatively use the largest number of organisation techniques, with their informative purpose in mind it is noteworthy that about half the number of presentations do not contain a *partitio* and summary, and that six scholars do not announce the conclusion.

The politicians appear not to prefer explicitly marked organisation techniques: of the three types of speakers, they use the smallest number of announcements of the conclusion (five), *partitios* (one) and summaries (none). Furthermore, they apply about half as many transitions as the scholars. However, the politicians deploy the circle technique, which is not necessarily accompanied by a structure marker, more often than the scholars and the TED speakers. This seems to be more in agreement with their main purpose to persuade. The focus of the speech is probably not on structure alone; with the varied composition of their audience in mind, politicians may want to have a number of rhetorical irons in the fire.

In general, the frequency of organisation techniques used by TED speakers is in between that of the scholars and politicians (four *partitios*, seven announcements of the conclusion, four summaries, and an average use of transition sentences compared to the scholars and the politicians). This appears to be in agreement with their inspirational purpose, which is described as a mix of an informative and a persuasive objective (see Section 3.2.4). Of the organisation techniques they apply, the TED speakers most often selected the announcement of the conclusion (in almost half the number of talks). *Partitio*s and summaries are relatively rare; they are applied in 25% of the talks. This might be a consequence of the focus on the 'idea worth spreading', which is often considered to be more important than emphasising the main points or steps leading to that idea.

No circle techniques were found in the corpus of TED talks. While that result suggests that TED speakers do not prefer to emphasise the structure by referring to an introductory example in the conclusion, such an interpretation should be nuanced. The presentation texts of the TED talks presented a few doubtful cases regarding the labelling of circle techniques. For example, in at least four TED talk texts, an example or sentence from the introduction was restated not only in the conclusion, but also in the core part of the speech. In these cases, such a repetitive phrase or example rather served as a theme or storyline throughout the presentation. This means that it could not be labelled as a circle technique according to the (strict) definition that was used in the current study, which involves a specific case of repetition in the concluding part of the speech of information mentioned in the introduction only. At the same time, the lack of circle techniques does not mean that TED speakers in the corpus did not tie their stories together—to the contrary.[218]

The results in table 3.7 show some general trends; in the following sections, the usage of organisational retention techniques on the level of style, content and formulation will be explained with examples from the analysed corpora.

3.4.2 Partitio: "tell them what you are going to tell them"

With a *partitio*, a preview of the presentation structure that is provided in the introduction, speakers can foreground the presentation's key points (see Section 2.5.23). This allows listeners to prepare themselves for the contents and structure of the speech. In the three corpora, the *partitio* is preferred by scholars: in half the number of research presentations (eight) an overview of the presentation structure was detected. Four TED speakers used a *partitio* (a quarter of the corpus), whereas the politicians used the smallest number of *partitios* (only one was labelled).

The style and form of the *partitios* reflect the quantitative distribution: scholars use the most extensive *partitios*, TED speakers seem to prefer briefer *partitios* (although some scholars do so too), and the only *partitio* detected in the corpus of political speeches was rather short and did not contain clear references to the speech structure. Based on the examples, I will distinguish between two *partitio* variants: the informative and the indicative *partitio*.

Informative *partitio*

In the informative *partitios* that were found, the speaker explains the purpose of the presentation (*propositio*, see Section 2.5.25) and describes each key point in the order in which they will appear in the speech. Not only is the key point or argument mentioned, but the speaker also shares some important information related to these key points; sometimes, the speaker also motivates the chosen structure. These ingredients can make the informative *partitio* an extensive type of structure overview, as shown in example 3.1 (research presentation):

> **Example 3.1 – structure markers in *italics***
> And *what I want to do today is* [uh] give an impression of the type of stylistic research I have in mind in the next few years [click]. In doing so, *I want to pose two central questions*: *the first is* how style can be

[218] An example of such a repetitive theme or main thread was found in TED Talk #12, which starts with a story about a suitcase full of books. This suitcase full of books appears to represent the character of introvert people (metaphorical use) and recurs as a theme in the core part and the conclusion of the speech. Therefore, it is not labelled as a circle technique (a specific form of repetition), but it could be qualified as another repetitive organisation strategy. This study did not take into account the broader retention technique or category 'repetition' (see Section 3.1.1).

> systematically analysed, where I first sketch the [click b] context, [uh] how style, yes how style is analysed in the most important traditions in which speeches are an important object of study. And next [click b] I want to say something about my own approach, for which a hand-out is passed, has been passed round. Has every received it, in the back as well? Okay, because otherwise I have, here Connie, maybe you can hand out something, there are plenty. *And in the second part of my presentation I would like to* argue that style does not only lie within notable [uh] tropes and figures but also in unnoticed grammatical constructions and phenomena, that are underexposed in most style analyses [click b] and that I would like to illustrate with an example by Geert Wilders in last year's debate on Islamic activism, in which he called minister Vogelaar 'nuts'. (Research Presentation #9)[219]

In this informative *partitio*, the speaker starts with the purpose statement of the presentation ("what I want to do today is…"). Next, the speaker moves into an explanation of a rather complex structure, which consists of two questions that are addressed in the presentation. These questions each have one or more sub-points or examples. The *partitio* is briefly interrupted by a remark on the handout that is being passed around. It is informative in the sense that it already provides insight into an important argument: "in the second part of my presentation I would like to argue that style does not only lie within notable tropes and figures but also in unnoticed grammatical constructions and phenomena, that are underexposed in most style analyses…". Example 3.1 is the longest *partitio* that was found in the corpus (185 words, in a total presentation length of 2592 words). The second longest *partitio*, which is almost as long as example 3.1, is an informative *partitio* from the Research Presentations Corpus as well.

However, not all informative *partitios* are extensive. Example 3.2 shows a more concise informative *partitio* from the corpus of TED talks.

> **Example 3.2 – structure markers in *italics***
> *What I'm going to do today is I'm going to show you what* the research says about why we're all liars, how you can become a liespotter and

[219] Research Presentation #9: "En wat ik vandaag wil doen is [eeh] een indruk geven van het type stijlonderzoek wat ik voor ogen heb in de komende jaren [klik]. Daarbij wil ik twee vragen [eeh] centraal stellen: de eerste is hoe stijl systematisch kan worden geanalyseerd en daarbij schets ik eerst [klik b] context, [eeh] hoe stijl, hoe ja hoe stijl wordt geanalyseerd in de belangrijkste tradities waarbinnen [eeh] toespraken een belangrijk object van studie zijn. En vervolgens [klik b] wil ik iets zeggen over mijn eigen aanpak, daarvoor gaat een, is een hand-out rondgegaan. Heeft iedereen die gekregen, ook achterin? Oké, want ik heb anders, hier Connie, misschien kun jij nog iets doorgeven, er zijn er genoeg. En in het tweede deel van mijn presentatie wil ik graag betogen dat stijl niet alleen in opvallende [eeh] tropen en figuren zit, maar ook in onopvallende grammaticale constructies en verschijnselen, die in de meeste stijlanalyses onderbelicht blijven [klik b] en dat wil ik dan graag illustreren aan de hand van een voorbeeld van Geert Wilders in het debat over Islamitisch activisme van vorig jaar, waarin hij minister Vogelaar 'knettergek' noemde."

> why you might want to go the extra mile and go from liespotting to truth seeking, and ultimately to trust building. (TED Talk #16)

This *partitio* contains 49 words, in which both the structure of the talk is exposed (three main points will be addressed) and the main argument is put forward (the final point: “why you…trust building”). A notable difference with example 3.1 is that the speaker uses metacommunication to a lesser extent. The informative *partitio* in example 3.2 lines up the main points that will be addressed without explicitly referring to specific parts of the presentation, which was done in example 3.1 (“in the second part of my presentation….”).

Indicative *partitio*

In the indicative *partitios*, speakers only refer to the main points in abstract, generic terms. Example 3.3 gives an impression of such an indicative *partitio*.[220]

> **Example 3.3 – structure markers in *italics***
> [click] [uh] *I will briefly explain* the purpose of the project to you, and the theoretical perspectives we use, to tackle these actually, it is mostly about behaviour and communication about behaviour *and then I will tell you about* a research plan. [uh]… **(**Research Presentation #16)[221]

Here, the speaker gives a more abstract overview of the speech content, only providing generic labels of the main points that will be addressed (“purpose”, “research plan”). For example, the speaker announces that the theoretical perspectives that will be discussed are “mainly about behaviour and communication about behaviour”, without specifically mentioning which perspectives will be used. Contrary to the informative *partitio*s in examples 3.1 and 3.2, this structure overview does not give any insight into the purpose or main argument of the presentation itself. It does, however, prepare the audience for the general structure that it can expect in the remainder of the presentation.

Example 3.4, from the TED Talk Corpus, shows an indicative *partitio* that does reveal some more about the purpose of the talk, but that remains a bit more abstract about the structure of the talk:

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[220] The subtype of the indicative *partitio* shows a close resemblance with the elaborate transition, which will be discussed in Section 3.4.5. The main difference is that a *partitio*—by definition—is bound to the introduction of a speech and deals with the structure of the overall speech, whereas the elaborate transition sentence can be about any part in the core of the speech and does not necessarily cover the entire speech. Still, it requires insight into the speech structure and a demarcation of the introduction to clearly distinguish between these two variants of retention techniques.

[221] Research Presentation #16: “[klik] [Eeh] ik ga het doel van het project aan jullie kort uitleggen, en de theoretische invalshoeken die wij gebruiken, om die te tackelen eigenlijk, het gaat vooral over gedrag en communicatie over gedrag en dan ga ik jullie vertellen over een onderzoeksplan. [Eeh]…”

Example 3.4 – structure markers in *italics*
So I'm a researcher-storyteller, *and I'm going to talk to you today*—we're talking about expanding perception—*and so I want to talk to you and tell* some stories about a piece of my research that fundamentally expanded my perception and really actually changed the way that I live and love and work and parent. (TED Talk #4)

In example 3.4, the topic of the talk is addressed by the TED speaker in a side-note ("we're talking about expanding perceptions") and then she focuses on the fact that she will tell "some stories" that did indeed expand her perceptions. The listeners do not know how many stories they can expect and what these stories will be about, but they do already have an indication of the outcome of the stories. Still, the speaker uses rather abstract descriptions. The speaker appears to intentionally use a rather abstract *partitio*, as other elements of this *partitio* indicate that she has a high sense of structure: the speaker announces that she will tell "stories", which is related to the reference to herself as a "researcher-storyteller", and these stories are—not coincidentally—about the topic of the talk ("expanding perceptions").

3.4.3 Announcement of the conclusion and summary: "tell them what you have told them"

"Tell them what you have told them": this is a piece of advice that is regularly given in public-speaking textbooks to enhance retention. The conclusion is the part of a speech that is preferred by textbook authors for providing a recapitulation. Therefore, the summary is closely related to the announcement of the conclusion. In fact, in the research presentations and the TED talks, all summaries that were labelled were preceded by a structure marker that announced the conclusion. Therefore, the two techniques are both discussed in this section.

Announcement of the conclusion

At first sight the announcements of the conclusion that were found in the presentation texts do not vary a great deal. Because of its nature and purpose, the announcement of the conclusion is not the most eligible technique for stylistic variation; its aim is to clearly mark the final part of the presentation. Upon closer inspection, two variants can be distinguished, clear and vague announcements, which mainly differ in the decisiveness with which the speaker marks the start of the conclusion.

Clear announcement. Clear announcements of the conclusion leave no room for doubt: the meaning of the message is transparent, the audience knows what will happen. Scholars use the most explicit references such as 'conclusion' or 'closing statement'. Examples 3.6a, b and c show ways in which scholars apply a clear structure marker for the final part of the presentation:

Examples 3.6 a, b and c

a) And with that I have actually already reached my conclusion… (Research Presentation #9)[222]
b) So, what are the conclusions? (Research Presentation #12)[223]
c) What do we conclude from this? (Research Presentation #13)[224]

These statements and questions are straightforward: the conclusion will be presented to the audience. The use of the explicit reference to the concluding part of the speech aligns with the format of research presentations, in which a (preliminary) conclusion of the study is usually drawn at the end of the talk. Affirmative statements and questions are both used as announcements.

The politicians more often refer to the act of "wrapping up" or "concluding" than to conclusion as a part of the speech. Example 3.7a shows a characteristic announcing marker that was found in the corpus of political speeches, whereas example 3.7b presents a more uncommon variant that was found.

Examples 3.7a and b

a) Madam Speaker, I will wrap up. (Political Speech #2)[225]
b) As I already stated, I can talk briefly and conclude swiftly: […]. (Political Speech #15)[226]

Example 3.7a contain the characteristic address "Madam Speaker", a convention in the parliamentary context, which sometimes even serves as a structure marker by itself (it indicates that the speaker will continue the speech, in particular after an interruption). Both announcements in examples 3.7a and b are clear about what to expect: the final words or a conclusion. Example 3.7b is perhaps the most creative version found of the announcement of the conclusion in all three the corpora—it deviates from the standard reference to "conclusion" or "wrap-up".

Finally, TED speakers use their own characteristic phrases for announcing the conclusion, which are different from the ones that are used by the scholars and politicians. Examples 3,8a, b and c are three variants of the most common announcing marker used by the TED speakers:

Examples 3.8 a, b and c

a) The last thing I'm going to leave you with is this. (TED Talk #2)
b) The lesson I want to leave you with, from these data, is… (TED Talk #11)
c) So, as a last thought, … (TED Talk #6)

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[222] Research Presentation #9: "En daarbij kom ik eigenlijk [klik] al aan mijn conclusie."
[223] Research Presentation#12: "Dus, wat zijn de conclusies?"
[224] Research Presentation #13: "Wat concluderen we hieruit?"
[225] Political Speech #2: "Voorzitter, ik rond af."
[226] Political Speech #15: "Ik zei het al: ik kan kort spreken en snel concluderen: […]."

Of the seven announcements of the conclusion in the TED Talk Corpus, five are variants of the phrase "the last thing I would like to leave you with".[227] It is clear that the wrap-up will follow, but the speakers avoid mentioning "conclusion". Instead, they less explicitly signal that they are about to wrap up than in examples 3.7a and b. They do so by indicating the "last thing" or "thought" and involve the audience by addressing it ("you").

Vague announcement. Some announcements of the conclusion were less clearly formulated. All these cases were found in the Research Presentations Corpus, such as examples 3.9a, b and c:

Example 3.9a, b and c

a) Well, then the bit more general conclusion of both experiments… (Research Presentation #5)[228]

b) Well, yes and in conclusion […] these studies are not I [uh] already started by saying that… (Research Presentation #7)[229]

c) Good, well yes the conclusion… (Research Presentation #15)[230]

Examples 3.9a, b and c all contain references to the conclusion of the presentation, but these are accompanied by vague descriptors such as "bit more general". Compared to examples 3.6, 3.7 and 3.8, the announcements in 3.9 appear to be less assertively formulated. More hesitantly phrased sentences such as "Good, well yes the conclusion" (3.9c) perhaps most strikingly contrast with the bold "The last thing I want to leave you with" used by TED speakers, which unambiguously manages the audience's expectations. It must be noted that the transcription method of the research presentations differed from that of the presentation texts of the politicians and TED speakers; the research presentations were transcribed in a detailed, exact manner—resembling conversation analysis—which means that they are more likely to show hesitations and mispronunciations on the micro-level of formulation.

A special case in the category of announcements of the conclusion is the so-called 'false' announcement of the conclusion, found in Research Presentation #8. The speaker announced the conclusion with "I'll briefly wrap up", after which the conclusion still lasted for another 267 words—about 7% of the total speech length. The length of closing statements did not fulfil the promise of a "brief" wrap-up. Section 2.6.3 in the previous chapter discusses how textbook authors warn against the use of such a "postponed ending".

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[227] The other two announcing statements are "I end now with…" and "Let me wrap up". See Appendix B.5 for an overview of all the text fragments labelled in the three corpora.

[228] Research Presentation #5: "Nou dan een beetje algemenere conclusie van beide experimenten."

[229] Research Presentation #7: "Nou ja en tot slot [..] deze deze onderzoeken staan niet ik [eeh] begon al met te zeggen dat…."

[230] Research Presentation #15: "Goed, ja nou de conclusie."

Summary
Unlike the announcement of the conclusion, the summary comes in a variety of flavours and appearances. Two main reference points are used to describe the various instances that were found: (1) the length of the summaries, and (2) their content, structure, and style.

Length. The summaries in the speech corpora considerably varied in length. Particularly the research presentations, which had a comparable overall length, contained both concise and elaborate summaries. To illustrate this, example 3.10 presents a brief summary, while example 3.11 shows the longest summary that was found.

> **Example 3.10– structure markers in *italics***
> *I will summarise what more we have found*: a significant difference appears to exist between perception of understanding and real understanding, and clear relationships exist between perception of understanding, appreciation, tendency to discussion of and attitude towards safe sex. (Research Presentation #14)[231]

> **Example 3.11 – structure markers in *italics***
> *What are our conclusions?* Well, *first of all* that there is a match between the contents of the heuristics we used and the knowledge of the experts. [uh]. *Two aspects* are involved. *First*, *it is an [uh] advantage*, because at least it indicates that people who want to pay attention to [uh] 'comprehensibility' and 'navigation', that they can indeed use these heuristics to evaluate because these reasonably cover that knowledge, *but at the same time one of the advantages that the use of heuristics [uh] can have is* that they focus your [uh] attention to the [uh] newest state-of-the-art knowledge. And for this target group anyway, which were [uh] communication [uh] [uh] alumni, [uh] they apparently already had this knowledge in their own [uh] package so there it did not have the use of the [uh] heuristic content-wise not of added value. What happened here of course is that people [uh] [uh] saw the heuristic and then immediately had to work with it, and [uh] to learn how to work with it and efficiently do so, [uh] that probably cost time and [uh] in this case [uh] it worked out negatively, but that does not mean [uh] it should always be negative. Probably with more [uh] [uh] time to practise, with more [uh] experience, you can [uh] learn how to work with it more efficiently. [uh] *And [uh] also an [uh] aspect of what we saw here is that* there is a [uh] much stronger focus on the topic of heuristics. *So* if you [uh] want to focus in 'comprehensibility', or really want [uh] want to evaluate one topic, then it can indeed help to work

[231] Research Presentation #14: "Ik vat samen wat we verder gevonden hebben. Er blijkt een flink verschil tussen gepercipieerd begrip en werkelijk begrip, en er zijn duidelijke relaties tussen gepercipieerd begrip, waardering, geneigdheid tot discussie en attitude tegenover veilig vrijen."

> with such a heuristic, because you [uh] will not pay as much [uh] attention to other things. And those were my [uh] [uh] stories. (Research Presentation #6)[232]

On the one hand, the summary in example 3.10 consists of a single sentence (albeit a long one). On the other hand, example 3.11 takes up a little over 10% of the overall speech length; it is the longest, but not the only elaborate summary in the corpus. Despite their difference in length, both examples contain features of a summary, such as an explicit attention marker and an occurrence in the conclusion. Textbooks authors do not offer a clear-cut advice on the summary's ideal (relative) length (see Section 2.5.3); some authors do point out that it should not be too redundant, which does not appear to concur with formulating an extensive summary.

Content, structure and style. What information do speakers include in the summary and how do they organise and formulate it? Examples 3.12 (research presentation) and 3.13 (TED talk) present summaries in which the speakers aim to focus on the main points of the presentation and present the content in a structured way (structure markers indicated in italics). These summaries can be qualified as informative, resembling the distinction between indicative and informative *partitio*s in Section 3.4.2.

> **Example 3.12– structure markers in *italics***
> And with that *I have actually [click] reached my conclusion*. *In my project, I do indeed want to look at* how, right, how those various means

[232]Research Presentation #6: "Wat zijn onze conclusies? Nou, ten eerste dat er een match is tussen de inhoud van de heuristieken die we hebben gebruikt en de kennis van de experts. [eeh] Dat heeft twee aspecten. Ten eerste is dat een [eeh] voordeel, omdat dat in ieder geval aangeeft dat mensen die willen letten op [eeh] 'begrijpelijkheid' en 'navigatie', dat zij dat zij inderdaad deze heuristieken kunnen gebruiken om daarmee te evalueren want dan dekken ze redelijk die kennis af, maar tegelijkertijd één van de voordelen die het gebruik van heuristiek [eeh] kan hebben is dat het je [eeh] aandacht vestigt op de meeste [eeh] nieuwe state-of-the-art kennis. En in ieder geval bij deze doelgroep, namelijk communicatie [eeh] [eeh] alumni, [eeh] die hadden blijkbaar die kennis al in hun eigen [eeh] pakket dus daar had het niet echt het gebruik van de [eeh] heuristiek qua inhoud niet echt een toegevoegde waarde. [eeh] Wat we ook zagen dus is die [eeh] daling in het aantal probleemdetecties in de heuristische evaluatie. [eeh] Wat hier natuurlijk gebeurde was dat mensen [eeh] [eeh] de heuristiek zagen en vervolgens d'r meteen mee moesten gaan werken, en [eeh] om zeg maar daarmee te leren werken en om dat efficiënt te gaan doen, [eeh] dat kostte waarschijnlijk tijd en [eeh] in dit geval [eeh] werkte dat negatief, maar dat wil niet zeggen [eeh] dat het altijd negatief hoeft te zijn. Waarschijnlijk met meer [eeh] [eeh] oefentijd, met meer [eeh] ervaring, kun je d'r waarschijnlijk efficiënter mee [eeh] leren werken. [eeh] En [eeh] ook een [eeh] aspect wat we hier zagen was dat er een [eeh] veel sterkere focus is op het onderwerp van de heuristiek. Dus als je [eeh] je echt wil richten op 'begrijpelijkheid', of echt wil [eeh] op één onderwerp wil gaan evalueren, dan kan het dus inderdaad helpen om met zo'n heuristiek te werken, omdat je dan zeg maar andere dingen [eeh] daar minder op gaat [eeh] letten. En dat waren mijn [eeh] [eeh] verhalen."

> of style together lead to a certain [uh] yes, to a certain image for a speaker. *Thus*, I want to do that [uh] with such a checklist, *because with that you can* obtain a broader perspective on stylistic means that can be relevant [uh] in your analysis. *Because that can bring you to*, to stylistic phenomena that upon first reading, or if you only look at notable aspects, then you also miss aspects, such as that complementation construction. Or well, actually the lack of it, well it is the question whether you find that if you only work top-down and not bottom-up. Well, *the second point [uh] that style also is in unnoticed linguistic elements [uh], I have tried to illustrate with* [uh] complementation with Wilders, or more so the lack thereof. And more implicitly, *but an important point*, that stylistic analysis becomes particularly interesting by making a comparison. For example by [uh] comparing speakers with each other or by making a comparison with alternative formulations. (Research Presentation #9)[233]

The summary in example 3.12 reflects the structure of the *partitio* in the same presentation (see example 3.1 in Section 3.4.2), which (classical) rhetoricians would consider to be a clear and structured strategy. The speaker refers to two main points that were already announced in the *partitio* (e.g. "well the second point [uh] that style also has [uh] is in the unnoticeable linguistic elements, I have tried to illustrate with… [etc.]" and then briefly explains these.

While the summary in example 3.12 is rather extensive, example 3.13 from a TED speaker is both concise and informative:

> **Example 3.13**
> *The last thing I'm going to leave you with is* this. Tiny tweaks can lead to big changes. *So*, this is two minutes. Two minutes, two minutes, two minutes. Before you go into the next stressful evaluative situation, for two minutes, try doing this, in the elevator, in a bathroom stall, at your desk behind closed doors. That's what you want to do. Configure your brain to cope the best in that situation. Get your testosterone up. Get

[233] Research Presentation #9: "En daarbij kom ik eigenlijk [klik] al aan mijn conclusie. Ik wil in mijn project juist ook gaan kijken naar hoe hè, hoe die verschillende stijlmiddelen gezamenlijk tot een bepaald [eeh] ja, tot een bepaald beeld leiden bij een spreker. Dat wil ik dus gaan doen [eeh] aan de hand van zo'n checklist, omdat je daardoor een breder perspectief kunt krijgen op stilistische middelen die relevant kunnen zijn [eeh] in je analyse. Omdat je daardoor ook op, op stilistische verschijnselen kunt komen die je bij eerste lezing, of als je alleen maar kijkt naar zaken die opvallen, dan dan mis je ook zaken, zoals die complementatieconstructie. Nou ja, juist het ontbreken daarvan, nou ja het is de vraag of je dat vindt als je als je alleen maar topdown werkt, en niet ook bottom-up. Nou het tweede punt [eeh] dat stijl ook in onopvallende linguïstische elementen heeft [eeh] zit, heb ik proberen te illustreren aan [eeh] complementatie bij Wilders, of juist het ontbreken daarvan. En meer impliciet, maar wel een belangrijk punt, denk ik, dat stijlanalyse met name interessant wordt door middel van een vergelijking te maken. Bijvoorbeeld door [eeh] sprekers met elkaar te vergelijken of door een vergelijking te maken met alternatieve formuleringen."

> your cortisol down. Don't leave that situation feeling like, oh, I didn't show them who I am. Leave that situation feeling like, I really feel like I got to say who I am and show who I am. (TED Talk #2)

This summary contains less explicit structure markers than example 3.12, apart from the opening announcement. Instead, the speaker appears to apply repetitive stylistic devices to point out the main points to the audience: “two minutes” is repeated three times, and the short, concise sentences have a similar grammatical structure (*parallelism*). The restated main points reflect the overall speech content.[234] This way of summarising is in line with some textbook advice that was mentioned in Section 2.5.3: the summary should bring the main points to the attention of the audience without repeating the exact words used in the core part of the speech.[235]

Compared to the informative summaries in examples 3.12 and 3.13, examples 3.10 and 3.11 can be qualified as indicative summaries. The conciseness of example 3.10’s summary probably makes it easier for the audience to digest, but at the same time leads to a more superficial restatement of the main points (what do the “significant difference” and the “clear relationships” that are mentioned actually mean?). Far from concise, example 3.11 is longest summary in found in all three the corpora.[236] Its structure might leave the audience confused. At the start, the first conclusion is clearly announced with “first of all”, but immediately after it is divided into “two aspects”—this could be an example of over-structuring: would the hierarchy

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[234] The “two minutes” in example 3.13 is a repetitive structuring mechanism in TED talk #2, appearing in the introduction, core part and conclusion of the talk. It is an example of how some TED speakers apply storylines based on main threads or themes that run throughout the talk. This phenomenon was not systematically taken into account in this analysis (see Section 3.4.1).

[235] Contrary to example 3.13, some TED speakers do rely on clear structure markers in their summary. An example can be found in TED Talk #9: “*Let me wrap up*.There is a mismatch between what science knows and what business does. Here is what science knows. *One*: Those 20th century rewards, those motivators we think are a natural part of business, do work, but only in a surprisingly narrow band of circumstances. *Two*: Those if-then rewards often destroy creativity. *Three*: The secret to high performance isn't rewards and punishments, but that unseen intrinsic drive—the drive to do things for their own sake. The drive to do things cause they matter.”

[236] Based on example 3.11 alone, it might seem as of the speaker is not summarising the presentation but presenting the main results. However, the presentation text shows results that were already elaborately discussed prior to the text fragment shown in example 3.11. Therefore, the text fragment was considered a summary: it is part of the conclusion of the presentation and appears to summarise the main results, using structure markers. This fragment is also an example of a point of confusion that occurred during the analysis of research presentations: it is not always clear whether a speaker refers to the conclusion of the presentation or the main conclusion(s) of the research. In a research presentation, the research conclusions usually coincide with the concluding part of the presentation, but this is not necessarily the case (e.g. in case two or more studies are presented). In this analysis, a reference to ‘conclusion’ in the final part of the presentation was considered to be a reference to the concluding part of the presentation.

be clear to the audience? The remainder of the summary does not contain any explicit reference to (at least) a second conclusion. Instead, the speaker uses vague descriptions such as “another aspect that we saw was…”, which rather makes this summary an accumulation of various ‘aspects’.

3.4.4 Circle technique: close the loop

The circle technique was found in almost half the number of political speeches, which makes it the most frequently used organisation technique in the corpus of political speeches. In contrast, it is the least frequently used organisation technique used by scholars and TED speakers. The circle technique less overtly refers to the presentation’s structure, which sets it apart from the other selected organisation techniques that rely on more concrete signalling phrases. Still, the circle technique can be explicitly marked as well. The following examples show two main ways in which the circle technique is applied in the presentations: with and without a structure marker that refers to the introduction part of the speech.

Circle technique with structure marker

The clearest instances of circle techniques in the conclusion of a speech are exact repetitions of phrases used in the introduction, accompanied by a reference to the introduction or beginning of the speech, as shown in example 3.14 (political speech).

> **Example 3.14 – structure marker in *italics***
> [introduction]: To the cabinet applies: it knows the price of everything, but of nothing its value. What are we fighting our way through the crisis for?
> […]
> [conclusion]: Mr. Speaker, the Rutte cabinet knows the price of everything, but of nothing its value, *I said in the beginning*. (Political Speech #6)[237]

Here, the statement that was used in the introduction is repeated in the conclusion. On top of that, the phrase “I said in the beginning” reminds the audience of the fact that it is a repetition and therewith marks the circle technique. In example 3.14, the repeated phrase coincides with the start of the conclusion. The phrase seems to be carefully crafted: it contains a sharp contrast and almost reads like a paradox. This suggests that it is an intentional circle technique, which is used as a less explicit announcement of the conclusion; it is an alternative for phrases that refer to the concluding part of the presentation or the act of “wrapping up”.

Example 3.15 (research presentation) shows another circle technique that is clearly marked. It is one of the two circle techniques found in the corpus of research presentations.

[237] Political Speech #6: “[introduction]**:** Voor het kabinet geldt: zij kent van alles de prijs, maar van niets de waarde. Waarvoor vechten wij ons door de crisis? […] [conclusion]: Voorzitter. Het kabinet-Rutte kent van alles de prijs en van niets de waarde, zei ik in het begin.”

Example 3.15 – structure marker in *italics*
[introduction]: So in my project I focus on five methods, with which you can evaluate a website among the users. Today, I will not treat all five of them.
[…]
[conclusion]: Well, yes, and in conclusion… these studies do not *I [uh] already started by saying that* I have five methods [uh] in my PhD research. (Research Presentation #7)[238]

Other than in example 3.14, the circle technique in example 3.15 is not only accompanied by a structure marker (I already started by saying…"), but is also preceded by an announcement of the conclusion ("in conclusion"): an accumulation of signals that indicate that the presentation is about to end. Compared to example 3.14, the repeated phrase is more abstract ("five methods") and stylistically less polished.

Circle technique without structure marker
Not all circle techniques that were found in the corpus are marked with a reference to the opening part of the speech (e.g. "introduction", "start" or "beginning"), as example 3.16 shows. The example is taken from a research presentation about a study into the influence of new media use on children's language skills (spelling and grammar).

Example 3.16
[introduction] And we have carried out an online questionnaire […], in which attitudes towards language [eh] [eh] related to new media were questioned. And I will not elaborate on that, but I would like to show a few results. For example, to demonstrate *why there is a question mark in the title of my presentation* [click]. *The parents don't worry as much as we had thought.*
[…]
[conclusion]: *But for now I tend to remove the question mark behind 'worried parents'*; *the parents are right not to feel concerned*. (Research Presentation #13)[239]

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[238] Research Presentation #7: "[introduction]: Nou ik kijk dus in mijn project naar vijf methoden, waarmee je de website kunt evalueren onder de gebruikers. [eeh] Ik ga ze vandaag niet alle vijf [eeh] behandelen […] [conclusion]: Nou ja en tot slot [..] deze deze onderzoeken staan niet ik [eeh] begon al met te zeggen dat ik vijf methoden [eeh] in mijn promotieproject onderzoek."

[239] Research Presentation #13: "[introduction]: En we hebben een enquête via het web uitgevoerd […], waarin attitudes over taalgebruik [eeh] [eeh] in relatie tot nieuwe media bevraagd werden. En ik ga daar niet heel uitgebreid op in, maar ik wil een paar resultaten laten zien. Onder andere om te demonstreren waarom er een vraagteken in de titel van mijn presentatie staat [klik], en het valt wel mee met die zorgen van die ouders. […] [conclusion]: Maar vooralsnog ben ik geneigd om de vraagteken achter bezorgde ouders te gaan wegnemen, de ouders hebben gelijk dat ze zich niet bezorgd voelen."

In the introduction, the speaker announces that he will demonstrate why there is a question mark in the presentation's title; as promised, he refers to that question mark in the conclusion, but he does so without mentioning the "beginning" or "introduction" of the presentation. This appears to be a reference that would have been picked up by attentive listeners, but it is questionable whether all audience members would have been aware of such a more subtle use of the circle technique.

Two other examples of such a more subtle reference to the introduction are found in the Political Speech Corpus (3.17 and 3.18):

> **Example 3.17**
> [introduction]: We are on the threshold of historical events. I belong to the generation that grew up in the shadow of the *Berlin wall*. No one could imagine that one day, this socialist wall would fall. But it fell!
> […]
> [conclusion]: I will wrap up. […]. We will continue to demolish our *Berlin Walls* and make The Netherlands a better place for, as we call them, Henk and Ingrid [the Freedom Party's equivalent for the Average Joe and Jane]. (Political Speech #7)[240]

> **Example 3.18**
> [introduction]: *Almost one million voters* have given us their confidence. *Nearly one million people voted for our ideals* and our ideas about the European Union, mass immigration, health care and safety. […]
> [conclusion]: On behalf of her *nearly one million voters* my party, the Party for Freedom, will pursue a tough opposition.
> (Political Speech #11)[241]

In the introduction of Political Speech #7 (example 3.17), the Freedom Party leader refers to the Berlin Wall as an example of a historical event that no one had imagined. He links it to the political situation at the time of the speech (2011), hinting at similar, seemingly unimaginable events that—according to him—were about to happen. In the conclusion the speaker stages the Berlin Wall once more, thereby implying that he has closed the circle. Political Speech #11 (example 3.18), again by the Freedom Party leader, contains the phrase "almost/nearly 1 million voters" only three times in the speech: twice in the introduction and once in the conclusion. By re-using this phrase

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[240] Political Speech #7: "[introduction] Wij staan aan de vooravond van historische gebeurtenissen. Ik ben nog van de generatie die opgroeide in de schaduw van de Berlijnse muur. Dat die socialistische muur op een dag zou vallen, kon niemand zich voorstellen. Maar hij viel! […] [conclusion] Wij gaan door met het slopen van onze Berlijnse muren en het beter maken van Nederland voor, zoals wij ze noemen, Henk en Ingrid."

[241] Political Speech #11: "[introduction] Bijna 1 miljoen kiezers hebben ons hun vertrouwen gegeven. Bijna 1 miljoen mensen kozen voor onze idealen en onze ideeën over de Europese Unie, de massa-immigratie, de zorg en de veiligheid. […] [conclusion] Mijn partij, de Partij voor de Vrijheid, zal namens haar bijna 1 miljoen kiezers een harde oppositie gaan voeren."

in the conclusion, the speaker sends a subtle signal to the audience that he is closing the loop —just as he did in Political Speech #7.

The references to the speech introduction in examples 3.17 and 3.18 are less explicit than the circle techniques with a structure marker, e.g. "as I said in the beginning". A risk of using such less explicit and more subtle circle techniques is that they are not noticed by (a significant number of) listeners, which means that such a circle technique would be less effective as a structure marker. However, listeners that do pick up a subtle reference to the introduction might be pleased to have discovered such a 'clue', which could lead to a higher 'sense of closure' (see textbook advice in Section 2.5.13). By subtly reminding the listener of the speech structure, such variant of a circle technique could have both an organisational and an elaborative effect.

3.4.5 Transitions: connect the dots

The *partitio* prepares the audience for what is to come, and the summary brings the key points to mind once more. In between, speakers need to connect these key points. To do so, they can use transitions. In Section 3.1.2 the definition is provided of the 'transition' in this study, alongside some examples of transition types (cf. Fahnestock, 2011, pp. 384–386). The analysis of the three presentation corpora showed that speakers use quite a few variants of transition sentences, which I categorise in three main types: announcing the next topic(s), bridging topics and elaborate transition statements.

Announcing the next topic(s)

The most straightforward type of transition sentence is an announcement of the next topic. All three types of speakers in this study apply this type of transition. The announcing statements can be divided into three subtypes: the plain announcement, topic announcement and the structure announcement.

Plain announcement. Speakers who use plain announcements prepare the audience for the fact that a new (sub-)topic will be addressed, without sharing anything about its contents. Examples 3.19a, b and c present plain announcements from all three sub-corpora.

Examples 3.19a, b & c

a) Well, let's look at a [uh] a first [uh] […] [click] fragment. (Research Presentation #1)[242]
b) Now I get to more important matters. (Political Speech #2)[243]
c) And so here's what I found. (TED Talk #4)

All three sentences announce a transition to a next topic, but they do not indicate that specific topic, nor do they refer to the previous topic. An audience that is aware of the presentation's context, would probably be able to learn a bit more from these

[242] Research Presentation #1: "Nou, laten we eens naar een [eeh] een eerste [...][klik] fragment […] kijken."
[243] Political Speech #2: "Ik kom nu bij belangrijkere zaken."

statements: in 3.19a the speaker probably had announced that fragments of a certain study object would be shown, example 3.19b suggests that the business that was discussed before was not that important, and example 3.19c probably elaborates on a study or question that the speaker discussed. Still, that context is needed to understand a possible connection between topics.

Example 3.20 (TED talk) shows a particular plain announcement, which can be called a 'meta announcement':

> **Example 3.20**
> So before I get started, what I'm going to do is I'm going to clarify my goal for you. (TED Talk #16)

Similar to the announcement of the conclusion, the speaker here anticipates an element of the presentation—in this case, the goal. The purpose and the conclusion appear to be such important parts of the speech that speakers occasionally prepare the audience for these elements.

Topic announcement. The topic announcement not only announces the next topic, but also mentions the topic. Examples 3.21a, b and c provide examples for all three the corpora.

> **Examples 3.21a, b & c – structure markers in *italics***
> **a)** And [uh], so *that is important in a minute for* the results [click]. […] *The results*. We had to divide into… (Research Presentation #12)[244]
> **b)** *Then I get to speak about* the housing market. […] Madam Speaker. *I continue with* the housing market. Mr. Pechtold was already looking ahead to it. I wanted to say something about it but I see he wants to make a comment. We are not getting anywhere like this. […]
> *Yes, now I really get to* the housing market, Mr. Pechtold. (Political Speech #1)[245]
> **c)** But *I want to jump up to shallow water now and look at* some creatures that are positively amazing. (TED Talk #10)

In these examples, the speaker specifically announces the topic that will be addressed next. All three examples are also exemplary for their corpus. Example 3.21a presents a content announcement that is regularly used by scholars: the topic is announced (and vaguely connected to the previous topic), the speaker clicks to a next slide and repeats

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[244] Research Presentation #12: "En [eeh], dus dat is even van belang ook dadelijk voor de resultaten [klik]. [...] De resultaten. We moesten splitsen naar…".

[245] Political Speech #1: "Dan kom ik te spreken over de woningmarkt. […] Voorzitter. Ik ga verder met de woningmarkt. De heer Pechtold liep er al op vooruit. Ik wilde er iets over zeggen, maar ik zie dat hij een opmerking wil maken. Zo schiet het niet op. […] Ja, dan kom ik toch een keer aan de woningmarkt, mijnheer Pechtold."

the topic ("the results"), most probably because it is the slide title. The use of slides appears to stimulate such a (repetitive) content announcement. Example 3.21b also contains a repetitive content announcement; this time, the context of the parliamentary speech in a debate seems to force the speaker to repeat the topic three times, as he is interrupted twice. Finally, example 3.21c is exemplary for the TED corpus, as the speaker seems to have put effort into crafting a stylistically compelling transition. The analogy of "jumping into shallow water" corresponds to the speech topic of the underwater world; after that, the topic is announced ("some creatures that are positively amazing").

Two more examples of topic announcements are worth mentioning. First, the topic can sometimes precede the actual transition sentence, as example 3.22 shows. This does not appear to be the preferred order for most speakers, but some speakers apply it more often than others.

> **Example 3.22 – structure marker in *italics***
> And at the same time very subtle practices of positioning can occur.
> *And these are what we will look at* [click].
> (Research Presentation #10) [246]

Second, some topic announcements already introduce the audience to the main idea or conclusion of the following part of the presentation, as is done in example 3.23:

> **Example 3.23 – structure marker in *italics***
> […] *I want to tell you a little story about* being an impostor and feeling like I'm not supposed to be here. (TED Talk #2)

Here, the speaker anticipates the main thought of the anecdote she is about to share, making the content announcement a statement which illustrates the story. This way, the speaker already provides the audience with a framework to interpret the story; from a speaker's perspective, that could be a way to guide the audience along the intended storyline in order to prevent alternative interpretations of the story.

Structuring announcement. The category of structuring announcements comprises transitions in which the speaker foregrounds the structure of the next part of the speech or key point. These structuring announcements differ from a *partitio* in the sense that they aim to structure more on a micro-scale, instead of the macro-scale of the entire presentation. Examples 3.24a, b and c present structuring announcements from the three corpora.

> **Examples 3.24a, b and c – structure markers in *italics***
> a) How we studied this: we performed an experiment. *Prior to the experiment we went through two [uh] preparatory phases*. [uh]

[246] Research Presentation #10: "En daarbij kan tegelijkertijd sprake zijn van hele subtiele positioneringspraktijken. En daar gaan we naar kijken [klik]."

The first phase, well then we finally get to step one [mild laughter]. (Research Presentation #15)[247]

b) Mr. Speaker. *I move to* the contents of the agreement, although I already discussed a lot in interruptions. *On four crucial points my party fought like a lion*: care for the elderly, safety, social security and mass immigration. *First* the care for the elderly. (Political Speech #3)[248]

c) *We know three things about* intelligence. *One*, it's diverse. […] *And the third thing about intelligence is*, it's distinct. (TED talk #1)

Example 3.24a shows a structuring announcement from a research presentation, in which the scholar goes over several steps of the study's methodology. Here, the speaker uses a three-stage structure marker: first, the general topic "experiment" is announced, then it becomes clear that there were two preparatory steps, and finally the first of those steps will be addressed. In this particular case, the speaker appears to mock the use of this complex structure a bit; the statement "well now we get to step one, finally" sparks some laughter, possibly because fellow scholars in the audience recognise the convention of extensively describing the methodology.

Example 3.24b presents a structuring announcement from a political speech, in which the speaker clearly introduces four "crucial points". He does not explicitly state that these points will be addressed, but as soon as he embarks on explaining the first point, "care for the elderly", it will be clear to the audience he will do so. This example is closely related to the figure of *dinumeratio*, "a numbered list of the individual points to come" (Fahnestock, 2011, p. 385). According to Fahnestock, politicians are fond of this figure.

Example 3.24c depicts another way of using a structuring announcement, which seems to be more preferred by TED speakers. The first sentence introduces the fact that we know three "things". These aspects are not yet introduced. Then the first one is mentioned, which will probably put the audience on the right track: the three aspects of intelligence will be discussed one by one. By not announcing the three aspects up front, but by introducing them one after the other, the speaker may have intended to make the audience curious: what will be the next feature? In fact, in TED Talk #1 the speaker dwells on the second feature of intelligence for quite some time and includes an anecdote, possibly leaving some audience members wondering whether he will get to the third feature. He does get to that feature after some time, and apparently feels the need to remind the audience of the speech structure by

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[247] Research Presentation #15: "Hoe we dit onderzocht hebben: we hebben een experiment gedaan. [Eeh] Voorafgaand aan het experiment hebben we twee [eeh] voorbereidende fases doorlopen. [Eeh] De eerste fase, nou dan komen we toch bij stap één uiteindelijk [licht gelach]."

[248] Political Speech #3: "Voorzitter. Ik ga naar de inhoud van het gedoogakkoord, hoewel ik veel al in interrupties heb gedaan. Op vier cruciale punten heeft mijn partij gevochten als een leeuw: de ouderenzorg, de veiligheid, de sociale zekerheid en de massa-immigratie. Eerst de ouderenzorg."

restating the topic of the enumeration: "and the third thing we know *about intelligence*…".

Such a 'suspense-building' function of a structuring announcement is found more often in the TED Talk Corpus; example 3.25 presents another case:

> **Example 3.25**
> So let me give you a famous example, a famous failure and a famous success of the law of diffusion of innovation. (TED Talk #3)

The speaker does not yet reveal what the famous example, failure and success entail, but the audience can anticipate these three topics to be discussed. Some information is shared with the listeners, possibly enough to spark their curiosity, but the announcement remains rather abstract. Furthermore, the structuring announcement is stylistically well shaped: a list of three is used, including repetitive elements, which allegedly gives the audience an impression of completeness (cf. Atkinson, 2004). The transition in example 3.25 appears to be carefully prepared.

Bridging topics

"The figure which briefly recalls what has been said, and likewise sets forth what is to follow next": that is the *transitio*, according to the *Rhetorica ad Herennium* (in Fahnestock, 2011, p. 386). The category of bridging topics resembles this description; it comprises transitions that connect the previous point to the next. By doing this, a speaker can emphasise the coherence in the storyline.[249] Examples 3.26a and b contain bridging transitions from the corpora of research presentations and the political speeches. No such transitions were found in the TED Talk Corpus.

> **Examples 3.26a & b – structure markers in *italics***
> a) So, the preliminary conclusion is very simple: an adapted advertisement is not necessarily always more persuasive […] *And the question of course* is whether it indeed can be fed, *but the answer to that is found with Elizabeth*.
> [change of speakers: Piet hands over to Elizabeth] [click]
> *As for Piet's story*, [uh] a meta-analysis was performed on [uh] quite a number of these [uh] studies in which research was conducted on the effectiveness or the effect of adapting value appeals. (Research Presentation #4)[250]

[249] Andeweg and De Jong (2004, p. 163) discuss a similar technique: a 'bridging device' ('bruggetje' in Dutch). They refer to it as a 'limited' variant of the *partitio*, possibly because their study is aimed at introductory techniques.

[250] Research Presentation #4: "De tussentijdse conclusie is dus heel eenvoudig: een aangepaste advertentie is niet noodzakelijk altijd overtuigender [..] En de vraag is natuurlijk of dat inderdaad kunnen verder voedsel geven, maar daarop is het antwoord te zoeken bij Elizabeth. [sprekerswisseling Piet en Elizabeth][klik] Aansluitend op het verhaal van [eeh] van Piet, [eeh] is er een [eeh] meta-analyse uitgevoerd over [eeh] een flink aantal van die [eeh]

b) Mr. Speaker. I continue my argument. *I have just indicated why* we considered it necessary to agree with that agreement. *A similar breakthrough is needed on* the housing market. *That too* takes political courage. (Political Speech #6)[251]

The bridging transition in example 3.26a most clearly refers to the previous point; the speaker gives a preliminary conclusion. Then, he connects a new question to this conclusion (using "obviously") and indicates that his colleague will provide the answer, before giving the floor to her. Such a change in speakers is not uncommon in the Research Presentations Corpus, and it poses an additional challenge to the speakers. Here, the wrap-up of the previous part and the transition into the new part with a new speaker is carried out quite smoothly. The new speaker even adds "as for Piet's story", to stress the link between the two parts.

A less extensively formulated bridging transition is seen in example 3.26b, from the corpus of political speeches. The reference to the previous point is clearly marked by "I have just indicated…". The speaker continues discussing the housing market, using the similarity with the previous issue as a subtle announcement of the new topic: "a similar breakthrough is needed on the housing market". The audience will have to work out that "agreeing with the agreement" apparently was a "breakthrough" in order to understand this as a smooth transition.

Elaborate transitions (forecasting statements)

The final type of transitions is the elaborate transition or forecasting statement. This category was only found in the corpus of research presentations. It is related to the figure of *praeparatio*, a "forecasting statement […] where the rhetor not only announces the coming sections but also explains ahead of time their purpose and sometimes even their intended effect" (Fahnestock, 2011, p. 385). Examples 3.27a and b are elaborate transitions that are used by scholars.

Examples 3.27a & b – structure markers in *italics*

a) [uh] What I notice when you [uh] look at literature [uh] in which eye tracking occurs in this context, is that it does not focus as much on problems that occur during collection and [uh] analyses of the material. [uh] *Later, I would like to elaborate on* a few problems that I ran into myself and also, yes, especially show the importance of more discussion on [uh] yes problems that [uh] can arise and solutions we can find for them. [click] […] [uh] *First I want to tell a bit more about* the combination between eye tracking and think-

studies waarin onderzoek is verricht naar de effectiviteit of het effect van aanpassing van waarde-appèls."

[251] Political Speech #6: "Voorzitter. Ik vervolg mijn betoog. Ik heb zo-even aangegeven waarom wij het noodzakelijk vonden om met dat akkoord akkoord te gaan. Eenzelfde doorbraak is nodig op de woningmarkt. Ook dat vergt politieke moed."

aloud method, because I also use this combination in my research. (Research Presentation #7)[252]

b) Okay, *today I will tell you a bit more about* this phase, the beta phase. [click] It is endlessly captivating, and I will [laughter] highlight two validations. [uh] Which ones, *you will see later*. And we ask ourselves three important questions: is the proposed procedure, as recorded in gamma, is it feasible? Is it efficient? And, does that procedure enable us to [uh] test criteria? Can we properly work with it? (Research Presentation #8)[253]

Both of the examples are almost like a *partitio*; however, they are not part of the introduction of the presentation. They do not refer to the overall speech, but present an overview of a specific topic treated in the core of the presentation.[254] In both of the examples, speakers also forecast a topic or key point that will be addressed later in the speech: "Later, I would like to elaborate on a few problems…" (3.27a) and "Which ones, you will see later" (3.27b). This way, they already signal the importance of these upcoming topics and their connection with the forthcoming topic. After their forecasting statement, both speakers indicate what they will discuss first. Similar to example 3.24a, which contains a structuring announcement, examples 3.27a and b reflect the need for scholars to extensively structure the presentation, which is possibly related to their explanations of research methodologies and results.

3.5 Results elaboration techniques

How do speakers apply anecdotes and questions in their presentations and speeches? This section answers that question by discussing the frequency of these elaboration techniques in Section 3.5.1, before zooming in on the use of anecdotes in Section 3.5.2 and on the application of questions in Section 3.5.3.

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[252] Research Presentation #7: "[eeh] Wat mij opvalt als je [eeh] literatuur bekijkt [eeh] waarin eyetracking in deze context [eeh] voorkomt, is dat er heel weinig ingegaan wordt op [eeh] problemen die zich voordoen tijdens afnames en [eeh] tijdens [eeh] analyses van het materiaal. [eeh] Ik wil straks graag ingaan op een aantal problemen waar ik zelf tegenaan ben gelopen en ook ja, vooral het belang laten zien *va dat er meer discussie komt over [eeh] ja problemen die zich [eeh] voor kunnen doen en oplossingen die we daarvoor kunnen vinden. [klik] […][eeh] Eerst wil ik iets meer vertellen over de combinatie tussen eyetracking en de hardopdenkmethode, omdat ik die combinatie ook in mijn eigen onderzoek [eeh] gebruik."

[253] Research Presentation #8: "Oké, vandaag ga ik jullie iets meer vertellen over deze fase, de bèta-fase. [klik] Die is eindeloos boeiend, en ik ga daar [gelach] twee validaties uitlichten. [Eeh] Je zult straks zien welke. En we stellen ons drie belangrijke vragen: is de voorgestelde procedure, zoals die is vastgelegd in gamma, is die werkbaar? Is ze efficiënt? En, stelt die procedure ons in staat [eeh] om criteria af te toetsen? Kunnen we d'r ook goed mee aan de slag?"

[254] It can be argued that the *partitio* is a specific type of transition, namely the (elaborate) transition that usually constitutes the final part of the speech's introduction and forecasts structure on the level of the main parts of a speech (higher-order structure).

3.5.1 Results: frequency of anecdotes and questions

Table 3.8 shows the frequency of anecdotes and the different types of questions analysed within the two corpora.[255] Since the length of the corpora differs, the frequencies of the rhetorical techniques are expressed in several ways: the total occurrence, the average per presentation/speech and the average occurrence per thousand words are presented. The standard deviation is presented in parentheses.

Table 3.8: Frequency of anecdotes and questions (accumulated and per rhetorical technique).

Elaborative retention techniques	Scholars (N=16)	Politicians (N=16)	TED speakers (N=16)
Anecdote			
Total occurrences	5	12	22
Average per presentation / speech (Sd)	0.3 (0.6)	0.8 (1.3)	1.4 (1.7)
Average length in words (Sd)	81 (35)	103 (47)	256 (195)
Percentage (%) of the speech length (Sd)	1.8 (2.8)	1.1 (2.4)	8.2 (9.1)
Average occurrence per 1000 words	0.1	0.3	0.5
Question: total			
Total occurrences	192	143	282
Average per presentation / speech (Sd)	12.0 (6.5)	8.9 (9.0)	17.6 (13.5)
Average occurrence per 1000 words	4.0	3.5	6.2
Rhetorical question			
Total occurrences	20	39	117
Average per presentation / speech (Sd)	1.25 (1.57)	2.44 (3.85)	7.3 (4.9)
Average occurrence per 1000 words	0.5	1.0	2.6
Quaestio			
Total occurrences	35	46	63
Average per presentation / speech (Sd)	2.2 (1.6)	2.9 (3.3)	3.9 (4.0)
Average occurrence per 1000 words	0.7	1.1	1.4
Subiectio			
Total occurrences	69	17	90
Average per presentation / speech (Sd)	4.31 (3.40)	1.06 (1.39)	5.6 (5.1)
Average occurrence per 1000 words	1.4	0.4	2.0
Direct / literal question			
Total occurrences	68	41	12
Average per presentation / speech (Sd)	4.3 (3.1)	2.6 (2.3)	0.8 (2.8)
Average occurrence per 1000 words	1.4	1.0	0.3

[255] The frequencies in table 3.8 serve as a point of departure to explore differences between the three types of speakers. The results have not been subjected to a detailed statistical analysis; the reason for this is that too many variables play a part to properly interpret results of such an analysis (see the characteristics of each corpus described in Section 3.2).

In general, TED speakers use the two elaboration techniques most frequently. They use more and on average longer anecdotes than politicians and researchers; this difference is most clear when the anecdote length is expressed in percentage of speech length (on average 8.2% of the TED talks compared to 1.8% and 1.2 % of the research presentations and political speeches, respectively). Scholars use the smallest number of and shortest anecdotes (five anecdotes with an average length of 81 words). Politicians are in between with a number of twelve anecdotes; they do apply much shorter anecdotes than TED speakers, though (103 words on average, compared to 256 words for the TED speakers).

Questions are also most frequently applied by *TED speakers*, most notably accounted for by their frequent use of rhetorical questions (117 in total) compared to the scholars and politicians (twenty and thirty-nine, respectively). Table 3.7 also shows that TED speakers use more *subiectios* and *quaestios* than scholars and politicians. Although TED speakers overall most often use questions, they apply the smallest number of direct or literal questions (twelve, compared to sixty-eight by scholars and forty-one by politicians).

Scholars select direct or literal questions more often than other question types. This can be explained by their regular use of research questions and the more informal context of research presentations (a relatively small audience attends the conference presentations). Scholars are least fond of the rhetorical questions and *quaestios*. Politicians least often apply questions, mainly due to the small number of *subiectios* that they use compared to the scholars and TED speakers; for the other three question types, the politicians obtain average scores (neither the largest nor the smallest number).

The number of elaboration figures applied by the three types of speakers to some extent reflects their main purposes and the rhetorical situation. *TED speakers* intend to inspire and therefore try to involve the audience as much as possible with rhetorical questions, *quaestios* and the most extensive anecdotes. From this perspective, it is remarkable they use the smallest number of direct questions. Possibly, this is because TED talks are usually held in a more theatrical setting to a relatively large audience, which makes involving the audience with a direct question more challenging.

Scholars mostly focus on organisation and structure in their informative presentations (see Section 3.4); this might account for the fact that they have less attention for the two elaboration techniques. The question types they regularly use (direct question and *subiectio*) can be related to the content or organisation of the presentation, while the rhetorical question and *quaestio* seem to appeal more to pathos.

Politicians could perhaps have been expected to use more anecdotes and questions, based on their persuasive purpose and the fact they used the smallest number of organisation techniques. The relatively small number of *subiectios* used by politicians can be explained by the fact that this question type is regularly used as an organisational device (see Section 3.5.3). The anecdote is a relatively complex technique which can contain quite a few ingredients; it requires some time to properly develop in a speech. The rhetorical situation of the politicians, an annual debate with limited speaking time, might have prompted them to opt for other (elaboration) techniques instead.

When interpreting the use of elaboration techniques, the preference of individual speakers for specific techniques needs to be taken into account. Table 3.7 shows a large standard deviation in the usage of various techniques within the corpora. For example, the Political Speech Corpus contains an average of 8.9 words per speech, with a standard deviation of 9.0. This suggests that some politicians regularly use questions, whereas other political speakers do not tend to do so. This can be due to individual preferences of speakers, but the context may also explain such a difference between speakers: opposition party leaders are more likely to ask questions about the governmental policy than coalition party leaders. Furthermore, the difference in speech length due to a variety in speaking time might play a role (see Section 3.2.5). Similarly, some TED speakers frequently use anecdotes (e.g. five anecdotes were found in TED Talk #1), whereas other TED speakers do not use any anecdotes. The fact that these techniques are not evenly distributed over speakers makes clear that genre definitions are not set in stone, and that the role of individual speakers in the rhetorical situation should not be underestimated.

3.5.2 Anecdotes: vivid and relevant stories

The quantitative results showed that TED speakers used more and significantly longer anecdotes than the politicians and scholars. This section zooms in on linguistic and stylistic features of the anecdotes found in the corpora, based on three features that textbook authors regularly attribute to the anecdote (see Section 2.5.2): narrative elements, vividness and relevance.[256] Vividness and relevance were not considered to be distinctive features for determining anecdotes in the presentation texts (see Section 3.1.3), but they are used in this section to interpret variances in language and style in the selected examples from the presentation corpora.

Narrative elements

The presence of a main character, the perspective from which the story is told, a development in events: these elements all indicate the presence of a narrative structure. Examples 3.28 (TED talk), 3.29 (political speech) and 3.30 (research

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[256] Two characteristics are not taken into account in this section: ‘brevity’ is already touched upon in Section 3.4.1, as this section showed that the anecdotes of the TED speakers were the longest, on average; ‘humour’ was considered to be too complex to discuss as a particular characteristic, as it would require a more thorough analysis based on humour theories and the audience’s response. Still, humoristic elements in the examples are occasionally highlighted in this section as an additional noteworthy feature. Vividness and relevance were not included as indicators to recognise anecdotes in the presentation texts, but were considered valuable characteristics in the qualitative descriptions of the techiques in this section. The vividness and relevance have been evaluated by comparing the examples of anecdotes that were found in the three corpora of speeches.

presentation) present anecdotes from the speech corpora that contain these narrative elements in a different manner.

Example 3.28
So at the end of my first year at Harvard, a student who had not talked in class the entire semester, who I had said, "Look, you've gotta participate or else you're going to fail", came into my office. I really didn't know her at all. She came in totally defeated, and she said, "I'm not supposed to be here".
And that was the moment for me. Because two things happened. One was that I realized, oh my gosh, I don't feel like that anymore. I don't feel that anymore, but she does, and I get that feeling. And the second was, she is supposed to be here! Like, she can fake it, she can become it. So I was like, "Yes, you are! You are supposed to be here! And tomorrow you're going to fake it, you're going to make yourself powerful, and, you know—[Applause] "And you're going to go into the classroom, and you are going to give the best comment ever." You know? And she gave the best comment ever, and people turned around and were like, oh my God, I didn't even notice her sitting there. [Laughter]
She comes back to me months later, and I realized that she had not just faked it till she made it, she had actually faked it till she became it. So she had changed. And so I want to say to you, don't fake it till you make it. Fake it till you become it. Do it enough until you actually become it and internalize. (TED Talk #2)

Example 3.29
Even in the summer, I was available to exchange thoughts. Suddenly I found myself at the beach with a colleague, instead of with my children. I was well prepared for the meeting with colleague Samsom [Labour party leader]. I had used enough sunscreen to avoid getting red. It was a much discussed walk on the beach, without any results. As far as I'm concerned: no hard feelings. (Political Speech #16)[257]

Example 3.30
Standardisation is always applied for a number of reasons and most of these reasons have nothing to do with language but all with economy. For example that cost-saving element, the clear brand image they want to show, the fact that they control the communication activity are all important things the marketing people keep themselves occupied with. A characteristic example to illustrate this: this morning on the train to

[257] Political Speech #16: "Zelfs in de zomer was ik beschikbaar voor overleg. Daar zat ik ineens met een collega aan het strand in plaats van met mijn kinderen. Ik had mij op de ontmoeting met collega Samsom goed voorbereid. Ik had mij goed ingesmeerd om niet rood te worden. Het is een veelbesproken strandwandeling geworden, zonder resultaat. Wat mij betreft: zand erover."

> Amsterdam I stopped at the familiar train stations, you'll know them. At the first station in Roosendaal I see this Coca Cola advertisement with the well-known Santa Claus and the perfectly understandable message "Merry Christmas". So Coca Cola does not need to adapt its message, they keep it nice and standard. (Research Presentation #4)[258]

In the anecdotes that were found, the speaker usually is the main character; hence, the anecdotes are often told from a first-person perspective. This also goes for the examples 3.28, 3.29 and 3.30. However, they differ in the ways in which the narratives unfold and in which the main characters are described.

Example 3.28 from the TED Talk Corpus is longest and most detailed, which means that the audience has more time to become familiar with the story. The main character is the speaker herself in her position as a lecturer of social psychology. The audience learns more about the main character than in the other two examples, as the TED speaker explains her emotions and the motivation for her actions in the situation described (e.g. "One was that I realized, oh my gosh, I don't feel like that anymore. I don't feel that anymore, but she does, and I get that feeling"). Moreover, example 3.28 contains a second character that the audience might recognise or familiarise with—the student. Interestingly enough, in the story the speaker identifies herself with the student—she recognises the student's situation and realises that she has now moved on. The anecdote describes how the student is going through a process that the speaker or main character has experienced before, which adds an additional layer to the identification process. Furthermore, the anecdote shows a narrative development: there is a point of departure, where the student feels insecure and "defeated", which culminates into a final situation in which she is more powerful and secure. This is combined with an indication of time: in between the "end of my first year at Harvard" and "months later", the student's transformation has taken place. The location is also mentioned, albeit not described in detail: Harvard, the speaker's or lecturer's office, and the classroom.

Example 3.29 from the Political Speech Corpus is not as long as example 3.28, which means that the audience does not have that much time to identify with the main character. However, perhaps this anecdote by the Liberal Democrats' party leader about his willingness to help out the coalition parties does not have to be that lengthy: the party leader is well-known in this public-speaking context and he can assume that the audience, both the colleagues in parliament and the electorate, is familiar with him as a main character. In the speech text, the change to the first-person

[258] Research Presentation #14: "Standaardiseren gebeurt altijd om een aantal redenen en de meeste van die redenen hebben niks met taal te maken maar wel met economie. Bijvoorbeeld dat kostenbesparend element, het duidelijke merkimago wat men wil uitdragen, het feit dat men controle heeft over de communicatieactiviteit, dat zijn de belangrijke dingen waar marketingmensen mee bezig zijn. Zuivere voorbeeld om dit te illustreren: vanmorgen op de trein naar Amsterdam stop ik uiteraard in de bekende stations. Bij 't allereerste in Roosendaal zie ik daar een affiche staan van Coca-Cola met daarop de oude Kerstman met daarop de perfect begrijpelijke boodschap '*Merry Christmas*'. Dus Coca-Cola heeft het niet nodig om zijn boodschap aan te passen, zij houden 't lekker standaard."

perspective marks the start of the anecdote; from a more general discussion about ‘we, the party’ and ‘you, the government/other parties’ prior to this anecdote, the presentation text switches to ‘I’ in the example. Furthermore, a narrative unfolds in which a setting is painted (the beach), an event is described (a meeting) and a wrap-up sentence is used. Next to that, it is humoristic in the Dutch political context (“avoid getting red” refers to not becoming too closely related to the Labour party; “no hard feelings” in the Dutch text literally reads “let’s cover it with sand”, referring to the context of a walk on the beach). Together with the clear presence of narrative elements and its brevity, example 3.29 is a well-crafted, rich example of an anecdote.

Finally, example 3.30 from the research presentations contains a clear change to a first-person perspective (“this morning… I stopped…”), but provides little detail about the main character. This gives the audience less opportunity to get acquainted with the speaker; however, just as with the political example (3.30), the audience (colleagues or fellow researchers) might already experience a higher perceived similarity with the main character in the first place. Still, based on the anecdote text itself, the political example of example 3.29 appears to contain more features that could incite elaboration, for example via identification and transportation processes (for more on these processes, see footnote 202 in Section 3.1.3). Regarding other narrative elements, example 3.30 contains an indication of time („this morning“) and a location the audience can easily imagine: a train, and a railway station in The Netherlands. However, it hardly contains a narrative development: the main character stops at several train stations, and at a particular trains station his attention is drawn to an advertisement. The story development in examples 3.28 and 3.29 therefore appear to be more suited to draw an audience to the narrative.

The speech corpora also contain anecdotes in which the speaker is not (consistently) the main character—see examples 3.31 (TED talk) and 3.32 (research presentation).

Example 3.31
In 1999, in the state of Israel, a man began hiccupping. And this was one of those cases that went on and on. He tried everything his friends suggested. Nothing seemed to help. Days went by. At a certain point, the man, still hiccupping, had sex with his wife. And lo and behold, the hiccups went away. He told his doctor, who published a case report in a Canadian medical journal under the title, “Sexual Intercourse as a Potential Treatment for Intractable Hiccups.” (TED Talk #10)

Example 3.32
Behaviour predicts behaviour. Everyone who takes the elevator to the office in the morning will probably know the phenomenon that in the rare occasion you need to be on another floor, nine out of ten times you still get off on your own floor by accident. Or just the fact that whenever I am in the elevator, I automatically push that button, okay, in the Erasmus building it is outside of the elevator, that button of the floor I normally go to (mild laughter), because only seeing these buttons already evokes the response “eight”, and there you are again, whereas

> you actually had to go to, well, the fifth. After a few weeks, a habit has been ingrained. (Research Presentation #16)[259]

In example 3.31, the main character is an unknown man. The audience does become familiar with this character all too well, which might hinder the identification process. However, the narrative development is very clearly described: there is a place, time, and a sequence of events in which a problem is solved and a peculiar conclusion is drawn.

In example 3.32 it is more difficult to distinguish a main character. The fragment moves from a more general "everyone" in the first sentence via a first-person perspective to a second-person perspective ("you") in the end. This could hinder the audience from perceiving similarity with a main character, although audience members might recognise themselves in the situation portrayed. The narrative development is less clear than in example 3.32; however, it can be argued that this short story shows some sort of development from an opening scene to a new or changed situation. Still, clear temporal indicators are absent, the story is not that detailed, and a reference to a specific location (Erasmus building) that might be known to the audience is only provided halfway through the anecdote. Example 3.32 could be deemed as an example of a more abstract anecdote, which less explicitly meets (some of) the anecdote features that are described in Section 3.1.3. As a side-note, it illustrates the analytical challenges raters come across when trying to detect anecdotes in presentation texts: example 3.32 is somewhere in the grey area between 'anecdote' and '(personal) example'.

Vividness

Vivid narratives are often associated with concrete and detailed descriptions (see Section 2.5.2). The anecdotes in the TED corpus contain the most vivid stylistic and linguistic elements. On average, they are longer than the anecdotes by scholars and politicians, which suggests that the TED speakers take more time to share details and paint a lively picture. Examples of vivid anecdotes are also found in the political corpus, whereas the research presentations contain anecdotes that are somewhat less lively. Examples 3.33 (TED talk), 3.34 (political speech) and 3.35 (research presentation) illustrate differences in vividness between the corpora.

> **Example 3.33**
> So, I'll start with this: a couple years ago, an event planner called me because I was going to do a speaking event. And she called, and she

[259] Research Presentation #16: "Gedrag voorspelt gedrag. Iedereen die met de lift iedere ochtend naar z'n kantoor gaat, zal ook wel het verschijnsel kennen dat als je een keer op een andere verdieping moet zijn, dat je negen van de tien keer toch per ongeluk op je eigen verdieping uitstapt. Of gewoon het feit, als ik in de lift sta, dan druk ik automatisch op dat knopje, nou ja, in het Erasmusgebouw buiten de lift dan, op het knopje van de verdieping waar je altijd heen moet [licht gelach], want gewoon het zien van die knopjes, roept de respons op: 'acht', en daar sta je weer terwijl je eigenlijk, nou naar de vijfde moest. [Eeh] Gewoonte slijt in na een aantal weken."

said, "I'm really struggling with how to write about you on the little flyer." And I thought, "Well, what's the struggle?" And she said, "Well, I saw you speak, and I'm going to call you a researcher, I think, but I'm afraid if I call you a researcher, no one will come, because they'll think you're boring and irrelevant". [Laughter] And I was like, "Okay". And she said, "But the thing I liked about your talk is you're a storyteller. So I think what I'll do is just call you a storyteller." And of course, the academic, insecure part of me was like, "You're going to call me a what?" And she said, "I'm going to call you a storyteller." And I was like, "Why not magic pixie?" [Laughter] I was like, "Let me think about this for a second." I tried to call deep on my courage. And I thought, you know, I am a storyteller. I'm a qualitative researcher. I collect stories; that's what I do. And maybe stories are just data with a soul. And maybe I'm just a storyteller. And so I said, "You know what? Why don't you just say I'm a researcher-storyteller." And she went, "Ha ha. There's no such thing." (Laughter)

So I'm a researcher-storyteller, and I'm going to talk to you today -- we're talking about expanding perception -- and so I want to talk to you and tell some stories about a piece of my research that fundamentally expanded my perception and really actually changed the way that I live and love and work and parent. (TED Talk #4)

Example 3.34

Last Saturday I visited Heerenveen [town in the north of The Netherlands]. A man opens the door. His daughter is standing behind him. An animated conversation unfolds, because he keeps track of everything: Politiek 24 [a political TV channel], the news bulletins, the newspapers, but they scare him. You know, he says, at night I cannot even bear to watch Pauw and Witteman [late night talk show], fearing another politician being interviewed…

[Hilarity]

You neither? I cannot bear to watch fearing another politician is on who is telling everything needs to change. I don't want it anymore, he says. I don't want everything to change, I just want it to become better. I understood him so well. Seldom were expectations about what politics can realise so much at odds with the opportunities we actually have. (Political Speech #14)[260]

[260] Political Speech #14: "Een man doet open. Zij dochter staat achter hem. Er volgt een geanimeerd gesprek, want hij volgt alles, Politiek 24, het journaal, de kranten, maar hij wordt er bang van. Weet u, zegt hij, ik durf 's avonds niet eens meer naar Pauw & Witteman [late night talkshow] te kijken, uit angst dat er weer een politicus zit... [Hilariteit] Jullie ook niet? Ik durf niet meer te kijken uit angst dat er weer een politicus zit die zegt dat het allemaal anders moet. Ik wil het niet meer, zegt hij. Ik wil niet dat alles verandert; ik wil gewoon dat het beter wordt. Ik snapte hem zo goed. Zelden stonden de verwachtingen over wat de politiek tot stand kan brengen zo op gespannen voet met de mogelijkheden die wij eigenlijk hebben."

Example 3.35
And I think it is a beautiful sequence of turns. I showed it to my students once and I told them I [uh] had printed this and hung it over my desk, because to me it was a kind of little poem, a poetic chord, in fact [mild laughter], and they looked very puzzled and surprised, as if to say: "she is completely professionally deformed". But I think it is a very beautiful [uh] [uh], beautiful little poem, actually. Well, I added that I have also hung the ordinary pictures of my kids over my desk [laughter], and then I slowly started to turn into a normal [uh] person again [laughter]. But it is a [uh], yeah, sequence of turns that is needed to eventually mutually reach such a, yeah, mutual understanding. (Research Presentation #10)[261]

Example 3.33 shows an anecdote in which the TED speaker—a lecturer in social work and writer—recounts a telephone conversation she had. She uses direct speech, which could increase proximity: the audience might experience the anecdote as if overhearing the conversation. The speaker taps into an informal style register, close to everyday conversation, with phrases such as "I was like…", and "and she went…". Example 3.34 from the political corpus also contains direct speech. While campaigning, the Labour Party leader (the speaker) engages in an animated conversation with a man. The man is quoted, which can give the audience the feeling that they are witnessing the talk. In fact, there is an audience response: the members of parliament self-consciously feel addressed by the man's confession. The Labour party leader briefly interrupts the quote to address the audience and make fun of it ("you neither?"), after which he picks up where he left off. The description of the situation has triggered a response from the audience—at least the direct audience in parliament.

In example 3.35, from the research presentations, the speaker describes a conversation she, as a lecturer, had with her students. Although some of the descriptions in this anecdote are quite detailed and set the scene, such as the "puzzled and surprised" looks of the students, she rather uses indirect speech to describe her conversation with the students ("I told them…", and "I added that…"). This could make the audience feel less directly involved, compared to the anecdotes from the TED speaker and politician (examples 3.33 and 3.34, respectively).

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[261] Research Presentation #10: "En ik vind het een hele mooie reeks van beurten. Ik liet het een keer aan studenten zien, en vertelde daarbij [eeh] dat ik dit had uitgeprint en boven mijn bureau had gehangen omdat ik het een soort gedichtje vond, een mooi poëtisch akkoord in feite [licht gelach], en ze keken daar heel wazig en verbaasd bij, van 'die is helemaal beroepsgedeformeerd' [gelach]. Maar ik vind het een heel mooi [eeh] [eeh], mooi gedichtje eigenlijk. Nou, ik heb hen toen daarbij verteld dat ik ook gewoon foto's van mijn kinderen boven mijn bureau heb hangen [gelach], toen werd ik weer een wat normaler [eeh] mens [gelach]. Maar het is een [eeh], ja, een opeenvolging van beurten die nodig zijn om uiteindelijk gezamenlijk tot zo'n, ja tot gezamenlijk begrip te komen."

More than in the other two corpora, the TED corpus contains anecdotes that are more closely related to the concepts of *evidentia* and *enargeia*, in which a situation is depicted vividly to the audience's mind's eye. This is illustrated by example 3.36 from a TED talk given by a well-known author.

> **Example 3.36**
> I had this encounter recently where I met the extraordinary American poet Ruth Stone, who's now in her 90s, but she's been a poet her entire life and she told me that when she was growing up in rural Virginia, she would be out working in the fields, and she said she would feel and hear a poem coming at her from over the landscape. And she said it was like a thunderous train of air. And it would come barreling down at her over the landscape. And she felt it coming, because it would shake the earth under her feet. She knew that she had only one thing to do at that point, and that was to, in her words, "run like hell." And she would run like hell to the house and she would be getting chased by this poem, and the whole deal was that she had to get to a piece of paper and a pencil fast enough so that when it thundered through her, she could collect it and grab it on the page. (TED Talk #16)

Here, the speaker paints a scene with words, using metaphors and imagery to try and make the audience part of the dramatic situation. She carefully chooses words that express emotions, experiences and movement. Such linguistic and stylistic features are in line with the "craftsmanship" and "stylistic techniques" that Green and Donahue (2009, p. 246) relate to enhanced transportation into the narrative. The speaker is a novelist and storytelling can be seen as her profession, which makes her a professional speaker in this respect.

Relevance

A speaker can stress the relevance of an anecdote by clearly embedding it in the speech or even by explicitly connecting it to the speech purpose or main message. In the TED corpus the anecdote's relevance appears to be mostly explicitly emphasised. The political speeches and research presentations also contain anecdotes of which the relevance is less clearly indicated.

The anecdotes in the TED talks often appear to illustrate key concepts or even the presentation's purpose, and the speaker usually emphasises the link between anecdote and key point explicitly. In example 3.28, the TED speaker uses the anecdote to stress the key message of her talk and explicitly stresses its importance by addressing the audience: "And so I want to say to you, don't fake it till you make it. Fake it till you become it." In example 3.33, the TED speaker links the anecdote about being a "researcher-storyteller" in the beginning of her talk to the purpose statement: "so I'm a researcher-storyteller, and I'm going to talk to you today […] and so I want to talk to you and tell some stories about...". From a retention perspective, it is valuable to see that anecdotes are linked to both apparent main presentation messages and sub-points of the presentation (see Appendix B.2 for all presentation texts).

Examples 3.30 and 3.35 represent anecdotes from the Research Presentation Corpus which end with a final sentence that (more or less) expresses the relevance of the anecdote. In example 3.30, first the relevance is emphasised by the announcement “to illustrate this” and the final sentence ties the advertisement example to the principle of standardisation. In example 3.35 the final sentence could be interpreted as if the anecdote illustrates the concept “mutual understanding” mentioned, although the anecdote itself is more about the researcher’s admiration of the sequence of turns and the awkward yet funny situation that followed in class. For both these examples, the concepts illustrated do not appear to be key points but rather sub-points of the presentation.

Examples 3.29 and 3.34 show two anecdotes from the Political Speech Corpus that end with clear wrap-up statements. In example 3.29, the anecdote seems to underline a minor point in the overall speech: no hard feelings about the missed opportunities to form a coalition. Although the Liberal Democrats’ party leader uses these missed opportunities in his speech to confront the Labour Party (who were then part of the government) with the current government policy, it is not explicitly connected to that issue. Example 3.34 the final sentence expresses the relevance of the anecdote. The speaker transitions to the content part of the story, using the anecdote to emphasise the paradox politicians seemed to find themselves in. Still, they do not stress the significance of the anecdote as explicitly as the TED speakers do in examples 3.28 and 3.33.

Whether the relevance of the anecdote in the next example (3.37) would have been clear to the audience is questionable, although it appears that the speaker (Liberal Party leader) intends to underline the relevance in the final sentence:

> **Example 3.37**
> A childhood memory: when I was still at school, there were these lovely stickers, often stuck on a wooden shoe, with the slogan “Nuclear energy? No, thanks”. After thirty years, that strange taboo is gone too. (Political Speech #1)[262]

The Liberal Party supported nuclear energy at the time the speech was given. However, a listener who does not yet have a firm opinion on nuclear energy, probably part of the indirect audience (electorate), might be transported into the story by the first-person perspective and, following the story, agree with the slogan. Only in the wrap-up sentence does the speaker imply that he does not agree with this slogan, but he not explicitly distance himself—the ‘damage’ could have already been done by then. Although it is unclear if such an effect would indeed occur, the anecdote from example 3.37 at least raises the question whether it would affect retention differently

[262] Political Speech #1: “Toch een stukje jeugdsentiment: toen ik op school zat, had je van die mooie stickers, vaak op een klomp geplakt, met de tekst "kernenergie. Nee, bedankt!" Na dertig jaar is ook dat rare taboe weg.”

than an anecdote with a longer narrative in which the relevance is less ambiguously stated (e.g. example 3.34).

3.5.3 Questions: making the audience think

Section 3.5.1 showed that scholars, politicians and TED speakers preferred different question types. Do these preferences also reveal themselves in stylistic features of the presentations and the speeches? This section highlights the characteristic use of each question type by the three groups of speakers.

Rhetorical question

Two main variants of the rhetorical question are found in the corpora. The first variant can be described as a statement that takes the form of a question, often used to express emotions (see the description of the rhetorical question in table 3.2). Most of the times, an answer is implied in the question. In both the TED Talk Corpus and the Political Speech Corpus such questions are deployed, as examples 3.38a, b and c show.

Examples 3.38a, b & c

a) How illustrative is it that the titles of the coalition agreement's twelve chapters the words environment, nature, sustainability and green do not surface? (Political Speech #4)[263]
b) How many brain scientists have the opportunity to study their own brain from the inside out? (TED Talk #8)
c) What kind of economic engine would keep churning if we believed that not getting what we want could make us just as happy as getting it? (TED Talk #3)

The speakers did not intend the questions in examples 3.38a, b and c to be answered. Instead, the questions already imply an answer that the audience might already have thought about. Example 3.38a could be read as: "the coalition agreement does not pay enough attention to environmental and sustainability matters", just as example 3.38b implies the statement that "few brain scientists have the opportunity to study their own brain from the inside out". The TED speaker who is quoted in example 3.38c does not expect that listeners propose a specific type of economic engine in response to the question.

Speakers might opt for the question form here because of the elaborative function: an audience will think of the most probable answer and in doing so might process the information mentioned in the question more thoroughly. Furthermore, the question form allows a speaker to use a more indirect approach compared to an affirmative statement, possibly to be less easily held accountable for its contents.

The second type of rhetorical question that regularly occurs takes up the form of a statement followed by a question tag, such as "isn't it" or "you know". In the Dutch

[263] Political Speech #4: "Hoe tekenend is het dat in de titels van de twaalf hoofdstukken van het regeerakkoord de woorden milieu, natuur, duurzaamheid en groen niet zijn komen bovendrijven?"

corpora (scholars and politicians) the common question tags used are “ja” and “hè” (“right” and “isn’t it”). Examples 3.39 a, b and c present rhetorical questions that contain question tags:

Examples 3.39a, b & c

a) So we are not saying that the old is very bad, and are not saying that the new is very good either, right? (Research Presentation #12)[264]
b) But you like it there with the CDA [Christian Democrats], don’t you? (Political Speech #8)[265]
c) And it's significant, isn't it? (TED Talk #16)

While the question in example 3.38 appears to amplify a statement, the question tags in examples 3.39a, b and c appear to mitigate the boldness of the preceding affirmative statement; more so than the examples in 3.38, they suggest the possibility of a dialogue or a response from the audience. The function of question tags as used in 3.39 a, b and c could be to “indicate rapport and solidarity” or mimic a conversational style (cf. Frank, 1990, p. 730).

Notably, the rhetorical question variant that included question tags comprises a rather large portion of the rhetorical questions in the TED Talk Corpus: 44 of the 117 rhetorical questions contain such tags. In the TED corpus, these question tags are sometimes transcribed as a stand-alone sentences following an affirmative sentence (e.g. “right”? “you know”?). The scholars use tags in almost half the number of rhetorical questions found (nine out of twenty). However, in the Political Speech Corpus only one question contained a tag. A possible explanation for the difference in frequency of question tags between the three corpora is the level of formality of the presentation context. TED talks and research presentations can be considered to be less formal than parliamentary speeches, which might be expressed in the use of ‘informal’ question tags.

Quaestio

The *quaestios* (multiple questions in a row) that are found in the three corpora can roughly be divided into two categories. The first type of *quaestios* seems to be situational or context-related and informative. *Quaestios* of this type usually do not consist of many rhetorical questions; instead, they are often composed of direct questions, as examples 3.40 a and b show:

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[264] Research Presentation #12:: “En wij zeggen dus niet dat het oude heel slecht is, en wij zeggen ook niet dat het nieuwe heel goed is, ja?”

[265] Political Speech #8: “Maar het bevalt goed daar bij het CDA, hè?”

Example 3.40a & b

a) Is the proposed procedure, as recorded in gamma, is it feasible? Is it efficient? And, does that procedure enable us to [uh] test criteria? Can we properly work with it? (Research Presentation #8)[266]

b) Prime minster, do you therewith quantify the text in your agreement and of this morning about the very substantial decrease as fifty percent? It seems to be Wilders's demand, but is it also an objective for minister Leers? (Political Speech #4)[267]

Example 3.40a is characteristic for the use of *quaestios* in research presentations. In such a case, the scholar usually poses a few questions in a row about various aspects of the research topic (in 3.40a about the procedure followed); often these aspects are dealt with step by step afterwards. Example 3.40b shows two direct questions in a political speech, in this case directed at the prime-minister. In the annual policy debates, such factual questions of the political party leaders to members of the cabinet regularly occur. Ministers and state secretaries often respond to these direct questions in a contribution that takes place in a later stage of the debate.

The second type of *quaestios* is in line with Fahnestock's description of a *quaestio*, being a "pileup of rhetorical questions" (2011, p. 299). Such a series of questions is aimed more at expressing and emphasising emotions, therewith creating a pathos effect. Examples 3.41a and b show such *quaestios*:

Example 3.41a & b

a) What country will she live in? How will we make our money? What kind of companies will we work in? How will we care for the sick and elderly? How do we actually educate our children? What will our energy supply look like? In short: what do we all want to achieve these next few years? (Political Speech #14)[268]

b) Aren't you afraid you're never going to have any success? Aren't you afraid the humiliation of rejection will kill you? Aren't you afraid that you're going to work your whole life at this craft and nothing's ever going to come of it and you're going to die on a scrap heap of broken dreams with your mouth filled with bitter ash of failure? (TED Talk #16)

[266] Research Presentation #8: "Is de voorgestelde procedure, zoals die is vastgelegd in gamma, is die werkbaar? Is ze efficiënt? En, stelt die procedure ons in staat [eeh] om criteria af te toetsen? Kunnen we d'r ook goed mee aan de slag?"

[267] Political Speech #4: "Minister-president, kwantificeert u daarmee de tekst in uw akkoord en van vanochtend over de zeer substantiële daling als 50%? Het lijkt een eis van Wilders, maar is het ook een resultaatsverplichting voor minister Leers?"

[268] Political Speech #14: "In wat voor land leeft zij straks? Waar verdienen wij ons geld mee? In wat voor bedrijven werken we? Hoe zorgen we voor zieken en ouderen? Hoe onderwijzen wij eigenlijk onze kinderen? Hoe ziet onze energievoorziening eruit? Kortom: waar werken we met z'n allen eigenlijk naartoe in de komende jaren?"

In both 3.41a and b, the *quaestio* appears to be an enumeration, a list of a few points, formulated in a question format, possibly to emphasise the urgency of the matters or underline the point the speaker wants to make.

In example 3.41a, the Labour Party leader raises the main point that he wants to address in the final question: what to achieve in the near future? All the questions that lead towards this summarising final question indicate policy issues that need to be dealt with in the short term. A key message that could be derived from this *quaestio* is: much work on various policy terrains lies ahead of us. Questions seem to be particularly suitable to address such hypothetical situations; the urgency of the situation is emphasised by the repetitive question format. Furthermore, the speaker apparently enhances the pathos effect in the first question, in which he refers to a girl that he introduced in an anecdote earlier in his speech ("she" in example 3.41a). Of the three corpora, the politicians appear most eager to exploit the possible emotional effect of the *quaestio* and explore its limits, for example in terms of length. Several lengthy *quaestios* are found in the Political Speech Corpus; the longest of those covers about 8% of the total speech length and is used by the Labour Party leader, who is quoted in example 3.41a. The Labour Party leader is not alone in his preference for lengthy *quaestios*: the Liberal Democrats' party leader also regularly applies this strategy.

Example 3.41b from the TED corpus seems to serve a similar purpose. In her talk about creativity, the TED speaker uses this *quaestio* to exemplify questions that she receives about her profession as a novelist. The questions in 3.41b are about the fear of not being creative or not having inspiration. Instead of listing these points, she uses three questions to build a climax: the negative consequences go from rather abstract (never having any success) to a quite dramatic and vivid image of the future (dying on a "scrap heap of broken dreams with your mouth filled with bitter ash of failure"). Organised in the form of a *quaestio*, the combination of various rhetorical figures such as 'metaphor', 'climax' and *anaphora* ("aren't you afraid…") contributes to a maximal pathos effect.

Subiectio

The question type *subiectio*, in which a speaker poses a question and immediately answers it, is often used as an organising device to introduce the following key point or topic in the presentation. This way, the *subiectio* can also be seen as a special form of the transition (see Section 3.4.5).The *subiectio* seems to plays a dual role here: the elaborative effect of the question type might strengthen its organising purpose. Examples 3.42 a, b and c contain such organising questions:

Example 3.42a, b & c

a) How have we approached this [uh] research. [uh] We have used sixteen [uh] *pro [uh] communication experts [uh] [uh] for this study […] (Research Presentation #6)[269]

b) How can you become prime minister of all Dutch citizens this way? I name a few examples. First of all it is the question whether the percentages named by Wilders are the translation of the substantial decrease that was mentioned in the governmental agreement this morning. (Political Speech #4)[270]

c) But the next question, of course, is, can power posing for a few minutes really change your life in meaningful ways? This is in the lab, it's this little task, it's just a couple of minutes. Where can you actually apply this? Which we cared about, of course. And so we think where you want to use this is evaluative situations, like social threat situations. (TED Talk #2)

Example 3.42a shows the way in which scholars regularly use *subiectios*. Instead of an announcing statement, e.g. "let's look at the approach that we used", the question "how have we approached this study?" is posed. After that, the speaker continues explaining the details of the approach. Sometimes, short organising questions that can be considered as interjections are used, such as in Research Presentation #5: "And then? Then, we tested comprehension". Omitting this question would still make the content comprehensible. So, the question might serve both an organising and an elaborative function: the audience is prepared for the fact that a next step will be explained and is engaged—listeners might ask themselves what that next step would be.

Example 3.42b also shows that these transitioning questions can have both an organising and an elaborative function. The Labour party leader questions the right-wing Freedom Party leader's abilities and ambitions to become prime minister. He does that first by asking a rhetorical question: "How can you become prime minister of all Dutch citizens this way?" The implicit answer is: "You cannot." The audience needs the context to come up with this answer, as the Labour Party leader provides examples to support the idea that the Freedom Party leader cannot become prime minister. Here, the audience is asked to think along and formulate the answer to the question, in order to understand the following sequence in the speech.

Finally, example 3.42c shows the way in which a TED speaker uses two organising questions and a postponed answer, probably intended to stimulate the audience to think along and wonder what the next topic will be. The first question

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[269] Research Presentation #6: "Hoe hebben we dit [eeh] onderzoek aangepakt? [eeh] We hebben zestien [eeh] *proe [eeh] communicatie-experts [eeh] [eeh] gebruikt [eeh] voor dit onderzoek […]."

[270] Political Speech # 4: "Hoe kun je op deze wijze premier van alle Nederlanders worden? Ik noem een paar voorbeelden. Allereerst is het de vraag of de door Wilders genoemde percentages de vertaling zijn van de substantiële daling waarover in het regeerakkoord wordt gesproken of van de zeer substantiële daling die vanmorgen in de regeringsverklaring genoemd werd."

explicitly uses structure markers: “the next question”. An answer is not yet provided; in fact, the speaker seems to present possible counterarguments to the applicability of her study: “This is in the lab, it’s this little task, it’s just a couple of minutes”. The answer to following question, “where can you apply this”, is postponed for a moment as well; first the audience is reassured and only then the topic is introduced: evaluative, social threat situations. These are then further discussed. Again, the speaker appears to use the elaborative function of questions here to create suspense and to organise the story on a micro-level.

The political speeches and TED talks also contained *subiectios* that did not appear to be aimed at emphasising the structure of the talk on a higher order level, but were rather used to exemplify a specific point—see example 3.43:

> **Example 3.43 (*subiectio* is in *italics*)**
> Sometimes you can give somebody all the facts and figures, and they say, “I know what all the facts and details say, but it just doesn't feel right.” *Why would we use that verb, it doesn't “feel” right? Because the part of the brain that controls decision-making doesn't control language.* The best we can muster up is, “I don't know. It just doesn't feel right”. (TED Talk #3)

Here, the question-answer structure of the *subiectio* does not appear to mark a new topic or key point in the speech structure, but rather appears to establish an elaborative effect regarding this topic: instead of an affirmative formulation (e.g. “we use that verb because…”) the speaker phrases a question, which might engage the audience to think about the answer.

Direct question

The final category of questions is formed by the direct questions. The clearest direct questions are those in which the speaker would like to receive an immediate response from the audience or a specific individual or group. Examples 3.44a-d show such questions directly aimed at the audience or a specific person:

> **Example 3.44a, b c & d**
> a) I don’t know if you share that experience? (Research Presentation #3)[271]
> b) Has everyone received it [handout], so in the back as well? (Research Presentation #9)[272]
> c) Is the cabinet prepared to make sure that the police will be working more in the tough neighbourhoods where street terror occurs? (Political Speech #7)[273]
> d) Who here has been hurt in an intimate relationship? (TED talk #8)

[271] Research Presentation #3: “Ik weet niet of jullie die ervaring delen?” (Research presentation #3)

[272] Research Presentation #9: “Heeft iedereen die gekregen, ook achterin?”

[273] Political Speech #7: “Is het kabinet bereid om ervoor te zorgen dat de politie meer gaat werken in de moeilijke wijken waar de straatterreur voorkomt?”

The questions in example 3.44a-d are aimed at directly engaging the audience, which could arguably have quite an elaborative effect: audience members do not only need to think of a possible answer, but are also asked to respond verbally or physically (e.g. by raising hands). This way, the direct question can be a means for establishing audience participation and connecting to the audience (see Sections 2.5.16 and 2.5.11).

Of these four direct questions, example 3.44d is phrased most directly and aimed at eliciting audience response. Example 3.44a is phrased more indirectly with the opening phrase "I don't know if…", which might make it more difficult for an audience to assess whether the question is actually meant to be responded to. Example 3.44c, from a political speech, is directly aimed at the cabinet; therefore, it might not seem relevant for a broader audience (electorate) at first glance. Still, the question also implicitly contains a point of view ("the police should work more in tough neighbourhoods where street terror occurs")—from the perspective of the broader audience, it could also be interpreted as a rhetorical question disguised as a direct question. Example 3.44b shows that a direct question can sometimes be very practical and unrelated to the speech contents.

It should be noted that the context of the presentation corpora is also relevant for assessing the use of direct questions. The research presentations contain questions relevant to the study presented, such as the main research question and secondary research questions, and questions taken from research materials such as questionnaires. These questions are often quoted and follow from the nature of the contents and conventions of such academic presentations. The same goes for the political speeches: it is common practice in parliamentary debates, and certainly in the annual policy debates, to address the cabinet or prime minister—a question aimed at specific individuals, which is not often found in the other corpora. Although the TED talks contain the smallest number of direct questions of the three corpora, these questions are all aimed at the audience members that are present and phrased in such a way that they aim to maximise audience interaction. Still, it must be noted that almost all of these direct questions are found within a single TED talk (#16), in which the speaker apparently preferred this type of question.

3.6 Discussion

This chapter aims to answer the following question:

How do speakers apply advised organisation and elaboration retention techniques in public-speaking practice?

This question is answered from two perspectives. First, Section 3.6.1 discusses the relationship between the usage of retention techniques in public-speaking practice and the textbook advice that is described in chapter 2. Second, the characteristic use of these techniques by the types of speakers in this study, scholars, politicians and TED speakers, is addressed in Section 3.6.2. Finally, Section 3.6.3 contains a reflection on the method and the next step in this study, connecting it to chapter 4.

3.6.1 Public-speaking practice compared to textbook advice

How do speakers use the recommended retention techniques in practice? Quantitatively, two observations stand out. Firstly, the rhetorical situation seems to determine the preference for organisational or elaborative retention techniques. Roughly speaking, scholars applied more organisation techniques, whereas politicians and TED speakers appeared to prefer the elaboration techniques (this general conclusion may not apply to some individual techniques). Secondly, the frequently advised retention techniques in public-speaking textbooks are used less frequently than expected in the presentation corpora.

The summary and anecdote, both very frequently advised retention techniques in the textbooks, are examples of this second observation. According to some textbook authors, the summary is strongly connected to informative speeches. Indeed, the analysis of the presentation corpora shows that scholars use summaries most often. However, it also shows that half the number of scholars analysed did not use a summary. And even though the politicians mainly aim at persuading their audience, it is remarkable they did not use any summary at all. The anecdote then: this technique is not specifically connected to a presentation genre by textbook authors. For a technique that can be used multiple times in a presentation, only the TED speakers apply it on average more than once per speech. Based on textbook advice, a higher frequency of these retention techniques in the presentation texts had been expected.

Qualitatively, the most important observation is the large variety in content, structure and style of the retention techniques in the presentations in this study. The rare examples in public-speaking textbooks of the way in which techniques are applied usually reflect ‘good’ speaking practice according to textbook authors. In practice, the analysis has shown a multitude of ways in which techniques can be applied in a speech. Three examples: first, summaries were found to be very concise on the one hand (two to three sentences), and quite long on the other hand (occasionally over 10% of the speech’s length). Some contained a few structure markers, whereas in other summaries the structure was explicitly indicated; sometimes, stylistically repetitive techniques were used instead of structure markers. Second, some anecdotes were rich, vivid stories that appear relevant to the overall speech topic, whereas other anecdotes only contained a few, rather vaguely described narrative elements. Third, different types of transitions were found, varying from mere announcements of the next topic and bridging sentences that show the connection between two topics to elaborate structure previews and preliminary conclusions.

Not all examples that were found in practice would ‘tick all the boxes’ to become a textbook example. Still, the mere existence of such a variety in appearance could be emphasised more clearly in textbook advice. Textbooks not often discuss the role of the rhetorical situation (speaker, purpose, audience) in considering a certain variant and formulation of a technique, for instance whether to focus more on structure or on style. Furthermore, the question is whether variants of the same technique cause different retention effects. The answer to this question is needed to find out whether textbooks should indeed pay more attention to a variety of structures and formulations of a single technique.

3.6.2 Organisation and elaboration techniques by professional speakers and speaking professionals

The speaking professionals (scholars) and the professional speakers (politicians and, to a lesser extent, TED speakers) appear to select different retention techniques. How did they apply the organisation and elaboration techniques and to what extent can the rhetorical situation explain the choices that they made?

Scholars

The scholars in this study mainly selected organisational retention techniques, which is in agreement with the informative purpose of their presentations. They use more *partitio*s, transitions, announcements of the conclusion and summaries than the politicians and TED speakers.

In doing so, they stick to the often advised maxim ‘tell them what you are going to tell them—tell them—tell them what you have told them’. In five out of eight cases an overview of the presentation’s structure (*partitio*) in a research presentation is followed by an explicitly marked summary in the conclusion. Furthermore, in formulating these organisation techniques the scholars appeared to use structure markers more than the politicians and TED speakers. The circle technique, which is not always accompanied by a structure marker, was less popular among scholars. In other words: it seems to be characteristic for scholars to use retention techniques that explicitly, almost didactically, emphasise the overall structure of a presentation. That said, it is remarkable that almost half the number of research presentations do not contain a *partitio* and a summary. This means that some researchers in these presentations with an informative purpose might have overlooked or purposely ignored an opportunity to influence retention.

The scholars do not apply elaborative retention techniques as much as the politicians and TED speakers. They used the smallest number of anecdotes, which did not always contain clear narrative elements, were quite short and could have been more vividly phrased compared to anecdotes that were found in the other corpora. Of the question types, scholars preferred the *subiectio*, which is often used for structural purposes next to its elaborative function.

The rhetorical situation probably influenced scholars’ preference for organisation techniques as a main retention strategy. In the use of *partitio*s, explicit transitions and summaries it appeared that scholars often need to explain various stages or steps in a sometimes complex research methodology, which prompts them to use many structure markers. In some cases, sheer time pressure may have caused these ‘omissions’: transcripts show that some speakers had problems to end their presentations within the time allotted. This could be a reflection of the scholars being speaking professionals: they might not always have been able to meticulously prepare their talk and the stakes might not be that high, speaking to a small group of (familiar) colleagues. This could also explain why a complex technique such as the anecdote, which requires some craftsmanship in style and story composition, is not applied that often and, if used, usually only contains a few of the anecdote ingredients that are recommended in textbooks.

Politicians

The politicians appeared to opt for retention techniques that are in agreement with their main purpose: persuading the audience; they preferred elaboration techniques over organisation techniques, although more emphasis on elaboration could have been expected.

Regarding the elaboration techniques, politicians used questions mostly in an elaborative way appealing to existing knowledge, for example by using a *quaestio* (series of questions). The *subiectio*, which is also often used with a structural purpose, is not a favourite question type of politicians. Anecdotes are found regularly, but perhaps not as often as expected: on average less than one anecdote per speech. Some anecdotes contain all the advised features and seem to be well prepared, but the corpus of political speeches also contains a few anecdotes that do not meet all the criteria set. Regarding organisation techniques, politicians are the champions of the circle technique. They use it more frequently than the scholars and TED speakers. This technique not so much emphasises the overall speech structure, but it has a less explicit structure effect, providing a 'sense of closure'. Politicians are not too fond of the "tell them" adage, so it seems: only one *partitio* was found and, remarkably, no summary at all was labelled. They used the smallest number of explicit transitions, although some politicians did apply some extensive structuring announcements in the core of their speech.

The rhetorical situation could have determined the politicians' decision to deploy more elaboration techniques than (explicit) organisation techniques. Next to getting their message across, an important purpose for political speakers is to guard and shape their image (ethos). The use of *partitio*s, transition sentences and summaries could have a retention effect, but at the same time politicians might considered these techniques too 'didactic' and straightforward. Possibly, this negative side effect that might hinder their persuasive purpose, could be a reason for politicians to steer clear from retention techniques that explicitly emphasise the speech structure and opt for other retention techniques not involved in this study's analysis, such as metaphors and repetition figures (e.g. the anaphora). Although the politicians prefer elaboration techniques, they could have focused more on the anecdote; being professional speakers, they could invest in a narrative that can influence persuasion, retention and possibly enhance ethos. The context of the studied political speeches (annual parliamentary debates in The Netherlands) could be a reason for such anecdote use: the speeches were held in parliament to a direct audience of fellow members of parliament, who had the possibility of interrupting the speaker. These features of the rhetorical situation could stand in the way of the application of more complex and lengthy techniques that require some preparatory work, such as the anecdote.[274]

TED speakers

The TED speakers tend to select retention techniques that are in agreement with their purpose to inspire (a mix of informative and persuasive elements). They focus mostly on elaboration techniques, using most anecdotes and questions of the three types of speakers analysed. They also stand out in the way they execute these techniques: TED speakers tend to spend time on crafting stylistically compelling phrases.

If the politicians are champions of the circle technique, then the TED speakers are real anecdote adepts. This elaborative retention technique is their favourite, which is not only supported by the number of anecdotes used, but also by their length and formulation. TED speakers often use personal stories that contain many narrative elements, are vividly recounted and are regularly relevant to the main idea or message of the talk. They prefer to use the rhetorical question, which can make the audience think about the topic and thereby enhance retention. They also use quite a few *subiectios* for what seems to be an elaborative purpose, and not necessarily for a structuring purpose.

TED speakers do not rely that heavily on organisation techniques as scholars do, nor do they leave them aside as much as the politicians do. The main difference between scholars' and TED speakers' use of organisation techniques resides in stylistic choices: TED speakers tend to use less structure markers and hardly ever refer to parts of the speech such as the conclusion explicitly. Instead of "to conclude", they prefer a phrase such as "I want to leave you with this" as an announcement for their conclusion. The few *partitio*s and summaries used are usually concise in length and style. Finally, TED speakers seem to use vague, more indicative structure markers intentionally more often than scholars and politicians, possibly to create suspense in the storyline. For example, in transitions and *partitio*s a TED speaker would announce "three stunning examples" without revealing their contents yet, which might spark the audience's curiosity and leaves an element of surprise in the storyline.

The rhetorical situation has likely influenced the TED speakers in their selection and application of retention techniques. TED speakers can be qualified as professional speakers compared to scholars (speaking professionals), especially when the presentation's occasion is taken into account. The TED talks could potentially be viewed by a large (online) audience, which increases the need for a thorough, intensive preparation of the overall presentation. The purpose to inspire appears to lead to the focus on narrative techniques such as the anecdote, as opposed to the more

[274] In contrast, Atkins and Finlayson (2013) signal a rise of anecdote in political speeches from the mid-1990s. However, they studied anecdote use in a different political speech context and country: general election campaign speeches in the United Kingdom. Election speeches are usually aimed directly at voters, do not have to adhere to the rules of parliamentary debate (they are usually not interrupted) and are about a vision for the (country's) future rather than the nuts and bolts of next year's policy, which appears to be a public-speaking situation that is more suitable for narrative techniques such as the anecdote .

informative purpose of the scholars. Furthermore, the inspirational purpose could also explain the way in which TED speakers apply organisation techniques: they do want to inform to a certain extent, but the audience's expectation to listen to an attractive story and the high stakes of a TED event lead to a focus on stylistic craftsmanship.

3.6.3 Limitations and next step

Although the study reveals valuable insights into the use of recommended organisational and elaborative retention techniques, three main limitations of the chosen approach should be taken into account. First of all, a limited number of retention techniques advised in textbooks was selected. Therefore, results only apply to the use of these specific techniques; the speakers might have applied other retention strategies that were not taken into account, such as visualisation techniques.

Secondly, this study only took three collections of presentations into account. The research presentations were from a specific area in humanities and social sciences, and a specific cultural background (Dutch-Flemish). More academic disciplines should be taken into account to paint a more complete picture of organisation and elaboration retention techniques in research presentations. Differences in presentation behaviour between scholars from academic disciplines are not uncommon; Hertz (2015) for example showed that researchers from various backgrounds use visual aids, and in particular PowerPoint slides, differently (e.g. linguists used an average of thirty-five words on a slide, as opposed to fifty words for social scientists). Similarly, the selected political speeches, in the context of annual policy debates in parliament, are not representative of the genre 'political speech' as a whole. For example, analyses of political campaign speeches could provide insight into how politicians use retention techniques in a situation in which they can solely focus on discussing their own ideas and future policy, and are not restricted to responding to on detailed current governmental policy (as is the practice of the annual policy reviews in this dissertation)—see Atkins' and Finlayson's (2013) study on the use of the anecdote in British campaign speeches, for example. For the TED talks, talks at locally organised TEDx events could be analysed as opposed to the most popular online talks. Although all TEDx events need to adhere to certain general guidelines that are drafted by the global TED organisation, differences such as the size of the event (and thus direct audience), the location and the availability of speaker coaching can influence the preparation and the performance of the speakers.

Thirdly, the rather rigid focus on explicit textual features as used in this method is useful for detecting instances of the selected techniques with multiple researchers, but also might lead to the more subtle variants of a technique to be left out. For example: quite possibly, close-reading would reveal that some politicians do indeed appear to provide a kind of summary at the end of their talk. Still, it is questionable whether the audience would interpret such variants as they were intended by the speaker (cf. O'Keefe's findings on implicit versus explicit conclusions, 2002). Another example: no circle techniques were detected in TED talks. In some TED talks however, an introductory example was used as a storyline or theme throughout the speech and not in the conclusion alone (as is specific for a circle technique). In such a situation no circle technique was labelled, but the speakers did intend to emphasise the speech structure by applying an organisation strategy. Furthermore, the inter-rater reliability was only applied to evaluate agreement on the presence of selected retention techniques in the corpus texts. The qualitative analyses in this chapter, which categorise subtypes of techniques and describe style and structure variations of examples that were found in the corpora, are analyses of a single researcher. As the study focused on obtaining a broad overview how seven retention techniques are used, no in-depth analyses of stylistic features such as vividness, concreteness or relevance were carried out. This way, it can serve as a starting point for such more fine-grained analyses.

The results of this analysis are valuable in three ways: first of all, they give insight into the broad spectrum of appearances and styles in which frequently advised retention techniques are used in practice, and show how this usage relates to textbook advice. Secondly, it shows that different types of speakers in various contexts select and apply these retention techniques, which indicates the role genre and rhetorical situation can play here. Thirdly, these results provide a point of departure for designing further research into audience information retention.

The next step in this thesis consists of experimental research into three techniques: the announcement of the conclusion, circle technique and summary. The insights into public-speaking practice compared to the textbook advice allow for a realistic experiment to be designed, in which the purpose, context and formulation choices can be taken into account.

4. Effects of three concluding retention techniques

Long and informative, short and superficial summaries; rich and vivid, concise and abstract anecdotes; brief organising questions and multiple rhetorical questions in a row: chapter 3 has shown that retention techniques that are recommended in public-speaking textbooks appear in many variants in public-speaking practice. The three types of speakers studied in the previous chapter also appear to prefer different organisation and elaboration techniques or variants thereof, which suggests that the rhetorical situation of a presentation influences the selection of (variants of) retention techniques. However, it is not clear to what extent techniques that are attributed to retention in textbooks, and factors such as content, structure, and style, influence information retention of the audience.

This chapter intends to provide more insight into retention effects of rhetorical techniques. To this end, two experiments that are focused on specific retention techniques in the conclusion were designed. To properly measure retention effects, the experiments in this study were limited to a particular public-speaking situation: the context of an informative presentation. As explained in the introduction (chapter 1), informative presentations are prominent types of presentations in the educational practice of the author of this dissertation: teaching academic communication skills to engineering students (at Delft University of Technology). Engineering lectures and student presentations are usually aimed at informing the audience on, for example, a design, a technology or laboratory results. In informative, educational settings, the purpose of transferring knowledge has priority over the aim to (solely) persuade or inspire.[275]

In public-speaking practice, speakers who mainly aim to inform appear to prefer organising retention techniques rather than elaborating retention techniques (see chapter 3). Furthermore, in public-speaking textbooks the conclusion is considered to be the most important part of a presentation to influence retention (chapter 2). Therefore, the two experiments discussed in this chapter focus on three organising retention techniques related to the conclusion: the first experiment is about the ‘announcement of the conclusion’ and ‘circle technique’, the second experiment is about the ‘summary’. These three retention techniques are (frequently) described in public-speaking textbooks and their usage in practice was observed in chapter 3, which provides a solid basis for an experimental design.

[275] The experimental setup of the two experiments discussed in this chapter resembles that of the experiments on self-disparaging humor described in Gagestein, Andeweg, De Jong & Wackers (2014) and Wackers, Andeweg & De Jong (2014). The main difference is that these studies did not focus on measuring retention, but on the speaker’s ethos.

Therefore, this chapter answers the following main question:

What are the effects of the rhetorical techniques announcement of the conclusion, circle technique and summary on the audience's information retention of an informative presentation?

The chapter is structured as follows. Section 4.1 deals with the first experiment, aimed at retention effects of the announcement of the conclusion and the circle technique.[276] The second experiment, which revolves around the summary, is discussed in Section 4.2.

4.1 Experiment 1: announcement of the conclusion and circle technique

How do the two organising concluding techniques 'announcement of the conclusion' and 'circle technique' affect the audience's information retention? The first experiment focuses on this question. To refresh the memory, Section 4.1.1 provides a recapitulation of main characteristics of these two retention techniques. Next, Sections 4.1.2 and 4.1.3 concern the experimental setup, after which the results and conclusion of this particular experiment are provided in Sections 4.1.4 and 4.1.5, respectively.

4.1.1 Recapitulation: announcement of the conclusion and circle technique as retention techniques

The characteristics, descriptions and usage of the retention techniques 'announcement of the conclusion' and 'circle technique' have been discussed in Sections 2.5.13, 3.1.2, 3.4.3 and 3.4.4. This section provides a recapitulation as a prelude to the experimental design.

Announcement of the conclusion

The announcement of the conclusion was defined in chapter 3 as an announcing statement of the presentation's final part, with a structure marker such as "to wrap up" or "to conclude". It is a specific kind of transition to the conclusion, which is the part of a presentation that is most prominently linked to impact information retention in ancient rhetoric and modern public-speaking textbooks.

The advice on the announcement of the conclusion is ambivalent. Most modern authors recommend the technique and attribute two functions to it: an attention function (it "alerts" the audience—Osborn & Osborn, 1997, p. 228) and an organisation function (an indication that the presentation has almost come to an end); see Kenny (1982, p. 17) for an explanation of these functions. However, some textbook authors see negative consequences of announcing the conclusion. For example, Laskowksi believes that "most audiences tune you out the second they hear

[276] Section 4.1 is an adapted version of Andeweg, De Jong & Wackers (2008) and Andeweg, De Jong & Wackers (2009). See the Overview of author's publications for the complete references.

these phrases" (2001, p. 186). Furthermore, raising the expectation that the presentation will soon be finished could also backfire when speakers fail to wrap up quickly or even repeatedly announce the ending. This is a specific warning issued in textbooks known as a "false ending" (see Section 2.6.3).[277]

The analysis of public-speaking practice showed that not all speakers apply an announcement of the conclusion; scholars most often use it (ten out of sixteen speeches), whereas less than half the number of TED speakers and about a third of the politicians apply an explicit announcement (see Section 3.4.1) Most of the announcements that were found were straightforward in their formulation ("I will wrap up"), but some were phrased less convincingly ("Well, then the bit more general conclusion", see Section 3.4.3). Furthermore, examples of 'false endings' were found; in these examples, speakers first announce the conclusion, which suggests that the end is near, but then continue with a long-winded concluding statement. Considering the ambivalent advice and the varied ways in which speakers use the announcement of the conclusion, it is worth while investigating the retention effect of this technique in a particular presentation situation with an informative purpose.

Circle technique

More frequently than the announcement of the conclusion, the circle technique is connected positively to retention by textbook authors (see Section 2.5.13). It can be seen as a specific form of repetition used by the speaker, either explicitly by referring to the introduction of the presentation ("as I said in the beginning…"), or by restating or referring to elements used in the introduction (e.g. an opening anecdote or example) without explicitly marking the speech structure. Next to retention, authors relate positive additional effects to the circle technique: it can increase the audience's appreciation for the presentation, as it is seen as "elegant and satisfying" (Urech, 1998, pp. 28–29). Furthermore, the circle technique can provide a "sense of closure" by creating symmetry (Osborn & Osborn, 1997, p. 233), and it can give the speech "psychological unity" and an "extra touch of class" (Lucas, 1989, p. 183). This way, the circle technique seems to combine an organising function (signalling the end by referring to the beginning) with a more elaborative function (in the form of audience's recognition and possible appreciation of the circular structure of the speech, especially when a circle technique without a structure marker is applied). Textbooks do not indicate whether the alleged increase in appreciation could also contribute to information retention.

Public-speaking practice shows that the circle technique is most popular in the political speeches in this study, compared to its use in the research presentations

[277] In an earlier study of the peroration function in public-speaking textbooks (Andeweg, De Jong & Wackers, 2008), three other public-speaking textbooks were found that explicitly warn against the use of an announcement of the conclusion: Weller & Stuiveling (1962), Leeds (1991) and Beebe & Beebe (1999). These three textbooks did not meet the selection criteria to be included in the corpora of public-speaking textbooks constructed for this dissertation with a retention focus (see Section 2.2). They do however underline that textbooks can contain different advice about a specific rhetorical retention technique.

and TED talks (see Section 3.4.1). The distinction between circle techniques with and without explicit structure markers that was made by textbook authors was also found in the presentations of these three types of speakers (see Section 3.4.3). Considering the fact that the circle technique is positively connected to retention in textbooks, its assumed influence on appreciation and the varied ways it is applied in public-speaking practice, it was considered valuable to try and test its merits as a retention technique in combination with the announcement of the conclusion.

4.1.2 Experimental design: hypotheses, presentation design and recordings

Based on the characteristics of the announcement of the conclusion and the circle techniques related to retention, an experiment was designed. This subsection deals with the hypotheses formulated, explains the versions of two presentations developed to test these and elaborates on how these presentations were recorded.

Hypotheses

To measure differences, a straightforward 2x2 experimental design was developed (two presentations with two versions each: one version with the two concluding techniques and the other version without these techniques). This way, the effect of the two techniques was tested in two different messages. A consequence of this double message design is that the two techniques are not separately tested, but that they are both included in a presentation version that is compared with a presentation version without any concluding techniques. The combination of both techniques forms a beginning of the presentation's concluding part that would be recommended by most textbook authors. Based on such textbook advice, such a concluding part could function as follows. The announcement of the conclusion is expected to draw the attention and serves as a structure marker to indicate the start of the conclusion, which would cause listeners to better recall the information presented in the concluding part of the speech than when they did not hear such structure marker. The circle technique is expected to strengthen such retention effect and, on top of that, lead to a 'sense of closure'. From these assumptions a retention and appreciation hypothesis follow:

H1: Retention hypothesis
Listeners to a presentation with a combination of an announcement of the conclusion and a circle technique will have a higher retention of the concluding part's content than listeners to a presentation without these two concluding techniques.

H2: Appreciation hypothesis:
Listeners to a presentation with a combination of an announcement of the conclusion and a circle technique will have a higher appreciation of the presentation than listeners to a presentation without these concluding techniques.

The retention hypothesis is the main focus of the experiment, in the light of the dissertation's main question. The appreciation hypothesis was formulated based on the textbook advice about the circle technique's positive effects on appreciation (sense of closure). It also provides an opportunity to observe the relationship between the retention function and other functions of a speech (such as appreciation).

Presentation design and recordings

The experimental design included two different presentations in order to avoid a so-called one message fallacy (Hamilton & Hunter, 1998; O'Keefe, 2002). The content of the two presentations was in the same field of knowledge: communication advice and rhetoric. The first presentation was about communication theory and involved the effect of various communication techniques on planned and non-planned (automated) behaviour (the CT-presentation; total length 2610 words). The second presentation addressed the use of numbers (statistics); it dealt with the questions whether numbers are more convincing than examples and how to use them in presentations (the NB-presentation; total length 2194 words). The complete presentations texts can be found in Appendix C.1).

Both presentations contained two versions (the 2x2 design): one without concluding techniques (CT0/NB0-versions) and one with concluding techniques (CT1/NB1-versions). These versions only differed in the concluding part, which contained both an announcement of the conclusion and a circle technique in the CT1- and NB1-versions. The differences between the 0 and 1 versions of both presentations are small: the sentences that announce the conclusion and contain a reference to the introduction take up 1.8% of the total length of the CT-presentation, and 1.6% of the NB-presentation's length.

In both presentations, explicit variants of the announcement of the conclusion and the circle technique were formulated. This was done to maximise chances that the audience would notice the intervention, as the differences between the presentation versions are relatively small. Formulations were kept plain and neutral, without any other style figures or linguistic variances. Furthermore, the urgency to recall or remember information was not explicitly indicated in the instruction of the subjects.

The constructed perorations or concluding parts consisted of the following elements, which are indicated with corresponding numbers and letters in table 4.1:

[1] Announcement ("I will wrap up with the following remarks.") + circle technique ("as mentioned in the introduction..." + reference to the content of the introduction involved)

[2] Summarising sentence followed by:
[A] New example [not previously in presentation]
[B] New theory [not previously in presentation]

[3] Summarising / generalising paragraph

[4] Final sentence including a straightforward stylistic technique: CT with repetition ('communicates'—'communication'); NB with rhyme: accurate [in Dutch: 'accuraat'] rhymes with measure [in Dutch: 'maat']

Table 4.1: The concluding parts of the two presentations. Part [1] represents the combination of the announcement of the conclusion and circle technique; this text does not appear in the CT0/NB0-presentations and constitutes the only difference between the speech variants. See Appendix C.1 for the complete presentation texts in the Dutch language.

Concluding part CT-presentation (communication theory)	Concluding part NB-presentation (numbers)
[1] I will wrap up with the following remarks. As mentioned in the introduction, the communicational campaign to stimulate young people to smoke less drugs and to have saver sex has had barely if any effect. The use of soft drugs among students has risen with 30 percent in the last ten years.**#**	**[1]** I will wrap up with the following remarks. As mentioned in the introduction, according to Mart Smeets over one million people were lined up to watch the cyclists climb the Alpe d'Huez.**##**
[2] The manipulation of the public opinion by means of expensive mass communicational means succeeds seldom, according results from empirical social scientific research. **[A]** Remember for instance two years ago the failed political campaign to persuade people to vote in favour of the new European constitution. Every mass communicational trick was used: political leaders distributed flyers in the street; large debates between political heavyweights were held on tv and Secretary of State of European Affairs Nicolaï started the campaign with the slogan: *Europe: really important*. It was of no avail. **[B]** Manipulation of behaviour is about more than glitter and glamour. The arguments of the opponents have to be paid attention to and also the sequencing of the arguments is important. That is shown in the research of Burgoon. In his experiments he discerned three sequences. The first is called the anti-climax sequence, which means that you present the strongest arguments at first and the weaker arguments at last. The second sequence is the climax sequence: you begin with the weaker arguments and finish with the stronger ones. The third sequence is a mixed sequence: first some	**[2]** Journalists make heavy use of numbers. **[A]** If you can write that there were 500,000 visitors at the summer festival in Rotterdam, than you are more precise and more reliable than when you state that the festival drew 'a large number of spectators'. **[B]** Whether you should better use concrete anecdotal arguments or statistical arguments, depends. According to the Dutch researchers Hoeken and Hustinx it is due to the type of point of view that is substantiated: when you substantiate a general type of argument, for instance 'smoking should be prohibited in all hotels and restaurants' than statistical arguments are found more persuasive by the listeners. If you however substantiate a specific argument like 'smoking should be forbidden in Restaurant *The Old Barrel'*, than anecdotal arguments appear to be stronger. When making numbers conceivable to your audience, you have to take several techniques into consideration. To start with, the examples you use have to be identifiable. Furthermore, you should make use of conceivable numbers. Thirdly, you should avoid the creation of undesirable associations. A striking example in this case is the flyer published by the Dutch Department of Environmental some years ago. In this flyer the public was

Concluding part CT-presentation (communication theory)	Concluding part NB-presentation (numbers)
weaker arguments, then the stronger arguments and finishing again with some weaker arguments. Burgoon's research makes clear that the mixed sequence should be avoided. Furthermore he argues that it can be risky to present the strongest arguments last. The attention of the listeners could be vanished by then.	asked to gather tin cans apart from the rest of the garbage. A fragment: "Every year we throw away 1,065 million food cans. That is enough aluminium to build 300 Fokker-100 planes. And enough steel to construct 100,000 cars". Not a very expedient example: the environmentally friendly collected aluminium was recycled to be used for environmentally unfriendly products. The suggestion to recycle the material into the construction of a fire engine, an ambulance or an emergency helicopter would have been better in this case.
[3] On several essential issues in persuasive communication there exists empirical tested social scientific knowledge. When we take advantage of those insights, we increase the chance to achieve the behavioural effects we strive for. **[4]** It is a fact that everyone communicates. But that does not mean that everyone has the insight of how communication can be put in effect. Thank you.	**[3]** Numbers are everywhere: in newspapers, on the news and in reports. There is no getting around using them in our own presentations and articles. **[4]** That is why you should use numbers accurately and make them conceivable! Thank you.

Reference to introduction, in which the remarkable outcome of a study by a Dutch governmental Institute is described)

Reference to introduction, in which a well-known Dutch tv-commentator covers a mountain stage in the cycling course Tour de France)

The constructed conclusions in table 4.1 are not ideal in terms of public-speaking advice. First of all, they contain new information (parts A and B) that was not discussed earlier in the presentation, which goes against traditional advice for conclusions. Furthermore, professional speechwriters probably could have improved the rhythm of the final paragraphs, and the use of (figurative) language.

New information was included in the concluding statements for two reasons. First of all, the inclusion of information was necessary in order to properly test the recall of the concluding part. Secondly, the ecological validity was taken into account when formulating the conclusions; in public-speaking practice, it is not uncommon for speakers to include new material in the final paragraphs (Andeweg & De Jong, 2008, p. 46). This means that the presenter came across as prepared but not as over-rehearsed (as for an occasion with a large audience) and the presentation was more focused on structure and less on style (see chapter 3).

The two presentations (CT/NB) were delivered by an experienced speaker (a lecturer/coach in oral presentation skills) and were recorded against a neutral white background. The speaker alternately looked at a printed text in front of him and at an improvised autocue (a projection screen behind the camera). The presentation was not accompanied by slides; these were believed to create the unintentional effect of emphasising the transitions. The recordings were digitally edited; the only difference between the 0 and 1 versions of the presentations was the inclusion of a few lines at the beginning of the concluding section of the 1 versions (with concluding techniques; see italicised text in table 4.1). The recordings differed some seconds in length: the CT0-version had a length of 17:59 minutes, the CT1-version of 18:13 minutes, the NB0-version of 14:53 minutes and the NB1-version of 15:05 minutes. Figure 4.1 shows a screenshot of the recordings. The recording files can be found in Appendix C.2.

Figure 4.1: Screenshot of the speaker delivering the presentation (representative of all four presentation versions used)

4.1.3 Questionnaire, experimental subjects and procedure

Questionnaire

To test the hypotheses, for each presentation a questionnaire was developed that comprised four parts (see Appendix C.1 for the questionnaires):

1. *Three general statements*, to which subjects indicated on a five-point Likert-scale whether they had prior knowledge of the subject of the presentation (1), whether they believed it was an interesting presentation (2), and whether they deemed the subject useful for their future profession (3).

2. *35 multiple-choice questions* to test whether the listeners would recall the concluding part of the presentation better after the announcement of the conclusion. Seven mc-questions the CT-version and eight mc-questions in the NB-version were specifically related to the new information included in the concluding parts of the presentations (parts A/B in table 4.1). The percentage of correct answers on these specific questions was tabulated and used as measure for the recall of the final section of the presentation.

3. *Ten statements accompanied by a Likert-like five-point scale* to test for a possible difference in appreciation of the presentation. Subjects could indicate how much they agreed/disagreed with the statement. The nine statements were divided in two conceptual factors: the appreciation for the speech content (four statements, e.g. 'the recommendations in the presentation were usable'; α=.73) and the 'roundedness' of the presentation (five statements, e.g. 'the presentation was a rounded off story'; α=.75). The factor 'roundedness' relates to the esthetical values that some textbook authors attribute to the use of the circle technique (e.g. that it provides a 'sense of closure' or 'completeness'). The mean score on both of the summarised factors was used to characterise the listener's appreciation.

4. *An open question* in which subjects were asked to describe the introduction of the presentation. We expected that the listeners who heard the CT1- or NB1-versions (with the circle technique) would recall the example from the introduction better due to the repetitive character of the circle technique. Two researchers scored the answers and assessed the extent to which the introduction was recalled. An answer to the open question was considered as correctly recalled when it contained one or more key words from the introductory example. The score was 1 for a correct recall and 0 for no or an incorrect recall of the introduction of the speech. Appendix C.1 contains the scoring instructions for the open question. An inter-rater reliability was not calculated.

Experimental subjects and context

The experimental subjects were students from Delft University of Technology (Mechanical Engineering; Technology, Policy and Management) and of the Leiden University (Dutch Language and Culture; Journalism and New Media). A total of 358 subjects were involved in the experiments. The mean age of the subjects was 20.6 years.

The context in which the experiment was conducted was as follows. The recording of one of the possible four versions was shown to a group of students by means of a projector and projection screen. The presentation was included in a regular class on communication skills and was introduced to students as an online instruction that could potentially be used as an addition to their regular lectures (see Appendix C.1 for the instruction students received). After having viewed the recording, subjects immediately received the questionnaire. They were informed that it was an extracurricular activity and that the results of their questionnaires would not influence their course grade. At a later stage of the communication skills course, the students were debriefed on the purpose of the experiment. Table 4.2 shows the distribution of the subjects over the presentation versions.

Table 4.2: Experimental subjects per condition.

University	**No concl. techn. (CT0/NB0)**	**With concl. techn. (CT1/NB1)**	**Total**
CT-presentation [Communication Theory]			
Delft	40	38	78
Leiden	40	38	78
Total	80	76	156
NB-Speech [Numbers]			
Delft	58	54	112
Leiden	44	46	90
Total	102	100	202

Concl. techn. = concluding techniques (announcement of the conclusion + circle technique)

Regarding the statements in Part 1 of the questionnaire, subjects indicated to have an average prior knowledge on the content of the speech (2.6 on a five-point scale for both speeches). In the CT-speech there was a significant difference between the Leiden and Delft subjects with respect to their prior knowledge on the subject of Communication Theory ($F(1,155)=6{,}213$, $p<.05$), which can be explained by the expertise of the students (engineering studies in Delft versus humanities in Leiden). The intention was to create two interesting and useful presentations (in the eyes of the expected listeners). However, the NB-presentation was found more usable than the CT-presentation ($F(1, 356)=25{,}618$, $p<.001$; no difference between Delft/Leiden students). The NB-presentation was also found slightly more interesting than the CT-presentation ($F(1, 356)=3{,}600$ $p=.056$).

4.1.4 Results

This section discusses the results of the experiment. First, the results for both presentations combined are presented to provide an overall view. Afterwards, the results for each presentation are separately discussed.

Overall view: results of the two presentations combined

Table 4.3 gives an overview of the general results, combining the data of both presentations.

Table 4.3: Results multivariate analysis overall (0- and 1-versions of CT- and NB-presentations combined).

	Condition*	Mean	Sd	N	F-test
Recall of the conclusion†	No concl. techn.	54.02	23.97	181	F(1, 55)=0.661 p=.417
	With concl. techn.	55.92	19.93	176	
	Total	54.95	22.06	357	
Recall of the introduction ‡	No concl. techn.	0.35[a]	0.48	181	F(1, 55)=13.718 p<.001
	With concl. techn.	0.55[a]	0.50	176	
	Total	0.45	0.50	357	
Appreciation of the content ¥	No concl. techn.	3.49	0.72	181	F(1, 355)=.045 p=.833
	With concl. techn.	3.51	0.67	176	
	Total	3.50	0.69	357	
Sense of roundedness ¥	No concl. techn.	3.11[a]	0.69	181	F(1, 355)=12.196 p<.01
	With concl. techn.	3.36[a]	0.67	176	
	Total	3.23	0.69	357	

* No concl. techn.: no concluding techniques, CT0/NB0 versions combined;
With concl. techn: with both concluding techniques, CT1/NB1 versions combined
†: percentage of the correctly answered multiple-choice questions
‡: correct recall of the introduction: score of 1 / incorrect or no recall of the introduction: score of 0
¥ : Five-point Likert-scale ranging from 1= 'not at all' to 5 = 'very much'
[a] : scores differ significantly

A multivariate analysis indicates an overall effect on condition (F(4, 352)=6,983 p<.001). This effect was caused by the factors 'recall of the introduction' and 'sense of roundedness'. Listeners to a presentation version that included an announcement of the conclusion and a circle technique, were better able to reproduce (elements of) the introduction. Repeating the elements of the introduction in the beginning of the conclusion appears to be effective. Moreover, listeners to a presentation version with the concluding techniques feel that the presentation is complete and rounded off. These two effects are probably related to the circle technique. On the other hand, no effects were found regarding 'Recall of the conclusion' and 'Appreciation of the content'. For both presentations combined, the inclusion of an announcement of the conclusion and circle technique did not lead to a better recall of the concluding part, nor to a higher appreciation of the speech content.

The statistical power (1-β) of the performed tests was, considering the sample size (N=357) and α = .05, equal to 1.00 for a large effect (f = .40), .99 for a medium-size effect ((f = .25) and .47 for a small effect (f = .10). A post-hoc Power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) shows that the effect sizes for recall of the introduction and sense of roundedness are between small and medium-sized (f = .20

and *f* = .18, respectively). The statistical power (1-β) for the effect sizes that were found is .96 and .93, which suggests that the sample size was sufficient.[278]

Results specified for CT- and NB-presentations

The listeners appreciated the two presentations that were used in the experiment differently (see also Section 4.1.3). A univariate analysis of the scores obtained on the factor 'appreciation of the content' with 'presentation' as an independent variable shows that the NB-presentation on 'how to make numbers concrete' leads to a significantly higher appreciation ($F(1, 355)=85,708$ $p<.001$). These results were a reason to check whether there is a possible interaction between the factors 'condition' and 'presentation type'. A multivariate analysis made clear that no interaction was found on 'recall of the introduction', 'appreciation of the content' and 'sense of roundedness', despite of the fact that both presentations differ highly in the way how subjects rate the dependent variables. Subjects who saw the CT-presentation on communication techniques score lower on all the tested variables compared to the subjects who saw the NB-presentation on how to make numbers concrete. The presentation type does not interact with the possible use of concluding techniques. However, an interaction seemed to be present for the factor 'recall of the conclusion' ($F=(1, 354)=3,684$ $p=.056$). Therefore, the dependent variable 'recall of the conclusion' was analysed for each presentation separately. Table 4.4 shows the results.

Table 4.4: Recall of the content of the conclusion per presentation, expressed in the percentage of the correctly answered multiple-choice questions.

Recall of the conclusion							
CT-presentation				NB-presentation			
Condition	Mean	Sd	N	Condition	Mean	Sd	N
No concl. techn.	40.18[a]	19.30	80	No concl. techn.	64.83	21.52	102
With concl. techn.	46.43[a]	18.10	76	With concl. techn.	63.13	18.24	100
Total	43.22	18.92	156	Total	63.99	19.93	202

[a]: Scores differ significantly p<.05
No concl. techn.: no concluding techniques (announcement of the conclusion and circle technique)
With concl. techn: with both concluding techniques (announcement of the conclusion and circle technique)

When broken down into the results per presentation, the effect of the concluding techniques on the recall of the concluding information appears to be less straightforward. Subjects who saw the CT-presentation on communication techniques in which the presenter gave a signal that he was about to conclude, answered the multiple-choice questions significantly better than subjects who saw the version of the

[278] The power analyses were conducted with the program G*Power 3.1.9.4 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2007). See Cohen (1992) for the standard values for small, medium and large effects.

CT-presentation without that announcing statement ($F(1, 154)=4{,}344$ $p<.05$). However, subjects' scores on the NB-presentation show no differences between the two conditions. Table 4.4 also shows that listeners of the CT-presentation have given significantly more incorrect answers than the listeners of the NB-presentation on numbers ($F(1, 356)=99{,}791$ $p<.001$).

The statistical power (1-β) of the performed tests for the CT-presentation was, considering the sample size (*N*=156) and α = .05, equal to .99 for a large effect (*f* = .40), .87 for a medium-size effect ((*f* = .25) and .24 for a small effect (*f* = .10). The statistical power (1-β) of the performed tests for the NB-presentation was, considering the sample size (*N*=202) and α = .05, equal to .99 for a large effect (*f* = .40), .94 for a medium-size effect ((*f* = .25) and .29 for a small effect (*f* = .10). A post-hoc Power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) shows that the effect size for recall of the conclusion in the CT-presentation is between small and medium-sized (*f* = .17) and the statistical power (1-β) for the effect size that was found is .53. This suggests that a larger sample size is recommended to detect such difference.

4.1.5 Conclusion and discussion: effect of announcing the conclusion and circle technique on retention and appreciation

What are the effects of the rhetorical techniques announcement of the conclusion and circle technique on the audience's information retention and appreciation of an informative presentation? To wrap up this section, the retention and appreciation hypotheses are discussed, after which the broader implications of the results are interpreted.

Retention hypothesis

The experiment has shown that the use of an announcement of the conclusion and a circle technique may render higher retention of the final part of a presentation, but not in any given situation. The combined results of both presentations indicate a retention effect caused by the circle technique (a reference to the examples used in the introduction, including a repetition of key words). More than half the number of listeners remembered the example used in the introduction after it was referred to in the first sentences of the concluding statements. The combined results of both presentations do not point to a retention effect caused by the announcement of the conclusion: although subjects better remember the (repeated) introductory examples, the recall of other information mentioned in the concluding statements does not seem to be affected.

However, the announcement of the conclusion did appear to positively influence information retention in the particular case of the CT-presentation. Results show a higher recall of the final words of this presentation's version with concluding techniques (CT1) compared to the version without concluding techniques (CT0). This suggests that the explicit marker of the conclusion increased the audience's attention level and consequently retention of the conclusion's information. Still, as no differences were found in retention of the conclusion between the two condition groups in the case of the NB-presentation on how to make numbers relevant, it is unclear whether the announcement of the conclusion generally performs such an attentional stimulus. Moreover, based on the power analysis an increased sample size is recommended to confirm this result.

Appreciation hypothesis

The combination of the announcement of the conclusion and circle technique does not seem to influence the appreciation of the listeners for the content of the speech. However, the versions with the concluding techniques were appreciated higher on the aesthetical factor ‘sense of roundedness’. Listeners appeared to experience a higher sense of closure and the presentation did not cause any feelings of a sudden ending. This positive effect on ‘sense of roundedness’ can most probably be attributed to the circle technique, related to public-speaking advice that this technique can lead to a higher sense of closure (see Section 2.5.13).

Audience involvement as a possible factor of influence

The question rises why the announcement of the last part of a presentation appears to affect recall of the concluding information only in one of the two presentations. Possibly, general appreciation factors influence the effect of the announcing statement. Section 4.1.4 showed that the content of the NB-presentation was valued higher and was assessed as potentially more useful than the CT-presentation. Could the attentional stimulus of announcing the conclusion be more effective regarding retention in a presentation that is evaluated as somewhat less interesting or useful in content (from the audience’s perspective)? If so, this suggests that the need for an attention marker of the conclusion is higher in a situation in which the audience does not highly value the presentation’s contents and therefore is less involved.

This assumption can be supported by considerations on *issue involvement* in the Dual Processing theory of Petty & Cacioppo (1986): in case of a low estimated issue involvement of the audience it is more effective to use concluding techniques that can spark attention, in order to make the audience more attentive for the issues in the concluding parts of the speech. In contrast, a high estimated issue involvement of the audience would then cause a relatively high level of attention throughout the speech, which would make an attention marker for the conclusion less necessary.[279]

This experiment included two messages (presentations) and the effect size of the differences in recall of the conclusion in the CT-presentation was small. Therefore, more research is needed to evaluate whether the effect of concluding techniques is stronger when the issue of the presentation is more complex and less relevant for the audience—if possible with a larger sample size, in the case of an experimental study.

4.2 Experiment 2: retention effects of the summary

“To guarantee your audience walks away remembering the important points from your presentation, give a review or summary at the end of it” (Laskowski, 2001, p. 67):

[279] The higher percentage of correct answers to the multiple-choice questions for the NB-presentation compared to the CT-presentation supports this explanation. However, it cannot be ruled out that the multiple-choice questions of the NB-presentation were easier to answer compared to those used for the CT-presentation.

according to authors of public-speaking textbooks, the summary is an important organisational retention technique. Hence, the second experiment is focused on this technique. First, Section 4.2.1 gives a brief recapitulation of the main advice about the summary and the way in which summaries are used in public-speaking practice, which is more extensively discussed in chapters 2 and 3; after that, it specifies the definition of the summary as used in this experiment and discusses the types of summaries that were applied in the experimental design. Next, Section 4.2.2 explains the main hypotheses, the presentation variants that were designed and how they were recorded. Section 4.2.3 treats the procedure that was followed: it discusses the questionnaire, the background of the experimental subjects and the context in which the experiment was conducted. The final two sections (4.2.4 and 4.2.5) discuss the results and conclusions.

4.2.1 Retention characteristics and definition of the summary

The summary can be considered as key retention technique, as chapters 2 and 3 have shown. To foreground the choices that were made in the experimental setup, this subsection recapitulates the main characteristics of the summary in ancient rhetoric and modern public-speaking textbooks (see Section 2.5.3) and the way in which summaries are used in public-speaking practice (see Section 3.4.3), complemented with insights from previous studies. After that, the section defines the concept of the summary that is used in this experiment.

The summary in public-speaking textbooks and practice

Ancient rhetoric. In classical rhetoric, the summary is usually considered to be one of the functions of the *peroratio* or 'epilogue', the last part of the speech.[280] In the peroratio, a speaker should include a *recapitulatio* (summary or enumeration of the main points) and *affectus* (influencing the mood of the audience) (Andeweg & De Jong, 2008).[281] Classical authors describe some criteria the summary should fulfil, albeit not systematically. Conciseness of the recapitulation is important according to Quintilian (*Institutio Oratoria* VI, 1.2), "for if we devote too much time thereto, the peroration will cease to be an enumeration and will constitute something very like a second speech." He also indicates that a speaker should avoid a summary that is a "tiresome, dry repetition of facts", should carefully select the points included in the enumeration and can enliven those points with rhetorical figures. According to

[280] According to Aristotle, the *peroratio* is not an essential part of the speech for an ideal audience. But as a connoisseur of less ideal audiences, he still acknowledges the importance of the recapitulation (*Rhetorica*, III.19).

[281] In this chapter we focus on summaries that occur in the conclusion of speeches and presentations, even though Quintilian (VI,1.8) already stated that a 'provisional' summary could very well be given at any point during a speech: "It is however admitted by all that recapitulation may be profitably employed in other portions of the speech as well, if the case is complicated and a number of different arguments have been employed in the defence […]."A recapitulation in the *peroratio* however is most common and most likely to influence retention. This view is confirmed by the modern textbook advice on the summary, because the conclusion is the part of the speech most frequently connected to retention (see Section 2.4.2).

Aristotle (*Rhetorica* III.19), in the epilogue speakers should summarise the arguments that proved their case; he adds that it is the proper part of the speech to "repeat your points frequently so as to make them easily understood".

Ancient rhetoricians distinguished two main types of recapitulation were distinguished differed with respect to elaboration of information. A summary could consist of a mere 'repetition of the *propositio*' (purpose/proposition): in the *propositio*, often part of the introduction, the speaker announces what he plans to argue; in the closing section the speaker then summarises what he promised to do (Andeweg & De Jong, 2008, p. 35). Another, seemingly more elaborate type would be the 'summary of the confirmation (the arguments) and the refutation (the rebuttal of the counterarguments)', in which the speaker would list the argumentative points in the same order as mentioned in the speech (*Rhetorica ad Herennium* II, 30.47). McCroskey (2001, p. 263) makes a similar distinction between a "general summary" (restatement of the main point or proposition) and a "summary of the individual points".

Modern public-speaking textbooks. In modern public-speaking textbooks, important purposes for a summary are to enable the audience to recall the main points of a speech, which in turn might also bring detailed aspects of these points to mind again, and to tie the speech together (see Section 2.5.3). The summary is considered to be most suitable in informative presentations and less so in, for example, inspirational speeches. Furthermore, the preferred position of a summary is at the end of the presentation (in the conclusion), although intermediate summaries in earlier phases of the speech are not unheard of. It is usually advised to keep the summary short and concise.

Regarding the summary's content, generally two types are distinguished: an outline summary (indicative summary), which restates the speech's structure on a more abstract level, and a main point summary (informative summary), which briefly restates the contents of the main points addressed. An informative summary appears to be more concrete and elaborate. The two types correspond to the distinction of indicative and informative summaries in the field of text comprehension (education studies). Van Eemeren (1975) for example states that the purpose of an indicative summary is to point out the main points addressed in a text, whereas an informative summary focuses on the contents of those main points and therefore has the purpose to present the most important information that was addressed. Both types of summaries can be effective in their own right when texts are concerned, according to Van Eemeren (1975). However, criteria that correspond to the description of the informative summary are used to evaluate the assignment to summarise a text in Dutch secondary school exams (Schoonen, 1997). Wagenaar (1996) reflects on these two summary types in a public-speaking context and believes that a speaker should inform the audience of the main message in the conclusion by repeating or restating it, instead of merely indicating the main points addressed.

Public-speaking practice. The analysis of public-speaking practice in chapter 3 shows that the informative presentations by scholars contained most summaries (nine in sixteen presentations). At the same time, almost half the number of research presentations did not include a recap in the conclusion. The corpus of inspirational TED-talks contained fewer summaries (four in sixteen talks) and no summaries were detected in the corpus of political speeches (see Section 3.4.1). In a study of *peroratios* in speeches given by the minister and state secretary of the Dutch Ministry of the Interior and Kingdom Relations, Andeweg and De Jong (2008) found that nine out of sixteen speeches contained some form of a recapitulation (summary). The speeches in their study were defined to have a mixture of inspirational, informative and policy-oriented (persuasive) goals. So, although summaries are frequently used in public-speaking practice (most often in informative presentations), speeches also regularly lack clear summaries in the conclusion. Such an absence of a summary can be seen as a missed opportunity to impact the audience's information retention.

Furthermore, varieties in content, structure and style of summaries were found in public-speaking practice. Some of these variants do not concur with the main advice that was found in textbooks. Section 3.4.3 showed that summaries in research presentations and TED talks vary a great deal in length and that some summaries do not adhere to the advice to be kept short and concise. Also, both indicative (outline) summaries and more informative (main point) summaries were found; the informative summaries were longer. In speeches of ministers and state secretaries that were analysed by Andeweg and De Jong (2008), most summaries only consisted of a restatement of the main purpose (*propositio*), which—more often than not—was an incomplete version of the message of the speech. In a quarter of the speeches that Andeweg and De Jong (2008) studied, the summary consisted of an overview of the main arguments (comparable to the type of the main point or informative summary). Using incomplete or ill-prepared summaries turn out to be problematic for speakers; a study by De Jong et al. (2004) into the public reception of a corpus of policy speeches shows that the application of such summaries could lead to quite divergent interpretations of the main message by the audience.

Definition: the rhetorical summary

'Summary' and 'recap' are concepts often used in everyday language in various contexts. To properly design an experiment focusing on the summary in an informative presentation, it is necessary to define the concept used in this study. Is a summary in a presentation different from a summary in a text? Is the act of summarising in a presentation different from summarising as a learning strategy or as an assessment to test text comprehension? To do so, it is valuable to consider definitions and ideas about summarising from disciplines such as information sciences and educational psychology, next to public-speaking textbooks and practice. This way, the boundaries and characteristics of a summary in a public-speaking context can be more precisely marked.

In information sciences, a considerable number of studies into automatic text summarisation can be found in which source text is summarised via algorithms

(Spärck Jones, 2007). In this field, a summary is considered to be "a reductive transformation of source text to summary text through content condensation by selection and/or generalisation on what is important in the source" (Spärck Jones, 2007, p. 1450). Although the focus of this research area lies on automatised systems of information selection, Spärck Jones explains that these cannot be 'context free' and also considers 'input factors' (e.g. genre, length, style), 'purpose factors' (intended use and audience) and 'output factors' (reduction and format). A proper evaluation of a summary should take the purpose specifications into account (Spärck Jones, 2007). Generally, a distinction is made between an 'extract', a selection or juxtaposition of information elements (e.g. sentences) derived or copied from the source itself, and an 'abstract', which consists of generalisations or paraphrases of (what is interpreted to be) the main information elements in a source (Antiqueira et al., 2008).

In educational psychology and studies into text comprehension, the interpretation of summarisation appear to correspond to creating an abstract. Summarising a text is a learning strategy that is often applied by students and the skill of summarising a text is often tested in secondary schools. In this context, a summary is not just a selection of the most important information, but new coherent text composed by means of deletion, combination and synthesis of (parts of) this information (Duke & Pearson, 2002; Dole et al., 1991). This makes summarising a complex learning activity for improving text comprehension. A long-lasting discussion in this field of research is about how to evaluate the quality of summaries, not in the least because summarisation is often used as a method to test students' text comprehension. What criteria should a good summary fulfil? According to Van Eemeren (1975, p. 50), a good summary should be a representation of the source text that is as correct, complete, impartial and concise as possible. Criteria as formulated by Van Eemeren have long formed the basis upon which the summary assignment in the final exam of Dutch secondary schools has been evaluated (Schoonen, 1997). However, studies indicate a relatively low inter-rater agreement between school teachers' summary evaluations (Schoonen, 1997). Applying the criteria as stated in definitions of a summary does not seem to be a straightforward activity.

What definition of a summary then fits the informative public-speaking context of this experimental study? Following the classical rhetorical view of the summary and the 'purpose factors' distinguished in information sciences, I here consider the summary to be a rhetorical technique a speaker can intentionally apply. Therefore, in this study I propose to use the concept of the 'rhetorical summary', which has the following properties: (1) it consists of information selected by the speaker and (2) it is part of the conclusion of the speech, which is labelled as such by the speaker (e.g. by a structure marker such as "to summarise…" or "in conclusion…").

A rhetorical summary is not necessarily a correct, complete and impartial representation of a presentation; its key characteristic is that speakers are relatively free to select the main points they consider to be most important to mention, for example the information that they would like the audience to retain. The point of departure here is the speaker's perspective and the rhetorical purpose, as opposed to listeners' or readers' aims for composing a summary. Correctness, completeness and impartiality are therefore not considered as requirements, but as factors that might influence audience information retention and appreciation of the summary. A rhetorical summary in a presentation can take the shape of any type of recapitulation discussed above (e.g. indicative or informative), depending on the speaker's intentions. However, it is not yet known whether the selection of a specific type of summary influences information retention and appreciation of the presentation.

4.2.2 Experimental design: hypotheses, presentation design and recordings

Based on the textbook advice on the retention effects of the summary, the use of this retention technique in public-speaking practice and the definition of the rhetorical summary as put forward in Section 4.2.1, an experiment was designed. This subsection puts forward the hypotheses and discusses the presentation variants that were developed and recorded to test these hypotheses.

Retention and appreciation hypotheses

The hypotheses are divided into the categories 'retention' and 'appreciation'. The retention hypotheses focus on the retention effect of the use of a summary in general, and two summary types more specifically: the indicative and informative summary, based on the main distinction made in public-speaking textbooks, studies in educational psychology and summaries that were found in public-speaking practice. In the light of the dissertation's main question, the main focus of the experiment is on the retention hypotheses. The appreciation hypotheses are related to the question whether of the use of a (specific type of) summary causes the audience to evaluate the concluding part of a presentation in a different way. The following hypotheses were formulated:

Retention hypotheses

H1: Listeners to a presentation that contains a summary will have a higher retention of information than listeners to a presentation that does not contain a summary.

H2: Listeners to a presentation that contains an informative summary will have a higher retention of information than listeners to a presentation that contains an indicative summary.

Appreciation hypotheses

H3: Listeners to a presentation that contains a summary will have a higher appreciation of the conclusion than listeners to a presentation that does not contain a summary.

H4: Listeners to a presentation that contains an informative summary will have a higher appreciation of the conclusion than listeners to a presentation that contains an indicative summary.

The hypotheses are aimed at measuring ‘effects of a summary in general’ (H1 and H3) and ‘the effects of specific summary types’ (H2 and H4). Regarding the retention hypotheses, H1 postulates that the act of including a summary, regardless of the type, will generate retention effects compared to not including a summary at all. H2 states that listeners to a presentation that includes an informative summary will retain more information mentioned in the summary than the audience of a presentation that included an indicative summary. Retention effects were measured right after the presentation and in a post-test two to three weeks later, to gain insight into retention in the short term and in the longer term. Retention effects visible in the longer term suggest an effect on storage and retrieval of information in the long-term memory (see Section 1.2).

Regarding the appreciation hypotheses, it is expected that a concluding part with a summary will be more appreciated than a version without a summary (H3) and, more specifically, that a concluding part with an informative summary will be more appreciated than the concluding part with an indicative summary (H4). No long-term effects for appreciation were measured; due to limited time available for the post-test, the questions aimed at free recall were prioritised.

Presentation design and recordings

To measure effects of the summary, a presentation was developed with the topic ‘Framing as communication strategy’.[282] Three versions of this presentation were written: a version without a summary (V1, duration: 15:38 minutes), a version with an indicative summary (V2, duration: 16:05 minutes) and a version with an informative summary (V3, duration: 16:52 minutes).

The introduction and body part of the presentation, in which the concept of framing and its main effects are explained and supported with examples, was similar in all three versions. The three versions only differed in the way in which the conclusion was constructed. The conclusions consisted of the following elements:

[1] An announcement of the conclusion (in V1, V2 and V3)
[2] An indicative summary (V2) or informative summary (V3)
[3] Final statements and word of thanks to the audience (in V1, V2 and V3)

Table 4.5 shows the three elements of the presentation’s conclusion, while indicating the difference between the three versions.

[282] The presentation’s contents included information based on research by Lakoff, Goffmann and Tversky & Kahnemann. The presentation text can be found in Appendix C.4.

Table 4.5: the conclusion of the three presentation versions (see Appendix C.4 for the complete presentation text in the Dutch language)

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">[1] Let me wrap up</td></tr>
<tr><td>V2: indicative summary

[2] In this mini-lecture I intended to provide some insight into framing. I have explained how framing is used. In doing so, I mentioned a few characteristics and 4 effects of framing. I have also paid attention to the formulation of frames. Besides that, I have given some examples of frames in Dutch politics.</td><td>V3: informative summary

[2] Framing is an effective way to strengthen the persuasiveness of the message. Everyone uses frames, both consciously and unconsciously. Frames are used frequently in politics—in The Netherlands as well. Frames help us to understand the reality around us. By using specific language, you make the listener or reader see the world through a specific pair of glasses.

Frames have four important effects. The first effect is that frames can direct the way we rationally make decisions.
Secondly, frames that are formulated intelligently can be very ‘sticky’, which makes them more memorable.
Thirdly, good frames often receive free ‘airplay’, because they are easily transferred from one person to another.
The final effect of frames is the fact that denial of a frame leads to confirmation.</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">[3] So, when you have finished your studies, don’t refer to yourself as ‘unemployed’ but as ‘looking for a job’. Be aware of the power of language. You will notice the difference! Thank you.</td></tr>
</table>

Table 4.5 shows that elements [1] and [3], an announcement of the conclusion and the final sentences, are included of all three versions of the presentation. The conclusion of V1 (no summary) only consisted of these two elements—a fairly brief conclusion for a 15 minute speech, but not uncommon as the analyses of speeches that were discussed in chapter 3 showed.[283] V2 contains an indicative summary, in which the

[283] In 75% of all presentation texts analysed in chapter 3 (the three speech corpora taken together), no summary was found in the conclusion. In the corpus of research presentations, which have an informative main purpose and are therefore most closely related to the educational presentation used in the experiment, just over half the number of presentations contained a summary. So, in public-speaking practice it is not unusual for a summary not to be included in a conclusion of a presentation. Section 3.4.3 also showed instances of fairly brief conclusions.

speaker gives a rather abstract and superficial description of the information that he has given, but does not repeat or rephrase the main content. The difference between V2 and V3 (informative summary), is perhaps best signified by the way the four framing effects are treated: in V2, the speaker only mentions that four effects were discussed, whereas in V3 the speaker briefly describes those four effects once more. V3 also contains a repetition or rephrase of some other characteristics of framing that were already mentioned in the presentation's middle part, such as the phrase "framing is an effective way to strengthen the persuasiveness of the message". The indicative summary of V2 only superficially refers to those characteristics and features of framing. The informative summary in V3 is longer than the indicative summary in V2.

It is possible that a mere reference to the main points, as is done in V2, could already lead to a higher information retention than not including any reference at all to the main points addressed—as is expressed in H1. The mere reference to and the indication of those points could enable the audience to make a connection with the more elaborate description made in the presentation's middle part. However, a more concrete repetition of the key points as is provided in the informative summary (V3) would probably enable the audience to establish a deeper and stronger connection with the information previously heard, as expressed in H2.

The ecological validity of the presentation text was taken into account. The text was written based on the experiences of the researchers involved with informative and educational presentations as lecturers in communicative skills. According to communication lecturers at Delft University of Technology, the presentation was realistically structured: it corresponded to the structure of average presentations that they observe in practice. The three versions of the presentations were presented by an experienced speaker (a trainer/coach in oral presentation skills) and recorded against a neutral white background. The speaker alternately looked at a printed text in front of him and at an improvised autocue (a projection screen behind the camera). Figure 4.2 presents the display used during the experiment. Appendix C.5 contains the recordings of all three versions.

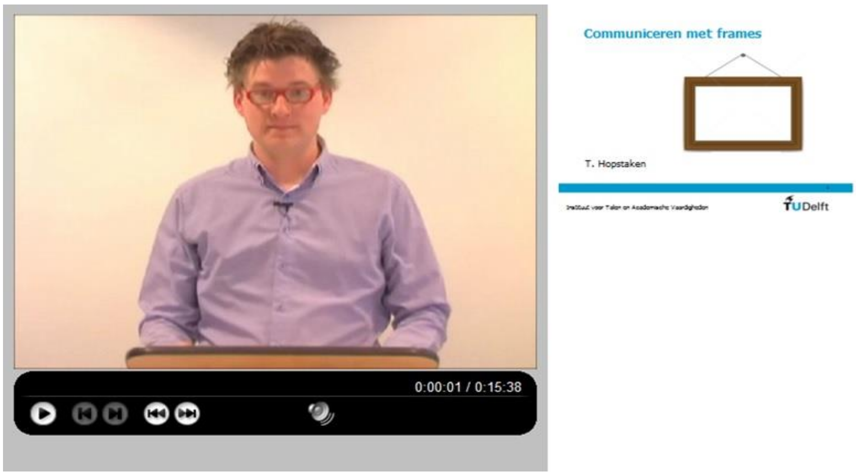

Figure 4.2: Screenshot of the projection displayed during the experiment, with the presenter on the left and the slides on the right. The PowerPoint slide shown contains the title of the presentation ('Communicating with frames'), the name of the speaker and the academic institution responsible for the presentation. All slides are included in Appendix C.4.

The recording of the presenter was projected on the left side of the screen, from an audience's point of view. The presentation was accompanied by some PowerPoint-slides, to create a more realistic presentation context. These slides were shown on the right side of the screen. They did not contain much text, mostly pictures. The fact that both verbal and visual information was offered could have influenced information retention, as the audience could process the information via both the verbal and visual channel (cf. Mayer, 2009). Since the exact same slides were used in all three versions (no new slides were designed to support the indicative and/or the informative summary), it was not expected that the slides would influence a possible difference in retention levels between the three versions.

4.2.3 Questionnaire, experimental subjects and procedure

Questionnaire

To test the hypotheses, a questionnaire was developed that consisted of four parts (see Appendix C.4 for the questionnaire):

Part 1: Two five-point Likert-scale statements on prior knowledge and usefulness of the topic

Part 1 contained statements on prior knowledge and the extent to which subjects deemed the topic useful: "I already knew a lot about this topic" and "I think a lecture on this topic is necessary for an engineer". Subjects indicated the extent to which they agreed with these statements on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = not at all/very little and 5 = very strongly/very much.

Part 2: Open questions about the recall of the framing effects mentioned in the presentation

Part 2 consisted of the following two open questions: "how many framing effects did the speaker mention?" and "which framing effects did the speaker mention?" The answer to the first question (four effects) was most likely to be recalled better by listeners to both V2 and V3, as the exact number was mentioned in both the indicative and the informative summary (see table 4.5). The second question was aimed at free recall of the framing effects mentioned in the presentation. Only in the informative summary (V3), the speaker concisely described these effects again.

Part 3: 33 multiple-choice questions about the entire presentation

Part 3 consisted of 33 multiple-choice questions. These questions were aimed at information mentioned in the entire presentation. Eight questions specifically addressed information mentioned in the informative summary of V3. Subjects that were exposed to the informative summary were expected to provide more correct answers to those questions, as they had heard a repetition of this information (as opposed to the subjects to whom V1 or V2 were shown).

Part 4: 22 five-point Likert-scale statements to measure appreciation of the speech.

Part 4 contained 22 statements aimed at measuring the audience appreciation for four aspects of the presentation: (1) appreciation of the peroration (concluding part), (2) speaker ethos, (3) captivation/interest in the presentation and (4) the appreciation for the presentation as an educational tool. Subjects were asked to indicate on a Likert-like five-point scale to which extent they fully disagreed (1) or fully agreed (5) with the statement presented. The first aspect was most important in the light of the appreciation hypotheses (H3 and H4). The factor 'peroration appreciation' comprised three statements (Cronbach's α=.79):

- The closing statements made the content of the speech comprehensible
- The closing statements formed a good summary of the entire speech
- The closing statements were clear

These statements were aimed at measuring whether the presence of an informative or indicative summary positively influences the audience's appreciation of the presentation's conclusion. The statements that constituted the other three factors, speaker ethos, captivation/interest in the presentation and appreciation as educational tool, the first place served as distractors in the first place. The statements about 'appreciation of the presentation as an educational tool' corresponded to the context in which the recording of the presentation was shown to the subjects.

Experimental subjects and context

The experimental subjects were students from Delft University of Technology (Mechanical Engineering, Molecular Science and Technology, and Life Science and Technology). Each version was shown to a group of a little over 90 students (N_{total} =

284). The subjects were distributed as equally as possible over the three presentation versions. The mean age of the subjects was nineteen years; the age of the subjects ranged from seventeen to thirty-two years. They were shown one of the three versions of the presentation in a regular presentation skills lecture.

Experimental procedure

Instruction. The recording was introduced to the students by their presentation skills lecturer as "newly developed course material for online use". After having viewed the recording, students were instructed to fill out the questionnaire. They were told that the purpose of the questionnaire was to find out to what extent additional online course materials are useful.

Questionnaire after the recording. After having viewed the recording, subjects received parts 1 and 2 of the questionnaire. They were asked to hand in Parts 1 and 2 after five minutes, after which they received Parts 3 and 4, This way, the answers given to the open questions could not be consulted when answering the multiple-choice questions.[284] Parts 3 and 4 were handed in after 15 minutes.

Post-test. As a final part of the testing procedure, a post-test was performed two to three weeks later to measure retention on the longer term. The open questions that were stated in Part 2 were repeated; due to time constraints, the multiple-choice questions and appreciation statements were not included. The open questions in Part 2 of the questionnaire were deemed most relevant to measure longer term retention effects. The post-test was conducted under a slightly smaller, but still representative group of students (N=233) with an equal distribution over the three variants of the presentation. After all post-tests had been carried out, students were debriefed about the purpose of the experiment in a presentation skills lecture.

4.2.4 Results

This section provides an overview of the results. First, the results on the statements regarding prior knowledge and usefulness of the presentation topic are presented. Next, the results connected to the retention hypotheses are presented, followed by the results regarding the appreciation hypotheses.

Prior knowledge and usefulness of the presentation topic

Table 4.6 shows that no significant differences were found between the subject groups in prior knowledge and views on usefulness of the topic (Part 1 of the questionnaire).

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[284] It is conceivable that the process of attempting to recall information to answer the questions of Part 1 could have influenced the way subjects answered the multiple-choice questions in Part 2, even if they did not have the exact answers of the open questions at their disposal after handing in Part 1 (a testing effect). Kang, McDermott and Roediger III (2007) suggest that a test which required more demanding retrieval processes, such as the short answer test questions in Part 1 of the questionnaire in this experiment, can influence final retention positively.

Table 4.6: Mean scores on prior knowledge and usefulness of the topic, indicated on a five-point Likert scale.

Version	**N**	**Prior knowledge (mean)***	**Usefulness subject (mean)***
V1: No summary	92	2.52	3.46
V2: Indicative summary	94	2.35	3.43
V3: Informative summary	98	2.29	3.37

*Five-point Likert scale (1 = not at all / very little and 5 = very strongly / very much)

Information retention

Reproduction and recall of framing effects. First the results of the open questions in Part 2 of the questionnaire and the post-test are presented. These results are closely related, as the questions were aimed at recall of the framing effects mentioned by the speaker in the presentation. Afterwards, the results of the multiple-choice questions in Part 3 of the questionnaire are discussed.

Table 4.7 provides an overview of the results for recall of framing effects. First, the results for the reproduction of the number of effects mentioned by the speaker are presented. The answer of framing effects was scored as ‘correct’ (1) or ‘incorrect’ (0) and included in both the indicative and the informative summary. Second, the results for the free recall of the framing effects are shown. The answers were scored using a strict score sheet that contained the required key terms per effect. For each correctly represented effect, raters awarded 1 point. A maximum of four points could be awarded. The results for the post-test, the third category, were scored similarly. Two raters independently scored 91 questionnaires which were filled out immediately after the presentation using the scoring instruction, resulting in a good inter-rater reliability ($\kappa = .82$, $p<.001$).[285] For the post-test, two raters—one of which was not previously involved in the scoring process—obtained moderate agreement using the same scoring instruction (($\kappa = .57$, $p<.001$).

[285] For an effect to be described correctly, one of the key terms needed to be included in the answer. For some effects, a combination of key words was required. The score sheet was used in a strict manner; the exact formulations of the key terms needed to be included. In cases in which multiple key terms that were connected to a single effect on the score sheet were presented as different effects on the answer sheet, the effect was counted only once (e.g. for the first effect, ‘frames can influence decision making’, both ‘influence’ and ‘decision’ had to be included in the answer for it to be correct). The scoring instructions are in Appendix C.4.

Table 4.7: Overview of the results related to the retention hypotheses: reproduction of the exact number of effects, recall of the framing effects immediately after the presentation and the post-test (two to three weeks later). Significant differences are indicated with superscript letters and accounted for below the table.

		V1: No summary	V2: Indicative	V3: Informative
Reproduction of the exact number of effects (0 = incorrect, 1 = correct)*	N	81	82	95
	Mean	0.29^{ab}	0.56^{a}	0.57^{b}
	Sd	0.46	0.50	0.50
Recall of framing effects (max. score = 4)**	N	92	94	94
	Mean	0.80^{c}	0.73^{d}	1.60^{cd}
	Sd	0.82	0.71	0.92
Post-test: recall framing effects (max. score = 4)**	N	82	71	80
	Mean	0.44^{e}	0.37^{f}	0.71^{ef}
	Sd	0.65	0.54	0.75

* Scored as 1 (correct number of effect reproduced) or 0 (incorrect or no number of effects reproduced)
** For each correctly represented effect, raters awarded one point. A maximum of four points could be awarded.
^{ab} F (2, 256) = 8,799 p<.001
^{cd} F(2, 277) = 33,418 p<.001
^{e} F(2, 230) = 5,992 p<.05
^{f} F(2, 230) = 5,992 p<.01

First of all, table 4.7 shows that listeners to both the indicative and the informative summary were able to reproduce the exact number of framing effects mentioned significantly better than listeners who viewed the version without a summary. As the exact number was only mentioned by the speaker in V2 and V3 as opposed to V1, this effect was expected.

The results for the recall of framing effects paint a different picture: listeners to V3 (informative summary) were able to recall the framing effects significantly better than listeners to both other versions. They scored an average of 1.6 points on a total of 4, so they were able to recall about 40% of the information requested. The results for V2 are more or less equal to those for V1, which indicates that an indicative summary does not seem to support recall of the requested information: on average, listeners to V1 and V2 could hardly recall a framing effect.

Finally, the results of the post-test that was performed two to three weeks later are in agreement with the results for the recall of framing effects measured directly after the presentation: listeners to V3 were able to reproduce the framing effects significantly better than listeners to V1 and V2. Table 4.7 also shows a decay of 50% or more of the amount of information that was retained after two to three weeks—perhaps that is not unexpected, as recall was tested over a longer period of time. This decay over time might also explain the moderate inter-rater agreement for the post-test: it was more challenging for subjects to reproduce correct and clear answers using the key words required in the scoring instruction, which might have led to more doubtful decisions for the raters using this scoring instruction. The results of the post-test should therefore be interpreted with more caution.

The statistical power (1-β) of the performed tests was, considering the sample size (*N* varied between 233 and 280) and $\alpha = .05$, equal to .99 for a large effect ($f = .40$), between .91 and .97 for a medium-size effect (($f = .25$) and .24 and .30 for a small effect ($f = .10$). A post-hoc Power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) shows that the effect size is large ($f = .48$) for the difference in recall of framing effects, and medium-sized for the reproduction of the number framing effects and the post-test and appreciation for the conclusion ($f = .26$ and $f = .23$ and respectively; all effect sizes are according to Cohen's effect size conventions (Cohen, 1992), which suggests that the sample size was sufficient).[286]

Overall, the results for the recall of framing effects show that the use of an informative summary leads to a significantly higher information retention score than the use of an indicative summary or leaving out a summary. The indicative summary does not lead to a higher recall of information compared to the version without a summary.

Multiple-choice questions. Do the results for the multiple-choice questions corroborate the findings on the free recall questions? Table 4.8 shows the results for the multiple-choice questions related to information mentioned in the informative summary. Not all students answered all multiple-choice questions, which accounts for a smaller number of respondents compared to the open questions.

Table 4.8: Results of the multiple-choice questions related to information mentioned in the informative summary.

		V1: No summary	V2: Indicative summary	V3: Informative summary
MC questions about informative summary (percentage answered correctly)	N	75	72	77
	Mean	81.2	82.8	84.4
	Sd	1.50	1.53	1.48

The results in table 4.8 do not indicate any differences between the three versions regarding the multiple-choice questions that were specifically aimed at the informative summary. The answers on all multiple-choice questions are in agreement with the results on the questions related to information in the summary: no differences were found between the three versions. The results of the multiple-choice questions do not correspond with the results on the open recall questions; the latter results

[286] The power analyses were conducted with the program G*Power 3.1.9.4 (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2007). See Cohen (1992) for the standard values for small, medium and large effects.

showed that listeners to the informative summary recalled significantly more information.

Peroration appreciation

Does the use of an informative summary lead to a higher appreciation of the conclusion or could the investment in repetition on the key points lead to the conclusion being perceived as less attractive than the other versions? Table 4.9 shows the results for the factor 'peroration appreciation'.

Table 4.9: Results for the appreciation of the peroration, divided over the three versions.

Version	N	Mean*	Sd
V1: No summary	53	3.30[a]	0.69
V2: Indicative summary	73	3.51	0.76
V3: Informative summary	89	3.75[a]	0.73

*Five-point Likert scale (1 = not at all / very little and 5 = very strongly / very much)

[a] $F(2,212) = 6,431$ $p<.01$

Table 4.9 shows that the peroration appreciation for the three versions ranged from 3.30 to 3.75 on a five-point scale, which means that the concluding parts of all versions were rated above average. It also shows that listeners to the informative summary valued the conclusion of that presentation significantly higher than the listeners to the version without a summary.[287] No significant differences were found between the indicative summary and the two other versions. Regarding the other factors measured, speaker ethos, captivation/interest in the presentation and the appreciation for the presentation as an educational tool, no significant differences between the versions were found.

The statistical power (1-β) of the performed test was, considering the sample size (N = 215) and α = .05, equal to .99 for a large effect (f = .40), .91 for a medium-size effect ((f = .25) and .24 a for a small effect (f = .10). A post-hoc Power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) shows that the effect size for the appreciation of the peroration is medium-sized (f = .28), according to Cohen's effect size conventions (Cohen, 1992), which suggests that the sample size was sufficient.

4.2.5 Conclusion and discussion: effects of summary variants on retention and appreciation

What are the effects of various forms of the rhetorical technique 'summary' on the audience's information retention and appreciation of an informative presentation? First the conclusions concerning the retention hypotheses are discussed, followed by the conclusions regarding the appreciation hypotheses. After that, limitations and

[287] Table 4.9 also shows that the group size between the versions differed. Most likely, this difference could be attributed to the fact that the appreciation statements were included in the final part of the questionnaire. Not all subjects were able to finish the entire questionnaire within the time allocated.

considerations of the experimental setup are discussed. The concluding section of this experimental study is wrapped up with a reflection on the overall value of these conclusions for speakers wishing to present a memorable message.

Retention hypotheses

The results on retention scores show that an informative summary seems to affect the recall of information mentioned in the summary significantly better than an indicative summary or no summary at all, both directly after the presentation and on a longer term of two to three weeks. Regarding the free recall of retention effects (the open questions), hypothesis 1 can partly be confirmed, while hypothesis 2 can be confirmed completely.

In hypothesis 1, it was suggested that the mere act of including any kind of summary will influence audience retention. This is only partly supported: listeners to the informative summary recalled significantly more information than listeners to the other two versions, but no differences were found between the version without a summary and the version with an indicative summary. This suggests that the design of the summary matters: labelling a part of the speech as a summary, regardless of its formulation and contents, does not guarantee an increase in information retention by the audience.

Hypothesis 2 appears to be confirmed: the informative summary outperforms the indicative summary concerning recall of information immediately after the presentation and in the post-test two to three weeks later. All in all, for the presentation used in this experiment, the informative summary appeared to be the best choice to influence free recall of information that was mentioned in the conclusion, both in a short term and in a longer term. However, it should be noted that no differences between the versions were found in the answers to the multiple-choice questions (further discussed under ‘limitations and considerations experimental setup’).

Appreciation hypotheses

Both of the appreciation hypotheses (H3 and H4) cannot be completely confirmed. The results for the appreciation of the peroration indicate that using an informative summary leads to a higher appreciation of the peroration (the concluding part of the presentation) than applying no summary at all. However, no significant differences were found when comparing the appreciation of (1) the informative and indicative summary and (2) the indicative summary and the conclusion without a summary. This means that it can neither be concluded that a conclusion with a summary generally is appreciated more than a conclusion without a summary (H3), nor can it be concluded that the informative summary is appreciated more than an indicative summary (H4).

The concluding parts of all the presentation versions were appreciated above average (a score of 3.30 or higher), which might be related to the fact that all participants deemed the presentation topic useful. Furthermore, no differences were found between the three presentation versions for the factors ‘speaker ethos’ and ‘captivation/interest’, which means that the use of an informative summary did not cause a negative view of speaker authority and trustworthiness or a decrease of interest in the presentation.

Based on these results, speakers preparing an informative or educational presentation can be advised to include an informative summary: it increases the audience's appreciation for the conclusion of the presentation compared to a presentation without a summary and does not harm their ethos or the audience's level of interest in the presentation.

Limitations and considerations experimental setup

The results and experimental setup leave two main points for discussion. First of all, no differences between the types of summaries were found in the results for the multiple-choice questions. Several explanations can be offered. To start off, testing via multiple-choice questions differs from testing via open questions: recognition is tested, rather than free recall. It is more difficult to recall and reproduce information than to recognise information from a range of options (cf. Baddeley et al., 2009, p. 371). The contextual information enclosed in the multiple-choice questions and answer options could have aided respondents in choosing the correct answer or eliminating incorrect answers. The recognition effect may have been amplified by the fact that the free recall of information was performed prior to answering multiple-choice questions. Furthermore, the multiple-choice questions might not have been designed effectively enough to distinguish between the different versions. Questions about the informative summary's content are inevitably about key points addressed in the entire presentation, which may generally be remembered better than the more detailed information that the other questions focused on.

Secondly, the experiment was conducted within a single message design, contrary to the experiment on the announcement of the conclusion and the circle technique described in Section 4.1.[288] Retention effects of informative summaries in other presentations, shown to different audiences, should be measured to further generalise the results (cf. O'Keefe, 2002). Because of the focus on an informative purpose, it is unclear if the results also hold for persuasive presentations.

Implications and further research

Overall, this experiment points out the positive effect of the organisational rhetorical technique of the informative summary on both information retention of and appreciation for the concluding remarks of a presentation. While the informative summary turned out to be an effective tool to increase information retention in this experiment, the indicative summary appeared to be just as ineffective as omitting the summary. This means that the way in which the summary is formulated and the type of information that is included in the summary influences its possible retention effect. The variety of ways in which speakers of informative presentations and persuasive speeches phrase their summaries, combined with the scarcity of specific public-

[288] As the summary experiment entailed the design of three presentation versions as opposed to the two versions in the announcement and circle technique experiment, it was decided that a multiple message design would not be feasible for practical reasons (e.g. arranging a sufficient number of participants).

speaking advice on how to formulate such a summary (see Sections 3.4.3 and 4.2.1), calls for a more detailed investigation of this issue.

Furthermore, the rhetorical definition of a recapitulation or summary is a theoretical avenue to be further explored. In this study, I proposed the concept of the 'rhetorical summary': speakers decide which information is most important to include in the part of the conclusion that is labelled as 'summary', to emphasise the importance of that information to the audience. This way, the summary can be more strategically used to influence audience information retention. From a rhetorical perspective, it is up to the speaker to decide whether the recapitulation should correctly represent (all) the presentation's main points. The results for the appreciation of the concluding part show that relationships between the different summary types appear to be more nuanced than expected. A clear difference was only found between the version with an informative summary and the version without a summary. The question to what extent an informative recapitulation and a 'correct', exhaustive representation of the presentation's key information are strongly connected to the appreciation of the conclusion should be further investigated. As a first step, it can be insightful to study what information a speaker decides to include in and omit from a summary, for example via content analyses and interviews with speakers.

5. Conclusion and discussion

Aristotle's time travels to observe modern rhetorical practice have almost come to an end. What would the founding father of rhetoric have learned about rhetorical techniques and their influence on audience information retention? What new insights would he take home on how messages are made memorable?

This concluding chapter brings together the various strands of the thesis. To recapitulate this thesis' main question:

How can rhetorical techniques in speeches enhance information retention by the audience?

This thesis followed a three-step approach to answer the main question: (1) it provided an overview of characteristic advice on influencing audience retention in public-speaking textbooks, (2) it presented an analysis of how scholars, politicians and TED speakers use a selection of the advised retention techniques linked to organisation and elaboration in their speeches and presentations in practice, and, following from these first two steps, (3) it reported the results of experiments into retention effects of three rhetorical concluding techniques in the specific context of an informative presentation: announcement of the conclusion, circle technique (referring to the introduction) and summary (recapitulation).

In this concluding chapter, the order of these three steps is reversed, in order to first present the most concrete and detailed answer to the main question. Section 5.1 discusses the retention effects of the techniques that are studied to the most detail: it shows to what extent retention has been influenced by the announcement of the conclusion, circle technique and summary in the experiments reported in chapter 4. Next, the section relates these results to the description of these three techniques in public-speaking textbooks textbook (chapter 2) and their usage in public-speaking practice (chapter 3). From the detailed answer presented in Section 5.1, Sections 5.2 and 5.3 zoom out to present a more extensive answer. Section 5.2 shows how retention techniques are applied in public-speaking practice by scholars, politicians and TED speakers (chapter 3). It focuses on characteristics and variants of these techniques that were distinguished in the analysed presentation texts, and it reflects on how the rhetorical situation can explain the way these speakers applied retention techniques. Next, Section 5.3 characterises the retention advice that was found in the modern public-speaking textbooks that were analysed (chapter 2). Finally, Section 5.4 paints a broader picture of rhetorical retention research: it offers perspectives on the contribution of this thesis to rhetorical research and future research avenues to explore.

5.1 Retention effects of three rhetorical concluding techniques

This section offers the most concrete answer to the main question. It presents the main conclusions of experiments into the retention effects of three techniques that speakers regularly apply in the conclusion of a presentation: the announcement of the conclusion, circle technique and summary.

These three concluding techniques were investigated for two main reasons. First, the conclusion is the part of the presentation that is most frequently connected to retention in public-speaking textbooks. These three techniques, particularly the summary, are regularly mentioned in textbooks as strategies to make a message memorable. Second, scholars, politicians and TED speakers applied these techniques in different ways. Scholars, who mainly aim to inform, used these three organisational concluding techniques most frequently. Still, all three types of speakers used different variants of these techniques.

This raises two questions: (1) do these techniques indeed influence the audience's information retention and (2) would variants of these techniques affect retention differently? Therefore, these three concluding techniques were selected as case studies to investigate how organisational techniques can influence the audience's information retention in an informative presentation.

Section 5.1.1 presents the main findings of the experiments. Next, Section 5.1.2 provides insight into the application of the three concluding techniques by scholars, politicians and TED speakers, and how the three techniques are linked to retention in public-speaking textbooks.

5.1.1 Experiments: concluding techniques can lead to increased retention

Two experimental studies were conducted: the first experiment involved the announcement of the conclusion and circle technique, the second focused on the summary. These experiments have shown that both an announcement of the conclusion and an informative summary can increase the audience's information retention in an informative presentation. The circle technique appeared to positively influence recall of the restated information from the introduction, but not of other information mentioned in the conclusion.

Furthermore, as a side-effect, two of these techniques positively influenced the audience's appreciation: the circle technique strengthened the audience's sense of closure, while the informative summary led to higher audience appreciation of the peroration (closing statements) compared to a presentation without a summary. All in all, the case studies in this thesis suggest that these three concluding techniques can be beneficial to a speaker of an informative presentation in terms of retention and appreciation. However, the positive effect on retention and appreciation can depend on factors such as the specific variant of the technique that is used and the audience's involvement and interest in the topic of the presentation.

Retention effect depends on technique characteristics: informative summary most effective

The specific variant of the rhetorical technique can determine the retention effect. The experiment on the effect of the summary contained two variants: an informative summary (brief restatement of the main points' key information), and an indicative summary (recapitulation of the main points on an abstract level, not of the key information). The informative summary that was used can be characterised as a 'rhetorical summary': it was not a representative overview of the key points in the core of the presentation, but the speaker's strategic selection of main points to be recapitulated in the closing statements. This way, the speaker can influence the key information to be remembered by the audience.

In the summary experiment, the informative rhetorical summary positively influenced the audience's information retention, whereas the indicative summary did not. The inclusion of an indicative summary even had a similar effect on free recall of the concluding information as not including any summary at all. These results suggest that the selection of a specific variant of a rhetorical technique can make a difference when it comes to information retention. In the case of the summary, it was the specific variant of the informative summary that led to an increase of information retention.

Audience's involvement in presentation topic possible factor of influence

The audience's involvement and interest in the topic of the presentation can also influence the retention effect of a specific rhetorical technique. The study with an announcement of the conclusion and a circle technique had a 2x2 experimental design. It included two informative presentations in an educational setting (hereafter: presentation 1 and 2), each of which had two recorded versions: one version with the announcement of the conclusion and circle technique and one without these two techniques. In presentation 1, announcing the conclusion led to a significant increase in recall of new information mentioned in the concluding part of the presentation. This indicates that announcing the conclusion can increase the audience's attention level and consequently the ability to retain information. However, results for presentation 2 were less conclusive: no differences in information retention were found between the version with a combination of an announcement of the conclusion and a circle technique and the version without these two concluding techniques. A statistical power analysis suggested that a larger sample size per presentation version is recommended to detect a difference between versions.

The interest of the audience in the topic appeared to be a possible factor of influence here, as the topic of presentation 2 was more appreciated and was found more usable by subjects. If so, it suggests that the need for an attention marker is higher in a situation in which the audience does not highly value the presentation's contents and therefore is less involved. Insights from memory psychology support the idea that an increase in the level of interest and involvement in the issue at stake can determine elaboration of the message (Baddeley et al., 2009; Bruning et al., 2004; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) and can nullify the additional retention effect of concluding organisational techniques such as the announcement of the conclusion and the rhetorical summary.

5.1.2 Three concluding retention techniques: advice and practice

The experiments showed that the announcement of the conclusion, circle technique, and summary can indeed positively influence audience information retention in the context of an informative presentation. Public-speaking advice on these concluding retention techniques (chapter 2) and observations of their use in public-speaking practice (chapter 3) formed the basis of the experiments conducted. Conversely, the experimental results may be relevant to future advice on and the application of these concluding techniques. The current section discusses the advice regarding these three concluding techniques in public-speaking textbooks and their application by scholars, politicians and TED speakers. It also indicates how the advice and practical application relate to the experimental results.

Announcement of the conclusion. This technique is regularly positively connected to retention in textbooks. The conclusion is the part of the speech that is most frequently connected to retention; so, “telegraphing to the audience that the end is indeed in sight” (Rozakis, 1995, p. 136) seems sensible. As the most important part of the speech to affect retention, textbooks authors regularly warn against applying ineffective conclusions (see 2.6.3). Some authors warn that the (ineffective) use of announcing the conclusion could lead to a loss of attention by the audience (Laskowski, 2001; Kenny, 1982). In public-speaking practice, the informative presentations of the scholars contained the announcement of the conclusion most frequently (10 of 16 presentations), followed by the TED talks. Politicians used the smallest number of announcements of the conclusion.

The experiment with an announcement of the conclusion conducted in this thesis did not indicate a loss of attention and negative retention effect; to the contrary, the announcement of the conclusion can increase the audience’s ability to retain information mentioned in the conclusion, depending on the audience’s interest in and appreciation of the presentation’s contents. It therefore seems safe to say that announcing the conclusion is advisable in an informative presentation.

Summary. In public-speaking textbooks, the summary is one of the most frequently advised techniques to affect retention; moreover, it was one of the few techniques ancient rhetoricians linked to the audience’s (or judges’) memory. Some modern textbooks distinguish two types of summaries: outline (indicative) and main point (informative) summaries (see Section 2.5.3). A few textbooks provide examples of how to include a summary in the conclusion of a presentation, for example about the level of detail that a speaker should provide. However, in most cases no detailed information on the content and formulation of the summary was provided. From the analysis of public-speaking practice, it appeared that just over half the number of scholars (nine out of sixteen) used a summary. Furthermore, the summaries that were observed varied greatly in length, style and contents (both indicative and informative variants of summaries were found).

The experiment with the summaries indicates that a speaker whose intention is to influence retention in an informative presentation can best be advised to use an informative summary that includes the main points of the presentation. The indicative summary (known as outline summary in some textbooks) appears less effective to influence retention. Moreover, using a rhetorical summary, which means that a speaker can be selective in the main points that are mentioned and need not be representative (i.e. an exact representation of the presentation's structure), appears to be a good option.

Circle technique. The circle technique can be described as a reference to the introduction in the closing statements of a presentation. Almost one fifth of the public-speaking textbooks connected the circle technique to information retention. Two variants were found in the textbooks: a reference to the speech introduction with a clear structure marker and a reference without such a marker (see 2.5.13).[289] Furthermore, the circle technique was said to induce a "sense of closure". The analysis of public-speaking practice showed that the politicians included a circle technique most frequently (in seven out of sixteen speeches); the mainly informative presentations of the scholars only contained two circle techniques. This suggests that the technique is more popular in persuasive speeches than informative presentations. Both variants of circle techniques were found in the presentation texts.

Based on the experiment, speakers can be advised to use the circle technique if they want the audience to remember information already mentioned in the introduction (a specific form of repetition). It is not shown that a circle technique influences retention of other information mentioned in the presentation, but there may be a another reason to use it: the circle technique appears to have the added benefit of increasing audience appreciation for the closing remarks of the speech, thereby creating the "sense of closure" some textbook authors refer to.

5.1.3 Limitations and perspectives

A presentation is a complex rhetorical situation that incorporates multiple variables, such as the speaker, audience, message and context. The experimental setup used was aimed at controlling these variables as much as possible in order to relate the results to the specific concluding techniques involved. This approach has its limitations, which need to be taken into account when interpreting the conclusions and relate to perspectives on further research.[290]

[289] An explicitly marked circle technique includes a reference to the place or part of the speech or the fact that the topic or example had been addressed in the speech ("as I said in the beginning / introduction / before…"); a second variant of the circle technique usually consisted of a repetition of or reference to a part of the introduction without an explicit structure marker or reference to the fact this had already been addressed in the speech (e.g. re-using the words "Berlin Wall" in the conclusion when the introduction also contained an example or anecdote on the Berlin Wall). See Sections 2.5.13 and 3.4.4 for more examples).

[290] A more detailed account of the limitations regarding the experimental setup can be found in chapter 4, Sections 4.1.5 and 4.2.5.

Experimental design

The experimental design has two main limitations. First of all, the experiments were carried out with a limited number of messages or, in this case, presentations. The summary experiment was carried out with three versions of a single presentation, while the experiment on the announcement of the conclusion and the circle technique contained two presentations with two versions each (2x2 design).[291] The latter experiment showed differences in retention effects between the two presentations used. Results suggest that a high interest of the audience in the topic attenuates the influence of particular concluding techniques on information retention, as the audience might be more intrinsically motivated to pay attention. To further generalise the results, retention effects of concluding techniques in other presentations should be studied as well (cf. O'Keefe, 2002).

Secondly, only a single specific formulation of the concluding techniques and their variants were taken into account. For example, the announcement of the conclusion was phrased as "Ladies and gentlemen, I will wrap up", whereas Section 3.4.3 showed that multiple variants of this technique were found in public-speaking practice. The same goes for the summary (both informative and indicative) and the circle technique. A future study aiming to reproduce similar effects could contribute to more generalising conclusions about these concluding retention techniques.

Ecological validity

The selected setup could have influenced the ecological validity of the experiments. Recordings were used to ensure that the only difference between versions of the presentations was the presence of the concluding techniques. This means that the audience did not experience the speaker performing a 'live' presentation, but rather experienced a mediated presentation. The proximity of a speaker might influence the way an audience processes information, although studies have shown that viewers of a mediated presentation do not necessarily behave differently from an audience attending an actual presentation event (Gross & Dinehart, 2016; Kay, 2012). Still, the experimental situation in which listeners viewed a recording of a presentation alongside about twenty to twenty-five other audience members and were asked to fill out a questionnaire afterwards obviously differs from a regular presentation setting. When translating the results to a regular presentation situation, the ecological validity should be kept in mind: although the experiments give reason to believe these concluding techniques contribute to audience information retention, they do not predict the effect of these techniques in combination with other rhetorical (retention) techniques or the speaker's particular presentation style (*actio*).

[291] As the summary experiment entailed the design of three presentation versions as opposed to the two versions in the announcement and circle technique experiment, it was decided that a multiple message design would not be feasible for practical reasons (e.g. arranging a sufficient number of participants).

Genre-specific results

The experiments were aimed at the specific genre of informative presentations such as educational presentations (lectures) and conference talks. The results are less easily applied to presentations that mainly aim to persuade or inspire. Research into persuasive document design (text-focused) shows that an explicit conclusion statement supports message retention (Cruz, 1998; O'Keefe, 2002). In line with these results it can be argued that the use of an announcement of the conclusion and informative summary in a persuasive presentation (oral communication situation) could positively influence retention. However, in a persuasive presentation, putting forward a single main concluding statement that is linked to the purpose could be deemed more important than providing a summary of several key points. Furthermore, while the concluding techniques did not negatively influence audience appreciation of the presentation and speaker in the experimental informative presentations, their effect on audience appreciation of a persuasive presentation remains unclear.

The challenge of measuring retention of a presentation

Retention of information was measured in various ways (open questions and multiple-choice questions) and in various time-frames (immediately after the presentation and two to three weeks later in a post-test). Results were not always in line with the expectations. Open questions in the summary experiment are better suited to measure recall of information, whereas multiple-choice questions are more suitable for measuring recognition of information (cf. Bruning, 2004; Baddeley et al., 2009). Measuring retention in a presentation situation differs from the experimental context and design of most other studies into recall and retention, which often focus on a particular recall task of information that seems more straightforward (e.g. remembering lists of (random) items). A presentation of 15 minutes opens up a more complex information processing event. This methodological issue needs to be further investigated.

5.2 Usage of retention techniques in public-speaking practice

The experiments described in Section 5.1 provided more insight into the effects of three organisational concluding techniques in an informative presentation. What about other rhetorical retention techniques? The use of two other organisational techniques (*partitio* and transitions sentences) and two elaboration techniques (anecdote and question) by speaking professionals and professional speakers (scholars, politicians and TED speakers) was investigated.

Although effects of these techniques were not measured, the rhetorical analyses of research presentations, political speeches and TED talks lead to two general conclusions. First of all, the scholars, the speakers with an informative main purpose, preferred other techniques than the politicians (persuasive main purpose) and TED speakers (inspirational purpose—mix of informative and persuasive main purpose). Secondly, similar to the concluding techniques discussed in Section 5.1, variances in length, style and contents of these techniques were found. Section 5.2.1

presents the main insights on the use of these rhetorical techniques by the three analysed types of speakers.[292] Differences in frequency and form are interpreted from the perspective of the rhetorical situation. Section 5.2.2 touches upon limitations of the method for rhetorical analysis and offers perspectives for future analyses.

5.2.1 Preferences and variants of retention techniques in practice

Just as a restaurant's chef intends to find the right balance in ingredients of a dish, speakers need to strike a balance between their intended purpose, the rhetorical techniques they consider using, and other variables in the rhetorical situation. An all too dominant ingredient could influence the attention, appreciation and experience of the audience. In the case of the speaking professionals (scholars) and the professional speakers (politicians and, to a lesser extent, TED speakers), it seems that the rhetorical situation influenced their preference for specific retention techniques. Therefore, insight into the rhetorical situation is valuable in order to explain the choices that speakers make.

How do these three types of speakers apply the selected organisational and elaborative retention techniques and how can we explain the speakers' behaviour? For each type of speaker, the main findings related to these questions and a reflection on the rhetorical retention situation are provided.

Scholars

In agreement with their informative purpose, the scholars in this study mainly selected organisational retention techniques. They less frequently selected elaborative retention techniques.

The scholars appear to follow the well-known adage "tell them what you are going to tell them—tell them—tell them what you have told them" more closely than the politicians and TED speakers by using more *partitio*s, transitions, announcements of the conclusion and summaries. They usually apply structure markers to emphasise the organisational techniques (e.g. "and with that I have actually already reached my conclusion…" to announce the concluding part of the presentation). The circle technique, which less explicitly emphasises the speech structure, was less popular among scholars. In other words: it appears to be characteristic for scholars to use retention techniques to almost didactically emphasise the overall organisation of a presentation. With this in mind, it is remarkable that almost half the number of research presentations do not contain a *partitio* and a summary. This means that some researchers in these informative presentations might have overlooked an opportunity to influence retention, or purposely ignored it (e.g. because of time constraints).

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[292] For a more elaborate discussion of the analysis of the use of retention techniques in public-speaking practice, see Section 3.6. Furthermore, ample examples of the retention techniques used can be found in Sections 3.4 (organisation techniques) and 3.5 (elaboration techniques). Section 3.2 presents the characteristics of the corpora of research presentations, political speeches and TED talks.

Elaboration techniques are not applied as much by the scholars as by the politicians and TED speakers. Scholars used the smallest number of anecdotes, for example. Moreover, these anecdotes did not always contain clear narrative elements, were quite short and could have been more vividly phrased compared to the anecdotes that were found in the other corpora. Of the question types, scholars preferred the *subiectio*, which is often used for organisational purposes next to its elaborative function.

Regarding the rhetorical situation, the scholars' preference for explicit organising techniques linked to retention can be explained by multiple reasons. First of all, they would probably value retention highly, as they intend to inform their audience. Next, the scholars often need to explain various stages or steps in a sometimes complex research methodology, which prompts them to use many structure markers (hence the frequent use of *partitio*s, explicit transitions and summaries compared to politicians and TED speakers). Furthermore, they can be qualified as speaking professionals. This means that they might not (have been able to) meticulously prepare their talk, which could explain why their emphasis is not on techniques that require craftsmanship and a more polished style (such as an anecdote). As they speak to a relatively small audience of (familiar) colleagues, who are mostly interested in the content of the topic, and their presentation will not be made accessible to an audience outside of the actual event, the stakes appear not that high. All these features together can explain their focus on content and organisation.

Politicians

The politicians opt for retention techniques that are in agreement with their main purpose of persuading the audience. They preferred elaborative techniques over explicit organisational retention techniques.

Regarding the elaboration techniques, politicians used questions mostly in an elaborative way to appeal to existing knowledge, for example by *quaestios* (series of questions). Some long *quaestios* were found, in one case consisting of a pileup of 10 questions; these seemed to be specifically designed to amplify an emotional effect. The *subiectio*, often used with an organisational purpose and preferred by the scholars, is not the politicians' favourite question type. Anecdotes were regularly found, but perhaps not as often as expected: on average less than one anecdote per speech. Style-wise, some anecdotes contain all the advised features and seem to be well prepared, but the corpus of political speeches also contains a few examples that only contain a minimum of features that are recommended for anecdotes. The politicians in this study could have focused more on the anecdote, because a story that is carried out properly could both influence persuasion, retention and possibly enhance ethos—three rhetorical aims that seem to suit the persuasive main purpose of the political speeches.

Regarding organisational retention techniques, the politicians analysed are the champions of the circle technique. They use it more frequently than the scholars and TED speakers. This technique not so much emphasises the overall speech structure, but it has a less explicit organisation effect, providing a 'sense of closure'. The politicians are not too fond of the "tell them" adage: they did not use any summary at all, only one *partitio* was found and they less frequently used transition sentences than the scholars and the TED speakers.

How can the rhetorical situation of the political speeches explain the use of retention techniques? Politicians are professional speakers who would like to share a persuasive message and shape their image (ethos). For politicians, the stakes seem higher than for scholars: parts of their speeches are likely to be broadcast to a more diverse audience (possible electorate) on various media and will be accessible for a longer period of time. Therefore, politicians could consider explicit organisational techniques such as *partitio*s, transition sentences and summaries as too ‘didactic’ and straightforward, despite their possible retention effect. These techniques might not contribute to a positive ethos and obstruct the politicians’ persuasive purpose. At the same time, the context of the annual policy reviews in parliament requires politicians to discuss policy that is quite complex at times, which means that they need to include organisational techniques to some extent. Therefore, politicians appear to opt for a retention strategy that is a mix of organisational techniques that less clearly mark the speech structure such as the circle technique and more pathos-related elaboration techniques such as the *quaestio*. Future analyses that also include other retention techniques related to pathos and style, such as metaphors and repetition figures on a sentence level (anaphor or parallelism), could give more insight into politicians’ retention practice.

TED speakers

The TED speakers tend to select retention techniques that are in agreement with their purpose to inspire (a mix of informative and persuasive elements). They focus mostly on elaboration techniques, using the most anecdotes and questions of the three types of speakers analysed. They also stand out in the way they execute these techniques: TED speakers tend to spend time in crafting stylistically compelling phrases.

If the politicians are champions of the circle technique, then the TED speakers are real anecdote adepts. This elaborative retention technique is their favourite, which is not only supported by the number of anecdotes used, but also by their length and formulation. TED speakers often used personal stories that contain many narrative elements, are vividly recounted and are regularly relevant to the main idea or message of the talk. They prefer to use the rhetorical question, which can make the audience think about the topic and thereby enhance retention. They also use quite a few *subiectios* for what seems to be an elaborative purpose, and not necessarily for a structuring purpose.

TED speakers do not rely that heavily on explicit organisational techniques as scholars and they do not refrain from them as much as politicians. The main difference between scholars’ and TED speakers’ use of organisational retention techniques is the style: TED speakers tend to use less structure markers that literally refer to parts of the speech such as the conclusion. For example, they prefer a phrase such as “I want to leave you with this” as an announcement for the conclusion, with which they do not emphasise as much that they have reached “the conclusion”.

Through a rhetorical situation lens, the TED speakers can be qualified as professional speakers compared to scholars (speaking professionals)—especially when the presentation's occasion is taken into account. The TED talks could potentially be viewed by a large (online) audience, which increases the need for an intensive preparation of the overall presentation. Their inspirational purpose appears to turn the TED speakers' focus to narrative techniques such as the anecdote. Furthermore, it could explain the fact that they tend to vary the formulation of structural retention techniques more than scholars do. TED speakers do want to inform to a certain extent, but the audience's expectation to listen to an attractive story and the high stakes of a TED event lead to a focus on stylistic craftsmanship.

5.2.2 Limitations and perspectives

Three main points for discussion have to be taken into account regarding the rhetorical analysis of the three speaker types: it explores a limited number of retention techniques, it entails three collections of presentations only and it focused on explicit textual features of the techniques.[293]

First of all, a limited number of retention techniques (seven) were selected. Therefore, conclusions on retention only apply to the use of these specific techniques; the speakers might have applied other retention strategies that were not taken into account (such as standing on their head, as Wagenaar (1996) proposed). For example, visualisation techniques (e.g. presentation slides, pictures and props) form an important category of retention techniques that was not taken into account in the analysis of public-speaking practice and experimental studies (See Section 3.1.1 for a motivation). Still, the use of visualisation techniques is a fruitful topic to further explore, not in the last place because they play an important role in the warnings or *vitia* (how the specific use of rhetorical techniques could obstruct retention effects, see Section 2.6).

Secondly, this exploration only took three collections of presentations into account, which were held in specific contexts. Of these three speaker types, collections of speeches or presentations in other rhetorical situations could be selected to gain a broader insight into genre-specific use of retention techniques. For example, analyses of research presentations in other disciplines such as engineering, behavioural and natural sciences, could show whether the emphasis on organisational retention techniques is characteristic for scholars in general. Analyses of political campaign speeches could provide insight into how politicians use retention techniques if they can only focus on discussing their own ideas and future policy, and are not restricted to reflecting on current governmental policy (as is the practice of the annual policy reviews analysed in this dissertation). Such campaign speeches would probably be held to a more heterogeneous audience (electorate) instead of the annual policy review's 'hybrid' audience of fellow members of parliament and electorate outside of parliament. For the TED talks, talks at locally organised TEDx events could be analysed as opposed to the most popular online talks. Although all TEDx events need

[293] Section 3.6.3 contains a more extensive discussion.

to adhere to certain general guidelines drafted by the global TED organisation, differences such as the size of the event (and thus direct audience), location and availability of speaker coaching can influence the preparation and performance of the speakers.

Thirdly, the applied method rather rigidly focused on explicit textual features, which means that more subtle variants of a technique were left out. Also, the inter-rater reliability was only applied to evaluate agreement on the presence of selected retention techniques in the corpus texts. The qualitative analyses, which categorise subtypes of techniques and describe variations in style and structure of examples found in the corpora, are analyses of a single researcher. As the study is explorative in nature, no in-depth analyses of stylistic features such as vividness, concreteness or relevance were carried out. This study's value is that it provides a broader overview and can be a starting point for more fine-grained analyses.

5.3 Retention as a rhetorical function in public-speaking textbooks

What techniques in public-speaking textbooks are advised to make a message memorable? This question formed the basis of the studies into public-speaking practice and effect of rhetorical techniques on retention.

Information retention by the audience receives little attention in the classical work, as an analysis of four key ancient rhetorical works showed.[294] The ancient rhetoricians most prominently connect the concluding part of the speech to information retention, in particular the summary or recapitulation of the facts in the peroration. The statement of the facts in the introduction and the transition are also referred to as influencing listeners' memory. Not the audience's memory, but the speaker's memory is a key theme in classical rhetoric: it is the subject of one of the five orator's canons (*memoria*). *Memoria* techniques aid the speaker in remembering the speech. They often deal with visualising information, associating it with existing knowledge and placing it in a logical order, culminating in mnemotechniques such as the memory palace and *imagines agentes* (striking images) (see Section 2.1 for a more extensive discussion of memory in ancient rhetoric).

The *memoria* task of the orator plays a marginal role in modern public-speaking textbooks, which generally claim that memorising the whole speech can do more harm than good. Modern authors usually deal with practical aspects of memorisation, advising memory aids and preparatory strategies such as using outlines, cue cards, teleprompters and rehearsal strategies. Only a small number of modern authors stress the power of memory and refer to classical *memoria* techniques. These authors move away from the idea that memorisation merely is the practical act of learning by heart, but rather propose a modern take on the *memoria* task: it is a way for the orator to become (mentally) familiar and comfortable with the speech, which

[294] Aristotle's *Rhetorica*, the *Rhetorica ad Herennium*, Cicero's *De Oratore* and Quinitilan's *Institutio oratoria*.

could ultimately lead to a more congruent and compelling performance (see Section 2.3 for a discussion of the *memoria* task in modern textbooks).

From classical rhetoric to modern public-speaking advice, the perspective has shifted from the speaker's memory to the audience's memory. To detect the most frequent retention advice in modern public-speaking textbooks, a corpus of English- and Dutch-language modern public-speaking textbooks published between 1980 and 2009 (eighty books) was analysed. Section 5.3.1 summarises the most important insights into retention that were found in these two sub-corpora of public-speaking textbooks. Next, Section 5.3.2 reflects on the role of public-speaking textbooks in rhetorical retention research and Section 5.3.3 touches upon limitations of the textbook analysis.

5.3.1 Main retention advice in modern public-speaking textbooks

A little over 5% of the total number of pages in the corpus of modern public-speaking textbooks contains explicit references to audience retention. Furthermore, a total of 77 techniques are attributed to audience information retention; a varied collection of techniques, which seem to be related to almost all steps required in the process of preparing and delivering a presentation. This suggests that achieving information retention is a public speaking function of considerable importance. The most frequently mentioned techniques are *visual aids, summary, repetition* and *anecdote.*[295] Furthermore, in line with ancient rhetoricians, modern authors view the conclusion as the preferred part of a presentation for a speaker to apply techniques that influence retention.

The main encoding principles that are found in memory research, organisation, elaboration and visualisation, are reflected in the range of techniques that textbooks relate to information retention. These principles offer a helpful organising perspective to discuss the varied collection of techniques that were found and to divide it into three digestible chunks.

Organisation. First of all, quite a few retention techniques are linked to organising the presentation. This way, they correspond to the encoding principle of organisation. The frequently advised techniques summary and repetition can be linked to organising the subject matter in the presentation such that it is easier for an audience to remember important information. Other popular organisational retention techniques are chunking, systematic order, *partitio,* circle technique and final statement.

The corpus analysis shows that the concluding part of a speech is most often connected to retention. Warnings against the conclusion's ineffective use, such as a postponed conclusion and or a concluding part that is too long, are said to hinder the audience's information retention (see Section 2.6). What's more, the most important warning on how information retention can be mitigated—information overload—points to structural or organisational problems such as using too many main points.

[295] See Section 2.4.2 for an overview of the twenty most frequently mentioned retention techniques in both the English-language and the Dutch-language sub-corpora of public-speaking textbooks.

Elaboration. Secondly, the overview of retention advice contains techniques that can be associated with the encoding principle of elaboration. Such techniques seem to encourage the audience to associate new information with existing knowledge, to actively participate in the presentation or make an effort in processing the information. Frequently advised retention techniques that appear to be of an elaborative nature are, among others, the anecdote, audience participation, rhetorical question and metaphor.

The anecdote is a narrative technique, which requires the audience to understand the situation that is explained, the main characters that are involved, the story development and the anecdote's relevance to the presentation's key point(s). When actively participating in the presentation, for example by answering questions, taking part in a quiz or carrying out a physical assignment (clapping, singing), the audience is actively working with the information presented. Even when the speaker asks a rhetorical question it can be argued that the audience would probably mentally look for an answer, thereby processing the information. A metaphor usually requires some mental effort to understand the similarity between the compared elements—especially when it is an original metaphor a listener is not often confronted with in daily language.

Visualisation. Finally, techniques used to visualise information are very frequently connected to retention. Both in the English-language and the Dutch-language sub-corpora, visual aids are among the most frequently advised to influence audience retention. Most often, the advice refers to visual aids as 'real-time', tangible visualisation such as objects, images, diagrams or graphs on a screen. Next to the advice, visual aids also form the top category of warnings that were found in the corpus: authors regularly discuss ineffective use of visual aids, which could hinder information retention (see Section 2.6.2).

Besides direct visual aids to support a presentation, public-speaking textbooks address retention techniques that stimulate mental visualisation, such as imagery, metaphors and concrete examples. These mental visualisation techniques can be related to both visualisation and elaboration, as the audience forms a visual representation based on associations with existing knowledge and images.

This suggested classification of retention techniques according to encoding principles should be seen as a means to grasp and create a clearer overview of retention advice in modern public-speaking textbooks, and to highlight parallels between rhetorical ideas and memory psychology. The borders between these three categories are not clearly marked; for some techniques, it can be argued that they could be classified in various categories. For example, anecdotes and metaphors often require both visualisation and elaboration taking place. In the case of the anecdote, the connection to the main message or a key point of the speech (its relevance) could also be considered as an organisational aspect.

5.3.2 Reflection: quality of retention advice and the role of textbooks

The overview of the attention for retention techniques in modern public-speaking textbooks is helpful to gauge existing ideas on how to make a message memorable in a presentation. However, it does not provide any insight into the quality and context of the advice given in these textbooks. The corpus analysis of public-speaking textbooks revealed factors that help to put the advice in perspective.

The extent to which audience retention is emphasised varies in the public-speaking textbooks in the corpus. Authors such as Walters (1993) and Urech (1998) clearly value audience retention as an overarching public speaking purpose, as they include references to retention ('memorable') in one or more chapter titles. However, other textbook authors do not or hardly explicitly refer to retention (see Section 2.7). The same variation is seen in the descriptions of retention techniques in the textbooks. Authors such as Osborn & Osborn (1997) and Atkinson (2004) often provide examples of techniques connected to retention and explain that factors such as audience and genre need to be taken into account, whereas in other textbooks only a brief reference to retention (something similar to "[technique X] makes your message memorable") was considered sufficient.

Just as the textbooks in these corpora vary in how extensively they discuss and argue for the use of retention techniques, the use of sources and references in these books varies as well. Overall, the retention advice that was found in modern public-speaking textbooks is scarcely supported by explicit references to academic sources. In the rare case a clear reference to an academic study was made, it can be questioned whether the translation of the study's results into easily accessible textbook advice was carried out accurately (see Section 2.7.2 for examples of the quality of references in public-speaking textbooks). Textbook authors generally opt for other source types, such as (anecdotal) experiences from well-known speakers, to corroborate their advice.

The relationship of textbook authors with (academic) sources and knowledge can therefore be qualified as ambivalent: supporting the advice with clear references to trustworthy sources is a good practice that only scarcely finds its way to textbook advice. At the heart of this ambivalence towards reference use might be the nature of the public-speaking textbook as a genre by itself: it is not an academic treatise in the first place, but it should be accessible and easy to read for a general audience. This means that authors have to find a balance between showing that their information relies on trustworthy sources on the one hand and writing a readable, attractive text on the other hand. In doing so they are walking a tight rope, as results from academic studies are usually not straightforward and (empirical) research on effects of public speaking strategies hardly exists. Moreover, academic studies are often specialised and focus on a particular (presentation) situation, leaving textbook authors with the challenge to extrapolate the results and generalise them for a broader presentation context. On top of that, the results of academic studies might be subject to change and interpretation over time, which requires a regular textbook update. Still, within and outside of the corpus, examples of textbooks exist that attempt to be accessible while acknowledging the sources used via in-text references or an extensive notes section (e.g. Oomkes (2000), Atkinson (2004)), which shows that it is not impossible to incorporate references. As this analysis focused on the contents of the advice (a users' perspective), authors' attitudes towards reference use were not extensively studied.

5.3.3 Limitations and perspectives

Although a sizeable corpus of eighty textbooks was analysed, the selection can still be regarded as limited. The selection of the textbooks was related to their importance in a specific year between 1980 and 2009, based on the availability and distribution of the books in libraries and the number of reprints. Other selection criteria to determine the importance of the work such as the number of citations, were not taken into account.

Next to that, the selection only focused on textbooks, to make a proper comparison. This means that online sources on public speaking such as weblogs and videos (on YouTube or other online channels) were not included. These online sources on public speaking have arguably gained traction in the recent decade, not in the least because of the fact they are easily accessed. Future studies into retention in public-speaking advice should extend the corpus with more recent sources from the latest decade (2010-2019), including online resources on presentation skills such as popular weblogs on presentation skills into account as well. Online resources arguably have become more easily accessible than the printed textbooks.

All in all, audience information retention deserves a more consistent and coherent position in public-speaking textbooks. Although particularly the English-language textbooks already include a considerable amount of retention advice, retention is hardly ever explicitly treated as a key function of public speaking. Retention advice usually is scattered over different parts of a textbook, leaving it to the reader to put together the pieces of the retention puzzle. While recognising the challenge of public-speaking textbooks to strike a balance between clear, attractive and well-supported advice, the use of more supporting examples and references would more properly reflect the variety in appearance and formulation of retention techniques in public-speaking practice and the results of experiments carried out (e.g. the difference in retention effect between an indicative and informative summary). Including a chapter or section on retention as a rhetorical function could introduce readers to the notion that retention is ingrained in many facets of public speaking, from preparation to performance. References to general insights from memory psychology could help to support this notion and provide more context for the role of retention in public speaking as a rhetorical aim for a speaker and a function of specific rhetorical techniques.

5.4 Perspectives on rhetorical retention research

This thesis has led to new insights into the effect of rhetorical techniques on audience information retention. It has also shown that rhetorical retention research potentially covers a vast terrain of rhetorical techniques and situations still to be explored. This section offers two perspectives on rhetorical retention research: Section 5.4.1 reflects on the position of retention in rhetorical research based on contributions of this thesis, while Section 5.4.2 has a methodological focus on future studies.

5.4.1 Retention as a key perspective in rhetorical research

"Given the importance of the making ideas stick, it's surprising how little attention is paid to the subject," Heath & Heath observed (2010, p. 18). This thesis has given full attention to this subject from a public speaking perspective and in doing so it contributes to rhetorical theory and practice.

This thesis contributes to rhetoric as an interdisciplinary field of study, as it draws parallels between rhetorical theory and memory psychology. In rhetorical studies, principles such as encoding can help to interpret how a specific rhetorical technique might contribute to retention. Moreover, the theory of the rhetorical situation can help to explain the interplay of various elements in a public-speaking situation and their possible influence on retention (e.g. in educational psychology).

Furthermore, this study encompasses a variety of approaches to investigate rhetorical retention. The approaches of systematic literature or corpus research and rhetorical analysis of presentations were used in this respective order to pinpoint techniques of interest to be used in experimental studies. Both quantitative and qualitative results were collected to compose the most complete picture possible. A quantitative approach is not common in rhetorical studies (see Section 1.4 for examples); while I believe that it should go hand in hand with a qualitative, more interpretative approach, the thesis shows that a quantitative method can certainly be valuable in the field of rhetoric. The field of rhetorical studies is both attractive and at the same time challenging, as it includes approaches that range from rhetorical criticism to experimental studies.

The thesis contributes to rhetoric in practice by providing both a broad overview of and more detailed insights into the relationship between rhetorical techniques and information retention by the audience in a public-speaking context. The broad overview comprises the most frequent modern public-speaking advice on information retention compared to the classical ideas on both the orator's and the audience's *memoria*. Categorising this advice has resulted in a comprehensive overview that can both serve as a basis for further, more detailed studies and as a resource for practitioners (e.g. educators).

At the same time, the thesis provides more detailed insights on the use of a few specific rhetorical retention techniques in practice and their effects in an informative presentation. This can be helpful for speakers who have to decide what retention technique to include in their speech and how to do so, and to educators who have to coach and guide these speakers.

5.4.2 The future of rhetorical retention research: methodological perspective

Venturing into new retention topics or further examining the retention terrain already explored, we should not forget methodological perspectives on retention research. Roughly, two paths can be taken: further honing the three main methods used in this study on the one hand, and applying and developing other methods to perform rhetorical research on the other hand.

Refining methods used in the current study

The most specific results in this thesis were obtained via experimental studies. This is not a standard approach in rhetorical studies, which traditionally relies more on approaches such as rhetorical criticism and rhetorical analysis of specific techniques or concepts. This thesis builds on the work of Andeweg & De Jong (2004), whose work (e.g. on speech introductions) shows that an experimental approach can be complementary to existing rhetorical methodologies and possibly add new insights to rhetorical knowledge. At the same time, experimental design in a public-speaking context has its limitations (see Section 5.1.3) and can be a time-consuming method. The experience gained in this dissertation's experiments can therefore offer help to refine future experimental design. For example, it is recommended to carry out a study with multiple messages (presentations), or to replicate one of the experimental setups already used with other presentations. Next, carrying out similar experiments with a different audience composition would be insightful. Furthermore, the approach to measuring recall with open questions can be refined and the use of multiple-choice questions should be reconsidered (see Section 4.2.5). All in all, with the experiments carried out in this study we have gained the experience necessary to more carefully design follow-up studies.

The second approach described in this thesis, rhetorical analyses of presentation text corpora, can also be further developed. First of all, a more thorough preparation of determining inter-rater agreement is advised. Raters would need to be trained more extensively to apply the labelling instructions prior to the actual analysis. Related to this, it is advised to carry out such a reliability analysis with a smaller group of about three more experienced raters. In this study for practical reasons a rather extensive group of master students (less experienced researchers) were used; although this approach led to satisfactory results in the end, it was a rather complex composition of the rater group. With a more thorough preparation, the analyses that were limited to presentation texts could be extended to recordings (video footage) of the presentations in order to paint a more complete picture, keeping in mind that analysing non-verbal behaviour would also require an additional theoretical framework and methodological approach.

As a final development of this method, the qualitative interpretation of the labelled text fragments could be further supported with instruments for interpreting textual and stylistic features. This way, not only agreement on textual features but also on stylistic characteristics could be determined. An example is to apply methods for establishing stylistic text features such as concreteness and vividness of texts more precisely (cf. Van Leeuwen, 2015; Sadoski, 2001). This would call for a more focused study into a specific rhetorical phenomenon linked to retention whereas the current thesis can be characterised as explorative, mapping the diverse application of retention techniques.

Developing other methods for rhetorical retention research

Deploying different approaches in rhetorical retention research than those applied in this thesis can lead to new, complementary results. For example, next to presentation and speech analyses by scholars of rhetoric, the audience's reception of these presentations can be the focal point of future studies (cf. Kjeldsen, 2018). Useful methods could be questionnaires to measure audience response during and after a live presentation, to find out what information is best retained and to what extent audience members retain similar information. Additionally, the audience's level of attention and focus could be measured with eye-tracking or less obtrusive means. At the same time, questions on the appreciation of the presentation could provide insight into the trade-off between influencing retention and other possible speaker aims.

Furthermore, interviewing could be a fruitful method. Viewers of both live presentations and recordings or online talks could be interviewed more in-depth about the information they remember, either individually or in focus groups. Besides audience members, speakers could share their intentions, aims and preparatory work in interviews as well. This way, the most complete picture of the rhetorical retention situation can be composed.

To conclude: if Aristotle were to embark on a journey to this day and age, he would have been able to retain some key insights on retention. He would be aware of the possible connection between encoding principles, such as organisation and elaboration, and related rhetorical techniques, such as strategically summarising the story and telling an anecdote. He would be aware of the impact on retention that organisational techniques such as the summary and a seemingly negligible sentence such as the announcement of the conclusion can have in informative presentations. And finally, he would be aware of the variety of rhetorical techniques that authors of modern public-speaking textbooks relate to the function of audience retention, encompassing almost all of the orator's canons, and the genre-specific use of these techniques by various types of speakers in different 'genus' such as educational, political and inspirational presentations. And who knows, if he were to make a similar journey a few decades from now, the terrain of rhetorical retention research might be further explored. By then, we would know more about how messages are made memorable.

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Summary

The relevance of rhetorical retention research

> The summing up gathers together and recalls the points we have made — briefly, that the speech may not be repeated in entirety, but that the memory of it may be refreshed. (*Rhetorica ad Herennium* II, 30.47)

Summaries provide readers and audiences with an overview of the most important information to remember. In this thesis, the summary has a dual role: as a thesis chapter it restates the main information of this dissertation, and as a rhetorical technique in speeches it is an important research topic in this study. When applied in a speech, the rhetorical technique 'summary' is often said to enhance the memory of the audience, as shown above in the quotation from the ancient rhetorical work *Rhetorica ad Herennium*. However, ancient rhetoricians such as Aristotle, Cicero, Quintilian and the unknown *Auctor ad Herennium* were mostly interested in the speaker's memory. In ancient rhetoric, the *memoria* task was distinguished as one of the five stages that an orator should go through in order to prepare a proper speech. In this particular stage, the orator would memorise the speech using mnemonic techniques (memory aids) such as the method of *loci*, also known as the method of the 'memory palace'.

The focus on the audience's memory as opposed to that of the speaker appears to be more of a modern phenomenon, which is emphasised in modern public-speaking textbooks and expert weblogs, and is illustrated by popular-scientific books on memorability such as *Made to stick* (Heath & Heath, 2010). In the current knowledge society, speeches and presentations are important vehicles to make messages memorable. Access to public events is not necessarily confined to those present at the actual event anymore. Via recordings or live streams, presentations such as popular TED talks are often almost instantly available to audiences around the world. The COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 and 2021 fast-tracked the development of online presentations.

The importance of transferring knowledge to an audience is underlined by the position of oral communication skills in the requirements for academic curricula in both Europe and the United States. However, while the speaker's memory was part of ancient rhetorical education, modern teachers and students cannot rely on a clear theory on However, while the orator's memory formed a key element of ancient rhetorical education, modern teachers and (often) inexperienced students cannot rely on such a theory about the way in which audience members can retain information from a speech. Studies that report effects of rhetorical techniques on information retention in a public-speaking situation are scarce and their results are varied (see **Section 1.4** for examples). A systematic and comprehensive study on audience information retention in public speaking is lacking. This thesis intends to fill that gap. To establish a more solid theoretical basis for audience information retention in a public-speaking situation, this study first connects rhetorical situations to insights from memory psychology (see **Sections 1.2 and 1.3**). These insights learn that the way in which information is initially processed, known as encoding, determines for a large part whether it will be stored in long-term memory and can later be retrieved. A key condition for successful encoding is attention. An attentive audience can process information via three main encoding principles that emerge from memory psychology: organisation (structuring and logically ordering information), elaboration (connecting information to and associating it with existing knowledge) and visualisation (creating literal or mental images). This thesis mainly focuses on organisation and elaboration (see **Section 3.1.1** for an explanation).

The orality of a public-speaking situation contributes to an emphasis on memorability. The speaker and the audience are usually in the same space, which means that the audience has to be enabled to store important information then and there. How information is processed in a presentation event depends on the relationships between variables that constitute such a rhetorical situation, such as audience, context and speaker. Audiences highly depend on speakers' choices, such as how to order information, what information to emphasise, what to visualise and how to deliver it. In this thesis, the agency of speakers is an important point of departure. Related to insights from memory psychology, speakers can consciously attempt to create a situation that stimulates audience information retention. They can, for example, arouse attention and select rhetorical techniques related to organisation, elaboration and visualisation that contribute to encoding, storage and retrieval.

Research questions and approach

To gain more insight into how rhetorical techniques influence the audience's ability to retain information, this thesis answers the following main research question:

How can rhetorical techniques in speeches enhance information retention by the audience?

The main research question is divided into three key questions.

1. What techniques are advised in public-speaking textbooks to make a message memorable?
2. How do speakers apply advised retention techniques in public-speaking practice?
3. What is the effect of such retention techniques?

These key questions reflect the three-way approach that this thesis takes. The first step comprises a content analysis of four ancient rhetorical works and a corpus of eighty influential English-language and Dutch-language modern public-speaking textbooks from the period 1980–2009 (see **chapter 2**). This analysis focused on:

- the quantity and content of rhetorical advice and techniques specifically related to retention;

- strategies that are said to backfire or not to contribute to information retention (so-called *vitia*);
- the way in which textbooks support retention advice, e.g. by academic studies and examples of (well-known) speakers (reference use);
- the role of the orator's canon of *memoria* in ancient and modern rhetoric, to exemplify the shift in perspective from the speaker's to the audience's memory over time.

The second step in the approach provides insight into the application of seven selected retention techniques in public-speaking practice (see **chapter 3)**. These techniques are related to organisation (*partitio*, 'announcement of the conclusion', 'circle technique', 'summary' and 'transition') and elaboration ('anecdote' and 'questions'). A rhetorical analysis of three corpora of presentation and speech texts showed how scholars, politicians and TED speakers use the selected retention techniques in their public-speaking context. This step in the overall approach showed how textbook advice relates to specific public-speaking contexts (genres) and gave insight into varied stylistic and structural characteristics of the selected retention techniques in practice. These insights contributed to the approach for the final step: measuring retention effects.

The final step of the approach was to investigate the retention effects of three selected rhetorical techniques linked to the organisation of a presentation (in particular: the conclusion): the announcement of the conclusion, circle technique and summary (see **chapter 4**). To do so, insights gained from the analyses of public-speaking textbooks and practice were used to design two experiments in the context of an informative presentation. The first experiment focused on announcing the conclusion of the presentation and the circle technique, the second centred on the summary in the concluding part of a presentation.

The role of retention in public-speaking textbooks

To gain an overview of ancient and modern ideas on enhancing the audience's information retention, **chapter 2** presents an analysis of four ancient rhetorical works (Aristotle's *Rhetorica*, Cicero's *De Oratore*, Quintilian's *Institutio Oratoria* and the *Rhetorica ad Herennium*) and a corpus of forty English-language and forty Dutch-language public-speaking textbooks in the period 1980–2009. The modern textbooks were selected via the online library catalogue WorldCat. The ancient and modern textbooks were carefully inspected to determine the retention-related contents and the rhetorical techniques linked to retention. For each modern textbook, a form of analysis was filled out that contained the following categories: (1) the number of pages connected to retention, (2) an overview of fragments with retention advice or *vitia* ('warnings') containing a preliminary label of the technique involved, (3) what techniques might be connected to specific parts of a speech and (4) how the advice is supported by references. See **Section 2.2** for an extensive explanation of the corpus construction and method of analysis.

From the ancient orator's *memoria* task to modern memorable messages

From classical rhetoric to modern public-speaking advice, the retention perspective has shifted from the speaker's memory to the audience's memory. In classical rhetoric, *memoria* is one of the five orator's canons. *Memoria* techniques aid speakers in remembering their speech. They often deal with visualising information, associating it with existing knowledge and placing it in a logical order, culminating in mnemotechniques such as the memory palace and *imagines agentes* (striking images). Compared to the *memoria* task, information retention by the audience receives little attention in the four classical works that were analysed. The ancient rhetoricians most prominently connect the concluding part of the speech (*peroratio*), and in particular the 'summary' or 'recapitulation of the facts', to information retention (see **Section 2.1** for a discussion of memory in ancient rhetoric).

The *memoria* task of the speaker plays a marginal role in modern public-speaking textbooks, which generally claim that memorising the whole speech can do more harm than good. Modern authors usually deal with practical aspects: they advise the use of memory aids and preparatory strategies such as using outlines, cue cards, teleprompters and rehearsal strategies. Only a small number of modern authors refer to classical *memoria* techniques. These authors propose a modern take on the *memoria* task: it is a way for the orator to become (mentally) familiar and comfortable with the speech, which could ultimately lead to a more congruent and compelling performance (see **Section 2.3** for a discussion of the *memoria* task in modern textbooks).

Main retention advice in modern public-speaking textbooks

A little over 5% of the total number of pages in the corpus of modern public-speaking textbooks contains explicit references to audience retention. Furthermore, a total of 77 techniques are attributed to audience information retention; a varied collection of techniques, which appear to be related to almost all steps required in the process of preparing and delivering a presentation. The most frequently mentioned techniques are 'visual aids', 'summary', 'repetition' and 'anecdote'. Moreover, in line with the ancient rhetoricians, modern authors view the conclusion as the preferred part of a presentation for a speaker to apply techniques that influence retention (see **Section 2.4** for an overview of the amount of retention advice and most frequently advised retention techniques).

Section 2.5 provides extensive descriptions of the main retention techniques that were found in modern public-speaking textbooks. The encoding principles organisation, elaboration and visualisation, which are found in memory research, are reflected in the retention advice and techniques. This suggested classification of retention techniques according to encoding principles should be not seen as definitive, but rather as a means to create a clearer overview of retention advice in modern public-speaking textbooks and to highlight underlying relationships between rhetorical ideas and memory psychology.

First of all, quite a few retention techniques are linked to organising the presentation, such as 'summary', 'repetition', 'chunking', 'systematic order', *partitio*, 'circle technique' and 'final statement'. Furthermore, the concluding part of a speech is most often connected to retention. Authors warn against ineffective conclusions, such as postponed or too extensive conclusions, which are said to hinder the audience's information retention (see **Section 2.6**).

Secondly, frequently advised retention techniques such as 'anecdote', 'audience participation', 'rhetorical question' and 'metaphor' can be associated with the encoding principle of elaboration. These techniques appear to encourage the audience to associate new information with existing knowledge, to actively participate in the presentation or make an effort in processing the information. For example, anecdotes are narratives that require the audience to understand the situation that is explained, the main characters that are involved, the story development and the anecdote's relevance to the presentation's key point(s).

Thirdly, techniques used to visualise information are very frequently connected to retention. Most often, the advice refers to visual aids as 'real-time', tangible visualisation such as objects, images, diagrams or graphs on a screen. Next to the advice, visual aids also form the top category of warnings that were found in the corpus: authors regularly discuss ineffective use of visual aids, which could hinder information retention (see **Section 2.6**). Besides direct visual aids to support a presentation, textbooks address retention techniques that stimulate mental visualisation, such as 'imagery', 'metaphors' and 'concrete examples'. These techniques can be related to both visualisation and elaboration, as the audience forms a visual representation based on associations with existing knowledge and images.

Reflection: quality of retention advice and the role of textbooks

All in all, audience information retention deserves a more consistent and coherent position in public-speaking textbooks. Retention advice often is scattered over different parts of a textbook, leaving it to the reader to put together the pieces of the retention puzzle. Including a chapter or section on retention as a rhetorical function could introduce readers to the notion that retention is ingrained in many facets of public speaking, from preparation to performance.

Moreover, descriptions of retention techniques greatly vary between the textbooks. Authors such as Osborn and Osborn (1997) and Atkinson (2004) regularly provide examples of techniques connected to retention and explain that factors such as audience and genre need to be taken into account, whereas in other textbooks only a brief reference to retention (something similar to "[technique X] makes your message memorable") was considered sufficient.

Just as the textbooks in these corpora vary in how extensively they discuss the use of retention techniques, the use of sources and references in these books varies as well (see **Section 2.7** for a discussion of reference use in the textbooks). Overall, the retention advice that was found in modern public-speaking textbooks is scarcely supported by explicit references to academic sources. In the rare case that a clear reference to an academic study is provided, it can be questioned whether the translation of the study's results into easily accessible textbook advice was carried out accurately. Textbook authors generally opt for other source types, such as (anecdotal) experiences from well-known speakers, to corroborate their advice.

While recognising the challenge of public-speaking textbooks to strike a balance between clear, attractive and well-supported advice, more extensive descriptions, examples and references would aid readers in selecting retention techniques that are suitable for particular public-speaking situations. More references to insights from memory psychology could underline the position of retention in public speaking as a rhetorical aim for a speaker and a function of specific rhetorical techniques.

Usage of retention techniques in public-speaking practice

Chapter 3 shows how seven retention techniques are applied in public-speaking practice. Its purpose is twofold: (1) it shows to what extent textbook advice on retention finds its way to various presentation situations in practice and (2) it provides detailed examples of techniques, which give insight into possible variants and specific (stylistic) features, and aid in designing studies to measure retention effects. Five techniques are related to organisation (*partitio*, announcement of the conclusion, circle technique, summary and transition); two techniques are mainly connected to elaboration (anecdote and questions; see **Section 3.1** for an account of the techniques' selection).

Speech texts by three different types of speakers—scholars, politicians and TED speakers—were analysed to find out how speaking professionals and professional speakers apply these retention techniques in various public-speaking contexts. The three corpora consist of sixteen speech texts each and differ in aspects such as main purpose of the speech, audience and context. Scholars mainly aim to inform, politicians mainly aim to persuade and TED speakers mainly aim to inspire (see **Section 3.2** for the construction of the three speech corpora).

The rhetorical analysis departed from defining distinct textual features of the selected organisation and elaboration techniques. Next, these features were used to detect and label these techniques in presentation texts of scholars, politicians and TED speakers. This step was carried out by various raters, which resulted in a sufficient to good inter-rater reliability. Then, the quantitative and qualitative usage of the techniques by these three different types of speakers was compared and interpreted in the context of their rhetorical situation (see **Section 3.3** for an extensive description of the method).

Public-speaking practice compared to textbook advice

Quantitatively, some frequently advised retention techniques in public-speaking textbooks are applied less often than expected by the scholars, politicians and TED speakers. An example is the summary: scholars use this concluding technique most often, which corresponds to the fact that textbook authors regularly relate the summary to the context of informative speeches. However, half the number of scholars, who mainly aimed to inform, did not use a summary. Furthermore, the politicians did not use any summary at all; although they mainly aim to persuade, a complete lack of summaries appears remarkable. Public-speaking textbooks could emphasise more often that the use of retention techniques can be context-dependant (see **Sections 3.4.1 and 3.5.1** for all quantitative results).

Qualitatively, the application of retention techniques in practice varies in content, length and stylistic features. This observation contrasts with scarce examples of retention techniques in public-speaking textbooks, which usually reflect a single variant of a technique that corresponds to authors' ideas about 'good' speaking practice. Two examples: first, summaries were found to be very concise on the one hand (two to three sentences) and quite long on the other hand (occasionally over 10% of the speech length). Some contained hardly any structure markers, whereas in other summaries the structure was explicitly indicated; sometimes, stylistically repetitive techniques (e.g. *anaphoras* or parallel sentence structures) were used instead of structure markers. Second, some of the anecdotes that were found are rich, vivid stories that appear relevant to the overall speech topic, whereas other anecdotes only contain a few, rather vaguely described narrative elements. It is possible that varieties in length, contents and style impact retention in different ways (see **Sections 3.4.2–3.4.5, 3.5.2 and 3.5.3** for extensive examples of the techniques in the three corpora of speech texts).

Speakers' preferences and variants of retention techniques in practice

Just as a restaurant's chef intends to find the right balance between the ingredients of a dish, speakers need to strike a balance between their intended purpose, the rhetorical techniques they consider using and other variables in the rhetorical situation. In the research presentations, political speeches and TED talks, this idea is reflected in the speakers' preferences for retention techniques and the variants of these techniques that were found.

Scholars. In agreement with their informative purpose, the scholars in this study mainly select organisational retention techniques. They apply more *partitios*, transitions, announcements of the conclusion and summaries than the politicians and TED speakers. Scholars usually include structure markers to emphasise the organisation techniques. The circle technique, which less explicitly emphasises the speech structure, was less popular among scholars.

Elaboration techniques are not applied as much by the scholars as by the politicians and TED speakers. They used the smallest number of anecdotes, for example, which contained less narrative elements and were less vividly phrased than the anecdotes of politicians and TED speakers. Of the question types, scholars preferred the *subiectio* (posing a question and immediately answering it), which is often used for organisational purposes next to its elaborative function.

Regarding the rhetorical situation, the scholars' preference for explicit organising techniques linked to retention can be explained by multiple reasons. First, their intention to inform the audience means that they probably value retention highly. Next, their topic might explain their use of structure markers, for example to explain various aspects of a complex research methodology. Furthermore, scholars can be qualified as speaking professionals, which means that they might not have been able to meticulously prepare their talk and apply techniques that require craftsmanship and a more polished style (such as an anecdote).

Politicians. The politicians opt for retention techniques that are in agreement with their main purpose of persuading the audience. They preferred elaborative techniques over explicit organisational retention techniques. Politicians used questions mostly in an elaborative way to appeal to existing knowledge, for example by *quaestios* (series of questions). Some long *quaestios* were found (up to of a pileup of 10 questions), which appeared to amplify emotions (a pathos effect).

Regarding organisational retention techniques, the politicians are the champions of the circle technique. This technique has a less explicit organisation effect and provides a 'sense of closure', according to textbooks. The politicians are not too fond of explicit structure markers: they did not use any summary at all, only one *partitio* was found and they used the smallest number of transition sentences compared to scholars and TED speakers.

Politicians are professional speakers who aim to share a persuasive message and shape their image (ethos). For politicians, the stakes seem higher than for scholars: parts of their speeches are likely to be broadcast to a diverse audience (electorate) via various media. Therefore, politicians might think of explicit organisational techniques as too 'didactic' and straightforward, despite of their possible retention effect. These techniques might not contribute to a positive ethos and obstruct the politicians' persuasive purpose.

TED speakers. The TED speakers tend to select retention techniques that are in agreement with their purpose to inspire (a mix of informative and persuasive elements). They mainly focus on elaboration techniques: they use the most anecdotes and questions of the three types of speakers analysed. TED speakers also stand out in the way they execute these techniques; they tend to spend time in crafting stylistically compelling phrases.

TED speakers are anecdote adepts. This elaborative retention technique is their favourite, which is not only supported by the number of anecdotes used, but also by their length, narrative elements, vivid style and relevance to the main idea or message of the talk. They prefer to use the rhetorical question, which can make the audience think about the topic and thereby enhance retention.

The main difference between scholars' and TED speakers' use of organisation techniques is their formulation: TED speakers tend to use less structure markers that literally refer to parts of the speech such as the conclusion. For example, they prefer to use a phrase such as "I want to leave you with this" as an announcement for the conclusion.

Through a rhetorical situation lens, the TED speakers can be qualified as professional speakers compared to scholars (speaking professionals). The TED talks could potentially be viewed by a large (online) audience, which increases the need for an intensive preparation of the overall presentation. Their inspirational purpose could explain the focus of the TED speakers on narrative techniques such as the anecdote and their varied formulation of structural retention techniques: they want to inform to a certain extent, but the audience's expectation to listen to an attractive story and the high stakes of a TED event lead to a focus on stylistic craftsmanship.

Retention effects of three rhetorical concluding techniques

Chapter 4 reports on two experimental studies into the retention effects of three techniques in an informative presentation. The three selected techniques are often applied in speech conclusions: the 'announcement of the conclusion' ("To conclude"), 'circle technique' (reference to the introduction) and 'summary'. These concluding techniques were investigated for two main reasons. First, the conclusion is the part of the presentation that is most frequently connected to retention in public-speaking textbooks. In that respect, these three techniques—particularly the summary—are regularly mentioned in textbooks as strategies to make a message memorable. Second, in the presentation texts of scholars, politicians and TED speakers, different variants of these techniques were found. Scholars, who mainly aim to inform, use organisational concluding techniques most frequently.

Setup of the two experiments

The first experiment focused on the announcement of the conclusion and circle technique (see **Section 4.1.1** for a discussion of these two techniques). Two variants of two informative presentations on different topics were made (a total of four presentation versions): one variant without concluding techniques and one with an announcement of the conclusion and a circle technique (see **Sections 4.1.2 and 4.1.3** for the experimental setup). These presentations were recorded and delivered by an experienced speaker. Participants (students of Delft University of Technology and Leiden University, N=358) viewed one of the recorded versions in an educational setting (communication skills class). Afterwards, they filled out a questionnaire that contained multiple-choice questions on information mentioned in the presentation and statements on the listeners' appreciation of the presentation (five-point Likert-scale). To properly measure recall of the concluding part, new information was included in the conclusion. It was expected that the presentation version with both concluding techniques would lead to a higher retention of information and appreciation of the conclusion than the presentation version without concluding techniques.

The second experiment focused on the summary in the concluding part of an informative presentation. Following from textbook advice and public-speaking practice, two main variants of the summary were distinguished: a restatement of the presentation outline, mentioning the topics addressed in the presentation (an indicative summary), and a repetition of the key points discussed in the presentation's contents (an informative summary). The informative summary used in this experiment was a so-called 'rhetorical summary': it was a selective overview of the key points given by the speaker and not an exhaustive summary of all topics addressed in the speech (see **Section 4.2.1** for a discussion of summary variants).

Three variants of a presentation on the communication strategy 'framing' were recorded: the first without a summary, the second with an indicative summary and the third with an informative summary (see **Sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3** for the experimental setup). Participants (students of Delft University of Technology, N=284) viewed one of the recorded versions in an educational setting (communication skills class). Afterwards, they filled out a questionnaire that contained open questions aimed at recall of the presentation's key points, multiple-choice questions on the presentation's contents and statements on listeners' appreciation of the presentation (five-point Likert-scale). Contrary to the first experiment, a post-test was performed two to three weeks later to measure effects on a longer term, which comprised a repetition of the open questions on the presentation's key points. The hypotheses were twofold: (1) it was expected that the presentation versions with a summary would lead to a higher retention and appreciation of the presentation than the version without a summary, and (2) it was expected that the presentation versions with an informative summary would lead to a higher retention and appreciation of the presentation than the version with an indicative summary.

Results: concluding techniques can lead to increased retention

The experiments have shown that both an announcement of the conclusion and an informative summary can increase the audience's information retention in an informative presentation. The informative summary also lead to a higher retention of information on a longer term, compared to the other two presentation versions. The circle technique appeared to positively influence recall of the restated information from the introduction, but not of other information mentioned in the conclusion. Furthermore, as a side-effect, two of these techniques positively influenced the audience's appreciation: the circle technique strengthened the audience's sense of closure, while the informative summary led to higher audience appreciation of the peroration (closing statements) compared to a presentation without a summary.

Based on the studies in this thesis, these three concluding techniques can be beneficial to a speaker of an informative presentation in terms of retention and appreciation. However, the positive effect on retention and appreciation can depend on two main factors: the specific variant of the technique and the audience's involvement and interest in the topic of the presentation.

The specific variant of the rhetorical technique can determine the retention effect. In the summary experiment, the informative rhetorical summary positively influenced the audience's information retention, whereas the indicative summary did not. The inclusion of an indicative summary even had a similar effect on free recall of the concluding information as not including any summary at all. These results suggest that the selection of a specific variant of a rhetorical technique can make a difference when it comes to information retention.

The audience's involvement and interest in the topic of the presentation can also influence the retention effect of a specific rhetorical technique. The first experiment, focused on the announcement of the conclusion and the circle technique, included two different informative presentations (hereafter: presentation 1 and 2). The results of presentation 1 showed a higher retention of information by participants who listened to the version with concluding techniques, but the results of presentation 2 did not indicate any differences in retention effects between the two presentation versions. The topic of presentation 2 was more appreciated and it was found more usable by participants. This suggests that the interest of the audience in the topic is a factor of influence: possibly, the need for an attention marker is higher in a situation in which the audience does not highly value the presentation's contents and therefore is less involved.

Thesis contribution: retention as a key perspective in rhetorical theory and practice

This thesis contributes to rhetoric as an interdisciplinary field of study, as it draws parallels between rhetorical theory and memory psychology. Insights such as the encoding principles organisation, elaboration and visualisation can help to evaluate how a specific rhetorical technique might contribute to retention. Vice versa, rhetorical theory can help to explain how the interplay of various elements in a public-speaking situation can influence retention (e.g. in educational psychology).

Furthermore, this study encompasses a variety of approaches to investigate rhetorical retention with both a quantitative and qualitative focus: systematic literature or corpus research, rhetorical analysis of presentations and experimental studies. The thesis shows that a quantitative method—accompanied by a qualitative approach—can be of added value in rhetorical research.

The thesis contributes to rhetorical practice in two main ways. First, it has established a broad overview of the most frequent modern public-speaking advice on information retention, which can serve as a basis for further, more detailed research and as a resource for practitioners (e.g. educators). Second, it provides more detailed insights on the use of a few specific rhetorical retention techniques in practice and their effects in an informative presentation. This can be helpful for speakers who have to decide what retention technique to include in their speech and how to do so, and to educators who have to coach and guide these speakers.

The future of rhetorical retention research

In future rhetorical retention studies, the three main methods used in this study can be honed. To offer a few examples: first of all, the corpus of modern public-speaking textbooks could be complemented with more recent (online) publications. Secondly, the inter-rater reliability of the speech text analysis can be improved by more thoroughly preparing and training raters. Finally, future experimental designs could include multiple messages (presentations), replicate one of the experiments, or make use of a different audience composition.

Furthermore, deploying different approaches than those applied in this thesis can lead to new, complementary results. For example, next to presentation and speech analyses by scholars of rhetoric, the audience's reception of actual presentations can be the focal point of future retention studies. Moreover, interviewing viewers of live presentations and recordings or online talks, and questioning speakers on their intentions, aims and preparatory work, could provide more detailed insights into the rhetorical retention situation. This way, future rhetorical retention studies can aid in completing the picture of memorable messages; a picture this thesis has started to paint with some broader brushstrokes and a few detailed touches.

Samenvatting

De relevantie van retorisch retentieonderzoek

> Het herhalen en verzamelen van de feiten, dat in het Grieks ‘anakephalaiôsis’ heet en door een aantal Latijnse auteurs ‘opsomming’ wordt genoemd, frist het geheugen van de rechter op en stelt hem de zaak in één keer voor ogen […].
> (Quintilianus, *Institutio Oratoria,* VI, 1.1)

Samenvattingen bieden lezers en luisteraars een overzicht van de belangrijkste informatie om te onthouden. In deze dissertatie speelt de samenvatting een dubbelrol: het hoofdstuk ‘samenvatting’ bevat de kerninformatie van de dissertatie en de retorische techniek ‘samenvatting’ is een belangrijk onderzoekonderwerp in deze studie. De opvatting bestaat dat een samenvatting aan het eind van een toespraak het geheugen van het publiek opfrist, zoals bovenstaand citaat van de klassieke retoricus Quintilianus toont. Retorici uit de klassieke oudheid, zoals Aristoteles, Cicero, Quintilianus en de onbekende *Auctor ad Herennium*, waren echter vooral geïnteresseerd in het geheugen van de spreker. Ze onderscheidden de *memoria* als een van de vijf taken aan de hand waarvan redenaars een redevoering voorbereidden. Om de redevoering uit het hoofd te leren, paste de spreker tijdens de *memoria*-fase mnemotechnieken (‘onthoudstrategieën’) toe zoals de *loci*-methode, ook bekend als het ‘geheugenpaleis’.

De aandacht voor het geheugen van het publiek lijkt vooral een modern fenomeen, wat wordt onderstreept door moderne presentatieadviesboeken, weblogs van presentatie-experts en populairwetenschappelijke boeken als *Made to stick* (Heath & Heath, 2010). Om een memorabele boodschap over te brengen in de huidige kennismaatschappij zijn presentaties en speeches belangrijke communicatiemiddelen. Het volgen van een presentatie of toespraak is niet meer alleen voorbehouden aan het direct aanwezige publiek tijdens een presentatie-evenement. Populaire presentaties als TED-talks zijn via onlinevideo’s en livestreams vaak vrijwel onmiddellijk beschikbaar voor een mondiaal publiek. De COVID-19-pandemie in 2020 en 2021 bracht de ontwikkeling van onlinepresentaties in een stroomversnelling.

Het feit dat mondelinge communicatieve vaardigheden in de eindtermen van academische curricula in Europa en de Verenigde Staten zijn opgenomen, benadrukt de belangrijke positie van kennisoverdracht aan een publiek. Waar in de oudheid de aandacht voor het geheugen van de redenaar echter onderdeel uitmaakte van de opleiding tot redenaar, kunnen docenten en studenten tegenwoordig niet bogen op een heldere theorie over de manier waarop luisteraars belangrijke informatie van een speech onthouden (dit laatste wordt in deze dissertatie ‘informatieretentie’ genoemd). Onderzoek naar effecten van retorische technieken op informatieretentie in een presentatiesituatie is schaars en heeft tot nu toe wisselende resultaten opgeleverd (voor voorbeelden, zie **paragraaf 1.4**). Een systematische, veelomvattende studie naar de retentie van informatie door publiek in een presentatiesituatie ontbreekt vooralsnog. Deze dissertatie beoogt daar verandering in te brengen.

Om een meer solide theoretische basis voor informatieretentie in een toespraak of presentatie te verkrijgen, koppelt deze studie retorische situaties aan inzichten uit de geheugenpsychologie (zie **paragrafen 1.2 en 1.3**). Uit deze inzichten blijkt dat de manier waarop informatie in eerste instantie verwerkt wordt – een proces dat bekend staat als 'encoderen' – voor een groot deel bepaalt of deze kennis opgeslagen wordt in het langetermijngeheugen en op een later moment weer opgehaald kan worden. Een belangrijke voorwaarde voor een geslaagd encoderingsproces is aandacht. Een aandachtig publiek kan informatie verwerken via drie encodeerprincipes die voortkomen uit geheugenonderzoek: organisatie (het structureren en logisch ordenen van informatie), elaboratie (nieuwe informatie koppelen aan en associëren met opgeslagen, bekende kennis) en visualisatie (het toepassen van letterlijke afbeeldingen of het creëren van mentale voorstellingen). Deze dissertatie richt zich met name op de principes organisatie en elaboratie (zie **paragraaf 3.1.1** voor een toelichting).

Het orale karakter van een presentatiesituatie draagt bij aan het belang van 'onthouden worden'. Sprekers en luisteraars bevinden zich meestal in dezelfde ruimte op hetzelfde moment; het publiek moet daarom in staat zijn belangrijke informatie op dat moment te ook te onthouden. Hoe die informatie wordt verwerkt, hangt af van de verhoudingen tussen verschillende variabelen die onderdeel zijn van een retorische situatie, zoals het publiek, de context en de spreker. Luisteraars zijn sterk afhankelijk van de keuzes die sprekers maken, bijvoorbeeld qua ordening van de informatie, visuele ondersteuning en presentatietechniek. In deze dissertatie vormen de retorische keuzemogelijkheden van sprekers een belangrijk uitgangspunt. Sprekers kunnen rekening houden met encodeerprinicipes als organisatie, elaboratie en visualisatie en zo bewust een presentatiesituatie creëren waarin het publiek ontvankelijk is voor informatieretentie.

Onderzoeksvragen en aanpak

Om meer inzicht te krijgen in de manier waarop retorische technieken het geheugen van het publiek kunnen beïnvloeden, beantwoordt deze dissertatie de volgende hoofdvraag:

Hoe kunnen retorische technieken in speeches informatieretentie door het publiek bevorderen?

De hoofdvraag is verdeeld in drie deelvragen:

1. Welke technieken worden in presentatieadviesboeken aanbevolen om een boodschap memorabel te maken?
2. Hoe passen sprekers geadviseerde retentietechnieken toe in de spreekpraktijk?
3. Wat is het effect van zulke retentietechnieken?

Deze deelvragen zijn representatief voor de aanpak van deze dissertatie, die drie stappen behelst. De eerste stap is een inhoudelijke analyse van vier klassiek-retorische werken en een corpus van tachtig invloedrijke Engelstalige en Nederlandstalige presentatieadviesboeken uit de periode 1980–2009 (zie **hoofdstuk 2**). Deze analyse is gericht op:

- de kwantiteit en inhoud van retorische adviezen en technieken die specifiek gekoppeld worden aan retentie;
- strategieën die volgens adviseurs niet bevorderlijk zijn voor informatieretentie (waarschuwingen of zogenaamde *vitia*);
- de manier waarop het retentieadvies wordt onderbouwd, bijvoorbeeld door verwijzingen naar academische studies en voorbeelden van (bekende) spreker;
- de rol van de *memoria*-taak in klassieke en moderne retorische adviesboeken, om te onderstrepen dat er in de loop der tijd een verschuiving heeft plaatsgevonden van de focus op het geheugen van de spreker naar de focus op het geheugen van het publiek.

De tweede stap in de aanpak biedt inzicht in de toepassing van zeven geselecteerde retentietechnieken in de spreekpraktijk (zie **hoofdstuk 3**). Deze technieken zijn gerelateerd aan organisatie (*partitio*, ‘aankondiging van het slot’, ‘cirkeltechniek’, ‘samenvatting’ en ‘transitie/overgangszin’) en elaboratie (‘anekdote’ en ‘vragen’). Een retorische analyse van drie corpora bestaande uit presentaties en speeches van onderzoekers, politici en TED-sprekers toont hoe deze drie typen sprekers de geselecteerde retentietechnieken in hun specifieke presentatiesituatie toepassen. Deze stap laat zien hoe presentatieadviezen zich verhouden tot specifieke spreeksituaties (genres) en geeft inzicht in gevarieerde stijl- en structuurkenmerken van de geselecteerde retentietechnieken in de praktijk. Deze inzichten vormen een vertrekpunt voor de laatste stap: het meten van retentie-effecten.

In de laatste stap van de aanpak worden retentie-effecten onderzocht van drie geselecteerde retorische organisatietechnieken die veelal toegepast worden in het slot van de toespraak: de ‘aankondiging van het slot’, ‘cirkeltechniek’ en ‘samenvatting’ (zie **hoofdstuk 4**). Op basis van inzichten uit de analyses van de presentatie-adviesboeken en spreekpraktijk worden twee experimenten vormgegeven, gericht op retentie in de context van informatieve presentaties. Het eerste experiment onderzoekt het effect van de aankondiging van het slot en de cirkeltechniek, het tweede draait om de samenvatting in het slot van een presentatie.

De rol van retentie in presentatieadviesboeken

Om een overzicht te krijgen van klassieke en moderne ideeën over het beïnvloeden van informatieretentie, presenteert **hoofdstuk 2** een analyse van vier klassiek-retorische werken (Aristoteles’ *Retorica*, Cicero’s *De Oratore*, Quintilianus’ *Institutio Oratoria* en de *Rhetorica ad Herennium*) en een corpus van veertig Engelstalige en veertig Nederlandstalige presentatieadviesboeken uit de periode 1980–2009. De moderne adviesboeken werden geselecteerd via de online bibliotheekcatalogus WorldCat. De klassieke en moderne adviesboeken werden zorgvuldig geïnspecteerd om aan retentie gerelateerde inhoud en technieken op te sporen. Over elk modern adviesboek werd de volgende informatie vastgelegd in een analyseformulier: (1) het aantal pagina's dat verbonden is aan retentie, (2) een overzicht van tekstfragmenten met retentieadviezen of *vitia* (waarschuwingen) met een voorlopig label van de betreffende techniek (3) welke technieken mogelijk verbonden zijn aan een specifiek deel van de presentatie en (4) hoe het advies wordt ondersteund door referenties. Zie **paragraaf 2.2** voor een uitgebreide uitleg van de corpusconstructie en de analysemethode.

Van de klassieke *memoria*-taak voor sprekers tot memorabele boodschappen voor het publiek

Het perspectief op retentie in de retorica lijkt in de loop der tijd verschoven van het geheugen van de spreker in de klassieke retorica naar het geheugen van het publiek in moderne presentatieadviezen. In de klassieke retorica is *memoria* een van de vijf taken van de redenaar. *Memoria*-strategieën ondersteunen sprekers bij het onthouden van hun toespraak. Deze strategieën houden meestal verband met het visualiseren van informatie, het associëren van informatie met bestaande kennis en het plaatsen van informatie in een logische volgorde, uitmondend in 'mnemotechnieken' als het 'geheugenpaleis' en zogenaamde *imagines agentes* (treffende, soms bizarre beelden). Vergeleken met de *memoria*-taak krijgt informatieretentie door het publiek weinig aandacht in de vier geanalyseerde klassiek-retorische werken. De klassieke retorici verbinden vooral het slot van een toespraak (*peroratio*) aan informatieretentie en in het bijzonder de 'samenvatting' of 'recapitulatie van de feiten' (**paragraaf 2.1** bespreekt de rol van het geheugen in de klassieke retorica).

De *memoria*-taak van de spreker speelt een marginale rol in moderne presentatieadviesboeken; onder moderne adviseurs heerst de opvatting dat het memoriseren van de hele speech meer kwaad dan goed kan doen. Moderne auteurs houden zich doorgaans bezig met de praktische adviezen: ze bevelen geheugensteuntjes en voorbereidingsstrategieën aan zoals spreekschema's, 'cue cards', teleprompters en (generale) repetitie-oefeningen. Slechts een klein aantal auteurs waagt zich aan het vermelden van klassieke *memoria*-technieken. Deze auteurs hebben een moderne kijk op de *memoria*-taak: zie zien het als een manier voor sprekers om (mentaal) vertrouwd te raken met hun toespraak, waardoor ze uiteindelijk een congruentere en aantrekkelijkere voordracht kunnen geven (**paragraaf 2.3** behandelt de *memoria*-taak in moderne adviesboeken).

Belangrijkste retentieadviezen in moderne presentatieadviesboeken

Iets meer dan 5% van het totaal aantal pagina's in het corpus van moderne presentatieadviesboeken bevat expliciete verwijzingen naar retentie door het publiek. De adviesboeken verbinden in totaal 77 technieken aan informatieretentie; een gevarieerde collectie van technieken die gerelateerd lijken aan vrijwel elke stap in het proces van het voorbereiden en voordragen van een presentatie. De meest frequent genoemde technieken zijn 'visuele hulpmiddelen', 'samenvatting', 'herhaling' en 'anekdote'. Verder hebben de moderne auteurs net als de klassieke retorici een voorkeur voor het slot als deel van de rede om informatieretentie te beïnvloeden (**paragraaf 2.4** geeft een overzicht van de kwantiteit van het retentieadvies en de meest frequent geadviseerde technieken).

Paragraaf 2.5 bevat uitgebreide beschrijvingen en voorbeelden van de belangrijkste retentietechnieken in de moderne presentatieadviesboeken. De drie encodeerprincipes organisatie, elaboratie en visualisatie zijn te herkennen in het retentieadvies. Deze studie categoriseert de geadviseerde retentietechnieken aan de hand van deze encodeerprincipes. Deze categorisering is niet in beton gegoten, maar moet beschouwd worden als een manier om grip te krijgen op het retentieadvies in moderne adviesboeken en onderliggende verbanden tussen retorische theorie en geheugenpsychologie aan de oppervlakte te brengen.

Ten eerste houdt een behoorlijk aantal geadviseerde retentietechnieken verband met organisatie (het structureren van een presentatie), zoals de 'samenvatting', 'herhaling', 'chunking', 'systematische volgorde', *partitio*, 'cirkeltechniek' en 'slotzin' (uitsmijter). Verder is het slot van de toespraak het deel van de rede dat het vaakst verbonden is aan retentie. Adviseurs waarschuwen bovendien voor ineffectieve afsluitingen, zoals een uitgesteld of te lang slot van de toespraak, die een obstakel zouden vormen voor informatieretentie door het publiek (zie **paragraaf 2.6).**

Ten tweede kunnen frequent geadviseerde technieken als de 'anekdote', 'publieksparticipatie', 'retorische vraag' en 'metafoor' geassocieerd worden met elaboratie. Deze technieken lijken het publiek te stimuleren om nieuwe informatie aan bekende kennis te koppelen, actief deel te nemen aan de presentatie en zich in te spannen om informatie te verwerken. Een voorbeeld: anekdotes zijn narratieven (verhaalvormen) waarbij het publiek de beschreven situatie, hoofdpersonages, verhaalontwikkeling en relevantie met de kernpunten van de presentatie moet kunnen volgen, bijvoorbeeld door verbanden te leggen en zich in de situatie te verplaatsen.

Ten derde worden technieken om informatie te visualiseren zeer regelmatig gekoppeld aan retentie. De meeste aanbevelingen gaan over concrete visuele hulpmiddelen als voorwerpen, afbeeldingen, diagrammen of grafieken op presentatieslides. In het lijstje met waarschuwingen voor strategieën die informatieretentie nadelig kunnen beïnvloeden, staan visuele hulpmiddelen ook bovenaan (zie **paragraaf 2.6**). Naast letterlijke visualisaties om een presentatie te ondersteunen behandelen adviesboeken ook retentietechnieken die mentale visualisatie kunnen bevorderen, zoals 'imagery' (beeldend taalgebruik), 'metaforen' en 'concrete voorbeelden'. Deze technieken kunnen zowel aan visualisatie als elaboratie gekoppeld worden, aangezien luisteraars een visuele representatie kunnen maken op basis van associaties met bestaande kennis en beelden.

Reflectie: kwaliteit van het retentieadvies en de rol van presentatieadviesboeken

Al met al verdient informatieretentie een consistente en coherente positie in presentatieadviesboeken. Retentieadvies is vaak verspreid over verschillende delen van adviesboeken, waardoor de lezer zelf de stukjes van de retentiepuzzel moet leggen. Een hoofdstuk of paragraaf gewijd aan retentie als een retorische functie kan lezers bewust maken van het idee dat retentie geworteld is in velerlei facetten van presenteren, van voorbereiding tot voordracht.

Verder variëren beschrijvingen van retentietechnieken sterk in verschillende presentatieadviesboeken. Auteurs als Osborn en Osborn (1997) en Atkinson (2004) geven regelmatig voorbeelden van retentietechnieken en besteden aandacht aan de invloed van factoren als publiek en genre, terwijl in andere adviesboeken een korte verwijzing naar retentie (iets als “techniek [X] bevordert het onthouden van de boodschap”) voldoende wordt geacht.

Zoals de presentatieadviesboeken verschillen in de uitvoerigheid en diepgang waarmee ze retentietechnieken bespreken, zo verschillend zijn ze ook in het gebruik van bronnen en bronvermeldingen (zie **paragraaf 2.7** voor een overzicht van brongebruik in de presentatieadviesboeken). Retentieadviezen in presentatie-adviesboeken worden zelden onderbouwd met expliciete verwijzingen naar academische bronnen. In het zeldzame geval van een heldere referentie aan een academische studie kan betwijfeld worden hoe accuraat de onderzoeksresultaten gevolgd zijn bij het formuleren van toegankelijke presentatieadviezen. Om hun adviezen te staven, putten adviseurs vaak uit andere bronnen dan academische publicaties, zoals (anekdotische) ervaringen van bekende sprekers.

Hoewel de uitdaging voor schrijvers van presentatieadviesboeken om een balans te vinden tussen helder, aantrekkelijk en goed onderbouwd advies niet moet worden onderschat, zouden uitgebreidere beschrijvingen, voorbeelden en bronvermeldingen lezers helpen om retentietechnieken te kiezen die geschikt zijn voor specifieke presentatiesituaties. Meer verwijzingen naar inzichten uit de geheugenpsychologie zouden de rol van retentie als retorisch doel voor een spreker en als functie van specifieke retorische technieken beter benadrukken.

Gebruik van retentietechnieken in de spreekpraktijk

Hoofdstuk 3 laat zie hoe zeven retentietechnieken in de praktijk toegepast worden in presentaties en speeches. Het hoofdstuk heeft een tweeledig doel: (1) het toont op welke manier in adviesboeken aanbevolen retentietechnieken worden toegepast in verschillende presentatiesituaties en (2) het bevat gedetailleerde voorbeelden van technieken die inzicht geven in mogelijke varianten en specifieke (stilistische) kenmerken, en biedt daarmee uitgangspunten voor het ontwerp van studies om retentie-effecten te meten. Vijf geselecteerde technieken zijn gerelateerd aan organisatie (*partitio*, aankondiging van het slot, cirkeltechniek, samenvatting en overgang/transitie); twee technieken zijn voornamelijk verbonden aan elaboratie (anekdote en vraagfiguren; **paragraaf 3.1** behandelt de selectie van de technieken).

Presentatie- en speechteksten van drie verschillende soorten sprekers – onderzoekers, politici en TED-sprekers – zijn geanalyseerd om te onderzoeken hoe sprekende professionals en professionele sprekers deze retentietechnieken toepassen in verschillende presentatiesituaties. De drie corpora bestaan elk uit zestien teksten en verschillen in kenmerken als het doel van de speech, samenstelling van het publiek en de presentatiecontext. Het belangrijkste doel van onderzoekers is informeren, politici beogen met name te overtuigen en TED-sprekers willen vooral inspireren (zie **paragaaf 3.2** voor de constructie en kenmerken van de drie corpora speechteksten).

Het startpunt van de retorische analyse was het definiëren van precieze tekstkenmerken van de geselecteerde organisatie- en elaboratietechnieken. Deze kenmerken werden vervolgens gebruikt om deze technieken te detecteren en van een label te voorzien in de presentatieteksten van onderzoekers, politici en TED-sprekers. Deze stap werd uitgevoerd door verschillende beoordelaars, wat resulteerde in een voldoende tot goede interbeoordelaarsbetrouwbaarheid. Daarna werden de kwantitatieve en kwalitatieve resultaten per type spreker vergeleken en geïnterpreteerd in de context van de retorische situatie (zie **paragraaf 3.3** voor een uitgebreide beschrijving van de analysemethode).

Retentieadviezen in het licht van de spreekpraktijk

Kwantitatief gezien worden sommige frequent geadviseerde retentietechnieken minder vaak door de onderzoekers, politici en TED-sprekers toegepast dan verwacht. Een voorbeeld is de samenvatting: onderzoekers gebruiken deze slottechniek het meest, wat aansluit bij het feit dat adviseurs de samenvatting regelmatig relateren aan de context van informatieve speeches. De helft van de onderzoekspresentaties bevat echter geen samenvatting, terwijl het hoofddoel informatief lijkt. Daarnaast gebruiken de politici geen enkele samenvatting; hoewel ze voornamelijk beogen te overtuigen, is het volledig ontbreken van samenvattingen opmerkelijk. Presentatieadviesboeken zouden vaker kunnen benadrukken dat het gebruik van retentietechnieken contextafhankelijk is (zie **paragrafen 3.4.1 en 3.5.1** voor alle kwantitatieve resultaten).

Kwalitatief gezien variëren de toegepaste retentietechnieken in de praktijk qua inhoud, lengte en stijlkenmerken. Deze observatie contrasteert met de weinige voorbeelden van retentietechnieken in presentatieadviesboeken, die vaak een enkele variant van een techniek weergeven die aansluit bij de opvattingen van de betreffende adviseur over een 'goede' spreekpraktijk. Twee voorbeelden: ten eerste zijn er zowel zeer beknopte samenvattingen (twee tot drie zinnen) als behoorlijk lange recapitulaties (soms meer dan 10% van de speechlengte) aangetroffen. Sommige samenvattingen bevatten nauwelijks enige structuurmarkeerders (signaalwoorden), terwijl in andere samenvattingen de structuur expliciet aangeduid wordt; in enkele gevallen lijken stilistische herhalingstechnieken als anaforen of parallelle zinsconstructies de plaats in te nemen van structuurmarkeerders. Ten tweede zijn sommige anekdotes rijke, levendige verhalen die relevant lijken voor de belangrijkste boodschap van de speech, waar andere anekdotes slechts enkele, nogal abstract beschreven narratieve elementen bevatten. Mogelijk beïnvloeden variaties in lengte, inhoud en stijl retentie op een verschillende manier (zie **paragrafen 3.4.2–3.4.5, 3.5.2 en 3.5.3** voor uitgebreide voorbeelden van toegepaste technieken in de speech-corpora).

Voorkeuren van sprekers en varianten van technieken in de praktijk

Zoals een chef-kok het juiste evenwicht zoekt tussen ingrediënten van een gerecht, zo moeten sprekers een evenwicht vinden tussen het doel van hun presentatie, de retorische technieken die ze overwegen te gebruiken en andere variabelen in de retorische situatie. Onderzoekers, politici en TED-sprekers lijken dan ook verschillende voorkeuren voor (varianten van) retentietechnieken te hebben.

Onderzoekers. In overeenstemming met hun informatieve doel selecteren de onderzoekers voornamelijk organisatietechnieken. Ze gebruiken meer *partitio's,* overgangszinnen, aankondigingen van het slot en samenvattingen dan de politici en TED-sprekers. Onderzoekers gebruiken meestal structuurmarkeerders om de organisatietechnieken te benadrukken. De cirkeltechniek, die vaak minder expliciet de nadruk legt op de presentatiestructuur, was minder populair bij deze groep sprekers.

Onderzoekers passen elaboratietechnieken niet zo frequent toe als politici en TED-sprekers. Van de verschillende soorten vragen die onderzocht zijn, hadden onderzoekers de voorkeur voor de *subiectio* (een vraag stellen en deze direct beantwoorden); dit type vraag kan naast zijn elaboratieve functie ook ingezet worden voor structuurdoeleinden.

Vanuit het perspectief van de retorische situatie kan de voorkeur van onderzoekers voor expliciete organisatietechnieken op enkele manieren worden verklaard. Ten eerste hechten ze waarschijnlijk belang aan retentie vanwege hun intentie om te informeren. Daarnaast is het gebruik van structuurmarkeerders mogelijk inherent aan het presentatieonderwerp; zo staan de onderzoekers soms uitgebreid stil bij een complexe onderzoeksmethode. Daarnaast zijn onderzoekers sprekende professionals, wat betekent dat ze hun presentatie mogelijk niet nauwgezet hebben kunnen voorbereiden en minder geneigd zijn technieken toe te passen die getuigen van vakmanschap en een gepolijste stijl (zoals een anekdote).

Politici. De politici selecteren retentietechnieken die passen bij hun belangrijkste doel (overtuigen). Ze prefereren elaboratietechnieken boven expliciete organisatie-technieken. Politici stellen vragen meestal met het doel om elaboratie te stimuleren, bijvoorbeeld door de *quaestio* (een vragenreeks) toe te passen. Het corpus politieke speeches bevat enkele lange *quaestio's* (opstapelingen tot soms tien vragen) die gericht lijken op het versterken van emoties (een pathos-effect).

In de categorie organisatietechnieken zijn politici de kampioenen van de cirkeltechniek. Deze techniek legt minder expliciet de nadruk op de presentatie-structuur en zorgt volgens adviseurs voor een 'afgerond gevoel' bij het publiek. Politici lijken minder gecharmeerd van expliciete structuurmarkeerders: ze gebruiken geen enkele samenvatting, slechts één *partitio* is aangetroffen en ze passen overgangszinnen het minst vaak toe vergeleken met onderzoekers en TED-sprekers.

Kenmerkend voor de retorische situatie van politici is het feit dat ze professionele sprekers zijn met het doel te overtuigen en hun imago (ethos) vorm te geven. Voor politici lijkt er meer op het spel te staan dan voor onderzoekers: delen van hun voordracht worden mogelijk verspreid onder een divers publiek (electoraat) via verschillende media. Om die reden vinden politici expliciete organisatie-technieken mogelijk te 'didactisch' en weinig creatief, waardoor ze niet (voldoende) bijdragen aan een positief ethos en de overtuigingskracht van de speech.

TED-sprekers. TED-sprekers zijn geneigd retentietechnieken te selecteren die overeenstemmen met hun doel om te inspireren (een doelstelling gekenmerkt door een mix van informatieve en persuasieve elementen). Ze richten zich met name op elaboratietechnieken: van de drie typen sprekers gebruiken ze de meeste anekdotes en vragen. Daarnaast onderscheiden de TED-sprekers zich ook door hun uitvoering van de retentietechnieken; ze lijken tijd te steken in het zorgvuldig stilistisch verwoorden van pakkende zinnen.

TED-sprekers zijn anekdote-adepten. Hun voorkeur voor deze elaboratietechniek blijkt niet alleen uit het aantal anekdotes dat ze toepassen, maar ook uit het feit dat hun anekdotes vaak lang en levendig zijn, veel narratieve elementen bevatten en relevant lijken binnen de presentatie. Verder prefereren TED-sprekers de retorische vraag, die het publiek aan het denken kan zetten.

Het belangrijkste verschil in het gebruik van organisatietechnieken door onderzoekers en TED-sprekers is hun stijl: TED-sprekers gebruiken meestal minder structuurmarkeerders die letterlijk naar onderdelen van de toespraak verwijzen, zoals het slot. Als aankondiging van het slot gebruiken ze bijvoorbeeld geregeld een frase als "I want to leave you with this".

De retorische situatie van de TED-sprekers biedt inzicht in hun gebruik van retentietechnieken. TED-sprekers kunnen worden omschreven als professionele sprekers, zeker in vergelijking met de onderzoekers in hun presentatiecontext (een wetenschappelijk congres). De TED-talks kunnen potentieel een groot (online) publiek bereiken, waardoor de urgentie groter is om de presentatie intensief voor te bereiden. Hun doelstelling te inspireren kan een reden zijn voor de focus van TED-sprekers op narratieve technieken als de anekdote en hun gevarieerde formulerings-keuzes van organisatietechnieken; TED-sprekers willen tot op zekere hoogte informatie overbrengen, maar de verwachting van het publiek dat het een aantrekkelijk verhaal zal horen en het belang van de gelegenheid leidt tot meer aandacht voor de verwoording.

Retentie-effecten van drie retorische slottechnieken

Hoofdstuk 4 rapporteert over twee experimentele studies naar de retentie-effecten van drie retorische technieken in een informatieve presentatie. De drie geselecteerde technieken worden vaak gebruikt worden in het slot van toespraken: de 'aankondiging van het slot' ("ik rond af"), 'cirkeltechniek' (verwijzing naar de inleiding) en 'samenvatting'. Deze slottechnieken zijn om twee redenen onderzocht. Ten eerste is het slot het deel van de rede dat het meest frequent wordt gekoppeld aan retentie in presentatieadviesboeken. Deze drie technieken – in het bijzonder de samenvatting – worden daarbij regelmatig vermeld als strategieën om een presentatie memorabel te maken. Ten tweede zijn in de presentaties en speeches van onderzoekers, politici en TED-sprekers verschillende varianten van deze drie technieken aangetroffen. Onderzoekers, met als hoofddoel 'informeren', gebruiken organisatietechnieken het vaakst.

Ontwerp van de twee experimenten

Het eerste experiment was gericht op de aankondiging van het slot en de cirkeltechniek (**paragraaf 4.1.1** bespreekt deze twee technieken uitvoeriger). Twee varianten van twee informatieve presentaties over verschillende onderwerpen zijn ontworpen (vier presentatieversies in totaal): een variant met de twee slottechnieken en een variant zonder deze technieken (zie **paragrafen 4.1.2 en 4.1.3** voor de experimentele opzet). Deze presentaties zijn opgenomen en gehouden door een ervaren spreker. Proefpersonen (studenten van de TU Delft en Universiteit Leiden, N=358) werd één van de opgenomen versies getoond in een onderwijssetting (college communicatieve vaardigheden). Daarna vulden ze een vragenlijst in die bestond uit meerkeuzevragen over informatie uit de presentatie en stellingen over de waardering van de presentatie (vijfpunts-Likertschaal). Om retentie van informatie uit het slot te kunnen meten was er nieuwe informatie toegevoegd aan het slot van de presentatie. De verwachting was dat de presentatieversie met beide slottechnieken zou zorgen voor een hogere mate van informatieretentie en hogere waardering van het slot dan de presentatieversie zonder slottechnieken.

Het tweede experiment draaide om de samenvatting in het slot van een informatieve presentatie. Op basis van adviezen en spreekpraktijk werden twee belangrijke varianten van de samenvatting onderscheiden: een herhaling van de presentatie-structuur, waarbij op een abstract niveau de onderwerpen uit de presentatie nog eens benoemd worden (een indicatieve samenvatting) en een inhoudelijke herhaling van de kernpunten uit de presentatie (een informatieve samenvatting). De informatieve samenvatting in dit experiment was een zogenaamde 'retorische samenvatting': het was een selectie van belangrijke kernpunten gemaakt door de spreker en daarmee geen uitputtende samenvatting van alle behandelde onderwerpen in de presentatie (zie **paragraaf 4.2.1** voor een overzicht van samenvattingsvarianten).

Drie varianten van een presentatie over de communicatiestrategie 'framing' werden opgenomen: de eerste zonder samenvatting, de tweede met een indicatieve samenvatting en de derde met een informatieve samenvatting (zie **paragrafen 4.2.2 en 4.2.3** voor de experimentele opzet). Proefpersonen (studenten van de TU Delft, N=284) werd één van de opgenomen presentatieversies getoond in een onderwijssetting (college communicatieve vaardigheden). Daarna vulden ze een vragenlijst in die bestond uit open vragen gericht op reproductie van de kernpunten uit de presentatie, meerkeuzevragen over de inhoud van de presentatie en stellingen over de waardering van de presentatie (vijfpunts-Likertschaal). Anders dan bij het eerste experiment werd twee tot drie weken later een post-test uitgevoerd om retentie-effecten op een langere termijn te kunnen meten. De post-test bestond uit een herhaling van de open vragen gericht op de reproductie van kernpunten uit de presentatie. De hypotheses waren tweeledig: (1) de presentatieversies met een samenvatting leiden naar verwachting tot een hogere mate van retentie en hogere waardering dan de versie zonder samenvatting en (2) de presentatieversie met een informatieve samenvatting leidt naar verwachting tot een hogere mate van retentie en hogere waardering dan de versie met een indicatieve samenvatting.

Resultaten: slottechnieken kunnen leiden tot een hogere mate van retentie

De resultaten van de experimenten tonen dat het gebruik van een aankondiging van het slot en een informatieve samenvatting in een informatieve presentatie kan leiden tot een hogere mate van informatieretentie door het publiek. Het gebruik van een informatieve samenvatting leidde bovendien tot een groter retentie-effect op de langere termijn vergeleken met de twee andere versies van het samenvattings-experiment. De cirkeltechniek lijkt het onthouden te bevorderen van in het slot herhaalde informatie uit de inleiding, maar niet van overige informatie die in het slot vermeld wordt. Bovendien is een neveneffect dat twee van de onderzochte (varianten van) technieken de waardering van het publiek positief beïnvloeden: de cirkeltechniek versterkte het ‘gevoel van afgerondheid’ bij de luisteraar, terwijl de informatieve samenvatting zorgde voor een hogere publiekswaardering van het slot vergeleken met een presentatie zonder samenvatting.

De experimenten in deze dissertatie laten zien dat de drie onderzochte slottechnieken van toegevoegde waarde kunnen zijn voor sprekers in een informatieve presentatie. De positieve retentie- en waarderingseffecten kunnen echter afhankelijk zijn van twee factoren: de specifieke variant van de techniek en de mate waarin het publiek betrokken is bij en geïnteresseerd is in het presentatieonderwerp.

De specifieke variant van retorische techniek kan het effect op retentie bepalen. In het samenvattingsexperiment had alleen de informatieve retorische samenvatting een positief effect op informatieretentie door het publiek. De indicatieve samenvatting zorgde niet voor een hogere informatieretentie en leidde zelfs tot een vergelijkbare reproductie van de kernpunten uit de presentatie als de versie zonder samenvatting. Als het gaat om informatieretentie kan de keuze voor een specifieke variant van een retorische techniek dus het verschil maken.

De mate van betrokkenheid en interesse van het publiek kan het retentie-effect van een specifieke retorische techniek ook beïnvloeden. In het eerste experiment, dat ging over de aankondiging van het slot en de cirkeltechniek, werden twee informatieve presentaties met verschillende onderwerpen gebruikt (hierna: presentatie 1 en 2). De resultaten van presentatie 1 toonden een hogere informatie-retentie van luisteraars naar de versie met slottechnieken, maar de resultaten van presentatie 2 lieten geen verschil in retentie-effecten zien tussen de versies met en zonder slottechnieken. Het onderwerp van presentatie 2 werd meer gewaardeerd en nuttiger gevonden door de proefpersonen. Dit is een indicatie dat de mate waarin het publiek geïnteresseerd is in en betrokken is bij het onderwerp van invloed is op retentie. Luisteraars die de inhoud van de presentatie waarderen en betrokken zijn bij het onderwerp hebben mogelijk minder behoefte aan structuurmarkeerders en signaalformuleringen die de aandacht op het slot vestigen.

Waarde van de dissertatie: retentie als kernbegrip in retorische theorie en praktijk

Deze dissertatie levert op verschillende manieren een bijdrage aan retorisch onderzoek. Door retorische theorie en geheugenpsychologie explicieter met elkaar te verbinden, benadrukt deze studie dat retorica een interdisciplinair onderzoeksveld is. De encodeerprincipes organisatie, elaboratie en visualisatie kunnen inzicht geven in de manier waarop retorische technieken kunnen bijdragen aan retentie. Omgekeerd kan retorische theorie inzichtelijk maken hoe het samenspel tussen verschillende variabelen in een presentatiesituatie retentie kan beïnvloeden. Daarmee kan een retorische benadering een waardevolle aanvulling zijn voor disciplines waarin presentatiesituaties onderwerp van onderzoek kunnen zijn (zoals onderwijs-psychologie). Daarnaast wordt in deze dissertatie een combinatie van verschillende kwantitatieve en kwalitatieve onderzoeksmethodes toegepast: systematisch literatuur- of corpusonderzoek, retorische analyse van presentatieteksten en experimenteel onderzoek. Deze studie toont daarmee aan dat een kwantitatieve aanpak – vergezeld van een kwalitatief perspectief – van toegevoegde waarde kan zijn in retorisch onderzoek.

De dissertatie draagt op twee manieren bij aan de retorische praktijk. Ten eerste biedt de studie een uitgebreid overzicht van de meest frequente presentatieadviezen over retentie, dat als basis kan dienen voor verder onderzoek en een bron van inspiratie kan zijn voor de retorische beroepspraktijk (bijvoorbeeld voor docenten en studenten). Ten tweede bevat de studie gedetailleerdere inzichten in het gebruik van enkele specifieke retorische retentietechnieken in de spreekpraktijk en hun effecten in een informatieve presentatie. Dat is waardevolle informatie voor sprekers die moeten bepalen welke retorische technieken passend zijn voor hun presentatie en hoe ze deze precies kunnen toepassen, en voor onderwijsprofessionals die deze sprekers coachen en begeleiden.

De toekomst van retorisch retentieonderzoek

De drie methodes die gebruikt zijn in deze dissertatie kunnen in toekomstig retorisch retentieonderzoek verfijnd worden. Enkele voorbeelden: ten eerste kan het corpus van moderne presentatieadviesboeken worden aangevuld met recentere (online) publicaties. Ten tweede kan de interbeoordelaarsbetrouwbaarheid van de retorische analyse van presentatieteksten verder verbeterd worden door beoordelaars nog uitvoeriger voor te bereiden en trainen. Ten slotte zouden toekomstige experimentele studies zich kunnen richten op meer verschillende boodschappen (presentaties), andere samenstellingen van het publiek, of het repliceren van een van de experimenten uit deze studie.

Daarnaast kunnen andere onderzoeksmethoden leiden tot nieuwe, aanvullende resultaten. Naast presentatie- en speechanalyses door retorica-onderzoekers zou publieksonderzoek meer centraal kunnen staan, bijvoorbeeld gericht op de receptie van presentaties. Verder kunnen enquêtes onder het publiek van live-presentaties en opgenomen of online speeches en interviews met sprekers over hun intenties, doelen en voorbereiding meer inzicht geven in de retorische retentiesituatie. Op deze manier kan toekomstig retorische retentieonderzoek een scherper beeld vormen van memorabele boodschappen in presentaties; een beeld dat deze dissertatie alvast met enkele brede penseelstreken en een paar gedetailleerde toetsen heeft neergezet.

Appendices

The appendices are divided over three main topics: the corpus analysis of public-speaking textbooks (Appendix A, related to chapter 2), the analysis of public-speaking practice (Appendix B, related to chapter 3), and the experimental studies (Appendix C, related to chapter 4). Appendices A.1 and B.1 are included in the print version of this thesis. **The remaining appendices are included in the online repository of Leiden University.** A significant part of the appendices is in the Dutch language. Below, an overview of the appendices is presented.

A: Supplements to analysis public-speaking textbooks

A.1 Corpus public-speaking textbooks
A.2 Key words textbook analysis and example form of analysis
A.3 Frequency retention techniques in corpus textbooks
A.4 Fragments for one rhetorical technique (repetition)
A.5 Frequency *vitia* in modern textbooks and fragments on one *vitium* (information overload)
A.6 Fragments related to audience information retention in ancient rhetorical works
A.7 *Memoria* task in modern public-speaking textbooks
A.8 Forms of analysis for all modern public-speaking textbooks

B: Supplements to analysis public-speaking practice (scholars, politicians and TED talks)

B.1 Overview speeches and presentations per corpus
B.2 Presentation and speech texts from the corpora
B.3 Labelling instruction
B.4 Scores and procedure inter-rater reliability
B.5 Labelled fragments from Atlas.ti organised per technique

C: Supplements to experimental studies

C.1 Experiment 1: presentation texts, questionnaire, instruction texts
C.2 Experiment 1: recordings
C.3 Experiment 1: data sets
C.4 Experiment 2: presentation text, questionnaire, instruction texts
C.5 Experiment 2: recordings
C.6 Experiment 2: data sets

A.1 Corpus public-speaking textbooks

This appendix contains an overview of the 80 selected textbooks for corpus public-speaking textbooks in the period 1980–2009. Section A.1.1 contains the 40 English-language textbooks and Section A.1.2 the 40 Dutch-language textbooks. The books are ordered by selection year.

For some textbooks an edition from a different year of publication was used than the year for which it was selected in the corpus. When applicable, this is indicated by a bold-faced year of publication in the reference of the textbook. This issue mainly occurred for the English-language sub-corpus, as these works were not all easily available in The Netherlands. In these cases, we settled for the available edition closest to the selection year.

Textbooks that are part of the sub-selection of prominent works and exceptions that were not included in the WorldCat selection (10 textbooks in each sub-corpus, see Section 2.2, figure 2.1) are indicated in the overview of both corpora. Specifically for the Dutch-language corpus, the textbooks are indicated that are translations into Dutch and textbooks of which only a part deals with presentation or public speaking skills (e.g. a chapter in a textbook on communication skills in general).

A.1.1 English-language sub-corpus

Bold-faced year in the reference = a difference between the year of selection and the year of publication of the edition used for the corpus analysis, i.e. based on the WorldCat results the textbook edition from the given year was selected as representative but appeared unavailable. Therefore, another edition of the book was used.

[A] = textbook is part of the selection of prominent works/exceptions (reparation selection)

Selection year	Reference
1980	Carnegie, D., & Carnegie, D. (**1977**). *The quick and easy way to effective speaking.* New York: Pocket Books.
1980[A]	Ehninger, D., Monroe, A.H., & Gronbeck, B.E. (1980). *Principles and Types of Speech Communication.* Glenview: Scott Foresman and Company.
1981[A]	DeVito, J.A. (**2003**). *The essential elements of public speaking.* Boston: Pearson Education. (Original version: *The elements of public speaking.* New York: Harper & Row, 1981).
1981	Linkletter, A. (**1980**). *Public Speaking for Private People.* Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company.
1982	Kenny, P. (1982). *A Handbook of Public Speaking for Scientists and Engineers.* Bristol: Adam Hilger.
1982	Valenti, J. (**2002**). *Speak Up With Confidence. How to Prepare, Learn, and Deliver Effective Speeches.* New York: Hyperion.
1983	Ross, R.S. (**1980**). *Speech communication. Fundamentals and practice* (5th ed.). New Jersey: Englewood Cliffs.
1983[A]	Gondin, W.R., Mammen E.W., & Dodding, J. (1983). *The Art of Speaking Made Simple* (2nd ed.). London: William Heinemann.

Selection year	**Reference**
1984	Walter, O.M., & Scott, R.L. (**1979**). *Thinking and speaking. A guide to intelligent oral communication* (2nd ed). New York: Macmillan Publishing.
1985	Smith, T.C. (**1991**). *Making Successful Presentations. A Self-Teaching Guide* (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons.
1986	Lucas, S.E. (**1989**). *The art of public speaking* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw Publishing.
1987	Allen, S. (1987). *How to make a speech.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
1987[A]	Mandel, S. (1987). *Effective Presentation Skills.* Los Altos: Crisp Publications.
1988	Verderber, R.F. (**2000**). *The Challenge of Effective Speaking* (11th ed.). Belmont: Wadsworth/Thomson Learning.
1989	Cook, J.S. (1989). *The elements of speechwriting and public speaking. An indispensable guide for anyone who speaks in public.* New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.
1990	Wilson, J.F., & Arnold, C.C. (**1983**). *Public Speaking as a Liberal Art* (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
1991	Wilder, L. (**1986**). *Professionally speaking. Getting ahead in Business and Life through Effective Communication.* New York: Simon and Schuster.
1992	Detz, J. (**1984**). *How to write and give a speech. A practical guide for executives. PR people, managers, fund-raisers, politicians, educators and anyone who has to make every word count.* New York: St. Martin's Press.
1993	Walters, L. (1993). *Secrets of Successful Speakers. How you can motivate, captivate and persuade.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
1994	Osborn, M. & S. Osborn. (**1997**). *Public Speaking* (3rd ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
1995	Rozakis, L.E. (1995). *The complete idiots guide to speaking in public with confidence.* New York: Alpha Books.
1996	Simmons, C. (1996). *Public Speaking Made Simple.* New York: Doubleday.
1997[A]	Gaulke, S. (1997). *101 Ways to Captivate a Business Audience.* New York: American Management Association.
1997	Qubein, N. R. (1997). *How to Be a Great Communicator. In Person, on Paper, and on the Podium. The Complete System for Communication Effectively in Business and in Life*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
1998	Urech, E. (1998). *Speaking Globally. Effective Presentation Across International and Cultural Boundaries.* Dover: Kogan Page.
1999[A]	Janner, G. (1999). *Janner's Complete Speechmaker* (6th ed.). London: Random House Business Books.
1999	Noonan, P. (1999). *On Speaking Well. How to Give a Speech with Style, Substance and Clarity*. New York: Regan Books/Harper-Collins.
2000	Gurak, L. (2000). *Oral Presentations for Technical Communication.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
2000	Dowis, R. (2000). *The Lost Art of the Great Speech. How to Write It. How to Deliver It.* New York [etc.]: AMACOM American Management Association.

Selection year	Reference
2001	Laskowski, L. (2001). *10 Days to More Confident Public Speaking.* New York: Grand Central Publishing.
2002	McConnon, S. (2002). *Presenting with Power. Captivate, Motivate, Inspire, and Persuade.* Oxford: How To Books.
2002[A]	Sprague, J., & Stuart, D. (1996). *The Speaker's Handbook* (4th ed.). Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.
2003	Booher, D. (2003). *Speaking with Confidence. Powerful Presentations that Inform, Inspire, and Persuade.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
2004	Naistadt, I. (2004). *Speak without Fear. A Total System For Becoming a Natural, Confident Speaker.* New York: Harper-Collins.
2004[A]	Atkinson, M. (2004). *Lend me your ears. All you need to know about making speeches and presentations.* London: Vermillion.
2006	Anholt, R.R.H. (2006). *Dazzle 'Em With Style. The Art of Oral Scientific Presentation* (2nd ed.). Burlington: Elsevier Academic Press.
2007	Vasile, A., & Mintz, H. (**2000**). *Speak With Confidence: A Practical Guide* (8th ed.). New York [etc.]: Longman.
2008	Tracy, B. (2008). *Speak to win. How to present with power in any situation.* New York: AMACOM.
2009[A]	Khan-Panni, P. (2009). *Stand and Deliver. Leave them stirred, not shaken.* Penryn: Ecademy Press.
2009	Leanne, S. (2009). *Say it like Obama. The power of speaking with purpose and vision.* New York: McGraw-Hill

A.1.2 Dutch-language sub-corpus

Bold-faced year in the reference = a difference between the year of selection and the year of publication of the edition used for the corpus analysis
A = Textbook is part of the selection of prominent works/exceptions (reparation selection)
B = Textbook is a translated work
C = Textbook on general communication (skills) that includes a section on public speaking presenting

Selection year	Reference
1980[B]	Quick, J. (1980). *Spreken in het openbaar.* (Trans.). Amsterdam [etc.]: Intermediair. (Original work: *A Short Book on the Subject of Speaking*, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1978).

Selection year	**Reference**
1982[B]	Blum, K. (1982). *Praktijkboek overtuigend spreken. Technieken, concepten, modellen.* (L.M.A. Sijmons-Vuerhard, Trans.). Amsterdam [etc.]: Intermediair. (Original work: *Rhetorik für Führungskräfte*, Landsberg am Lech: Verlag moderne Industrie, 1981).
1983[B]	Kirchner, B. (1983). *Spreken voor een groep.* (Dekker & Van de Vegt, Trans.). Nijmegen: Dekker & Van de Vegt. (Orginal work: S*prechen vor Gruppen*. Stuttgart: Ernst Klett, 1980).
1983[AB]	Morse, S.P. (**1987**). *Effectief presenteren.* Utrecht: Het Spectrum. Marka Series. (Original work: *Effectief presenteren: handleiding voor het houden van succesvolle presentaties*, Amsterdam [etc.]: Intermediair, 1983).
1985[A]	Tonckens, L. (1985). *Succesvol spreken.* Deventer: Van Loghum Slaterus.
1985[C]	Maks, R., & De Koning, A.M. (1985). *Leergang taalbeheersing voor het HBO: basisboek.* Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
1986[AB]	Krusche, H. (1986). *Neem het woord. Zelfverzekerd in het openbaar*. (C.W.A.J.A. Walraven, Trans.). (2nd ed.). Bussum: Bigot & Van Rossum. (Original work: *Reden und gewinnen*. Geneva: Ariston, 1984).
1986[C]	Boer, de. H. (1986). *Doelmatige werkmethoden voor teksten schrijven, voordrachten houden, notulen maken.* Utrecht: Het Spectrum. Marka Series.
1987[A]	Van Eijk, I. (1987). *De spreekhulp.* Amsterdam: Contact.
1987[C]	Luijk, F. (1987). *Vaardig communiceren.* Leiden: Martinus Nijhoff.
1988	Korswagen, C.J.J. (1988). *Drieluik mondelinge communicatie. I: Gids voor de techniek van het doeltreffend spreken, presenteren en instrueren. Unilaterale communicatie.* Deventer: Van Loghum Slaterus.
1988[C]	Tilanus, C.B. (1988). *Rapporteren/presenteren.* Utrecht: Het Spectrum.
1989	Palm-Hoebé, M., & Palm, H. (1989). *Effectieve zakelijke presentaties. Adviezen en oefenopdrachten*. Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
1991	Van der Meiden, A. (1991). *Over spreken gesproken.* Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
1991[A]	Bloch D., & Tholen L. (1991). *Persoonlijk presenteren.* Alphen aan den Rijn/Deurne: Samsom Bedrijfsinformatie.
1991	Bloch, D., & Tholen, L. (1991). *Praktisch presenteren.* Alphen aan den Rijn/Deurne: Samsom Bedrijfsinformatie.
1992[C]	Claasen-Van Wirdum, A., Stienissen, F., Soerland, C. van, Thobokholt, B., & De Vos-Herremans, A. (1992). *Tekst en toespraak. Een praktische cursus taalbeheersing voor het HBO.* Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
1992[A]	Mertens, V. (1992). *Spreken voor publiek.* Leuven-Apeldoorn: Garant.
1993	Kruijssen, A. (1993). *Spreken voor groot en klein publiek. Voordrachten, toespraken en presentaties: de voorbereiding en de praktijk*. Groningen: BoekWerk.
1994	Eckhardt, L., & IJzermans, T. (1994). *Het woord is nu aan u. Over spreken voor groepen.* (Mens en bedrijf series 5). Zaltbommel: Thema.
1995	Bloch, D. (1995). *Presenteren.* Alphen aan den Rijn/Zaventem: Samsom Bedrijfsinformatie.

Selection year	Reference
1996	Wagenaar, W.A. (1996). *Het houden van een presentatie* (Studeren) (3rd ed.). Rotterdam: NRC Handelsblad.
1997	Spolders, M. (1997). *Het winnende woord. Succesvol argumenteren.* Amsterdam*:* Bert Bakker.
1998[A]	Van der Spek, E. (1998). *Speech op zakformaat. Tips en checklisten voor toespraken en presentaties.* Alphen aan den Rijn/Diegem: Samsom.
1998	Angenent, M., & Van Vilsteren, P.M. (1998). *Presenteren. De basis.* Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
1999	Pietersma, S. (1999). *Presenteren kun je leren.* Arnhem: Angerenstein.
2000[C]	Oomkes, F.R. (2000). *Communicatieleer, een inleiding* (8th rev. ed.). Amsterdam/ Meppel: Boom.
2001	Braas, C., Kat., J., Timmer, G., & Ville, I. (2001). *Presenteren* (Taaltopics). Groningen: Wolters-Noordhoff.
2002 [AC]	Cornelis, L. (2002). *Adviseren met perspectief: rapporten en presentaties maken.* Bussum: Coutinho.
2002[C]	Janssen, D., Jansen, F., Kinkhorst, G., Verhoeven, G., Van den Hurk, J., Lagendijk, M., Van der Loo, M., & Van Steen, P. (2002). *Zakelijke communicatie 1* (4th rev. ed.). Groningen/Houten: Wolters-Noordhoff.
2003[A]	Hilgers, F., & Vriens, J. (2003). *Professioneel presenteren. Handleiding bij het voorbereiden en verzorgen van informatieve en overtuigende presentaties* (2nd ed.). Schoonhoven: Academic Service.
2003[C]	IJzermans, M.G., & Van Schaaijk, G.A.F.M. (2003). *Oefening baart kunst: onderzoeken, argumenteren en presenteren voor juristen* (2nd ed.). Den Haag: Boom Juridische Uitgevers.
2004[C]	Jansen, C.J.M., Steehouder, M., & Gijsen, M. (ed.) (2004). *Professioneel communiceren. Taal- en communicatiegids.* Groningen/Houten: Martinus Nijhoff.
2004	Wiertzema, K., & Jansen, P. (2004). *Spreken in het openbaar* (2nd ed.). Amsterdam: Pearson Education Benelux.
2005[A]	Hertz, B. (2005). *Presenteren van onderzoek*. Meppel: Boom.
2005[C]	Piët, S. (2005). *Het groot communicatiedenkboek.* Amsterdam: FT Prentice Hall.
2006[C]	Steehouder, M., Jansen, C., Maat, K., Van der Staak, J., De Vet, D., Witteveen, M. & Woudstra, E. (2006). *Leren communiceren. Handboek voor mondelinge en schriftelijke communicatie* (5th rev. ed.). Groningen/Houten: Wolters-Noordhoff.
2007	Van der Horst, F. (2007). *Effectief presenteren. Een middel tegen plankenkoorts* (6th rev. ed). Soest: Nelissen.
2008	Gerritsen, S. (2008). *Een goed verhaal. Presenteren, praten, pleiten.* Amsterdam: Nieuwezijds.
2009[B]	Witt, C. (2009). *Echte leiders gebruiken geen powerpoint. Een krachtige visie op presenteren [Real leaders don't do PowerPoint].* (E van Borselen, Trans.). Houten: Het Spectrum. (Original work published 2009).

B.1 Overview of speeches and presentations per corpus

This appendix contains an overview of the speeches and presentations per corpus. If applicable for each presentation or speech per corpus the year, speaker, length, title and event are presented. All speech and presentation texts can be found in Appendix B.2 (online).

B.1.1 Research Presentations Corpus

#	Year	Speaker(s)	Length (words)
1	2008	Wyke Stommel en Tom Koole	3280
2	2008	Priscilla Heynderickx en Sylvain Dieltjens	3969
3	2008	Rein Cozijn	3756
4	2008	Jan-Pieter Verckens, Elizabeth de Groot en Jos Hornikx	3506
5	2008	Lisanne van Weelden	2782
6	2008	Marieke Welle Donker-Kuijer	3190
7	2008	Sanne Elling	3715
8	2008	Bart Deygers	3516
9	2008	Maarten van Leeuwen	2592
10	2008	Jacqueline van Kruiningen	3325
11	2008	Kees de Glopper	3925
12	2008	Els van der Pool en Carel van Wijk	3609
13	2008	Wilbert Spooren	3753
14	2008	Ilse Jansen	3681
15	2008	Marloes van Nistelrooij	2761
16	2008	Maaike Jongenelen	3344

B.1.2 Political Speech Corpus

#	Year	Speaker(s)	Party	Length (words)
1	2010	Stef Blok	VVD (Liberal party)	4404
2	2010	Job Cohen	PvdA (Labour party)	5438
3	2010	Geert Wilders	PVV (Freedom party)	4431
4	2010	Alexander Pechtold	D66 (Liberal Democrats)	3069
5	2011	Stef Blok	VVD (Liberal party)	2856
6	2011	Job Cohen	PvdA (Labour party)	4375
7	2011	Geert Wilders	PVV (Freedom party)	3610
8	2011	Alexander Pechtold	D66 (Liberal Democrats)	2499
9	2012	Mark Rutte	VVD (Liberal party)	226
10	2012	Diederik Samsom	PvdA (Labour party)	370
11	2012	Geert Wilders	PVV (Freedom party)	1063
12	2012	Alexander Pechtold	D66 (Liberal Democrats)	1118

#	Year	Speaker(s)	Party	Length (words)
13	2013	Halbe Zijlstra	VVD (Liberal party)	1374
14	2013	Diederik Samsom	PvdA (Labour party)	2414
15	2013	Geert Wilders	PVV (Freedom party)	1414
16	2013	Alexander Pechtold	D66 (Liberal Democrats)	2171

B.1.3 TED Talk Corpus

#	Year	Speaker(s)	Title	Event	Length (words)
1	2006	Ken Robinson	How schools kill creativity	TED 2006	3144
2	2012	Amy Cuddy	Your body language shapes who you are	TEDGlobal 2012	3620
3	2009	Simon Sinek	How great leaders inspire action	TEDxPuget Sound	2997
4	2010	Brené Brown	The power of vulnerability	TEDxHouston	3088
5	2008	Jill Bolte Taylor	My stroke of insight	TED 2008	2696
6	2009	Pranav Mistry	The thrilling potential of SixthSense technology	TEDIndia 2009	1945
7	2009	Mary Roach	10 things you didn't know about orgasm	TED 2009	2313
8	2006	Tony Robbins	Why we do what we do	TED 2006	4285
9	2009	Dan Pink	The puzzle of motivation	TEDGlobal 2009	2719
10	2007	David Gallo	Underwater astonishments	TED 2007	914
11	2004	Dan Gilbert	The surprising science of happiness	TED 2004	3757
12	2012	Susan Cain	The power of introverts	TED 2012	3251
13	2009	Pattie Maes & Pranav Mistry	Meet the SixthSense interaction	TED 2009	1164
14	2009	Elizabeth Gilbert	Your elusive creative genius	TED 2009	3492
15	2006	Hans Rosling	The best stats you've ever seen	TED 2006	3155
16	2011	Pamela Meyer	How to spot a liar	TEDGlobal 2011	3228

Overview of author's publications

Parts of this dissertation have been previously published. The analysis of public-speaking textbooks described in chapter 2 formed the basis for the analysis carried out in Wackers et al. (2016a; 2016b) and Wackers (2021). Parts of the analysis of public-speaking practice described in chapter 3 have appeared in these three publications and have been adapted in chapter 3.

The experiment on the announcement of the conclusion and circle technique reported on in Section 4.1 has been previously published in Andeweg, De Jong & Wackers (2008; 2009). These publications were adapted and somewhat extended in Section 4.1.

Chapters 2 and 3:

Wackers, M., De Jong, J. & Andeweg, B. (2016a). Structureren om onthouden te worden: Retentietechnieken in presentaties van onderzoekers en toespraken van politici. In D. van de Mieroop, L. Buysse, R. Coesemans & P. Gillaerts (Eds.), *De macht van de taal: Taalbeheersingsonderzoek in Nederland en Vlaanderen* (pp. 295–208). Leuven: Uitgeverij Acco.

Wackers, M., De Jong, J. & Andeweg, B. (2016b). Structure strategies for a memorable speech: the use of rhetorical retention techniques by scholars and politicians. In A. Kampka & K. Molek-Kozakowska (Eds.), *Rhetoric, Knowledge and the Public Sphere* (pp. 76–92). Frankfurt am Main [etc.]: Peter Lang (Studies in Language, Culture and Society 8).

Wackers, M. (2021). Memorable Stories in Science and Popular Science. How Speakers Use Anecdotes in Research Presentations and TED Talks. In O. Kramer & M. Gottschling (Eds.), *Recontextualized Knowledge. Rhetoric – Situation – Science Communication* (pp. 93–117). Berlin: De Gruyter.

Chapter 4 (Section 4.1):

Andeweg, B., De Jong, J., Wackers, M. (2008). 'The end is near'. Effects of announcing the closure of a speech. *Proceedings of the Professional Communication Conference IPCC*, IEEE International, Montreal, 2008, DOI 10.1109/IPCC.2008.4610194

Andeweg, B.A., De Jong, J C.. & Wackers, M.J.Y. (2009). 'Het einde is nabij'. Het effect van slotaankondiging in toespraken op waardering en retentie. In W. Spooren, M. Onrust, & J. Sanders (Eds.). *Studies in Taalbeheersing 3* (pp. 31–42). Assen: Van Gorcum.

Curriculum vitae

Martijn Wackers studied Dutch Language and Culture at Leiden University, where he obtained Master's degrees in Rhetoric & Argumentation (specialisation Taalbeheersing) and Journalism & New Media. Since 2009, he has worked as a lecturer in communicative skills at the Centre for Languages and Academic Skills at Delft University of Technology in The Netherlands, where he teaches courses in presentation skills and (academic) writing skills to BSc, MSc and PhD students of various faculties. In 2012, he embarked on the research project *Making messages memorable* as an external PhD candidate at Leiden University Centre for Linguistics. The project focused on the effects of rhetorical techniques on the audience's information retention. Wackers is co-author of a Dutch-language textbook with evidence-based presentation skills advice (*Presenteren: wat werkt echt en wat echt niet?*, 2012, co-authored by Josje Kuenen).