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A Comparison Of Two Approaches To Teaching Public Speaking At The Community College Level

Harvey Allen Godorov
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

GODOROV, HARVEY ALLEN

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A Comparison of Two Approaches to Teaching Public Speaking at the Community College Level

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The dissertation of Harvey Allen Godorov is approved:

Advisor

Examining Committee Member

Examining Committee Member

Graduate Faculty Representative

Graduate Dean

University of Nevada,

Las Vegas

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

There is research evidence to indicate that average Americans spend about 70 per cent of their active hours communicating verbally, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, in that order. In other words, each of us spends about 10-12 hours a day, every day, performing verbal communicating behaviors.[1]

Speech-the faculty of oral communication-is virtually as essential to an individual's living processes and experiences as are the faculties of seeing and walking; Hance, et al, believe it is even more so, for without speech, they contend, an individual must remain in almost total isolation from any kind of interaction within his particular environment. Without speech, or any type of vocalization, he can verbalize no thought, no wish, no need, no feeling to his fellow human being.[2]

Our reliance on oral expression probably dates back to the very beginning of man when sounds such as grunts and

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[1] David K. Berlo, The Process of Communication: An Introduction to Theory and Practice, (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1960), p.1.

[2] Kenneth G. Hance, David C. Ralph, and Milton J. Wiksell, Principles of Speaking, (Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, 1962), pp. 3-4.

other primitive verbal utterances created simple communicative expressions of need. However, it was not until early Greek society that oral expression began to be looked upon as an important requisite of the classical mind.[3]

Both the mechanics of ancient civilization and its primary forms of expression remained oral. The political system, for example, operated through the direct speech of the citizens themselves, to their magistrates and of the magistrates to their administrative assistants. Writing was used to record a vote, a law, a resolution, but rarely to achieve it in the first place. Political agitation was usually accomplished or defeated by verbal interaction. The judicial system was similarly oral: verbal complaints were brought before magistrates, who held hearings; the litigants pleaded their own cases in public before a jury of citizens.[4]

The significance of rhetoric and oratory in Greek and Roman intellectual life played a central role in ancient education. In Hellenistic times it constituted the curriculum of what we would regard as secondary schools and acquired an important place in advanced education. Boys had already learned to read and write, had learned arithmetic, and in Greece had had musical and gymnastic training when, at about the age of fourteen, they were sent to the school of the rhetorician for theoretical instruction in public speaking

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[3] George Kennedy, The Art of Persuasion In Greece, (Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1963), pp.3-4.

[4] Ibid., P.4.

and for practical exercises. They might continue the latter for the rest of their lives. In the Fourth and Fifth Century B.C. formal education rarely extended beyond elementary school, but instruction in public speaking was an important part of the teaching of the sophists; it was basic to the educational system of the Isocrates; and it was even taught by Aristotle.[5]

Communication, especially in democratic societies, plays a major role in a citizen's ability to function effectively. Success or failure can sometimes depend on one's ability to communicate and speak competently. Consequently, the teaching of effective communication skills has traditionally been a strong concern of educators and behaviorists with both groups showing leanings toward individualized approaches.

According to Glaser, individualization of instruction refers to the adaptation of instructional procedures to the requirements of the individual learner.[6]

It is most difficult to trace the history of individualized instruction, but it too shows evidence of going back to the Greeks and Socrates. Seventeenth Century educator-reformer Comenius stated that a student should not be

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[5] Ibid., p. 7.

[6] Robert Glaser, The New Pedagogy, Learning Research and Development Center, University of Pittsburgh, Revised August 1967, p.1.

asked to proceed until he is prepared to do so, which is one characteristic of individualized instruction.[7]

Early in this century the work of Washburne and Parkhurst was concerned with "an individual system of education," and in 1926 Dean William S. Gray and his associates concluded that "sufficient evidence has been cited to make it difficult to justify complacent adherence to traditional methods."[8]

Over the years, political expediency and various technical difficulties seem to have resulted in something of a compromise between individualized instruction and traditional practice. As Cremin points out "...most frequently this took the form of dividing the students in each grade into sections of slow, average, and rapid learners on the basis of group intelligence tests. This practice presents some difficulty, however, since the aptitudes and achievement of any given student may vary considerably from subject to subject."[9]

Glaser states that there are two principal areas of research and development in implementing individualized

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[7] B. F. Skinner, "The Technology of Teaching," Operant Conditioning in the Classroom, Carl E. Pitts, Editor (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1971), p. 36.

[8] Glaser, P. 1.

[9] Ibid., pp. 1-2.

instruction. The first is the psychological study of the interaction between individual differences variables and learning treatment. The second area involves experimentation in school environments with strategies for adopting to individual differences. This latter includes the development of appropriate instructional materials (including computerized classrooms) and testing instruments. The goal of such development is to produce a school environment which is highly responsive to the differences among students.[10]

Individualization, Glaser believes, requires the fine honing of instructional procedures so that a student seeks and achieves mastery proceeding along a path to a large extent dictated by his own requirements.[11]

One of the more recent innovations in the area of individualized instruction has resulted from the work of social scientists at the Learning Research Development Center at the University of Pittsburgh. This development is called "Individually Prescribed Instruction," and its major premise is a carefully developed technology, based on specifications that are delineated in terms of behavioral based educational objectives.[12]

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[10] Ibid., p. 4.

[11] Ibid., p. 5.

[12] H. E. Mitzel, "The Impending Instruction Revolution," Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. LI, No. 8, April 1970, p. 435.

Lindvall and Bolvin state:

> One of the basic assumptions underlying the development of individually prescribed instruction is the idea that learning is something ultimately personal and individual. Learning may take place within a social context and many types of instruction are traditionally carried out with groups of students. But it is the individual who learns, not the group. This, in turn, dictates that instructional plans should be prepared for the individual, not for the group. In a conventional classroom, instruction is usually planned as though the classroom group were an organic unit and as though this unit were doing the learning. Obviously, if learning is individual, this type of learning cannot be of maximum effectiveness. Furthermore, ability grouping or other attempts to organize subgroups within the classroom which are more homogeneous than the total group will not really solve the problem; consequently, instruction must be individualized.[13]

Glaser and others feel strongly about the relevance of individualized instruction for future considerations in education supporting the need for experimentation of the situation. Such educational research involving related individualized instructional methods and processes could contribute to greater awareness of more effective techniques and attitudes related to more effectively meeting the different needs of different students.

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[13] C. M. Lindvall and John O. Bolvin, "Programmed Instruction in the Schools: An Application of Programming Principles in 'Individually Prescribed Instruction'," Sixty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II, 1967, p. 233.

Alternative techniques for arriving at individualization for the classroom are considered by Bolvin who states:

> One major problem, the discussion of individualization of instruction, centers around the variety of types of school programs that are identified as providing for individualization. Some educators interpret individualization as simply providing tutorial assistance for pupils and/or providing for independent study. At the same time, there are a few interpreting individualization to mean the planning and implementation of an individualized program of studies tailored to each student's learning needs based on his competencies and his characteristics as a learner.[14]

This study will concern itself with teaching strategies that determine the effectiveness of different approaches that permit speech students in a community college setting to learn at their own individual capacity and pace within the classroom.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Students may achieve greater success with one method of instructional technique as opposed to another. Students growth today, as in the past, is manifest at different or varying rates of speed. While one student may be able to grasp concepts quickly, others grasp those same concepts more slowly.

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[14] John O. Bolvin, "Implications of the Individualization of Instruction for Curriculum and Instructional Design," Audiovisual Instruction, March 1968, Vol. 13, p. 238.

In researching the literature, there appears to be no significant information that deals with the question of greater student success in the basic speech course in a community college through a comparison of the two methods of teaching - traditional versus individualized.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to compare two types of instruction to determine whether one approach or method is superior in promoting student achievement in the basic speech course in a community college setting. The study was planned to provide answers to the following question:

To what extent do students, who are exposed to two different teaching/learning approaches, differ in terms of their cognitive achievement in oral communication?

STATEMENT OF THE HYPOTHESES

Null Hypothesis. Stated in null form for purpose of statistical analysis the following hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

Ho: There is no significant difference in achievement among students receiving Treatment I (the traditional or classroom/lecture method of instruction) and Treatment II (individualized instruction method of instruction using laboratory/audio-tapes with no student-teacher interaction) as measured by the post achievement test.

Research Hypothesis. The research hypothesis for this study was as follows:

> Ho: There will be a significant difference in student achievement among students receiving Treatment I and Treatment II as measured by the Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design used in this study was the Nonequivalent Control Group Design which is as follows:

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This design attempts to compensate for the differences between the nonequivalent experimental and control groups by a procedure of matching, when random assignment is not possible. This quasi-experimental research design was selected because it was appropriate for the environment and the population available. It would have been preferable to use randomization in the selection of the population but this was not possible with only intact classes available for use in the study.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limitations were placed upon this study:

1. This study was limited to students enrolled in Oral Communications/Speech 101 during the Spring Semester of the 1979 school year at Clark County Community College, Las Vegas, Nevada.

2. The findings of this study were limited to the extent that the instruments used are valid and reliable as well as to the extent that the students understood the procedures and answered the questions to the best of their ability.

3. The study was limited by the scheduled time of the experiment, two weeks of the Spring 1979 Semester, and to the extent that the students performed during this period as they would perform at other times during the semester.

4. The study was also limited by the type of statistics used. The Nonequivalent Control Group Design was chosen because random selection of the subjects used in the study was not possible due to the availability of intact classes only. The Nonequivalent Control Group Design attempts to compensate for differences between the experimental and control groups by a procedure of matching, when random assignment to treatments is not possible as was the case in this particular study.

Any inferences made from the findings of this study should be made only after considering the population and the study's limitations. The greater the deviation from this study, the less the possibility for an accurate comparison.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Behavioral objectives refer to, "...a collection of words or symbols describing an educational intent. An objective will communicate an intent to the degree that describes what the learner will be doing when demonstrating his achieve-

ment and how it is known when he is doing it.[15]

Performance/criterion-referenced evaluations are those evaluations "which are used to ascertain an individual's status with respect to some criterion, i.e., performance standard."[16]

Instructional system design "...is the process of specifying particular environmental situations which cause the learner to interact in such a way that specified change occurs in his behavior." Instructional design further includes the process of monitoring a student's interaction with this structured environment to enable the designer to assess the effectiveness of a particular design.[17]

Module is a self-contained instructional unit with a stated set of objectives, learning activities, and evaluative assessment.[18]

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15 Robert F. Mager, Preparing Instructional Objectives, (Palo Alto, California: Fearon Publishers, 1962, p.53.

16 W. James Popham, "Implications of Criterion-Referenced Measurement, Journal of Education Measurement," VI (Spring 1969), pp. 1-9.

17 M. David Messell (ed.), Instructional Design: Readings (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc. 1971), p.1.

18 Modcom: Modules in Speech Communication, (Palo Alto, California: Science Research Associates, Inc., College Division, 1975), p. 1.

Treatment I is an instructional process whereby learners are provided specific content through lecture/laboratory instructional methods. This is the control group.

Treatment II is an instructional process whereby learners are provided specific content through individualized criterion-referenced, self-paced instructional method. This is the experimental group.

ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

The following assumptions were inherent in the investigation:

1. A gain in student knowledge is a desirable outcome of a public speaking program.

2. A reduction in instructional time and a reduction in teacher involvement as well as time spent in evaluation of student work is desirable if no loss of learning results.

3. The instructor who administered the treatment did not prejudice the study.

4. Students in Treatment II did not share their self-paced learning material with the students of Treatment I.

5. The time span of the experiment was adequate to allow for cognitive change involving the type of instruction received.

6. If, after inspection of the proposed co-variates, the treatment groups are found to have no significant difference, then any significant difference in cognitive growth will be assumed to be due to the differences in treatment.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Identifying and meeting the needs of the student is a challenge that faces all speech teachers. This challenge is amplified when considering that there may be slow, average, accelerated, handicapped, and/or disadvantaged students in

the class at the same time. Many times instructors cannot meet the needs of all of these students.

When a student varies in one way or another from the class norm, a challenge to the speech instructor is created. As the number of students who vary from the norm increases, the demand upon the time and ability of the instructor becomes greater. At some point the effectiveness of a speech instructor begins to diminish, causing a decrease in the learning for some students. This is a situation that instructors must work to avoid.

Therefore, alternate learning modes for the student must be explored that allow the students to proceed at their own rates of development and still permit interaction with the teacher so that evaluation and feedback can be provided to help motivate and inform the student.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This study is concerned with a comparison of a self-instructional competency-based instructional treatment with a lecture/laboratory, normative-based instructional treatment. The basis for this comparison is student cognitive change with respect to subject matter covered.

In reviewing the literature, the following areas were examined: (1) Higher Education Instruction, (2) The Community College Student and Communication Instruction, (3) The Basic Community College Speech Course, (4) Public Speaking Evaluation, (5) Theory of Learning, (6) Individualization of Instruction,(7) Programmed Instruction, (8) Programmed Instruction Versus Video-Taped Lecture,and (9) Criterion Referenced Measurement.

Higher Education Instruction. Anderson and Ikenberry contend that those concerned with fundamental change in higher educational institutions should begin with an examination of the characteristics of the optimum instructional system with special attention to maximizing the relationship between the characteristics of the system and the generally accepted principles of human learning. Required, they say, is the development of a range of alternative instructional

systems in which the general characteristics or specifications of the system can be made explicit, in which the performance of various aspects of the instructional system can be evaluated, and as appropriate, modified. They propose the following set of specifications:

1. The instructional system shall be independent of time restrictions in the sense that individuals shall be able to progress at their own rates, shall be able to begin the learning sequence when it seems educationally desirable, and shall be able to continue the instructional process until mastery has been achieved.

2. The objectives of instruction shall be relevant to the immediate and long-term needs of the learner, and the learner shall be cognizant of this relevance.

3. Educational objectives shall be stated in unambiguous terms which make clear the intellectual competencies to be developed by the learner.

4. The instructional system shall maximize student active involvement in the learning process.

5. The instructional system shall provide accurate, timely and informative feedback to the learner regarding his progress toward learning goals.

6. The instructional system shall be designed to maximize the principles of positive reinforcement and eliminate or minimize those aspects known or suspected to be adverse to the learner.

7. The instructional system shall insure appropriate sequencing of learning experiences, shall be capable of diagnosis of learning deficiencies, and adjust the instructional sequence appropriately.

8. The instructional system shall solicit reliable and timely information on individual student learning progress and shall make adaptations appropriate to the individual learner.

9. In the development of instructional goals and processes, the instructional system shall take into account the total environment in which the student learns.

10. The instructional system shall have a recognizable "style," a cognitive structure sufficiently obvious to provide a basis for student choice among institutions, to provide meaning or relevance to learning, and to encourage continuous commitment to learning throughout life.[19]

The Community College Student and Communication Instruction. Researchers in speech communication have been largely unsuccessful in identifying with acceptable levels of precision the factors associated with academic success of college students in basic speech communication courses. Thompson points out that in studies involving the prediction of success in the basic course, two dependent variables have traditionally been investigated - course grade and public speaking ability.[20]

In one of the earliest studies of academic success in the basic speech course, Rathskopf found that such intellective measures as the Freshman Entrance Examination and the Pressery X-O Tests correlated .53 with student grades in basic speech courses at the University of Iowa.[21]

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19 Anderson, G. Lester and Stanley Ikenberry, The Changing College Curricular Issues and Implication Instructional Systems in Higher Education: Specifications for Indivdualization, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Center for the Study of Higher Education, January, 1970.

20 Wayne N. Thompson, ed., Quantitative Research in Public Address and Communication. (New York: Random House, 1967), p. 18, Thompson suggests, "By the normal statistical standards no satisfactory means exist for predicting performance in speech class."

21 Horace Rathskopf, "Graduate Study and Research: The Relation of Certain Group Tests to the Prediction of the Ability of Students in an Elementary Course in Speech," Quarterly Journal of Speech 15 (April 1929): pp. 295-296.

A dependent variable that has traditionally been investigated as a form of academic success in basic speech communication courses was public speaking ability. Concern for the measurement of public speaking ability in the basic speech communications course was prompted, according to Gibson, by the fact that a substantial number of colleges and universities continue to stress public speaking, rather than interpersonal communication, in the basic course.[22]

The Basic Community College Speech Course.

Strain and Wyong suggest that the basic speech course in a community college should meet the following criteria:

1. It should reflect the needs, interests, and experiences of the student.

2. It should offer each student avenues for developing communication skills that will be beneficial to his personal development and effective to his daily interaction with others.

3. The course must deal with the affective as well as the cognitive area of instruction.

4. It should utilize diagnostic tools to determine the student's communication levels.

5. It should recognize variations in learning styles and provide individual instruction.

6. Units of learning should be short and sequentially structured.

7. The instructor should be emphatic and willing

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22 James Gibson et al., "The First Course in Speech: A survey of United States Colleges and Universities," The Speech Teacher 19 (January 1970): pp. 13-20.

to use strategies that meet the needs and learning styles of the student.[23]

Public Speaking Evaluation. There seems to be a lack of reliability among various instruments used to measure public speaking ability. Additionally, the research involving rating scale development accentuates the need for greater precision directed toward the refinement of methods used to assess public speaking ability. Burgoon suggests that the apparent lack of success of other researchers in measuring with precision the speaking ability of college students should not, however, be viewed at the measurement of public speaking ability. Rather, he believes, research should proceed on the assumption that while some error is inevitable and will continue to exist in instruments used to assess public speaking ability, error can be minimized to the point where speaking skill can, in fact, be measured with more suitable alternatives for reliable assessment.[24]

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23 Barbara Strain and Patricia Wysong, "Teaching The Community College Student: Methods and Procedures for a Developmental Course in Speech Communication," a Report of the Denver Conference on Speech Communication in the Community-Junion College, November 6-9, 1975.

24 Michael Burgoon, "Relationship Between Willingness to Manipulate Others and Success in Two Different Types of Basic Speech Communication Courses," The Speech Teacher 20 (September 1971): p. 179.

Theory of Learning. Learning, with respect to the educational process, is defined by Glaser and Nitko as,

> the acquisition of behavior brought about by the school environment, the instructional means designed by the educator, and the educational system.[25]

When learning occurs in the ideal situation, the learner and the instructional environment interact thus changing both the environment and the learner.

Hilgard and Bower describe their provisional definition of learning as,

> the process by which an activity originates or is changed through reacting to an encountered situation, provided that the characteristics of the change in activity cannot be explained on the basis of native response tendencies, maturation, or temporary states of the organism (e.g.,fatigue, drugs, etc.)[26]

Though definitions of learning do exist, Hilgard and Bower state that with the respect to the theory of learning;

> The construction of a fully satisfactory theory of learning is likely to remain for a long time an uncompleted task. Hilgard and Bower attribute part of the problem to the theorists that prefer one type

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25 Robert Glaser and Anthony J. Nitko, "Measurement in Learning and Instruction," Educational Measurement, Robert L. Thorndike, ed., Second Edition: Chapter 17, (American Council on Education, Washington. D.C., 1971) p.625.

26 Ernest R. Hilgard and Gordon H. Bower, Theories of Learning (Third Edition; New York: Appleton-Century, Crofts, 1966), p.2.

> of learning situation over another and as a result concentrate their efforts on their areas of interest, neglecting the other learning situations.[27]

Glaser espouses that there are two learning situations that exist, the "adaptive" and the selective." [28] Glaser differentiates these two types of learning situations when he writes:

> selective mode of education is characterized by minimal variation in conditions which the individuals are expected to learn.[29]

Glaser contrasts the selective mode and the adaptive mode by further writing that,

> an adaptive mode of education assumes that the educational environment can provide for a wide range and a variety of instructional methods and opportunities for success.[30]

It would appear, a main problem of education is that educators have created a selective educational mode while they strive for an adaptive mode.

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27 Ibid., pp. 13-14.

28 Robert Glaser, "Individuals and Learning: The New Aptitudes," Educational Researcher, June 1972, p. 6.

29 Ibid., p. 6.

30 Ibid., p. 6.

Bruner,[31] on the other hand, has contrasted the theory of learning to the theory of instruction by pointing out that a theory of learning is descriptive, whereas a theory of instruction is prescriptive, in the sense that the theory of instruction sets forth specifying the most effective way of achieving knowledge or mastering skills. A theory of learning describes, after the fact, the conditions under which some behavior was acquired. A theory of instruction is a normative theory in that it sets up a criterion and then states the conditions for meeting it.

Glaser and Resnich further point out that:

> Groen & Atkinson and Atkinson & Paulson have indicated one possible way of going from a description of the learning process to a prescription for optimizing learning. They consider the optimization task to be clearly distinguished from finding the appropriate theoretical description in the first place. Nevertheless, a fundamental aspect of prescriptive procedures for the optimizing of learning is some description of hypothesis of the underlying learning processes involved.[32]

The literature of learning theory, as Glaser and Resnic further write,

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31 J. S. Bruner, On Cognitive Growth: I, II. In Studies in Cognitive Growth, J. S. Bruner, et al., editors, (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966), pp. 1-67.

32 Robert Glaser and Lauren B. Resnick, "Instructional Psychology," Annual Review of Psychology, Vol. 23, 1972, p. 242.

> has shown an increasing concern for the proposition that research on individual differences in learning is of fundamental importance for further progress. From the point of view of education, there is a long-standing desire to design instructional systems that are 'individualized' and to provide educational alternatives for the various needs and talents of the learner.[33]

Lindvall and Bolvin, in their research on programed instruction for the Individually Prescribed Instruction research project at the University of Pittsburgh, state:

> One of the basic assumptions underlying the development of Individually Prescribed Instruction is the idea that learning is something that is ultimately personal and individual. Learning takes place only on an individual basis; consequently, instruction must be individualized.[34]

Accepting the theory that learning occurs on an individual basis one feasible method of presenting information to be learned would be through an individualized system of instruction.

Individualization of Instruction. Individualization of instruction takes form in a variety of different ways, for example, Skinner's teaching machines, Learning Research and Development Center's Individually Prescribed Instruction and Programed Instruction, just to name a few. In an attempt to simply define what is meant by individualization of instruction Glaser states,

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[33] Ibid., p. 252.

[34] Lindvall and Bolvin, op. cit., p. 233.

> individualization of instruction refers to the adaptation of instructional procedures to the requirements of the individual learner.[35]

Bolvin goes on to say that,

> one major problem, the discussion of individualization of instruction, centers around the variety of types of school programs that are identified as providing for individualization. Some educators interpret individualization as simply providing tutorial assistance for pupils and/or providing for independent study. At the same time, there are a few interpreting individualization to mean the planning and implementation of individualized program of studies tailored to each student's learning needs based on his competencies and his characteristics as a learner.[36]

Whatever definition one adheres to, as Ferguson states,

> accommodating instruction to the specific needs of individuals is paramount among the goals of recent innovations in education.[37]

A rationale for individualization of instruction has been established by many researchers. Wang states that,

> The Self-Schedule System is designed with the rationale that the adequacy and the effectiveness of an instructional-learning management system is the key, not only to successful implementation of any educational process designed to adapt to the learning needs of the individual student, but more importantly, to

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35 Glaser, "The New Pedagogy," op. cit., p. 242.

36 Bolvin, op. cit., p. 252.

37 Richard L. Ferguson, "Computer-Assisted Criterion-Referenced Measurement," Learning Research and Development Center, University of Pittsburgh, March 1970, p. 1.

> interact with, to manage, and to control the learning environment.[38]

Bolvin adds,

> some of the factors underlying this (the development of individualized instruction) emphasis would have to include (1) the introduction of programed instruction, (2) the development of non-graded and team-teaching programs, (3) the wider application of the use of computers, (4) the changing technology and its application to educational problems, and (5) and the recent involvement by subject matter scholars and behavioral scientists in the more practical problems of education.[39]

In making decisions regarding the technique and materials to use in individualizing instruction for an intact class, several considerations must be made. When programs are developed with individualization in mind, they necessitate restructuring the intact classroom unit. The reason for this is that different students in the class require varying instructional conditions and subject matter at diverse levels.[40] Unfortunately, most programs are designed at first to use individualized materials in intact classrooms, requiring a

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38 Margaret C. Wang, "The Rationale and Design of the Self-Schedule System," Learning Research and Development Center, University of Pittsburgh, 1974.

39 Bolvin, op. cit. p. 242.

40 Robert Glaser, "Individual Differences in Learning," Individualized Curriculum and Instruction, Proceedings of the Third Invitational Conference on Elementary Education, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, 1970, p. 17.

success under detrimental conditions, to preclude a more extensive reorganization.[41] Nevertheless, the success of individualized instruction has been seen many times. These successes have been in a diverse variety of subject matter area using just as diverse a variety of individualized delivery systems.

In a research study comparing individualized instruction with the traditional lecture-discussion presentation, McCue[42] concluded that students will achieve the established criterion level more often when exposed to the individualized instruction than when exposed to the traditional lecture-discussion presentation. The researcher further concluded that a higher level of achievement of cognitive informational content will be attained with the use of individualized instruction.

Harrington,[43] on the other hand, found no statistically significant difference when an individualized self-

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41 Robert Glaser, James Reynolds, and Margret Fullick, "Studies of the use of Programmed Instruction in the Intact Classroom," Psychology in the Schools, Vol. 3, No. 4, October 1966, pp. 318-319.

42 McCue, op. cit., pp. 49-50.

43 F. W. Harrington, "Development of Self-Instructional Package on Cooperative Education," Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, Columbia, Ohio, 1970.

instruction package was used to assist pre-service teacher/ coordinators of cooperative vocational education develop selected skill.

Programmed Instruction. In 1962, Baker, in an experiment at Purdue University, probed the question of programmed instruction in the beginning public speaking course at the school. During the study, experimental subjects were exposed to programmed presentations of the oral assignments; control subjects were exposed to traditional lecture-discussion presentations. The information tests were then administered to all subjects. T - tests revealed that the experimental subjects learned significantly more information than did the control subject.[44]

The information tests were subjected to item analysis procedures, and produced reliability coefficients (split-half) of .84± .09, .87± .07, and .90± .02 respectively.

Stated in the null form, hypotheses investigated during the main experiment were: (1) in terms of the recall of information relating to the oral assignments, there is no significant difference in teaching effectiveness resulting from programmed presentations of the assignments and traditional lecture-discussion presentations, and (2) in

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[44] Eldon Emerson Baker, "Programmed Instruction in the Beginning Public Speaking Course: An Investigation of the Scrambled Book System of Programming Oral Assignments," an unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Purdue University, 1966.

terms of peer ratings of classroom speeches during the oral assignments, there is no significant difference in teaching effectiveness resulting from programmed presentations of the assignments and traditional lecture-discussion presentations.[45]

Programmed Instruction Versus Video-taped Lectures. Amato measured the relative effectiveness of programmed instruction and video-taped lectures as methods of presenting public speaking lecture material. A 45-minute lecture on outlining and speech organization was recorded on video tape. Two forms of a 62-frame program was constructed using the identical material as that of the video-taped lecture. One form of the program (constructed response program) consisted of frames in which the critical words in question or statements were deleted, and in response to which the student was required to construct a written answer. The other form (reading program) consisted of the same questions and statements as the constructed response program, but with the critical words underlined. In this form the student simply read each frame. The video-taped lecture and the programs were presented to 223 subjects enrolled in the basic public speaking course at Michigan State University. The subjects were assigned at random to one of seven groups (six experimental and one control). The control and experimental conditions were:

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[45] Ibid., p. 2-3.

terms of peer ratings of classroom speeches during the oral assignments, there is no significant difference in teaching effectiveness resulting from programmed presentations of the assignments and traditional lecture-discussion presentations.[45]

Programmed Instruction Versus Video-taped Lectures. Amato measured the relative effectiveness of programmed instruction and video-taped lectures as methods of presenting public speaking lecture material. A 45-minute lecture on outlining and speech organization was recorded on video tape. Two forms of a 62-frame program was constructed using the identical material as that of the video-taped lecture. One form of the program (constructed response program) consisted of frames in which the critical words in question or statements were deleted, and in response to which the student was required to construct a written answer. The other form (reading program) consisted of the same questions and statements as the constructed response program, but with the critical words underlined. In this form the student simply read each frame. The video-taped lecture and the programs were presented to 223 subjects enrolled in the basic public speaking course at Michigan State University. The subjects were assigned at random to one of seven groups (six experimental and one control). The control and experimental conditions were:

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[45] Ibid., p. 2-3.

TV. Subjects in this condition viewed the video-taped lecture.

CR: Subjects in this condition worked through the constructed response program.

R: Subjects in this condition worked through the reading program.

TVC: Subjects viewed the video-taped lectures and then worked through the reading program.

C-R: Subjects first worked through the constructed response program and then the reading program.

C: Subjects in the control group were given the posttest.

Subjects using the programs were instructed to indicate the time they began and finished working on them. Following the completion of the learning task, subjects in those groups that used the programs were also given an 8-item questionnaire to fill out anonymously. Three measures were recorded: (1) a posttest score--a measure of amount learned; (2) a time score--the amount of time subjects took to learn; and (3) an attitude measure--the reaction to the learning task.

Three analyses of variance and two Scheffe Tests were computed to evaluate the significance or the differences among the posttest means of the seven groups. Critical ratios were computed to test significant differences among time scores. Questionnaire responses were not tested statistically but reported as percentages.

The results of the study tend to indicate that:

1. Programmed instruction is a more effective and efficient method of presenting public speaking material than video-taped lectures.

2. Reading programs are as effective as, and far more efficient than constructed response programs in presenting public speaking material.

3. Combinations of programmed instruction and video-taped lectures, while taking much more time, do not increase the total amount of learning beyond that acquired when programs are used alone.

4. Although students feel that programmed instruction is a more effective and easier method of learning than video-taped lectures, they do not prefer it as the sole source of instruction.

5. Students have a strong preference for using both programmed instruction and video-taped lectures as methods of presenting public speaking material.[46]

Criterion-Referenced Measurement. The measurement of achievement can be placed within a continuum of knowledge acquisition that ranges from no gain in proficiency to perfect performance.[47]

According to Glaser,[48] the degree to which the students' achievement resembled desired performance at any specified level is specified by a criterion-referenced measure of students' performance. The standard against which a student's performance is compared is the behavior which defines each point along the achievement continuum.

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[46] Phillip P. Amato, "A Comparative Study of Programmed Instruction and Video-Taped Lectures in Public Speaking," an unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Michigan State University, 1963.

[47] Robert Glaser, "Instructional Technology and Measurement of Learning Outcomes," (Educational Technology Publications, 1971), p. 7, reprinted from American Psychologist, 1968, 18, pp. 5-9-521.

[48] Ibid., p. 521.

Criterion levels are placed at any desired point along this continuum. It is in this sense that measures of proficiency can be referenced by a criterion. In contrast, the normative-referenced tests are designed to produce test scores suitable for ranking individuals on the ability measured by the test.[49]

Individualized instruction required some type of measurement whether it be criterion-referenced or normative-referenced. Millman[50] states that when instruction is individualized, normative-referenced procedures are inappropriate for determining progress of students. It is not possible to tell a normative-referenced test from a criterion-referenced test by looking at it.[51]

A major distinction between criterion-based and normative-based evaluation is pointed out by Glaser. Since criterion-referenced tests are specifically structured to obtain information that is interpretable in terms of specified performance standards, this means that performance standards be established prior to test construction.

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49 Ronald K. Hambleton, "Testing and Decision-Making Procedured for Selected Individualized Instructional Programs," Review of Educational Research, Vol. 44, no. 4, p. 373.

50 Jason Millman, "Reporting Student Progress: "A Case for Criterion-Referenced Marking System," Phi Delta Kappan, LII (December 1970), pp. 226-230.

51 Popham, op, cit., p. 6.

This also means that the purpose of testing is to ascertain the individual's status with respect to the established standards. "Tests constructed for ascertaining the indiviv-ual's status with respect to established standards yield measurements for an individual that can be interpreted without referencing these measurements to other individuals, i.e., a norm-group."[52] These tests are an important distinction in determining whether or not a test is criterion-referenced or normative-referenced.[53]

Summary

This chapter included a brief summary of the general and research literature related to research problem. The research literature review was to present and clarify the theoretical rationale of the problem and to inform the reader of the literature and research reviewed for this paper.

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[52] Robert Glaser, "A Criterion-referenced Test," Criterion-referenced Measurement, James Popham, ed., p. 43.

[53] Ibid., p. 43.

CHAPTER III

PREPARING FOR AND CONDUCTING THE EXPERIMENT

Chapter I included a statement of the problem and purpose of the study as well as limitations and assumptions under which the study was conducted. In addition, definitions of terms were presented. Chapter I also included the sources of data used, the method of study, the significance of the study and a statement of the hypothesis that was tested.

A brief summary of the professional literature related to this investigation was presented in Chapter II. The major areas reviewed were (1) Higher Education Instruction, (2) The Community College Student and Communication Instruction, (3) The Basic Community College Speech Course, (4) Public Speaking Evaluation, (5) Theory of Learning, (6) Individualization of Instruction, (7) Programmed Instruction, (8) Programmed Instruction versus Video-Taped Lectures, and (9) Criterion-Referenced Measurement.

This chapter includes a description of the procedures employed, and the administration of the following materials: (1) The Course, (2) Course Objectives, (3) Unit Objectives, and (4) Pre and Posttest. Also included in this chapter is a discussion of the procedures utilized in conducting the study.

The population inferred in this study was any group of similar size and composition enrolled in a basic oral communications course at the community college level.

Design of the Study. The statistical design that was used was the Nonequivalent Control Group Design and is graphically represented as follows:[54]

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According to Campbell and Stanley, one of the most widespread experimental designs in educational research involves an experimental group and a control group both given a pretest and a posttest, but in which the control group and the experimental group do not have pre-treatment sampling equivalence. Rather, the groups constitute naturally assembled collectives such as classrooms, as similar as availability permits, but yet not so similar that one can dispense with the pretest. The assignment of the treatment variable to one group or the other is assumed to be random and under the experimenter's control.[55]

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[54] Donald T. Campbell and Julian C. Stanley, Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research, (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1963), p. 47.

[55] Ibid., p. 47.

The Nonequivalent Control Group Design is not to be confused with the Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design, in which subjects are assigned randomly from a common population to the experimental or the control group. The Nonequivalent Control Group Design should be recognized as well worth using in many instances in which other designs such as the Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design, the Solomon Four-Group Design, and the Posttest-Only Control Group Design, are impossible.

Campbell and Stanley further believe that the more similar the experimental and control groups are in their recruitment, and the more this similarity is confirmed by the scores on the pretest, the more effective control becomes.[56]

The Test Instrument. The instrument used to measure the effect of the treatment was the Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination. The examination was designed to measure achievement in a speaker-audience environment.

Franklin Knower has pointed out that speech paper and pencil tests should serve the purpose of either a teaching device or a reassuring instrument, and that if it is used to reassure achievement, it should provide "a comprehensive measuring device for the total."[57]

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56 Ibid., pp. 47-48.

57 Franklin Knower, "The Analysis and Validation of Test and Test Items in Speech," Speech Teacher, (September 1961), pp. 228-229.

A test which appears to fulfill these requirements in a speaker-audience oriented college class is the Patton Speech Content Examination printed by the University of Kansas Communication Research Center. The examination's primary purpose is to reassure knowledge, but it is highly correlated with attitude and ability to deliver speeches: "the total of the measured course performance."[58]

The examination was developed by Bobby R. Patton in 1966 by combining two tests that purported to measure knowledge in speech communication: The Wisconsin Test of Speech Attainment, and the Iowa Test of Speech.

In order to expedite the administration of the examination and reduce the amount of time required for the taking of the examination, Robert Bohlken and Kim Griffin abridged the examination to 30 items.[59] To make the examination more universal in nature, the abridgement was accomplished by administering the examination to 120 college students, who had had the basic speech course, chosen at random at two different institutions. An item analysis was performed and 30 items were chosen which were in the difficulty range of

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58 Robert Bohlkin and Kim Griffin, "A Convenient and Valid Measurement for Achievement in Speech," A Paper Presented at the Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association (56th, New Orleans, December 1970), p. 1.

59 Ibid., p. 2.

.40 to .60, above the discrimination level of +.35, and within the range of subject matter thought by sixteen speech instructors to be covered in speaker-audience oriented speech courses. The selected 30 test items include two questions on stasis or propositions, eight questions on speech organization, six dealing with reasoning, three questions on logical support or proof, five questions about language and semantics, two on bodily activity, one question pertaining to voice, two on ethos, and one on the speech communication process.

Robert Bohlken, in a paper presented to the Speech Communication Association's Annual Convention in 1970, described the Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination as a convenient, reliable and valid measure of achievement and potential achievement in a speaker-audience oriented speech course. It appears to reflect the Gestalt of achievement in skill, knowledge, and attitude. The examination was administered to over 1500 students in the basic speaker-audience oriented course at three institutions of higher learning. Using the pretest-posttest design, the studies showed a consistent, significant difference in the pretest and posttest scores at the .01 level of confidence.[60]

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[60] Ibid., p. 4.

Selection of Subjects. The subjects to be involved in the study were selected according to the following considerations:

1. Four intact oral communications classes were available.

2. Within these classes individuals were matched using the following criteria to create pairs:

   a. Pretest score on the Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination

   b. Speech anxiety

   c. Proficiency of speech desired

   d. Previous speech experience

3. Treatment I was randomly assigned to two classes. Treatment II was then assigned to the remaining two classes.

4. Only the matched subjects were used in the calculation of the statistics. The remaining subjects were included in Treatments I and II, but none of the students knew they were involved in a study. This activity resulted in a reduction of any "Hawthorne Effect" that could have occurred if the individuals had been aware they were a part of the study.

Data relating to pretest score, speech anxiety, proficiency of speech desired and previous speech experience, for each subject, by treatment group, are contained in Table I.

TABLE I

Rank Order of Treatment Groups

TREATMENT GROUP I					TREATMENT GROUP II				
Subject Number	Pretest Score	Speech Anxiety	Speech Profic. Desired	Speech Experi-ence	Subject Number	Pretest Score	Speech Anxiety	Speech Profic. Desired	Speech Experi-ence
3	2	3	3	2	15	3	3	2	2
4	2	2	2	2	28	4	3	2	2
6	3	2	1	2	21	5	2	3	1
2	3	2	3	2	26	6	2	3	2
1	7	3	3	2	20	6	3	2	2
7	8	3	3	2	31	6	3	2	2
5	8	2	3	1	29	6	2	3	2
11	10	3	3	2	24	8	2	1	2
9	10	2	3	2	14	8	2	2	2
10	12	3	2	2	13	8	3	2	2
8	13	3	3	2	25	9	3	3	2
					19	9	3	2	2
					27	10	4	3	2
					16	10	4	3	2
					17	11	2	3	1
					12	11	2	3	2
					18	12	2	2	2
					23	12	2	2	1
					30	14	2	2	2
					22	14	3	3	2
					32	15	3	3	1

The criteria utilized for the match of subjects from Treatment I with subjects from Treatment II was the pretest score (Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination), speech anxiety, speech proficiency desired, and previous speech experience. The match by subject number member from Treatment I to subject number member from Treatment II is depicted in Table II.

TABLE II

Matching Subjects From Non-Treatment Group With Subjects From Treatment Group

TREATMENT I		TREATMENT II
Subject Number Member		Subject Number Member
2	Matched with	15
1	Matched With	31
7	Matched With	13
11	Matched With	27
10	Matched With	18
8	Matched With	22

General Factors. An attempt was made to control all nuisance variables which might reduce the effect of treatment or non-treatment in the study. The following variables were held constant for all participants for the duration of the study:

1. Instructor
2. Physical arrangement in the classroom/laboratory
3. Lighting, temperature and ventilation of the classroom
4. Unit objectives
5. Instructional materials for each treatment group
6. Equipment
7. Supplies
8. Final evaluation process

The students were not told that a study was being conducted, nor that another group would receive a different treatment. Other factors beyond the control of the researcher were minimized by the research design, or assumed to occur freely within the groups.

Physical Facilities. The physical locations for the study were the Speech Studio (Room 1210) and the Speech Lab (Room 1227) at Clark County Community College, Las Vegas, Nevada. All groups used the same facilities and equipment. No alterations in facilities were made for the study.

Instructor. This researcher was the instructor and made every attempt to eliminate any bias and to remain impartial. The audio-tapes were made for the Treatment Group (Treatment II) and were assembled with the same considerations.

Preparing for the Treatment

The Course. The major thrust of the course, Speech 101, Oral Communication, is to develop the fundamental process of oral expression. Speeches are given by students, both extemporaneous and manuscript. Content involves class discussion, reading assignments, and research.

The first few weeks are devoted to the understanding of the problems involving nervousness and stagefright. Students are required to give two presentations which are not graded so they can operate in a less threatening atmosphere. The next area of concern deals with the organization of a speech. Here, students learn how to consider the target audience, learn the tools of research, how to gather and organize material, and the processes of outlining.

The final stage of the course involves communication theory. This covers content such as: Non-verbal Cues, interpersonal and intrapersonal communication, encoding and decoding, the art of persuasion, types of reasoning, the role of the speaker's ethos in communication, and operational definitions.

All during the course, students are asked to deliver particular speaking assignments. Out of a total of six speeches required for the course, only the last four are graded.

Objectives of the course are as follows:

1. To gain an understanding of the processes and application of oral communication.

2. To learn how to function in various public speaking situations.

3. Learn the aspects and importance of listening.

4. Perform in front of live audiences.

5. Learn the tools of research.

6. Learn to deal with the problem of nervousness.

7. Develop positive aspects of public speaking.

8. Understand the theoretical aspects of communication.

9. Learn how to organize and use an outline for a speech.

10. Understand basic aspects of non-verbal cues.

The six speeches that the students are required to perform during the semester are evaluated by both the instructor and the students, using a checklist provided by the instructor.

Unit Objectives. Treatment I participants were provided with the objectives in printed form at the beginning of the experiment. Students in Treatment II were provided the objectives as part of the study guide. The module or unit included material covering the unit objectives.

OBJECTIVES FOR THIS UNIT

At the completion of this unit the student should be able to:

1. Know how to support an idea in terms of an audience.

2. Know what proposition to present in a persuasive speech.

3. Use statistics in a meaningful way.

4. Know the use of interest and clarity devices essential to effective communication.

5. Know how important organization is in oral discourse.

6. Know the factors of unity and coherence and how similar they are to written communication.

7. Know the importance of emphasis and proportion in spoken messages.

8. Know how bodily activity in a speech contributes to the communication of ideas and attitudes.

9. Know how to distinguish between biased, possibly biased and probably biased sources of a speech.

10. Know how to discriminate between different types of reasoning - inductive and deductive.

11. Know how to recognize connotative language.

12. Know how messages are presented to gain better empathic responses.

13. Know differences between various falacious arguments; circular reasoning, false cause, hasty generalizations, and either-or.

14. Know the definition and application of ethos in a speech.

15. Know the basic process of vocal production.

16. Know how to identify and distinguish between the more critical constraints to which a speaker must adapt his presentation.

17. Know how speech communication, as a process, interacts between speaker and listener.

Pretest. The Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination was administered to measure the initial cognitive level of the students with respect to the subject matter to be covered. The pretest was administered the day before the treatment was to begin. All students involved in the study were administered this pretest on the same day during their assigned oral communications period. The results were recorded with no feedback to the students, and were used as the primary criteria for matching pairs of subjects in the two treatment groups.

Posttest. The posttest was identical in content to the pretest (Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination). The order of the questions remained the same and no reference was ever made to the pretest.

CONDUCTING THE TREATMENT

Two different approaches to teaching the same information were used in this study. These approaches were identified as Treatment I and Treatment II.

Treatment I. Treatment I was assigned to the 1:40 p.m. class meeting on Tuesday and Thursday. There were eleven participants in this treatment, five male and six female. The average age of this group was 26.7.

The traditional lecture approach was the method of teaching used. The instructor taught the unit of instruction similar to the way it would have been taught had there been no study.

The next two class meetings (one full week) were spent listening to lectures as the students normally would have done.

The evaluation procedures for Treatment I occurred at the end of the unit. The only feedback of cognitive growth that the students received occurred during the class meetings when individual and/or group discussion took place and the students could appraise informally their own progress.

Treatment II. Treatment II was assigned to the 9:25 a.m. class meeting on Monday and Wednesday. There were twenty-one participants in this treatment, nine male and twelve female. The average age of this group was 27.3.

The self-instruction/criterion-referenced approach to teaching was the method of teaching used.

The first day of Treatment II was the same first day of Treatment I. The instructor explained the purpose of the unit. No reference was made that this was part of a study. The students were told to use the next two class periods to go to the laboratory and listen to audio tapes which contained the information for the unit.

The students were encouraged to search out answers to their questions on their own, but the instructor was available to lend assistance on an individual basis when needed. Treatment II had no lecture sessions; therefore, any instructor-student interaction occurred on an individual or small group basis. The students in this treatment had the same oral

communication material to study but they were self-paced. This permitted the students to study full time, half time or any way they wanted or needed to fit their individual needs. They could use the class time or any other time, as required, to satisfy their individual needs and unit objectives.

A one-week deadline (two class meetings) was established for the material to be covered. Although time was not a control factor in this study, it was observed that several students in the individualized treatment finished their work at varying times before the deadline. It was further observed that all students completed the unit material by the final deadline.

At the conclusion of the unit all students were given the posttest.

Summary

This chapter provided a detailed account of the procedures involved in preparing and conducting this study. It includes the procedure utilized to pair students, an outline of the objectives for the unit, an overview of the two treatments, and a description of the pre and posttest.

CHAPTER IV

MEASUREMENT AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Chapter III included information related to the preparation of the study materials, the establishment of procedures, and the administration of the treatments. This chapter presents the results of the analysis of the data for the purposes of initial group comparison and for the treating of the null hypothesis stated in Chapter I. Statistical analysis involved the use of the t-test to compare the treatment mean scores for the two groups on the Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination. The .05 level of significance was selected to test the null hypothesis.

Pretest-Posttest Results. There were 32 participants in the study, eleven in Treatment I and twenty-one in Treatment II. From the two treatment groups, six matching pairs were selected. The results of the pretest and posttest administered to the matched pairs from the treatment groups were tabulated. The matched pair subjects from Treatment I averaged 8.83 on the pretest and averaged 11.66 on the posttest. Treatment II matched pair subjects averaged 8.83 on the pretest and 14.8 on the posttest. These data are depicted in Table III.

TABLE III

SUMMARY OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES

Treatment Group	Number of Subjects	Average Score Pretest	Posttest
I	6	8.83	11.66
II	6	8.83	14.8
Total	12	8.83	13.25

TESTING OF THE HYPOTHESIS

Null Hypothesis. In order to ascertain the effect of the treatments on the achievement of cognitive retention of the participants, the null hypothesis was tested.

> Ho: There is no significant difference in achievement among the students who received Treatment I and Treatment II as measured by the Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination.

This hypothesis was tested at the .05 level of significance using the t-test to test for the significance of differences between the posttest means of the two groups in the Nonequivalent Control Group Design. The results of the t-test are summarized in Table IV.

TABLE IV

t Test of 12 Selected Students

Treatment Group	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	
I	8.83	11.66	df=10 t=.34
II	8.83	14.8	
t = 1.86 for significance at the .05 level			

CONCLUSIONS

To the extent that the data resulting from the research procedures utilized were valid, and the assumptions made were valid, the following conclusions may be drawn:

Students receiving the individualized/criterion based instruction scored higher on the Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination (posttest) than did the group that received the traditional lecture/classroom instruction, but the differences were no more than might be attributed to chance. Therefore, it could be concluded that the use of individualized/criterion-based instruction as described in this study, although not inhibiting the student' cognitive achievement, cannot be expected to be more effective than the traditional normative-based instruction when student achievement is used as the measure of effectiveness.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Although the results of the study showed no significant difference between the two types of instruction, no measures were taken of student attitude toward type of instruction. Also, measures of attitude toward each type of instruction could yield valuable data on the "holding power" of one method over the other, i.e., which method attracts and holds students in school longest? Students may generally prefer the freedom afforded by the self-instructioned technique, or they may prefer more contact and interaction with the instructor.

Further study might also be beneficial to determine how either method of instruction might influence greater success in public speaking performance.

No concern was given in this study to the alternative cost factor in providing an individualized instruction package versus the lecture method. If no significant difference results from one method of instruction over the other, are the resulting costs for setting up laboratory instruction and hardware worth the expense for those desiring self-paced alternatives? Should students in a beginning speech course be provided a choice regardless of the costs?

It could be important to discover if results might be different if Treatment Group II subjects were administered the posttest immediately upon finishing the individualized instruction material, rather than wait until all Treatment II subjects take the test as a group at a designated day and

time. As students in Treatment II finished at varying times, further investigation might yield information whether or not a difference in retention might result and cause changes in posttest scores.

Another investigation of a similar study could involve the use of appropriate co-variates to test further. The researcher wanted to use analysis of covariance but available time did not allow for it in this study.

Finally, it would be most interesting to determine whether or not, over a given period of time, further study could provide how students perceived the respective alternative approaches. A five-year study, for instance, might present more in-depth and conclusive results.

Therefore, the following recommendations for further study are:

1. Student attitudes toward alternative methods of instruction.

2. Which method of instruction influences greater success in public speaking performance?

3. Should students in a beginning public speaking course be provided a choice of laboratory (individualized) instruction regardless of the costs if and when no significant differences occur between two approaches to teaching--lecture/classroom versus laboratory/individualized instruction?

4. Would there be any change in results if Treatment Group II (Experimental Group) is given the posttest immediately after each member finishes study material rather than waiting to take it all at once with the entire group?

5. The use of analysis of covariance to compute data.

6. A longer, ongoing-type of study (up to five years) to determine students' attitudes toward alternative teaching methods.

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APPENDIX A

STUDENT DATA SHEET

STUDENT DATA SHEET

DARKEN THE CIRCLE for the appropriate response and/or PRINT the information requested in each of the following items.

THE DAY AND TIME YOU TAKE SPEECH 101_____.

TOTAL AMOUNT OF COLLEGE CREDITS COMPLETED._____.

1
SEX: O MALE O FEMALE

2
CURRENT AGE: _____ years

3
FAMILY SIZE: O over 8 members O 7 or 8 members
O 5 or 6 members O 3 or 4 members
O under 3 members

4
OCCUPATIONAL EXPERIENCE: In how many different occupational positions have you been employed?

O 5 or more O 3 or 4 O 1 or 2 O none

5
In how many different occupational positions, involving giving speeches, have you been employed?

O 5 or more O 3 or 4 O 1 or 2 O none

6
Did you have any speech classes in high school?

O more than 3 O less than 3 O none

7
Any other speech instruction other than high school

_____
(please specify)

8
GRADE POINT AVERAGE IN HIGH SCHOOL_____.

9
GRADE POINT AVERAGE IN COLLEGE_____.

10
DO YOU CONSIDER YOURSELF AN EXTROVERT OR INTROVERT?

0 introvert 0 extrovert

11
WHAT DEGREE OF PUBLIC SPEAKING PROFICIENCY WOULD YOU DESIRE?

0 high 0 average 0 low

12
How do you feel when you have to get up to make a speech?

0 petrified 0 very nervous 0 fairly anxious 0 no problem

13
How well do you read?

0 above average 0 average 0 below average

14
What are your occupational and educational plans for the year following your graduation or departure from this school?

0 join the armed services
0 attend another 2-year junior or community college
0 attend a vocational or technical school
0 attend a 4-year college or university
0 seek employment
0 Other _____ (please specify)

APPENDIX B

STUDY GUIDE

STUDY GUIDE

(Lecture & Tape Notes)

Speech Communication as a Process

The best all encompassing descriptions of a speech is that it is a process. It is an interaction between speaker and listener. It is not an event that "just happens." Nor is it limited to persuasion or inquiry. Additionally, it is much more than expression, because that term does not necessarily connote communication. The process of speech communication involves the sending and receiving of messages involving the variables of source, message, channel, receiver, feedback, and noise.

Vocal Production in the Speech Process (Stress)

Just as the words we use communicate, so does the sound of our voice. The meanings expressed by the way we sound may tell our audience what we intended and may contribute to the meanings of our words.

Our voice has all the capabilities of a musical instrument. How we use it makes the difference between success and failure.

Speech is a product of breathing, phonation, resonation, and articulation. During inhalation, air is taken in through the mouth or nose, and into the lungs. We get the power for speech from exhaling the air we breathed. As air is forced from the lungs back up by controled relaxation of

the diaphragm and contraction of abdominal and chest muscles, the vocal folds are brought closely enough together to vibrate the air as it passes through them. This vibration is called phonation, the product of sound. The sound that is emitted (like the sound of a vibrating string) travels through the pharynx, mouth, and in some cases, the nasal cavity. Each of these three cavities helps to resonate the sound. This resonated sound is then shaped by the articulators (tongue, lips, palate, and so forth) to form the separate sounds of our language system. These individual sounds are then put together into words, or distinguishable oral symbols. We call the sound that we produce voice. The use of force in articulating words, phrases, and syllables - stress. In this sense, stress is a meaningful and interesting part of vocal delivery.

Bodily Activity During a Speech

The objective of all bodily movement in speech is to contribute to the communication of ideas and attitudes. It is sometimes useful to move to indicate transition and to relieve tension and weariness, but neither of these factors constitute the basic rationale for bodily movement. In other words, your body can underscore your meaning or add emphasis. Moving toward your audience indicates concern that your message is being received; retreating provides time for relaxation and a return to normal emphasis.

Slumping shoulders or a bowed head may imply dejection, while erect posture may indicate pride in what you are saying or enthusiasm for your message.

Whatever gestures or body movement you use, they should be true reflections of your feelings, not a matter of "going through the motions." When gestures, expressions, and body movements seem to come spontaneously with the verbal message, they confirm the listener's perception of the meaning.

Analyzing Your Audience (Considering your speech topic)

Each audience and each speech situation involve concerns to which the speaker must adapt his presentation. In analyzing your audience judgments about audience knowledge, interests, and attitudes can be made by gathering the following data:

Age: What is the average age? What is the average range?

Sex: Is the audience all of predominantly male? female? or is the sex of the group reasonably evenly balanced?

Occupation: Is everyone of one occupation such as nurses? bankers? drill press operators? Is everyone of a related occupation such as professional men? educators? skilled laborers?

Income: Is average high? low? average? Is the range of income narrow? large?

Race, Religion, Nationality: Is the audience primarily of one race, religion, or nationality? Or is it mexed?

Geographic Uniqueness: Are all the people from one state? city? region?

Group Affiliation: Is the audience a member of one group such as a fraternity or sorority, professional organization, political group?

Your goal should be to determine how the members of the audience are alike and in what ways they differ. Of course, there should be other concerns involving audience analysis and researching for a speech topic such as: occasion, location, size of the room, time of day,etc. But the foregoing should be of primary concern.

Emphasis, Unity, and Proportion

In oral communication, the same factors of unity and coherence apply as to that of written communication. Coherence refers to the logical integration of sentences within a paragraph. The sentences, in sum, seem held together by more than a sequence of utterance out of a speaker's mouth. This is called the emphasis of your speech.

The speaker makes a unified presentation by focusing on a central idea throughout his speech: he should relate the point of his speech in order to achieve clear thought progression and to have degree of proportion for his main points.

Organization Patterns (Orders)

Organization is of utmost importance in oral discourse. Patterns of organization aid both the speaker and listener. The main organizational patterns are:

a. Topical Order

Topical order is a kind of organization in which each of the main points arbitrarily develops a part of the purpose. Although the points may go from general to specific, least important to most important, or some other logical order, the order is still at the discretion of the speaker and it is not necessarily part of the topic. (i.e., Purpose: To explain the major duties of the Presidency:

1. The President is chief of Foreign Relations.
2. The President is Commander in Chief of the Armed Forces.
3. The President is head of his party.
4. The President is head of the Executive Branch.)

b. Chronological Order (Time Order)

This is a kind of organization in which each of the main points follows a chronological sequence of ideas or events. It tells the audience that there is a particular importance to the sequence as well as to the content of those main parts. (i.e., Purpose: To indicate the major events leading to World War II.

1. Between 1901 and 1910, a series of events caused the major nations of Europe to arm for war.

2. In 1912, several Balkan wars affected relationships among Turkey, Serbia, and Greece.

3. In 1914, the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand led to Germany's invasion of Belgium.

4. Once Germany moved, nearly every nation in Europe became involved.)

c. Problem-Solution

Problem-solution is usually used in persuasive speeches. If you are attempting to prove to the audience that a new kind of procedure is needed to remedy some major problem, the problem-solution method will provide you with the framework for clarifying the nature of the problem that needs to be solved and for illustrating why the new proposal is the best measure for accomplishing the purpose. When following this method, your speech will always have three main points: (1) that there is a problem that requires a change in attitude or action, (2) that the purpose you have to offer will solve the

problem, and (3) that your proposal is the best solution to the problem. i.e., For the proposition, "To persuade the audience that the federal government should guarantee a minimum annual wage to all its citizens," you could state three reasons:

1. A high percentage of our citizens are living in a state of abject poverty.

2. A guaranteed wage would eliminate poverty.

3. A guaranteed wage would be the best way to solve the problem.

c. Spatial (Space Order)

Space order is a kind of organization in which each of the main points indicates a spacial relationship. If a speaker's intent is to explain a scene, place, object, or person in terms of its parts, a space order will allow him to put emphasis on the description, function, or arrangement of these parts. i.e., Purpose: To describe the function of the parts of a golf club.

1. The grip allows the golfer to hold the club securely.

2. The shaft provides leverage.

3. The head affects the nature of the drive.

e. Causal Analysis (Or order)

This type of organization aims at cataloguing the causes of some event. i.e., Subject Statement: A run on a bank has many causes:

1. Its ultimate cause is lack of confidence in the ability of the bank to honor deposits.

2. A contributory cause may be a financial depression.

3. An immediate cause may be rumors that the bank is in danger of bankruptcy.

Introduction - Opening Statements

An introduction should gain audience interest and disclose and clarify the subject to be discussed. Although speeches can be introduced in numerous ways, depending upon

the subject and the audience, an illustration that focuses on the main theme of your speech has a potential interest factor.

Delivery - Empathic Response (Empathy)

An important concept in communication is the idea of speaker-listener rapport. The speaker tries to present his message and himself, whenever possible, in such a way as to gain an empathic response. Empathy in some respects is technical jargon but, on the other hand, it is a term that probably should be found in a speech student's vocabulary. Moreover, it is difficult to deal with the concept effectively without the term.

Empathy should also be a concern of the listener, not just the speaker. Listening empathically is sometimes called listening actively. The empathic listener is one who not only listens to verbal cues but also observes the behavior of the message sender (movement, gestures, facial expressions, posture, etc.).

The empathic listener is also openminded. Will Rogers typified the empathic listener when he said, "I never met a man I didn't like." The empathic listener assumes good intentions on the part of the speaker until he is proven wrong.

Interest and Clarity Devices

The use of interest and clarity devices are essential to truly effective communication.

The hypothetical illustration: "Dogs do very poorly on simple tests of intelligence. If a ten- foot section of fence were put between a dog and a bone, he would try to paw through the fence rather than go the five feet or so it would take to get around the fence."

Real or hypothetical examples are useful to support your arguments in a persuasive speech. However, real ones are stronger and carry more weight.

Persuasion - Controversial Ideas

A speech may be viewed as "a stylized response to the constraints of an audience to which it is given." It obviously is foolish to spend much time on an idea when little is needed and little time when much is needed. One does not simply "support an idea;" one supports an idea in terms of an audience.

When your audience is "against" your message, it is better to present the arguments on both sides of the issue. If the audience is already sold on your message, it would obviously not be necessary to give both sides. Speakers must be sensitive to the audience and aware of its attitudes, arguments, and issues.

There may be times when a hostile audience may require that a speaker prepare them for his message with a longer introduction that embodies examples and various kinds

of evidence before he states his central idea, especially if his speech purpose is to persuade.

Ethos - Personal Proof (Aristotle) - Persuasion

Aristotle contended that persuasion is accomplished by three "modes of proof," which he called logos, pathos, and ethos. These correspond roughly to the logical proof (logos), the emotional proof (pathos), and the character of the speaker (ethos).

Ethos, the qualities of character projected by the speaker, is perhaps the most illusive of all Aristotilion modes of proof. If the audience does not see the speaker as a person who is sincere, trustworthy, and knowledgable, they may reject the speaker's evidence.

It is apparent that when a speaker has a reputation the audience will be influenced by it. They will frequently decide what to believe and what not to believe on the basis of the speaker's prestige. In general, people are more inclined to take the word of someone whose opinion is highly regarded by others and whose expertise has received public recognition in the form of rank or position. You may disagree with the Secretary of Defense that the antibalistic missile is necessary to preserve the balance of power, but his opinion is more likely to be taken at face value than yours. Yours will have to be supported.

Persuasion - (Stasis - "A state of static balance or equilibrium)

Any persuasive speech involves a proposition. It is useful for the student speaker to know what type of proposition he is presenting. Additionally, from the standpoint of critical evaluation, different criteria need to be employed in the evaluation of different persuasive propositions. The classical concept of stasis still has much utility today.

The persuasive purpose statement, often called a proposition, indicates specifically what you want your audience to do or to believe. Ordinarily, the proposition will be phrased in one of three ways: to reinforce a belief held by an audience, to change a belief held by an audience, or to move the audience to act. Examples:

To Reinforce: "Everyone should love his country."

To Change Belief: "Capitol punishment should be reinstated."

To Move the Audience: "Buy Easter Seals."

Types of Reasoning - (In a Persuasive speech)

A speaker may draw on different kinds of supporting data in order to make his arguments acceptable to an audience. One aid to gaining acceptance is the use of authority opinion. Others include: observable data, statistical data, inductive and deductive reasoning.

1. Authority Opinion. The opinion of someone who should know, possibly an authority in the field, or a person who witnessed an event.

2. Observable Data. Is made up of the things we see around us and know to be true. Observable data can usually be verified by someone else's seeing the same thing.

3. Statistical Data. Using statistics we can summarize, show averages and abnormalities, and examine the relationship between certain measurable phenomena.

4. Inductive Reasoning. Involves going from specific observations to general laws or theories. It begins with a number of examples or observations and proceeds to a conclusion. When Newton formulated the law of gravity after observing falling objects, he was using inductive reasoning. Statistical sampling is also done on this basis.

5. Deductive Reasoning. The process of applying the generalization to a specific case. It is the reverse of inductive reasoning. (A man who believes that a woman's place is in the home may refuse to allow his wife to get a job regardless of the financial condition of the family.)

Definition

Definition is an invaluable agent for achieving clarity in communication. Definition is more than merely looking up words in a dictionary. It is a statement of what a thing is, or what a word or expression means.

a. Definition by analogy: use of an analogy to clarify - a comparison, i.e., "A calorie is a unit used to measure energy just as the R-factor in insulation is used to measure resistance to heat."

b. Definition by etymology: Etymology is the derivation of an account of the history of a particular word.

c. Historical example: The history of a word, in some instances, reveals additional insight that will help the audience remember the meaning a little better. For instance, a censor originated as one of two Roman magistrates appointed to take the census and, later, to supervise public morals.

d. Operational definition: The operational definition assumes that one can give all the meanings that one has for a term. People commonly use operational definitions in

their speeches. Operational definitions define a given term with reference to the point of view of the user of the term, used the word "propaganda" in a speech, and for the purpose of his discussion he took the term to mean something of a detrimental nature, he would be using operational definition.)

Connotative versus Denotative Language

A word's primary or dictionary meanings are its denotations. Its connotations are its overtones, the associations it calls up in our minds. (i.e., Lightning denotes a luminous electric discharge in the atmosphere, but connotes speed, inspiration, terror, etc.).

Connotative language has its value, but at the same time it can be used to sway people by means of language alone. It is likely that this will not happen if the listener can distinguish between connotative and denotative expressions (i.e., General MacArthur's Farewell Address to Congress - April, 1951 - "Old Soldiers never Die...").

Actually, words do not ultimately derive their meanings from the dictionary but from people. Therefore, it could be said that meanings do not reside in words themselves, but in people using the words. In other words, the final determinant of the meanings of words is - Usage.

Use of Statistics

Statistics tend to be the most meaningful if they are presented in extremely graphic or concrete terms. This usually means expressing them in units which the members of the audience can readily picture.

One should never use statistics so excessively as to bore an audience. They should be either preceded or followed by an explanation of their significance. One should also mention where their statistics came from (documentation).

Some key points in the use of statistics:

1. Select the right kind for your point.
2. Know how and when they were collected.
3. Know the credibility of the source.
4. Use only the most recent ones.
5. Don't overuse them.
6. When you believe you must use a number of statistics, a visual aid, such a chart, may help your audience understand them

When statistics are used in an argument speech one must be careful to see how they're presented (i.e., "The average income of Nevadans is $10,000 per year. It should be very apparent that a state where the average income is $10,000 can afford to build bigger and better universities.") No average income could be computed from the information given in this argument.

Bias of Sources

Students of speech should be capable of distinguishing between biased, possibly biased, and probably biased sources. The prime objectives in determining if a source is biased is objectivity. (i.e., In a question of "labor management relations," involving three groups (Secretary of Labor, President of the International Association, and The Harvard

Study of Labor Conditions in the U.S.), the Harvard study would probably have the least reason for bias, in fact, one of its prime objectives probably would be objectivity; the Secretary of Labor is likely to be less biased than the President of the Electrical Association who has a vested interest.

Fallacies (used in argument)

A fallacy is an idea or opinion founded on mistaken logic or perception. Most questions are multi-valued in nature. Whenever a two-valued proposition is presented to him, the listener is encouraged to look for other possible dimensions of the question in order to determine if the dichotomy the speaker presents is realistic or fallacious.

Kinds of fallacies:

1. Black or White Fallacy (either-or): There are shades of gray in most things. When a statement or problem with more than two possible solutions is put in an either-or context, we have a fallacy. (i.e., "She's either very pretty or very ugly." "Carter will go down in history as a very weak president or a very strong one.")

2. Ad Hominen Fallacy: This is where a speaker makes a personal attack rather than arguing the issue. Ad hominen changes the issue from an argument on the proposition to one of personalities.

3. Ad Populum Fallacy: This is the popular appeal to the fears, greed, or prejudices of the masses. Hatemongers use this approach to stir up support for their campaigns against whatever religious, ethnic, social, or economic group they happen to be after. (i.e., Hitler-Jews, Slums are created by poor people).

4. Circular Reasoning: This is an argument that is used as proof of itself. For example, basing a claim that

the Bible is the word of God in statements that are made in the Bible would be a circular argument. One student who was contending that marijuana should not be legalized because it was harmful finally came around to the argument that its harm lay in the possibility of arrest - since it was illegal. The circular argument sounds as if it would be easy to detect, but when it is skillfully concealed in rhetoric it is often difficult to spot. (i.e., "Students are so immature these days you can't give them any responsibility. And they are going to continue to be immature until they accept some responsibility.")

5. Post Hoc Fallacy: "After this, therefore because of this." This is the fallacy of thinking that an event that happens after another must be its result. (i.e., If a new city government comes into power after a rough winter and roads are badly damaged, it may indeed be easy to hold them responsible as you survey one ruined $50.00 tire: "We didn't have roads like this until after their election." Or, "Lately, we've done a great deal of nuclear testing and we've had many severe tornadoes in all parts of the country. It's obvious atomic tests have a severe effect upon the weather." After this, therefore, because of this - post hoc fallacy.

6. Hasty Generalization: These are snap judgments based on two little evidence or experience. This fallacy results in going from the general case to a specific case, or vice-versa. It is similar to the problems of induction and deduction. The Hasty Generalization is one of the most common reasoning problems that should be detected by the critical listener. The question of sufficiency of evidence is one that the listener should learn to apply to claims a speaker makes. (i.e., "A new Ford automobile broke down a few weeks after it was bought. A few more weeks and the transmission failed. Soon after that, the electrical system started to act up. The owner concluded, "All Ford products are inferior and ought not to be sold."

APPENDIX C

PRETEST-POSTTEST
(Abridged Patton Speech
Content Examination)

CLARK COUNTY COMMUNITY COLLEGE

ORAL COMMUNICATIONS

SPEECH 101

Quiz #3a Unit 3a — Each answer worth 5 points
Tapes A through C — Total 150 points

DO NOT WRITE ON THIS TEST PAPER

Use a #2 pencil and fill in answers on Scan-Tron Form

1. Generally, the amount of time spent on the development of a controversial idea in a speech depends chiefly upon:

   a. how much support of the idea the audience needs
   b. how much time the speaker has at his disposal
   c. how much the speaker knows about the idea
   c. the amount of new evidence that the speaker can offer
   e. whether action on the part of the audience will be demanded

2. "Should Clark County Community College offer a straight liberal arts degree?" is a question of:

   a. meaning and interpretation
   b. policy
   c. value
   d. fact
   e. controversy

3. Which of these statements would be most effective in gaining audience understanding?

   a. Almost 450,000 or 19% of your fellow Nevadans, about as many people as there are in Las Vegas, will suffer if this bill is made law.

   b. This proposed law is unfair to 19% of the residents of Nevada.

   c. This proposal will disrupt the lives of 450,000 Nevadans.

   d. As many people as the total population of Las Vegas will be wronged by this bill.

4. As a general rule, which of the following would be the way to begin a speech?

   a. Use a dramatic appeal to arouse the audience to action
   b. Begin with two or three jokes that do not pertain to the subject
   c. Present an example or illustration that focuses on the main theme of your speech
   d. Announce the title of your speech
   e. List the main points you intend to cover

5. "I think there is no doubt that if we guaranteed a minimum income to the poor, we would have more money circulating in the economy. Paul Samuelson, professor of economics at MIT who has written one of the texts in economics used here, made this clear when he said: "The marginal propensity to consume is highest among the low income groups."

   This argument, taken from a speech, seeks to gain logical adequacy and acceptance through use of:

   a. inductive reasoning
   b. specific instances
   c. authority
   d. casual reasoning
   e. deductive reasoning

6. "A kilowatt hour is a unit by which electric energy is measured, just as the bushel is the unit for measuring wheat and corn, and the pound is the unit for measuring butter."

   Of which method of definition is this an example?

   a. definition by negation
   b. definition by analogy
   c. definition by etymology
   d. definition by example
   e. a rhetorical definition

7. "Let's suppose that a student was to borrow a thousand dollars to complete his schooling." From this remark you have an indication that a speaker is going to:

   a. present an analogy
   b. draw an inductive conclusion
   c. reason from a general assumption
   d. present a hypothetical illustration
   e. reason from cause to effect

8. The development of the thesis briefly outlined below follows which pattern of arrangement?

   a. topical
   b. chronological
   c. problem-solution
   d. spatial
   e. causal

   Thesis: Funerals are strictly for the living.

   (A) Social respectability is gained through burial practices by the family of the deceased; (B) Friends and relatives have the satisfaction of seeing the deceased for a last time; (C) Wakes provide an opportunity for conveying respect to the family of the deceased.

   Well-organized discourse should have unity, coherence, emphasis, proportion. Match each of these terms with the phrase that defines it or describes how it is achieved by marking on your answer sheet the letter of the term each of the following phrases defines:

9. Clues to the importance a speaker attaches to his various ideas.
10. Focusing on a central idea throughout the speech.
11. The development accorded to the various parts of the speech.

   (A) Unity
   (B) Coherence
   (C) Emphasis
   (D) Proportion
   (E) None of the above

12. When a speaker changes his position on the platform:

   a. he should do so only to indicate a transition from one main idea to another
   b. he introduces a distraction into his speech and should avoid movement
   c. he may do so without regard to what he is saying
   d. it should contribute to the communication of his ideas and attitudes
   e. he should do so simply to relieve tension and weariness

13. On the question of "labor-management relations," which of the following lists these sources in an order from the most unbiased to the most biased source as far as the evidence on this question is concerned?

   a. a, b, c
   b. b, c, a
   c. c, a, b
   d. c, b, a
   e. b, a, c

a. Secretary of the Department of Labor
b. President of the International Association
c. Harvard University Study of Labor conditions in the U.S.

14. "Truman will go down in history as a very great or a very foolish president." This statement is an example of:

a. an appeal to prejudice
b. a valid historical assumption
c. a black or white fallacy
d. ad hominem fallacy
e. ad populum fallacy

15. Reasoning which moves from an assumption or a general principle to an application of that assumption or general principle in a given situation is:

a. legal
b. deductive
c. causal
d. inductive
e. categorical reasoning

16. "I am closing my 52 years of military service. When I joined the Army even before the turn of the century, it was the fulfillment of my boyish hopes and dreams. The world has turned over many times since I took the oath on the plain of West Point, and the hopes and dreams have long vanished. But I still remember the refrain of one of the most popular barracks ballads of that day which proclaimed most proudly that--

"Old soldiers never die; they just fade away. And like the old soldier of that ballad, I now close my military career and just fade away--an old soldier, who tried to do his duty as God gave him the light to see that duty." (Douglas MacArthur, Address before Congress, April 19, 1951).

The language used in this speech excerpt is primarily:

a. denotative
b. indicative
c. objective
d. allegorical
e. connotative

17. The term used to designate a sharing of the attitudes and feelings of the speaker on the part of the listener(s) is:

a. response
b. symbolic communication
c. empathy
d. group dynamics
e. imagery

18. "Students are so immature these days you can't give them any responsibility. And they are going to continue to be immature until they accept some responsibility." This is an example of:

a. faulty causal reasoning
b. ad hominem attack
c. circular reasoning
d. reasoning from a disjunctive assumption
e. inductive reasoning

19. To estalish his credibility, his "personal proof," a speaker must, according to Aristotle

a. be competent in his subject
b. demonstrate good character
c. display good will
d. A, B, and C
e. A and B

20. "This year we did our most extensive nuclear testing we had a great many severe tornadoes in widely scattered parts of this country. Atomic tests have a severe effect upon the weather." This is an example of:

a. faulty analogy
b. post hoc fallacy
c. arguing in a circle
d. ad hominem fallacy
e. appeal to prejudice

21. The use of force in articulating words, phrases, and syllables is known as:

a. timbre
b. phonation
c. stress
d. effusion
e. enunciation

22. Suppose you are attempting to describe for your listeners the Lincoln Center in New York City. Which method or organization is most likely to be the best adapted to the presentation of your ideas?

a. deductive
b. topical
c. spatial
d. chronological
e. causal

23. The final determinant of the meanings of words is:

a. usage
b. the dictionary
c. the origin of the words
d. the inherent meanings contained within the words themselves
e. all of the above

24. A new Tru-Vue television burned out the picture tube 28 days after it was purchased. A week after it was replaced one of the speakers began to squeal. A few days later the tuning knob came loose. The purchaser concluded: "Tru-Vue television sets are a pile of junk. They ought to be taken off the market." He:

a. reasoned ex post facto
b. reasoned from statistics
c. was the victim of the black and white fallacy in thinking
d. generalized hastily
e. reasoned fallaciously from a faulty assumption

25. Which of the following is least likely to affect your research on a speech topic?

a. the sex of the audience
b. the educational level of the audience
c. the geographical location where the speech is given
d. the occasion of the speech
e. the time of day.

26. "Four hundred and fifty of the 600 people living in the Jasmine Addition earn more than $10,000 a year. It is quite clear that people living in an area where the average annual income is $10,000 can afford to pay for a new fire station."

Which of the following statements applies the most appropriately to this unit of argument:

a. average income cannot be computed from the statistics given above and the argument is therefore fallacious
b. the argument is apparently sound and should be accepted
c. the argument should be rejected on the grounds that it contains an ad hominem attack

d. the argument would be sound and should be accepted if the speaker cited the source of his statistics.
e. none of the above statements is appropriate.

27. The character of the speaker which enhances his credibility with an audience is known as:

a. rapport
b. pathos
c. logos
d. feedback
e. ethos

28. Introductions should be longer in a persuasive speech given before a:

a. neutral audience
b. selected audience
c. hostile audience
d. partisan audience
e. concerted audience

29. Speech communication can best be described as:

a. an event
b. persuasion
c. inquiry
d. a process
e. expression

30. If in a speech someone says that the word "propaganda" can be defined in many ways, but for the purposes of his discussion he will take the term to mean, "Short-circuiting the rational process," he is using:

a. a dictionary definition
b. an Aristotelian type of definition
c. an operational type of definition
d. a Platonic type of definition
e. a rhetorical definition

APPENDIX D

KEY AND ITEM RATIONALE FOR ABRIDGED PATTON SPEECH CONTENT EXAM

KEY AND ITEM RATIONALE FOR ABRIDGED
PATTON SPEECH CONTENT EXAM

1. (A) A speech may be viewed as a stylized response to the constraints of an audience to which it is given. This question is concerned with this concept from the standpoint of how much time to spend on a controversial idea. It obviously is foolish to spend much time on an idea when little is needed and little time when much is needed. One does not simply "support an idea"; one "supports an idea in terms of an audience.

2. (B) Any persuasive speech involves a proposition. It is useful for the student speaker to know what type of proposition he is presenting. Additionally, from the standpoint of critical evaluation, different criteria need to be employed in the evaluation of different persuasive propositions. The classical concept of stasis still has much utility today.

3. (A) Statistics tend to be the most meaningful if they are presented in extremely graphic or concrete terms. This usually means expressisng them in units which the members of the audience can readily picture. When speaking to a Nevadan audience the unit of local population should be meaningful.

4. (C) An introduction should gain audience interest and disclose and clarify the subject to be discussed. Although speeches can be introduced in numerous ways, depending upon the subject and the audience, item C should be designated as the best answer because it is the only one that focuses on the main theme of the speech and has a potential interest factor.

5. (C) A speaker may draw on different kinds of supporting data in order to make his arguments acceptable to an audience. One aid to gaining acceptability is the use of authority opinion.

6. (B) Definition is an invaluable agent for achieving clarity in communication. The student should know more about definition than merely looking up words in a dictionary. He should know how words acquire their meaning; he should know how to make meanings clear through various definitional techniques. In this instance a comparison is used for the purpose of making meaning more graphic.

7. (D) The use of interest and clarity devices are essential to truly effective communication. This being true, it is important that a student is aware of common interest and clarity devices. This question concerns one such device, the hypothetical illustration.

8. (A) The student completing the basic course in speech will not only know that organization is important in oral discourse but also that there are patterns of organization that will aid both speaker and listener. The pattern described here, the topical, is a way of breaking down the thesis through separate but related topics which, when reassembled, lead the audience to accept the thesis.

9. (C) Similar to written communication, the factors of unity, coherence,

10. (A) emphasis, and proportion have importance in spoken messages.

11. (D) The student is first of all encouraged to make a unified presentation by focusing on a central idea throughout the speech; he is encouraged to relate the points of his speech in order to achieve clear thought progression; he is encouraged to strive for emphasis upon his key ideas; and he is encouraged to have some degree of proportion for his main points.

12. (D) The objective of all bodily activity in speech is to contribute to the communication of ideas and attitudes. It is sometimes useful to move to indicate transition and to relieve tension and weariness but neither of these factors constitute the basic rationale for bodily movement.

13. (C) This question concerns the possible bias of sources. Students in speech are trained to distinguish between biased, possibly biased, and probably unbiased sources. Of the three sources given in this test item, the Harvard Study would probably have the least reason for bias, in fact one of its prime objectives probably would be objectivity; the Secretary of Labor is likely to be less biased than the president of the Electricians Association who has a vested interest.

14. (C) Most questions are multivalued in nature. Whenever a two-valued proposition is presented to him, the student is encouraged to look for other possible dimensions of the question in order to determine if the dichotomy the speaker presents is realistic or fallacious.

15. (B) Another example of the student's ability to discriminate the type of reasoning. The student who satisfactorily completes Speech 1A should be able to identify and use both inductive and deductive reasoning in oral discourse.

16. (E) The student is taught to recognize connotative language. Connotative language of course has its value, but at the same time it can be used to sway people by means of language alone. It is likely that this will happen if the listener can distinguish between connotative and denotative expressions.

17. (C) An important concept in communication is the idea of speaker-listener rapport. The speaker tries to present his message and himself, whenever possible, in such a way as to gain an empathic response. Empathy in some respects is technical jargon but, on the other hand, it is a term that probably should be found in any educated person's vocabulary. Moreover, it is difficult to deal with the concept effectively without the term.

18. (C) Circular reasoning of the type in this test item is probably far more common than most people realize. We feel that the student should be taught to detect it when it occurs.

19. (D) The foils of this test item represent what Aristotle thought to be the components of ethos or personal proof in speech communication. An image of expertness, trustworthiness, and good will is what any effective speaker will try to develop.

20. (B) False cause fallacies are extremely common. Careful examination of causal relationships lies near the heart of critical listening. The term post hoc should not be foreign to anyone with any previous speech background.

21. (C) Not much emphasis is placed upon the voice in Speech; however, the student is expected to have some knowledge of the basic process of vocal production. Suggestions concerning vocal delivery are meaningful to the student if he knows the basic concepts. Stress is a meaningful and interesting part of vocal delivery.

22. (C) This question expects the student to have some knowledge of certain stock methods of arrangement which are useful for dealing with many speech subjects.

In this instance, spatial arrangement would doubtlessly be the best method.

23. (A) Students should know that words do not derive their meanings from the dictionary but from people. This question also tests the idea that meanings do not reside in words themselves but in people using the words.

24. (D) The hasty generalization is one of the most common reasoning problems that should be detected by the critical listener. The question of sufficiency of evidence is one that the student is taught to apply to claims a speaker makes.

25. (E) Each audience and each speech situation embody constraints to which the apeaker must adapt his presentation. This test item identifies some of the important constraints and tests the student's ability to distinguish between the more critical ones and one, the time of day, that is not likely to be critical from the standpoint of research, even though the time of day may influence the communication act.

26. (A) A speech student is taught to take a close look at statistics whenever they appear in an argument. No average income could be computed from the information given in this argument.

27. (E) The role of the speaker's ethos in communication is discussed in almost any basic speech course. Ethos is known to exert considerable influence in speech communications.

28. (C) This item raises a question concerning audience adaptation. A brief introduction that discloses and clarifies the subject is all that is normally necessary for a partisan, selected, concerted, or neutral audience. However, a hostile audience may require that a speaker prepare them for his message with a longer introduction that embodies examples and various kinds of evidence before he states his central idea.

29. (D) Students are taught that speech communication is a process. It is an interaction between speaker and listener. To be sure it is not expression, because that term does not necessarily connote communication. It is not an event that just happens, and it is not limited to persuasion or inquiry.

30. (C) People commonly use operational definitions in their speeches, in fact the operational definition is a most useful technique. We feel that the speech student should know what an operational definition is.

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Harvey Allen Godorov was born in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania where he received his elementary and secondary education.

Mr. Godorov started his undergraduate education at Arizona Western Junior College in Yuma, Arizona. He transferred to Modesto Junior College in Modesto, California where he received his A.A. in Speech-Broadcasting in 1968. He continued on to California State University at San Diego, San Diego, California where he received his B.A. in Speech with a minor in Journalism, graduating cum laude and with distinction in the major.

After almost a year at Metropolitan State College in Denver, Colorado, Mr. Godorov transferred to Las Vegas where he finished work on his teaching credential in Secondary Education at the University of Nevada at Las Vegas in 1973. He stayed at UNLV to complete his M.Ed. in Secondary Education, Curriculum and Development in 1975, and immediately started work on his Ed.D. at the same institution.

Mr. Godorov has a strong background in communicative arts. He became a show business entertainer after high school and worked at various places around the country as a singer and actor. He started work in radio and television

upon completing training for and receiving his First Class Radio Telephone License at the Ogden School of Radio Engineering in 1964 and worked either part time or full time while he was completing his education, working in the capacity of radio announcer, newsman, television weather man, radio and television engineer, and sports announcer.

While in college Mr. Godorov became involved in many speech, theatre, and broadcasting activities. He was active in theatre productions at Arizona Western Junior College, on the forensics squad at Modesto Junior College, worked on the educational radio and television stations while at the University of California at San Diego in addition to announcing for the marching band and was the school's representative for Sigma Delta Chi's national convention in 1970.

Mr. Godorov is married to the former Gail Kimbell and they have two sons, Adam Craig, nine and Jordan Keith, seven months.

A Comparison of Two Approaches to Teaching Public Speaking at the Community College Level

Godorov, Harvey Allen, Ed.D.
University of Nevada at Las Vegas, 1979. 93 pp.
Advisor: David H. Miller

The purpose of this study was to compare two types of instruction to determine whether one approach or method is superior in promoting student achievement in the basic speech communication course in a community college setting. The study was planned to find answers to the following question: To what extent do students, who are exposed to two different teaching/learning approaches, differ in terms of their cognitive achievement in oral communications?

The statistical design that was used is the Nonequivalent Control Group Design which is as follows:

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The population for this study consisted of 32 students enrolled in two oral communications classes at Clark County Community College in the Spring Semester, 1979. Within these classes individuals were matched to create pairs using the following criteria:

1. Pretest score on the Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination
2. Speech anxiety
3. Proficiency of speech desired
4. Previous speech experience

From the two treatment groups, six matching pairs were selected.

Only the matched subjects were used in the calulation of the statistics.

Treatment I was assigned to the 1:40 p.m. class meeting on Tuesday and Thursday. There were eleven participants in this Treatment, five male and six female. The average age of this group was 26.7. This was the Control Group. and the traditional lecture approach was the method of instruction used.

Treatment II was assigned to the 9:25 a.m. class meeting on Monday and Wednesday. There were 29 participants in this group, nine male and twelve female. The average age of this group was 27.3. This was the Experimental Group and the self-instruction/ criterion-referenced approach to teaching was the method of instruction used. The students were instructed to use two class periods to listen to audio-tapes in the Speech Laboratory. The tapes contained the information for the particular unit of study.

At the conclusion of the unit all students were given a posttest which was identical to the pretest (Abridged Patton Speech Content Examination).

The matched pairs subjects from Treatment I averaged 8.83 on the pretest and 11.66 on the posttest. Treatment II matched pair subjects averaged 8.83 on the pretest and 14.8 on the posttest.

The null hypothesis was tested at the .05 level of significance of differences between the posttest means of the two groups. Students receiving the individualized/laboratory instruction method scored higher on the posttest than did the group that received the classroom/lecture method of instruction but the differences were no

more than might be attributed to chance. Therefore, it was concluded that the use of individualized instruction as described in this study, although not inhibiting the students' cognitive achievment, cannot be expected to be more effective than the traditional/ classroom instructional approach when student achievement is used as the measure of effectiveness in a beginning public speaking course.

The following are recommendations for further study:

1. Student attitudes toward alternative methods of instruction.
2. Which method of instruction influences greater success in public speaking performance?
3. Should students in a beginning public speaking course be provided a choice of laboratory (individualized) instruction regardless of the costs if and when no significant differences occur between the two different teaching methods?
4. Would there be any change in results if Treatment Group II (Experimental Group) is given the post-test immediately after each member finishes the study material rather than waiting for the entire group to take it at one time?
5. The use of analysis of covariance to compute the data.
6. A longer study (up to five years) to determine students' attitudes toward alternative teaching methods.