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DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate School of The Ohio State University

By

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The Ohio State University
1973

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Traditionally, the teaching of speech has been a practical art. Granted there have been periods where the study of speech was primarily a passive act of reading great works of rhetoric, the basic thrust of speech education has been the development of oral skills for communicating messages.

Corax, Gorgias, Isocrates and other Greek sophists trained speakers so that they could intelligibly and persuasively speak in the law courts. Cicero and Quintilian systematized the Greek rhetorical philosophies and produced the five canons of oratory and applied them to training orators. Following the fall of Rome and its empire, the oral skills of style and majestic expression through imagery were stressed in oral skill development. St. Augustine (A.D. 340-430) wrote a comprehensive document applying the classical doctrines of oral effectiveness to
the art of preaching -- homiletics. The earliest English authors of speech books, Leonard Cox and Thomas Wilson, borrowed from the Greeks and Romans in an effort to make their doctrines of oral speaking useful to the world of practical affairs. Later, Francis Bacon stressed sound reasoning as the most important skill of oral discourse. The elocutionary movement gave the skills of oral delivery the prominent position in speech education at the time. The modern period in speech education retained the skills found in the classical canons, but added the applications of psychology to the study and practice of oral persuasion. New techniques were developed to enable speakers to capture the audience's attention and use their thoughts and feelings in the process of persuasion.

Although speech education in America can be traced back to the early colonies (Harvard's Chair of Rhetoric, for example), the emergence of speech as an academic discipline is usually dated as having begun in 1914 with the founding of the National Association of Academic Teachers of Public Speaking. These early twentieth-century speech educators "were concerned primarily with re-energizing the study of rhetoric as a comprehensive theory of practical discourse." (1:6) As teachers of
speech instead of English, these early educators taught public speaking. By the 1930's course offerings expanded to include: debate, oral interpretation, parliamentary procedure and business speech. In the last two decades, curricula have included the study of mass media. Allen and Willmington observe:

The field of speech communication developed as a rich, though unstable, amalgam of studies related to the acts of oral communication. The boundaries of the field were set more by convenience and tradition than by the logic of the terrain embraced. (1:9)

Before the 1930's speech education in American public secondary schools was almost non-existent. Between 1930 and W.W. II, several states began to show course offerings in speech for credit. This was especially prevalent in the Midwestern and Western states. It was not until after W.W. II, particularly in the 1950's that speech courses in the secondary schools experienced a major growth nationally. A recent study indicates that 80 to 90% of American secondary schools now offer some type of speech course. (2:281) The content of these secondary speech courses reflect the traditional (classical) efforts of developing oral skills in public speaking.
Brooks and Friedrich claim:

The basic speech course contains several units including informative speaking, persuasive speaking, drama, listening, choral reading, voice and diction, delivery, discussion, parliamentary procedure and debate. (3:4)

They further observe that, "It is significant that most units are concerned with platform or public speaking." (3:4)

Background of the Problem

Since the development of the basic philosophies and goals of secondary speech education in the early 1950's¹ many significant and influential changes have effected American society and its youth. Many of these changes impinge directly on the character of speech education and the high school speech class.

Buys, Carlson, Compton and Frank identify "four revolutions" that "have altered the premises which supported the classical speech education model." (4:298-300)

Those four revolutions are:

1) The Darwin revolution -- which forced western man into the modern world, brought about new views of the nature of truth;

¹These philosophies are found in: Karl Robinson Teaching Speech in the Secondary School, 1954; Weaver, Borchers and Smith The Teaching of Speech, 1952; and Friedrich and Wilcox Teaching Speech in High Schools, 1953.
2) The Freudian revolution -- turned man's attention to the nature and function of the human system;

3) The Einstein revolution -- forced man to reconsider the laws of nature and man; and

4) The economic revolution -- today man's economic existence is predicated upon his communication abilities.

Buys, et. al., concluded: "The total impact of these four revolutions is not yet clear. It is possible, however, to recognize their influence upon pre-suppositions relevant to modern communication." (4:300) Obviously, these "revolutions" occurred prior to 1950, but the basic philosophies of speech education developed in the 1950's were based upon classical concepts. These "revolutions" have caused societal changes that alter the validity of the classical models and thereby effect modern speech education theory.

Researchers Arthur Bochner and Clifford Kelly identify five factors that dictate a need for new directions in the study of speech education. Those five factors are:

1) the collapse of religion during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries;

2) the traditional western emphasis upon human rationality;

3) the apparent failure of scientific technology to solve the problems of humanity as expected;
4) the rapid development of a highly
technological and impersonal, mass
production society; and

5) the nature of traditional American
values. (5:6)

Richard Gray believes the mass media, especially,
television, has had a significant impact on the rationale
underlying speech education. He feels television has
reduced the natural communication-socialization process
formerly common in pre-TV societies and non-TV societies.
He concludes:

This socializing is completely
missed when one is passively seated
in front of a TV set having little
or no communication with peers or
adults.
Students coming to college today
seem to be very lonely young people.
The counselors tell us that students
are hard pressed to name more than
one or two intimate friends. (6:5)

This demonstrates a need for some educational process to
encourage or replace the lost natural socialization-
communication process. Speech education has dealt
primarily with communication in formal situations. A
need is apparent for some competencies in the informal and
routine communication acts. Thus it is evident that many
developments in the American society have changed some of
the premises upon which the philosophies of speech
education are based.

One of the most noticeable changes in the 1970's has been the American youth. Like previous generations, they have typically rejected the values of the older generation. But unlike most previous generations, they "are typically more aware than their pre-Sputnik counterparts. They are also more demanding. They call for courses relevant to their particular needs and values." (7:21) Marshall McLuhan, commenting on the impact of media upon our youth points out, "their impatience for change and concern for 'nowness' may well have been fostered by the immediacy of communication characteristic of television and computers." (8:335)

Whether one accepts or rejects any or all of these specific changes or causal factors, it is obvious that the American society of the 1970's is significantly different from the classical Greek and Roman societies and even different from the American society of 1950. The changes that have occurred call for a re-evaluation of the basic premises of speech education in 1970.

Along with the overall changes in American life, the academic discipline of speech has experienced some significant changes, especially since the 1950's.
John Gow explains:

The Speech profession has undergone striking changes in the last twenty years. The scope of study and teaching has broadened to include a more thorough assessment of the literature of communication. A 'communications' movement has arisen, threatening to displace the old rhetoric, which emphasized 'practical public speaking.' (7:21)

The "old discipline of speech" with its primary concern for public address has been replaced by the "new discipline of speech communication." It includes the intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions with a heavier emphasis on the use of psychological and social variables to explain both verbal and nonverbal behaviors and the effects of these behaviors on others. David Smith characterized this change in the discipline when he observed, "Times are changing .... Neo-Aristotelian rhetoricians are in full retreat ...." (9:1) This Neo-Aristotelian philosophy has been the basis for speech education.

The most obvious manifestation of change in the discipline of speech has been the changing of the name of the national association from the Speech Association of America to the Speech Communication Association. In abandoning the term "Speech" which has become synonomous with "proper expression in public situations" for
"Speech Communication," the discipline has moved to a broader conception of the field to include all types of human communication encounters. (1:10) As the academic discipline has changed, so has the nature of its courses. Kenneth Brown notes:

There is strong indication that the nature of speech courses is changing. More concern with a broader spectrum of human communication behaviors than public speaking is evident in courses that focus on different levels of communication, on systematic instructional strategies, and on taxonomical development of cognitive, affective and psychomotor learnings. (10:27)

This change in the nature of speech courses is further documented by Dr. Joseph Illardo's statement that, "The emphasis in required courses particularly is being shifted from public speaking to interpersonal communication." (11:4) Illardo elaborated by saying:

Public speaking's stress on influence has yielded to interpersonal communication's stress on understandings, that the former's emphasis on 'speaker-acting-upon-auditor' has given way to 'mutual-interaction-and influence.' (11:2)

Professor Dorothy Higginbotham, a leading researcher in the area of speech education for the elementary school, challenges "the appropriateness of classical rhetorical theory, which has long influenced language instruction"
and she advances the belief that, "a more relevant body of information should begin to serve as a basis for the development and execution of elementary school speech programs." (12:4) What Dr. Higginbotham sees is a change in the discipline that is resulting in new assumptions and new research. She feels these changes should also occur in speech education. Allen and Willmington acknowledge that these changes have not been universal throughout the country and throughout the discipline. However, they do conclude:

> It seems safe to predict that major changes will occur in both basic and advanced courses. All courses will give greater attention to developing student understandings. The era of readers, orators, and media performers in the speech communication curriculum is drawing to a close. (1:17)

In summary, there have been major changes in our society and our discipline in the last twenty years. There have also been significant changes since the "classical doctrines of speech" were first formulated by the Greeks and Romans. These classical premises have traditionally been the philosophical base for speech education. These changes that have been identified call for a re-evaluation of this philosophical base of secondary speech education.
Speech Education has been Unresponsive to Changes

Despite these major changes in our society and the discipline of speech (the trend toward broadening the speech curriculum), the basic speech course has remained unchanged. On both the college and secondary levels, the basic speech course operates generally under the same classical rhetorical principles as it did in 1950. It has been unresponsive to change. In his 1954 survey, Harry Barnes reported that public speaking was the backbone of the basic course. (13:249-251) After a 1956 survey of over 200 colleges and universities, Donald Hargis reported that the first or basic course was a course in public speaking. (14:26-32) These findings are consistent with the philosophy existant in the 1950's. However, in 1970, Gibson, Gruner, Brooks, and Petrie found that:

In spite of the increased concern for communication and communication theory apparent in our journals and in the scholarly papers presented at our conventions, the basic course in the vast majority of the reporting schools, continues to take a public speaking fundamentals approach, to use textbooks oriented toward public speaking, to emphasize the construction and delivery of informative and persuasive speeches, and to devote a large proportion of classroom time to the presentation and oral critique of four to six speeches by each student. (15:20)
This study indicates a lack of responsiveness to change. This fact prompted Samuel Mehrley and James Backes to conclude in 1972:

   The first college course in speech has changed very little since in inception. The latest nationwide survey of the basic course concludes by noting that, though lip-service has been paid to 'communication' and 'communication theory,' schools continue to use textbooks oriented toward public speaking. The basic course has changed very little while the discipline as a whole is in the midst of accelerating revision -- long held theories and traditional pedagogies are being challenged. The basic course, seemingly quite oblivious of the radical changes in the form of substance of the entire field of speech, continues as it always has. (16:205)

While there have been some major efforts to break away from the public speaking mold on both the college and secondary levels, the vast majority of courses are still just paying "lip-service" to communication and interpersonal communication while stressing the skills of public speaking.

   On the secondary level there has been even less of a movement toward change. Donald Klopf reported in 1970 that the basic high school speech class "faithfully upholds the traditions of the past ... even though they bear little relationship to the reality of the present." (17:78) In
their 1972 secondary speech methods text, Allen and Willmington concluded about speech in the secondary school that:

In an era of change, most contemporary high school speech communication courses still represent that which is to be changed. The modern high school student of speech communication generally receives the same instruction given his parents in the 1940's as if the social, intellectual, and economic revolutions of the fifties and sixties had never occurred. (1:15)

In view of the overall lack of change in the basic speech course in the face of widespread societal changes and changes in the discipline, there have appeared with growing frequency numerous criticisms and calls for change in the basic speech course on both the college and high school levels. The specific criticisms and calls for change will be analyzed in detail in a subsequent chapter. The fact is that there is growing pressure for change. The question is will the change occur and how can it occur? How can change be implemented especially on the secondary level? John Gow ponders:

The extent to which the speech profession responds to the irrepresible forces for change will determine its future strength. It can begin to achieve a fuller measure of its potential as an academic discipline. Will it? (7:24)
Statement of the Problem

For the high school teacher who becomes aware of
1) the lack of responsiveness of speech education to change, 2) the criticisms of the present, traditional approach to teaching secondary speech, 3) calls for change in the secondary speech curriculum, and decides to respond by implementing change in his school, the teacher is confronted with the following problems:

1) a dearth of materials geared for easy use in the secondary speech classroom;

2) little access to the materials that are available;

3) no consensus among the experts and the literature on the terminology involved in the recommendations for change;

4) no consensus on what "new skills" should be developed among high school students;

5) no consensus on what content or subject matter should be included in a "new curricula"; and

6) no consensus on what instructional strategies and structures will best implement a new approach to the secondary speech curriculum.
Dearth of Materials

The high school teacher who wants to investigate new content areas within his discipline and integrate them into his curriculum needs relevant materials. Since most high school speech courses are structured around the speech textbook, the teacher wanting to change will naturally look for a new text which reflects the changes desired. Such a teacher will find only one high school speech text written since 1968 that even attempts an alternative approach. All it does is offer some communication theory with the regular large dose of rhetorical-public speaking approach.

There are three methods texts available that present alternative approaches, but teachers who are not now in a college course using these texts or who plan to return to school and take a methods course that uses one of these texts will not be aware of their existence.

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3See Allen and Willmington, Galvin and Book and Brooks and Friedrich in the bibliography.
There are several excellent college level texts on communication theory and interpersonal communication available through the major publishers, but again these are usually unknown to the teachers who are now out in the schools. These texts also are not geared to the secondary level. Teachers who have little or no background in communication theory will find these books somewhat difficult to comprehend. Dorothy Higginbotham observes:

Teachers are poorly prepared to interpret and evaluate the growing body of literature and research in language and communication to develop their own pertinent objectives and practical procedures for speaking and listening instruction. Inadequately equipped to make use of the best in new knowledge and methods, they are left little recourse except to provide children with random oral experiences in the vain hope that they are fulfilling some worthwhile, though poorly defined, need. Such an approach accomplishes good only by accident. (12:16)

Thus there exists a lack of readily usable materials for the secondary speech classroom relevant to human communication theory.

---

4 See the annotated bibliography in Chapter Seven.
Little Access to Relevant Materials

The dearth of readily usable materials does not mean that there are no relevant materials available for the high school teacher; there are. They are found, however, in the national and regional professional journals. Many excellent materials are presented and explained in national and regional speech conventions and workshops. The problem is one of access. Most secondary speech teachers do not belong to these professional organizations and therefore are unaware of the materials and workshops. The reasons for non-membership are numerous. The minority who do join a professional speech organization usually join only on the state level. Professor Eugene Vasilew, a former editor of a regional speech journal, commented:

...since most state associations do not publish journals whereas the national and regionals do, and most secondary teachers do not get them because they do not belong to the associations, therefore, except as they make some unusual effort, most secondary school teachers do not read these journals which are presumably at the forefront of theory, research and pedagogy in the discipline. (18:1)

Another source of excellent information that is or can be easily geared to the secondary curriculum is the teaching and research in communication now being done at
and by some of the progressive colleges and universities. Experts do exist and they have relevant information. However, Vasilew points out:

... not only is there little articulation between speech communication programs at the secondary level and the college, there is instead an increasing gap between the two. (18:1)

Thus there is a problem of access for the secondary speech teacher who wants to investigate materials relevant to an alternative speech curriculum and its implementation.

No Consensus on Terminology

Those secondary speech teachers who do have access to and can interpret the professional journals find a perplexing situation -- there is a lack of consensus among the writers. Most of the literature offering suggestions for high school teachers for use in their classes is found under the rubrics: "communication theory;" "communication-oriented;" or "interpersonal communication" approaches to the basic speech course. But what does this mean? After reading several of the published articles in these areas, teachers ask, "What are the vital tasks or functions of interpersonal communication?" and "How can the speech teacher help students to perform these tasks more successfully?" (19:54)
The reason for these questions is that the literature does not provide answers or often there is a lack of agreement concerning the answers. For example, John Stewart points out:

The variety of textbooks indicates the term 'interpersonal' is used in a number of ways. Sometimes it designates a communication setting; sometimes it identifies an essential psychological element; and sometimes it identifies a quality of communication. In addition, the concepts and skills studied in an interpersonal course are often difficult to define ... (20:9)

Further confusion arises from the fact that some authors call for a change to a "communication theory approach" and some to a "communication-oriented" approach. These are in addition to the calls for an "interpersonal communication" approach which is presumably different from the others.

How can the high school teacher evaluate the differences, advantages and disadvantages of each approach? Reading the articles does not seem to be the answer. For example, consider the following statements of philosophies:

I. An Interpersonal Communication Approach --

... will enable students to deal with ordinary communication problems that occur in family and work groups, between parent and child, husband and wife, employer and employee, student and teacher, and so on. (21:9)
II. A Communication Theory Approach--

... is built on the premises that each speech communication situation is unique and that within one situation there is constant change and interaction of variables. ... the student is prepared to function as a speaker and a listener who must continually reassess the communication situation to become aware of ongoing changes ... The basic outcome sought is the ability to make accurate predictions about the types of speaking and listening behaviors needed to get the response sought. (19:52)

III. A Communication-oriented Approach--

Communication curricula seek to answer the question, 'what must a student know and do to be able to be an effective party to communication in contemporary society?' (1:18)

and

The objective of the communications course is to provide each learned with an opportunity to explore and expand his understanding of the ways in which he communicates with other persons. (21:156)

It appears that except for the theoretical emphasis of the "communication theory approach," the only real difference among these approaches and philosophies is the extent of the elaboration. Further confusion is added by other
writers who deal with the same or similar concepts, goals or objectives, but employ still different terminology. An example is Kenneth Brown who refers to the same objectives as interpersonal communication, but uses the term "talk." Brown says:

Talk is intended to focus attention on informal speaking and listening in the classroom with a concern for personal development of all students regardless of special interest or ability in platform speaking, debating or acting. Talk is referred to as 'informal interaction ...' while speech is 'sustained or organized utterance.' (10:25-26)

What is needed for the high school teacher to effectively comprehend, evaluate and implement any system of change in his classroom is a consensus definition of what constitutes an "alternative approach" to the traditional public speaking secondary curriculum.

No Consensus on Skills

While a consensus definition is a necessary prerequisite to understanding conceptually what kind of change or kinds of alternatives are appropriate, a definition alone will not facilitate implementation. The high school teacher needs specifics -- specifics that are easily translatable into appropriate secondary course objectives, subject matter and learning activities.
Again, the teacher who seeks these specifics is faced with the problem of no consensus, especially on what specific skills need to be developed for communication competency. The "experts" have provided little help because they "do not always agree among themselves what it is that we know. Neither do they agree on what must be done to produce the desired outcomes in the students. But most of all, they do not agree on what it is that is so important to have students understand." (22:60) Thus this lack of consensus on what skills are appropriate for developing communication competency inhibits the secondary teacher in developing an alternative curriculum.

Lack of Consensus on Subject Matter

As was the case with terminology, the experts disagree on content or subject matter. Three approaches have been identified: "communication theory," "communication-oriented," and "interpersonal communication." There are content differences among these three approaches, as well as, content differences within each approach. For example, Bochner and Kelly comment on the "interpersonal approach" that, "while several recent essays ... have produced valuable insights about the appealing qualities of interpersonal communication courses ..., no unified philosophy
or framework based upon an interpersonal and/or behavioral science paradigm has emerged." (5:10) This presents another inhibiting factor on curricula development.

**Lack of Consensus on Strategy**

In addition to a consensus of definitions, skills and content areas, the secondary speech teacher needs some guidelines on structure, organization and instructional strategies. Specifically the teacher needs to know how to present the course to students in order to maximize the learnings. Presently no consensus organizational or instructional strategy pattern exists. Analysis of the literature suggests that Mehrley and Backes, Allen and Willmington support a primarily theory oriented approach. Whereas Brooks and Friedrich, and Galvin and Book offer only lists of activities devoid of theory suggesting a primarily activity oriented approach to teaching communication in the secondary speech class. Obviously, a teacher formulating a new curriculum based on material new to him needs some guidelines for selecting appropriate organizational plans and instructional strategies. These guidelines do not exist.
Summary

This writer concludes that an analysis of representative sources of information on communication theory and interpersonal communication can produce a consensus set of definitions, skills and content areas appropriate for the secondary speech class. Furthermore, this consensus is needed for adequate implementation of an integrated alternative approach for teaching speech communication in the secondary speech classroom.
CHAPTER II

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this chapter is to explain the design of this study. This will be done by elaborating on: the purposes of the study, the limitations of the study, the methodologies employed, and the specific procedures used in gathering, organizing and analyzing pertinent data.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study are:

1) to provide an analysis of the basic structures, content and assumptions underlying the traditional secondary speech class as currently practiced;

2) to provide an analysis of the criticisms of these traditional practices and assumptions by contemporary writers and educators;

3) to provide an analysis of the suggestions for changes in the basic high school speech class;

4) to provide consensus definitions appropriate for alternative approaches to the traditional public speaking
oriented approach to teaching secondary speech;

5) to provide a consensus set of concepts (subject matter areas) and skills appropriate for development in a secondary speech class using an alternative approach;

6) to provide a suggested instructional approach and strategies appropriate for an alternative secondary speech curriculum;

7) to provide curricula alternatives for teaching a communications approach in the secondary speech class that includes:

a. a set of alternative assumptions,

b. a rationale for a communications approach,

c. a viable instructional approach and strategies,

d. an outline of appropriate content or subject matter areas,

e. a set of appropriate learning activities matched to content areas, and

f. an annotated list of useful resources; and

8) to analyze the implications of implementing an alternative communications approach in a secondary school.
Limitations of the Study

The basic limitations of this study are:

1) the examination of the literature that is available and pertinent to this study will begin with 1968 -- the publication date of the Buys, et. al. article (4) which was the pioneer effort in suggesting an alternative approach to secondary speech;

2) the focus of the alternative curriculum will be the high school level even though secondary normally includes the grades from 7 through 12;¹

3) the purpose of the resultant curriculum is to provide alternative approaches to those teachers who seek them -- it is not intended to be prescriptive in nature; and

4) the mode for dissemination of the accrued information will not be a consideration -- although the problem of availability and access was identified.

Methodologies Employed

There were two prime research methodologies used in this study. They are the descriptive-analytical methodology

¹An extensive study on the junior high curriculum was recently completed and it provides appropriate curricula alternatives. See: Ronnie Lyle Fadley in the annotated bibliography.
and the creative methodology. The purposes and functions of each will be explained.

**Descriptive Method**

Professors Allen and Borchers refer to this method of research as one that, "describes and interprets the present." (23:585) J. Jeffery Auer views descriptive research in speech education as, "the study of existing conditions, situations, or relationships, in order to discover or establish norms or standards." (24:28) Allen and Borchers further clarify this methodology by saying:

> ... descriptive research is more than simple fact finding and recording. It embraces as well the search for significance or meaning through such processes as interpretation, comparison, classification, and evaluation. When the descriptive method is employed in speech education, the findings of such research may contribute significant insights into the nature of student population to whom speech concepts and skills are to be imparted and the status, materials, methods, and effects of speech instruction. (23:585)

This descriptive methodology was employed to:

1. Describe the existing traditional high school speech course. This involved analyzing recent studies and examining currently used secondary speech texts.

2. Describe, analyze and classify the criticisms of the traditional speech course. This involved reviewing
the available literature since 1968.

III. Describe, analyze and classify the suggestions and calls for changes in the traditional speech course. This also involved reviewing the available literature since 1968.

IV. Describe, analyze, and classify selected, representative literature on communication theory for the purpose of extrapolating appropriate definitions and content areas for a secondary speech communications curriculum.

V. Describe, analyze, and classify selected, representative literature on interpersonal communication for the purpose of extrapolating appropriate definitions and content areas for a secondary speech communications curriculum.

VI. Describe and analyze the research pertaining to the teaching of communication and interpersonal communication skills.

VII. Enumerate, classify, and describe the major resources available to a secondary teacher for use in a communications course.

Creative Method

The creative method involves the generation of new ideas, theories, or materials appropriate to the research
area. While there have generally been few creative research projects by graduate students in the form of theses or dissertations, Professor Theora England reported to the Speech Communication Association Convention in Chicago, December, 1972, that:

In all phases of life today, the need for new and fresh ways of solving problems is apparent. Creativity has become a precious commodity. Yet creativity has come close to becoming a lost cause in American education. Education, frequently viewed as an aggregation of facts or the preparatory stages of a prosaic life, carried on the scholastic tradition.

Graduate students ... should be encouraged to submit their ideas and their findings. The time has arrived for more creative studies in every field of speech ... (25:6)

This creative methodology was employed to:

I. Develop a rationale for a communications approach to the secondary speech class.

II. Develop an alternative set of assumptions appropriate for a secondary speech class employing a communications approach.

III. Develop an alternative course structure appropriate for a secondary speech class employing a communications approach.

IV. Develop an information data base for teachers that seek to implement a communications approach that
includes:

A. appropriate subject matter areas and

B. appropriate content-matched learning activities.

V. Develop and analyze a set of implications for consideration when contemplating a change to a communications approach.

Specific Procedures Used

Throughout this study specific procedures were used to compile, organize and analyze relevant data. Those procedures are:

I. To determine the nature and status of the traditional high school speech course, this investigator reviewed the relevant articles in the *Speech Teacher* that dealt with the goals, structure or content summaries of the high school courses. While individual state studies were examined, specific attention was given to the national summary of the various state studies. Finally, published analyses of secondary speech texts were examined to determine the representative content areas of the traditional speech course.

II. To determine the criticisms and suggestions for change in the traditional secondary speech course, this investigator examined the relevant literature in the
Speech Teacher and Central States Speech Journal since 1968.
In addition, all speech methods texts and supplemental speech education texts that could be identified were examined. Again, 1968 to the present were the limitations of the literature search.

III. To determine a consensus set of content areas representative of communication theory and the definition of communication, five representative texts (Berlo, 1960; Borden, Gregg and Grove, 1969; Mortensen, 1972; Scheidel, 1972; and Applbaum, Anatol, Hays, Jenson, Porter, and Mandel, 1973) were selected for review. Berlo was selected because it is generally regarded as the pioneer effort in speech communication theory from which all other communication texts have developed. The Mortensen and Borden, et. al., books were selected for their popularity.¹ Popularity was an important criteria since content areas to be recommended for secondary use were to reflect the most widely accepted and used views of communication theory. The Scheidel book published in late 1972 and the Applbaum, et. al. book published in 1973 were selected as being the

¹Franklin H. Knower referred to the Mortensen book as the most comprehensive and widely used communication text since Berlo. This statement was made in a communications seminar at The Ohio State University in 1972. John Stewart (20:7) refers to the popularity of the Borden, et. al., book.
most recent texts. Books containing selected reading in communication theory were not reviewed because these texts are used primarily as supplements and rarely reflect an accurate delineation of the course content topic areas.

IV. To determine a consensus set of content areas representative of interpersonal communication and the definition of interpersonal communication, three texts (Keltner, 1970; Giffin and Patton, 1971; and McCroskey, et. al., 1971) were selected because of their popularity and wide use. Stewart (20:7) pointed out that during its first year of publication, the Keltner text was used by over 150 schools. Less than six months after its publication, the Giffin and Patton text had 125 adoptions. While adoption figures of the McCroskey text were not available, Stewart refers to it as the next most widely used interpersonal communications text. Since these three texts were far above the others in terms of popularity and use, they were selected to be the only representative texts to be reviewed. Again, readings books were not reviewed since they are used primarily as supplements rather than the basic source of content.

V. To determine the extent of the research on teaching communication and interpersonal communication two major sources were examined. First in the field of speech
communication, the three major speech journals (Speech Teacher, Quarterly Journal of Speech and Speech Monographs) were examined for relevant research studies and anecdotal reports. Secondly, the psychological research studies of Dr. Robert R. Carkhuff\(^2\) were examined to determine their findings and their relevancy to the teaching of communication skills.

VI. The procedure used to determine the consensus sets of definitions and content areas for communication theory and interpersonal communication was: 1) a content analysis of the representative texts selected; 2) an enumeration of the areas of commonality among the texts examined; and 3) a combining of the common areas into a single definition of a set of appropriate content topic areas.

**Definition of Terms**

For the purpose of clarity, the reader is advised that the following definitions will be used in this study:

**rhetoric** - rhetoric refers to the "classical" use of the term applying the five canons (invention, organization,

\(^{2}\)Carkhuff's studies were identified by Dr. Joseph Quaranta, Prof. of Guidance and Counseling, The Ohio State University, to this investigator as the most important studies in the psychological and counseling literature regarding the teaching of communication skills.
style, delivery, and memory) to the art of public speaking.

**linear vs. non-linear model** - the non-linear model refers to more than just an inclusion of a feedback loop to a linear model; it refers to the inclusion of relationship messages in addition to content messages in a communication situation.

**communications approach** - refers to the combination of the suggested "communication theory approach," the "communication-oriented approach" and the "interpersonal communication approach." A specific suggested communications approach will be developed and explained in Chapter Six.
CHAPTER III
ANALYSIS OF THE SECONDARY SPEECH COURSE

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the philosophy, objectives, structure and basic assumptions of the traditional high school speech course. In addition, many of the recent criticisms of teaching speech using this traditional approach will be examined. Finally, the suggestions for change in the traditional course will be enumerated, analyzed and summarized.

The Traditional High School Speech Course

It is somewhat difficult to give an accurate national view of the high school speech course since no comprehensive national study has been made. In 1967, Paul Walwick completed a national study for the elementary level, but Phillips says, "to date, there have been no national studies of the secondary schools comparable to the Walwick study of elementary schools." (22:56) Allen and Willmington confirm the fact that accurate information regarding the status of
secondary school speech communication on a national level "is scarce." (1:12) Therefore a piecemeal picture will be compiled using statements of philosophy, objectives and approaches that have appeared in books and national publications, studies of high school textbooks, and data from a study based upon a compilation of the various state surveys reported.

_Philosophy of Secondary Speech Education_

Education is a process of modifying behaviors in learners. Speech involves skills in oral communication. Therefore, speech education is concerned with the process of modifying or improving skills in oral communication. Lewis elaborates on this point when he stated, "Speech education concerns changes in behavior which relate to improvement of _skills in speaking, listening_, and determining the _involvement_ of listeners in all types of oral communication." (26:19) A philosophy is a statement of general principles which governs actions. The philosophy of secondary speech education, therefore, is a statement of the general principles that governs the development of oral skills of secondary students in the speech classroom. While each speech teacher, speech methods textbook, and
high school textbook has its own unique philosophy of

teaching speech skills, there are certain statements of

principle that seem to be universally accepted in all

"philosophies of speech." Dorothy Weirich (27:64) iden-
tified those "generally accepted statements" as:

1) that acquisition of speech skills
   improves communication skills;

2) that the need for training in the
   speech arts is common to all individuals;

3) that skill in their use must be
   acquired by everyone;

4) that every student have the opportunity
   to receive training in these skills; and

5) that the speech-arts course is an
   academic discipline to be taught
   only by a certified and well-trained
   instructor.

These statements of philosophy or principles are accepted

here as being representative of a philosophy of secondary

speech education.¹

¹These premises are confirmed in similar fashion in:

Andrew Weaver, Gladys Borchers, and Donald Smith (The Teaching
of Speech (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1952), Mardel Ogilvie,
Teaching Speech in the High School (New York: Appleton-
Century-Crofts, 1961), Charles Balcer and Hugh Seabury,
Teaching Speech in Today's Secondary Schools (New York: Holt,
Rinehart, and Winston, 1965), Waldo W. Braden, Speech Methods
and Resources (New York, Harper & Row, 1961) and Loren Reid,
Goals or Objectives of Speech Education

The objectives or goals of speech education are the specific skills, behaviors, and learnings that are to be developed through the speech curriculum and instruction. These reflect the philosophy in application. Loren Reid (28:30-33) identifies the general aims of speech as:

1) improve voice, articulation, and other fundamental processes;
2) improve personality;
3) teach the principles underlying the various forms of effective communication;
4) prepare students for participation in a democratic society; and
5) improve ability to think and to listen.

Dorothy Weirich (27:64) presents a similar set of objectives which includes:

1) every student should develop the ability to speak fluently, with poise and confidence;
2) the student must understand the nature of speech and appreciate the power of skillful communication;
3) he must develop his own standards to evaluate his own performance and his own material;
4) he must be able to apply these standards to the performance of others;
5) he must learn to listen critically and discriminately; and
6) he must know how to handle material in ways that are intelligible, pleasing, logical and clear.

While these statements by Loren Reid and Dorothy Weirich represent their unique views of the goals of a speech course, they are accepted here as representative of the goals, aims or objectives usually associated with the basic high school speech class.

Structure of the Secondary Speech Course

The structure of the course is the way the course is organized for the purpose of presenting information, allowing for practice of skills and measuring of the learnings necessary to achieve the stated objectives. Balcer and Seabury (29:115-220) identify three basic structures for the high school speech course:

1) the activities approach -- refers to the study of speech forms like public speeches, debate, oral interpretation, and conversation. The student learns the essence of each activity for the purpose of performing the activity. Each unit is centered on a different speech activity.

2) the fundamentals approach -- means the study of those elements found in all forms of speech activity such as organization of thought, voice control, bodily activity, and language. Units are centered around a fundamental which the student studies and practices for the purpose of improvement.
3) the subject matter approach -- refers to the body of theory about speaking such as rhetorical theory, communication theory and speech criticism. Each unit is centered around a body of theory which the student studies for the purpose of gaining mastery over the knowledge. Knowing and understanding are emphasized over doing.

While many teachers combine the fundamentals and activities approaches, Brooks found in his survey of state studies (30:281) that the activities approach is by far the most popular and pervasive.

Content in the Secondary Speech Course

The content refers to the subject matter (theory) taught in the speech class. For many speech classes the prime source of theory is the textbook which reflects a classical viewpoint. Dorothy Higginbotham reports:

Speech courses in this country have been dominated by the classical notion of speech as art, and the pattern of instruction developed around the Ciceronian concepts of five procedures in preparing and performing an act of communication: invention, arrangement, style, memory, and delivery. The methods teachers have employed in guiding students to acquisition of these skills have traditionally involved a variety of individual platform-speaking performances ranging from reading or reciting prose, poetry, drama and non-original speeches, to debate, oratory, and
other forms of original public address. The typical instructional procedure has been assignment, performance, and criticism. (12:9)

Dorothy Weirich explains further that:

The student in the speech-arts course is given instruction in the kinds and types of speeches ... He is taught outlining ... The student is exposed to the elements of good style ... He understands the magnetism of a good voice, the need for careful enunciation. The units in the speech-arts course must include a series of speeches of various types and with many purposes -- the speech to inform, to persuade, to actuate, to impress, and combinations of these. (27:67)

In 1969 William Brooks and Gustav Friedrich (3:5) published an analysis of the contents of eleven of the most widely used secondary speech texts. (See Table I) The analysis reveals similar content in all of the texts. The analysis also supports Weirich's statement that the students in secondary speech classes receive instruction primarily in the kinds and types of speeches. In fact, Brooks and Friedrich commented, "If we were to generalize about the goals of speech education from the content of the high school curriculum, we would conclude that the aim is to produce proficient public performers." (3:4)
## TABLE I
### ANALYSIS OF CONTENT OF ELEVEN HIGH SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

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<th>H</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>J</th>
<th>K</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Information informative speech</td>
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<tr>
<td>Verbal tools for expression</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<td>Physical tools, body delivery</td>
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<td>Voice and diction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Choral reading</td>
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<td>Persuasive speaking</td>
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<td>Parliamentary procedure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
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<td>Debate</td>
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<td>Radio/television</td>
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<td>Drama</td>
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<td>Speeches for special occasions</td>
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<td>Special difficulties</td>
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<td>Audience analysis</td>
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<td>Listening</td>
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<td>Organization of a speech</td>
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<td>Speechmaking in free society</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Storytelling</td>
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<td>History of speech</td>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td>16</td>
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</table>

In their methods text, Allen and Willmington analyzed several high school texts also and several of the state curricula guides. They also concluded that the basic secondary speech course is dominated by instruction on public speaking skills. (1:30-31) Finally, William Brooks, who systematically analyzed the various available state studies on secondary speech education, concluded:

The basic course in speech is now a general course in the sense that several units concerned with various types of speeches are included -- informative speaking, persuasive speaking, debate, oratory, and oral interpretation. These units are primarily concerned with enabling students to become effective speakers. (30:280)

In summary, the content of the secondary speech course can be characterized by its public speaking emphasis. Public speaking covers types of speeches, preparation of speeches and delivery of speeches. While other units in discussion, debate, oral interpretation, drama and storytelling are often included, they also represent the public speaking emphasis of performing before an audience.
Assumptions Underlying the Traditional Approach

Having identified the philosophy, goals, structure and content as well as noting some of the instructional procedures of the basic secondary speech course, several assumptions appear to be operating in the conduct of the course. The assumptions which follow were extrapolated from the previous discussions:

1) speech is an act, linear in process -- this is demonstrated by the emphasis on the speaker in the communication act who sends a message to an audience that receives the information.

2) the receiver has a passive role in this linear communication act. The only "receivers" considered are audiences which function only to listen and send nonverbal feedback. The receiver (audience) is not examined as a potential sender in the communication act.

3) public communication is the most important communication skill -- this is evidenced by the almost total focus on this one area of communication.

4) transfer occurs from public communication skills to other areas such as interpersonal communication.

5) stagefright is best conquered by repeated exposure before an audience (class) -- this is demonstrated
by the primary use of this technique in dealing with stage-fright or speech anxiety among students.

6) "doing" is valued over "knowing" -- this is evidenced by the fact that in many speech classes the only theory presented is the theory of an activity and 80% of the class time is spent in student performance.

7) grades serve as a motivation to better one's speaking skills -- this is evidenced by the pervasive use of grades for student performances and high grades for improvement.

8) cognitive and psychomotor skills are more appropriate for speech instruction than affective -- other than dealing with stagefright, most speech objectives are cognitive and psychomotor and avoid students' feelings.

9) there are rules for effective communication and these rules can be taught to students -- this is evidenced by even a casual scanning of any high school speech text.

10) the basic aim of oral communication and thus the speech class is persuasion -- even though speeches to inform are assigned, most of the assignments (debate, oratory, persuasion) deal with the persuasive aspects of oral communication.
No attempt is made to comment on or criticize these assumptions at this point. The sole purpose of this listing is to identify the assumptions which seems to underly the secondary speech curricula.

Analysis of Criticisms

Criticism of speech education dates back to Plato who charged that rhetoric (speech) was a sham and not a true art. Criticism has always been an integral and healthy part of speech as it has of most disciplines. It seems, however, that since the emergence of the "communications movement" within the discipline in recent years that criticisms and challenges have begun to appear with greater frequency and intensity in the professional journals and preface's to newly published texts. These criticisms seem not to focus on specific or isolated practices in speech instruction, but seem to strike at the core of the philosophy and purposes of speech education. The major criticisms that have appeared since 1968 are:

1) speech curricula - particularly the basic course, has been unresponsive to changes within the discipline;

2) speech curricula are generally too activity oriented;
3) speech instruction is not successfully achieving many of its stated objectives;
4) speech curricula do not deal with the real oral communication needs of students;
5) speech instruction is not teaching students to communicate; and
6) many of the assumptions underlying the philosophy and goals of speech education are inaccurate.

Speech Curricula: Response to Change

The fact that the discipline of speech has changed in the past few years was documented in the previous chapter. The thrust of the change is a communications movement toward the study and development of a broader spectrum of human communication activities. The change has been characterized by the name change of the national organization to include the concept of communication. It was also noted in the previous chapter that little change has occurred in speech education especially in the basic secondary speech classes. Speech education as we know it today, began in 1914 with a break away from the English teachers association. The break away precipitated by complaints that English classes were not spending enough time on oral activities.
Therefore, a group of English teachers split from the parent association and formed another national association emphasizing the teaching of public speaking in the classroom. The purpose of the new organization was to promote the teaching of oral activities, especially public speaking. William Buys, pointed out in 1966 that there has been no significant change in speech education curricula since 1914. The high school speech curricula is still "dominated by public speaking."

(31:21) Professors Allen and Borchers illustrate the lack of change in the speech education curricula by telling the story of:

a high school student who fell asleep in a high school business arithmetic class and slept for twenty-five years. Upon awakening and finding the class discussing trigonometry, he beat a hasty retreat to his former general science classroom where he found a chemistry course in progress. Hurrying next to his old speech classroom, he took a seat and smiled happily, saying, 'Thank heavens nothing has changed here.' (32:1)

Two reasons for the unresponsiveness to change in speech instruction are the adherence to the outdated applications of rhetorical theory to all forms of communication and the adherence to outdated textbooks.

Allen and Willmington claim that "the rhetorical models on which most early speech communication instruction
was based ... are not appropriate for explaining ordinary, informal instances of communication." (1:24) John Keltner charges that:

Our speech-communication is like Shafter's Cow (a cow that was oblivious to an earthquake until she was swallowed by a fissure). We have tended to stand quietly and chew the cud of stuff that was gathered some time ago. Our texts and handbooks all too often present no more than reorganizations of the old materials, renaming them and sometimes shuffling them up a bit. (33:5)

Thus the criticism is made that speech education has failed to change or respond to the changes that have occurred in society and the discipline itself.

Speech Curricula: Activity Oriented

A second major criticism of the traditional approach to teaching high school speech is that it is overly activity oriented. Some critics claim that the secondary speech class is nothing more than a random assortment of activities representing bits and pieces of the various speech arts. (1:14) The challenge is made that activities are used in place of content. John Sisco points out, "we are spending entirely too much time, proportionally, encouraging students to verbalize without teaching them to study the process." (34:77) The result of so much time spent in oral activity without adequate understandings of the process of communi-
cation or even the cognitive learnings behind the activities is employing "activity for activities' sake." (12:6)

Since these activities are usually fun and students usually engage in them enthusiastically, these activities become self-perpetuating. Phillips observes that, "activities in existence for a number of years are still being continued, apparently because we have grown accustomed to them. Whether they continue to meet the needs of the students may not even be a prime consideration." (22:57) Finally Elsie Hahn warns:

A speech curriculum must not then sink to the level of devices, to speech games conducted once a week, to the reading of poems and jingles, to auditorium work or play production outside the classroom. A speech curriculum that advocates pseudo-relaxation or 'window decorates' with tricks to please the eye of the supervisor or antagonizes the children with meaningless slogans and admonitions of 'talk more clearly,' 'good speech is a priceless asset,' is certainly not meeting the needs of the child. (35:109)

Thus the criticism is made that secondary speech curricula are too activity oriented. Activities often exist for the sake of activity.
Speech Instruction: Meeting of Goals

A third indictment against the traditional approach is that it is not meeting its stated goals or objectives.

The most often stated objectives of a speech class, especially for public speaking, is to provide an opportunity for the student to overcome his stagefright and gain poise and confidence. Gerald Phillips, founder and director of the Reticence Clinic at the Pennsylvania State University declares:

The type of training normally given under the label of 'speech' does tend to improve those who are already skilled. The inadequate communicator only adds frustrations, and in his case, the classroom affords negative carry-over and interferes with his communication in general. (22:138)

Speech classes and speech instruction is supposedly designed to help all students improve their oral communication skills. Speech is supposed to be of most benefit to those who are shy and non-communicative. In fact, most speech teachers agree that the good, well-adjusted, extroverted student needs speech less than the mal-adjusted, shy, introverted student who has great difficulty in any type of communication situation. Dorothy Higginbotham charges that speech has consistently failed to help those students who need speech the most.
She claims:

The traditional or art emphasis in speech instruction suffers from exclusiveness. Speech as traditionally taught has always had its strongest appeal for the 'good' student, the one who aspires to leadership, the gregarious and socially successful, and the student already above the average in the use of language. In other words, it has been training for a favored minority of the population. The reticent student, the slow learners, the child still in the process of developing basic communication skills, the user of other than standard language patterns -- for these and many others, the typical speech class has provided little that is relevant to their special communication needs. (12:10-11)

Another stated objective of speech education that speech instruction usually falls short of meeting is that of producing an effective public speaker. The purpose of public speaking training is to take a poor public speaker and make him more effective. The prime instructional procedure used to achieve this goal is having students give various types of speeches before the class and receiving criticism from the teacher and sometimes his peers. The assumption is made that students can and will correct all the "speech faults" identified in criticisms of his speech. This procedure usually fails to bring about significant change.
The reason is that, "a direct command to behave in some other way simply does not bring about change. ... recognition alone is not sufficient. It is unreasonable to expect students to be able to 'correct' speech behaviors that a teacher has labeled 'inadequate.'" (22:135) Thus the critics claim that speech instruction often fails to meet its stated goals.

Speech Curricula: Meeting Student Needs

The most pervasive criticism appearing recently and already alluded to in previous statements is that speech curricula and speech instruction are not geared to the actual needs of its students. While many of the needs identified in speech syllabi are important and worthwhile, the most urgent communication needs of secondary students are ignored. David Smith, assistant dean of the College of Social and Behavioral Sciences, The Ohio State University, commenting on present speech curriculum says that it is, "at best inappropriate for the 'real' communication problems students will face ..." (9:4)

What communication problems do high school students face? Typically, high school adolescents are searching for their own identity, their independence. Psychologists tell us that man is born dependent and remains so throughout
his childhood. In the teen years, the healthy developing human being seeks his physical and emotional independence. Later, as a mature, married adult, he learns to be interdependent. The process of moving from dependency to independence is often very difficult and full of anxiety. One has to establish new types of communication bonds that will substitute for and reinforce the parental support. Adolescence is often characterized as an age of communication gaps and breakdowns. The developing young adult needs to learn how to accurately communicate his new feelings to his parents who he sometimes resents, he needs to learn how to accurately communicate with teachers and other superiors who often misunderstand him and he needs to accurately communicate with his peers from whom is seeking acceptance and respect. He does not need to know how to give a public speech, oral poetry reading, or an acting scene.

After several years of teaching a speech course stressing improvement in public communication, Theodore Nelson began to, "doubt the relevance of this approach to the needs of most students in my classes. Few people ... give platform or public speeches, whereas, all of them engage in various other forms of oral communication." (36:289)
The essence of the problem is that the typical basic speech course, high school and college, generally deals with only one type of communication situation -- public communication. The activities used: public speaking, oral interpretation, debate, and acting are all oriented towards performing to an audience. Even group discussion, a typical one-to-few situation, is taught as public speaking by its emphasis on performance before an audience. Most people, especially high school students, do not engage in public communication activities. They do engage in one-to-one and one-to-few activities and often have a good deal of trouble communicating accurately in these situations. However, these needs are ignored by traditional speech curricula and instruction.

Deems Brooks comments:

While public speaking skills are important for some high school and college students to master, teachers are now recognizing social urgencies that demand a broadened, if not a completely revised, point of view. It is now incumbent upon the teacher to make his instruction as relevant as possible to the actual needs of students as communicators in their everyday surroundings. (37:2)

Allen and Willmington base their criticisms on ethical grounds. They feel speech teachers have duped students and administrators by promising speech instruction
geared to meet student's needs, but fail to meet the promise. They claim:

Speech communication educators have for some time justified the inclusion of speech communication instruction in the high school curriculum by noting the pervasiveness of oral communication in daily life. We are told that almost every person, every day, experiences hundreds of communication encounters. The preface or first chapter of high school speech textbooks usually reminds the student of the frequency with which he encounters others in communication relationships throughout the day: hasty early morning encounters with family members; school-bus encounters with peers and the bus driver; school-day encounters with classmates, friends, teachers, and administrators; after-school encounters with friends, or coaches and teammates, or fellow employees and boss; and evening encounters with friends and family.

The instruction provided, however, seems inconsistent with the needs identified. Having been promised increased understanding and skill in meeting these numerous moments of interpersonal communication, the student is given instruction in public speaking instead. (1:23-24

Phillips, et al. agree when they say:

Unfortunately, the materials being taught as ... speech to students ... are simply not adapted to their needs. For too long we have been teaching some of these students to make the 'proper' conversational talk at a tea party or formal dinner when what they really needed to know was how to interview for a job or substitute talk for physical violence. (22:60)
Besides the individual communication needs of high school students, society has needs that are not being met by the present speech curricula. Again Phillips concludes:

Society does not need declaimers, oral readers, or storytellers at periods of time when the society feels under the threat of war or finances. Perhaps some day there will be a 'communication sputnik' which will so arouse society that it will feel the need for teaching our young children the importance and, indeed, the economic values of accurate and effective communication. (22:60)

Further evidence of the fact that the traditional speech curriculum is inadequately meeting student's needs comes from Dorothy Higginbotham who decry's the inadequacy of the speech curriculum for elementary children.

Professor Higginbotham declares:

It is highly probable that the classically derived and traditionally executed program of speech instruction found at the higher levels of education have adversely affected and impeded the development of a dynamic and educationally significant program of speech instruction in the elementary schools. This has occurred not through any deliberate intent or misguided effort on the part of speech people, but rather as a result of devotion to a body of theory and instructional methods which are largely inappropriate to the communication needs of young children. (12:7)
Professor Higginbotham demonstrates that young children have legitimate communication needs too. She criticizes the fact that:

The means proposed to achieve these ends usually involve experiences in oral reading, choral speaking, discussion, show-and-tell, reports, dramatics, puppetry, conducting meetings, and a variety of other situational ventures which may be only tangentially related to the 'real' communication needs of children. (12:5)

As we look at the structure of our society, the pressures for interpersonal communication effectiveness and the pervasiveness of the media, it is apparent that we no longer are a public speaking oriented society as we once were. John Illardo sees the criticism of the traditional speech approach and the rise of a communications movement as a "response to the needs resulting from the fact that we are living in an age of transition, an age of anxiety. Public speaking fails to satisfy the needs of the average person because it is based in large measure on some of the very values which are in transition presently." (11:5)

Thus the critics make the claim that speech curricula are not meeting the real oral communication needs of students.
Speech Instruction: Teaching Communication Skills

Along with criticisms that fundamental speech instruction fails to meet the most important communication needs of students is the charge that present speech curricula do not produce students that know how to communicate. David Schuelke claims that our speech instruction has successfully taught rules for public speaking, but failed to impart communication skills. (38:3) Thelma Caruso, a high school teacher, points out that most high school speech programs consist of some forensics, a class play and a musical production. She bemoans the fact that most of her colleagues do not recognize the fact that, "students can *not* learn how to communicate orally merely through oral assignments." (39:33) Finally Richard Gray contends:

Our young people are bright today, but it disturbs me that they cannot always communicate that brilliance. ... we are producing a generation of individuals who cannot commu-

Speech Curricula: Basic Assumptions

A final criticism that seems to stem from our on-going research in speech communication is that many of the
assumptions upon which traditional speech instruction is grounded are inaccurate. One example is the application of prescription or rules to communication situations and behavior. Traditional speech instruction is well grounded in rules for good public speaking, rules for good public discussion, rules for good debating, rules for oral reading, and often rules for good social conversation. This prescriptive approach seems to ignore the complexity of the human communication act and the innate differences among individual communicators. It is simply not true that a gesture appropriate for one speaker is necessarily appropriate for all or even another speaker in the same or similar situation. Allan Frank concludes, "an approach to speech education which seeks to apply 'rules of speaking' in a series of formal and standardized 'activities' appears to ignore the basic facts which describe the process of speech communication." (19:52)

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2This discussion does not necessarily refer to the specific set of assumptions enumerated earlier in this chapter. Those assumptions are original to this dissertation. The assumptions discussed here are those identified by other critics.
A second assumption that is often claimed valid by speech teachers is that there is a transfer of skills and oral communication competencies from "formal speech activities" conducted in the speech class to the more common and less formal everyday communication situations. The reasoning behind this assumption is that if a student can gain competency in the more difficult tasks of public communication he will automatically transfer these skills and become more effective in interpersonal and other types of communication situations. (12:9) There is much evidence, however, to disprove this claim. Theodore Nelson, after years of teaching under this assumption, now claims that:

I have found that often those who have superior skills in so-called public address do not communicate well in the more common situations ... Not uncommonly, persons whom I would rate low on my classroom performance scale relate effectively and meaningfully with associates and friends and use oral discourse sufficiently well to make their way happily and prosperously in society. Adequate, and even high effective, oral communication seems to stem from other factors besides those I used to stress when I sat hour after hour listening to and grading the platform talks presented by my students. (36:289)

In summary, there is criticism against the activity oriented basic speech course on both the high school and
college levels. The criticisms stem from the fact that the activity emphasis sacrifices conceptual learnings, emphasizes irrelevant "formal speaking" situations, fails to meet the actual communication needs of students, and is based upon many inaccurate assumptions. Overall, there is criticism that basic speech instruction has been unresponsive to change.

Calls for Changes in the Speech Curricula

"... I believe we are at a point in time when innovations in our teaching of speech fundamentals are especially needed ..." (9:1) In speaking these words, David Smith was echoing the view of many of the recent critics of speech education in the 1970's. Having characterized the traditional approach to teaching speech and having identified many of the criticisms of that approach, the purpose of this chapter is to analyze the calls for change, especially many of the specific suggestions for changes in the speech fundamentals course. This will be done by examining comments and suggestions from individual authors and critics. Following a general identification of the various suggestions, there will be an attempt to synthesize the suggestions.
Analysis of Suggested Changes

David Smith sees two approaches emerging that "bid fair to replace the main concern of the speech fundamentals course: First, the study of language ... and second, an individual and group therapy emphasis ... calling itself interpersonal communication." (9:1) Smith's own suggestion for a format or goal of the basic speech course is a communications course that looks at "speech communication acts as bargaining moves. This means that we regard the coordination of human interdependence as occurring through negotiation-like processes." (9:2)

William Buys, Charles Carlson, Mrs. Hite Compton and Allan Frank offered one of the earliest and most complete sets of suggestions for change that encompassed a rationale, content and activities for change in the high school basic speech course. (4:302-315) They suggested a "communication theory approach to high school speech." This suggested approach consisted of:

1) an understanding of the process of communication. They suggest this can be accomplished best by the study of a model or models of communication and they list four purposes for studying a communication model. Finally, they list nine significant principals of communication theory.
2) an understanding of the nature of intrapersonal communication. They discuss the factors that contribute to the development of a self concept. They refer to the use of intrapersonal communication in the process of making decisions and solving problems. They give suggestions for teachers in aiding the developing and maintaining of self concepts. Finally, they identify the following areas as being most appropriate for study and practice through exercises:

a. self-concept: a decision maker
b. self-concept: body and physical images
c. self-concept: the social self
d. self-concept: the intellectual self
e. self-concept: the moral self
f. self-concept: the religious self
g. self-concept: the economic self
h. self-concept: the universe-related self
i. self-concept: the political self
j. self-concept: the changing self
k. self-concept: the unique self
l. self-concept: the self as a communicator, speaker-sender, and listener-receiver.

3) an understanding of the nature of interpersonal communication. They discuss the functions of interpersonal communication as:

a. developing and maintaining groups;
b. resolving problems with individuals or groups;
c. influencing behavior of others;
d. evoking meanings in others; and
e. playing.

They offer several activities appropriate for practicing and developing an understanding of each of these functions.
Phillips, Dunham, Brubaker and Butt focused much of their criticisms on the meaninglessness of the activity approach. In developing their thesis of a communications oriented curriculum throughout all grades, they comment and suggest that:

The classroom teacher should not only be concerned with the important task of getting students to understand subject matter, concepts and ideas, but also with helping students understand the process of communication itself. Students need assistance in learning how to communicate effectively with other students as well as with the teacher. What is needed is the development of a curricula that would integrate the activities and objectives

oral communication. (22:55-57)

What these authors seem to suggest is not the abandonment of speech activities, but the addition of communication theory to provide an "integrated curricula." However, they also call for a change in the activities themselves from public speaking, performance-oriented activities to "real-life experience as an aid to students in their own concept development." (22:71)

John Gow, (7:21-23) who seeks to replace the public speaking emphasis in the fundamentals course with a communication emphasis, makes the following suggestions for change:
1) the practical public speaking emphasis in speech curricula must be replaced;

2) the curriculum which should replace the public speaking oriented structure should have a social science foundation;

3) innovative teaching and examination practices must accompany the suggested new curriculum; and

4) students should be able to take courses which they themselves can help construct.

Thus Gow seems to be calling not only for content changes in the basic course, but also some pedagogical changes as well.

In contrast, Deems Brooks calls for a less radical change in that he does not call for the dropping of public speaking from the fundamental course. Brooks says:

It is not a question of dropping the traditional course in public speaking or the fundamentals of speech from the curriculum. However, a speech communication point of view may require course revision or curriculum revision or both. For example, in addition to rhetorical principles, a beginning speech communication course could well include the following concepts and principles: a comparison of communication models and their utility for analyzing and explaining various kinds of communication events, feedback in different kinds of communication situations, non-verbal behaviors and interpersonal awareness, attention and listening, intrapersonal communication, and meaning. (37:2)
John Keltner's basic plea is for a complete separation from the past. He sees rhetorically-based speech communication instruction as outmoded. He admits to some validity of looking at how the ancients dealt with the problems of their times through speech, but "the time of our present demands a greater separation from the past than ever before." (33:4)

Dorothy Higginbotham, whose criticisms of the status quo in speech education were identified in a previous chapter, proposes that the "new body of information available through recent research and continuing research be brought to bear on education." (12:32) Although she does not identify any specific research findings, Professor Higginbotham contends that there is and has been a great deal of important research data published in recent years that can be used to eliminate irrelevant or inaccurate premises of speech education and formulate a new approach to speech instruction. She calls such a new approach based upon the research findings, a "communication-oriented curriculum" (12:33)

The only specific suggestion made by Dr. Higginbotham for her new curriculum is a greater emphasis on the affective domain.
She points out:

The child's adjustment and achievement in school are greatly dependent upon how he feels about himself and others and upon how he perceives events in his environment. It would be a mistake to become so preoccupied with overt behavioral manifestations of language and cognition that we ignore the child's more covert emotional states, which bear so powerfully upon his ability to communicate. (12:30)

In summarizing her call for a communication-oriented curriculum, Dr. Higginbotham says, "it is becoming increasingly apparent that communication not language or speech should be the focus of our instruction." (12:31)

David Schuelke (38:4) calls for a total emphasis on communication theory in the basic speech course. By total emphasis, Schuelke means an exclusive emphasis. He believes that communication and communication theory should even be the subject matter for all oral activities. If a student is to give a speech, present a discussion or interact in a dyad or triad, the subject matter of these should be communication related topics. Dr. Schuelke claims:

From nearly every point of analysis, the specification of communication related topics for student communication assignments seems advantageous when compared to the typical exhortations to students to find subjects that are of interest to them are relevant for the artificially-selected audience within the classroom. (38:4)
While Buys, et. al. and Schuelke have called for a change to a "communication theory approach" and Phillips, et. al. and Dorothy Higginbotham called for a "communications-oriented" approach, Bochner, Kelly, Galvin, Book, Allen and Wilmington call for an "interpersonal approach." In a paper presented to the 1972 Speech Communication Association Convention in Chicago, Bochner and Kelly stated:

The philosophy which we advocate is grounded in the behavioral science conception of interpersonal competence... We believe that all undergraduate skill training in communication should be oriented toward the development of interpersonal competence. Interpersonal competence is a measure of a person's aptitude or skill in relating to other people. (5:10 and 13)

In their text, *Speech Communication*, which they call "an interpersonal approach for teachers," Katheleen Galvin and Cassandra Book also suggest an interpersonal approach for the fundamental high school speech course. In their preface, they identify this "interpersonal approach" by calling for curricular changes that will:

1) help students understand and accept themselves as unique persons, and as communicators;
2) help students to put their strengths and weaknesses into an overall perspective which lets them view themselves as whole persons;

3) help students recognize and accept the responsibility for their communication;

4) help students develop an awareness and sensitivity to themselves as communicators;

5) help develop sensitivity to the communication attempts of others; and

6) help students understand the overall process of communication. (40:xiii-xiv)

Also in their text, Galvin and Book provide a list of objectives and exercises to accomplish these goals which constitute their interpersonal approach.

Finally, Allen and Willmington, the most vociferous critics of the traditional approach suggest a curriculum that would develop new understandings and skills for high school students. Also under the rubric of "interpersonal communication," they suggest an approach in which:

The student should come to understand the complex forces which influence a person in daily communication encounters: self-perception, attitudes and values, perceptions of social constraints governing the interaction, perception of the purpose of the interaction, physical encoding and decoding skills, experiential constraints, and language constraints. The student should also come to understand the diverse kinds of interpersonal communication relationships: formal-informal, constrained-free, social-task
oriented, etc.; the tone of such relationships: cooperation-conflict, autocratic-democratic, reserved-involved, etc.: and the dimensions of interpersonal compatibility: control, warmth, initiation, etc. In addition, the student should come to understand the nature of messages: verbal, visual, and tactile; and the common barriers and breakdowns in interpersonal communication. He should experience interpersonal communication relationships in an informed way. He should experience himself as he interacts with others. He should receive direct feedback and evaluation concerning his communication behaviors in diverse situations. (1:25)

Summary of Suggested Changes

There are obvious similarities and differences among these suggestions for change in the basic speech course. A point by point analysis of each suggestion by each author reveals ten major issues or areas for change.

1) The teacher of the basic speech communication course replace the rhetorical theory model as a basis for analyzing oral communication acts. The rhetorical theory model (application of the five canons to oral speech acts) should be replaced by a communication model.

2) The teacher of the basic speech communication replace the emphasis on the one-to-many speaking situation. The most common one-to-many situation is the formal public speech before an audience.
3) The teacher incorporate into the basic course an understanding of the process of communication. The process of communication is reflected in the various models and theories of communication.

4) The teacher incorporate into the basic speech course an understanding of the self as a communicator and the role of self concepts as it influences communication attempts. The constructs of self concept and self are reflected in the study of intrapersonal communication.

5) The teacher incorporate a study of how one's communication behaviors affect others. These concepts of oral communication influence are contained in the study of interpersonal communication, small groups, public communication and mass communication.

6) In conjunction with studying the effects of communication on others, the teacher should incorporate the concepts of communication as a bargaining or negotiation process. This is reflected in viewing communication as an interactive or transactive process rather than a linear process.

7) The teacher should incorporate objectives that deal with the affective domain. This is achieved by examining communication feelings, attitudes, and prejudices that effect the communication process.
8) One goal of the basic course should be to develop within students a level of interpersonal competence. These competencies would be reflected in the student's ability to establish and maintain positive and satisfactory relationships with others by means of oral communication.

9) The teacher should involve the students actively in curriculum planning.

10) The teacher should develop a speech communication course that incorporated both theory and practice with an integrated balance between the two.

Summary

There are six areas of criticism of the traditional approach to teaching secondary speech which seem significant enough to warrant the consideration of an alternate approach. The alternate approaches suggested in the literature reviewed are a "communication theory" or "communication-oriented" approach and an "interpersonal communication" approach. An analysis of the approaches produces ten identifiable characteristics that should be incorporated in any alternative approach.
CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE LITERATURE ON COMMUNICATION
AND INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

For those secondary speech teachers who want to respond to the criticisms of the traditional approach to teaching speech by adopting one or a combination of the suggestions for curriculum change, several problems become evident. First, unless the teacher is a recent graduate of a college or university that teaches communication theory and interpersonal communication or has kept abreast of developments in the discipline by reading the scholarly journals, the teacher is likely to be unfamiliar with the content areas of communication theory and interpersonal communication. Secondly, the teacher is faced with problems of definitions and terminology. As previously noted, some critics have called for a communication-oriented approach, some for a communication theory approach, and others for an interpersonal communication approach.
What do these mean? What are the differences? The secondary teacher can examine the available literature and not find any explanations or comparisons of these approaches. The teacher can examine the available literature and not find any content materials for these approaches geared to the high school level. Therefore the teacher must examine the literature designed for college and university students' consumption and revise it to meet his needs. For someone already unfamiliar with the literature, this can be a formidable task. Finally, as the teacher begins to review several college texts, he finds there is no consensus as to what content should be presented to students and what skills should be developed in order to achieve communication competency.

The purposes of this chapter are:

1) to examine the literature on communication theory to determine what content areas are inherent in the subject matter;

2) to examine the literature on interpersonal communication theory to determine what content areas are inherent in that subject matter area;
3) to extrapolate from this literature a consensus definition for the high school teacher as to what is communication and interpersonal communication;

4) to extrapolate from the literature a consensus set of content areas appropriate for instruction on the secondary level;

5) to explain and compare the three suggested approaches (communication theory, communication-oriented, and interpersonal communication) in terms of the content analyzed; and

6) to extrapolate a consensus set of skills appropriate for developing among high school students.

The reason for determining these consensus definitions, consensus sets of content areas, consensus set of appropriate skills and comparing the three suggested approaches is to aid the high school teacher in formulating an appropriate secondary communications curriculum.

Analysis of Literature on Communication Theory

In approaching the literature on communication theory for the purpose of gleaning the essential aspects that are most important and appropriate for teaching, the high school teacher, especially one without any background in communication, has a difficult task.
The problem is how to get a handle on this complex phenomenon and mass of literature and research. "The questioner is grasping for a point of view, an answer which will tell him how one approaches the phenomenon in question or perhaps one should approach it," Ragsdale points out. He further stated, "the widespread use of the term 'communication' makes even this kind of answer difficult..." (41:136)

The obvious starting place for a novice in communication theory is with a definition of communication. However, no consensus definition exists. Lee Thayer found in his review of the literature at least twenty-five different conceptions of the term "communication." (42:217-235) Frank E. X. Dance reported ninety-five definitions of communication in a 1970 survey of the literature. (43:201-210) Bettinghaus reports that over fifty different descriptions of the communication process have appeared in print (44:31) and Smith reports that there are over fifteen significantly different models in the literature that attempt to describe the communication process. (45)
This need for a consensus definition has been recognized. Several scholars have tackled the problem and attempted to reach a general definition.\(^1\) However, none of these efforts have emerged as a consensus definition.

Lee Thayer commented in 1967, "Though astonishingly popular as an object of research, the field of human communication has not established any sharply-defined boundaries or domains." (46:17) In 1970, Sereno and Mortensen concluded, "Clearly, the so-called 'science of human communication' is not, in any strict sense, a single discipline." (47:2) Franklin Knower concurred in his article, "What Do You Mean — Communication?" (48) Knower points out that communication is not a discipline, but a field of study that cuts across many disciplines.

Communication is a process that is applicable to and studied by Agriculture, Medicine, Business, Physics and Speech. Most viewpoints and thus most definitions describe communication as it relates to the particular discipline involved. This accounts for the multitude of definitions, models, and approaches to communication. Knower feels that only the communicologist, whose sole specialty and discipline is communication in all forms, should attempt to generalize from the mass of data on communication. He concludes:

Specialists in the separate parts, we need. Most men can't and don't need to know all of the parts experts in the specializations of communication need to know. What all men need to know is the generally significant information about the whole. This is the goal of a communicology. (48:23)

Recognizing this fact, the high school teacher can limit his search for definitions, concepts and skills to the one appropriate discipline -- speech communication. However, still there is a lack of consensus. Each speech communication text presents its own definition of communication and its own approach to the study of human communication.
While adopting the definition and approach of an individual text for a high school course would be appropriate, most secondary speech teachers would be more comfortable with a generalized consensus definition as exists in the traditional literature on public speaking that has been synthesized over a long period of speech instruction beginning with the Greeks.

In order to reach such a consensus definition and set of content areas inherent in communication for use by the secondary speech teacher, five representative textbooks on human communication theory will be examined. The five texts are:


Each text will be examined for its definition of communication and its' content areas. The analysis of these definitions and content areas will produce a consensus definition and a consensus set of content areas for use in a secondary speech communications course.

**Examination of Definitions**

An analysis of the five selected texts produces the following definitions:

1) Berlo -- This text does not offer any identifiable definition of communication, but it infers that communication is a *process* of a *source* sending a *message* through a *channel* to a *receiver* for the purpose of affecting or *influencing* the receiver in some way.

2) Borden, *et. al.* -- These authors do not offer a definition of communication per se. They identify the three essentials of communication as: *people*, *information transmitted* and *information received*. When interaction with one other person or a small group is involved the process is
called interpersonal communication. When one person seeks to influence a large group or society the process is called public communication.

3) Mortensen -- "Communication occurs whenever persons attribute significance to message-related behavior."\(^2\)

4) Scheidel -- "Speech communication is a socially learned process occurring when two or more persons are interacting by transmitting and receiving visual and auditory stimuli which are treated as symbolic cues to which meaning is attached."

5) Applbaum, et. al. -- This text does not define communication, but offers the following explanation: "the word 'communication' has such a broad application, not all people have the same meaning in mind when they use it. Each profession, for example, defines 'communication' in a way that serves its particular purpose. (In speech communication) it is a complex process relying on the use of symbols." These then are the explicit or inferred definitions of communication from the five selected texts.

\(^2\)Italics in quoted passages added by writer.
Analysis of Definitions

Each of these texts demonstrates the unique outlook on human communication by its authors. While there are obvious differences among these outlooks, these differences are evidenced by the variances in definitions. Among these differences there are points of commonality. The points of commonality among these definitions are:

- source
- receiver
- message
- meaning
- transmitting (encoding)
- receiving (decoding)
- symbols
- process
- interaction

These appear to be the significant elements and points of commonality of the five definitions or inferred definitions.

A Consensus Definition

The combining of these points of commonality into a single definition produces a consensus-type definition. The combined definition of communication is:
The act of communication is a process in which a source transmits a message carrying meaning via symbols through interaction with a receiver who decodes the message to achieve understanding.

This consensus definition, while not a replication of any single definition from the selected texts, is an appropriate consensus definition for use in the secondary speech class.

Examination of Content Areas

The content of these five selected texts again shows differences in outlooks by each set of authors. Each text has its unique outlook on human communication as reflected by its content. Again, amid the differences, definite points of commonality exist. These points of commonality are most evident when the content of each book is compared via a content analysis table. (See Table 2) This display of the content areas allows for easy analysis of areas of similarity and difference.

Analysis of Content Areas

Using the criteria of three of the five texts dealing with a certain content area to make it a point of significant commonality, fourteen areas seem to emerge. Those areas
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Berlo</th>
<th>Borden et al.</th>
<th>Mortensen</th>
<th>Scheidel</th>
<th>Applbaum et al.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communication is a process</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communication research</td>
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<td>Context</td>
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<td>Effects of communication</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ingredients of communication</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Intrapersonal</td>
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<tr>
<td>Learning Process</td>
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<tr>
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<td>-</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meaning (semantics)</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nonverbal</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Problem solving</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purposes of communication</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Roles</td>
<td>x</td>
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<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
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<tr>
<td>Small group</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symbolism</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( ^a \)x signifies content covered in the text; 
- signifies content not covered in the text.
of significant commonality are:

communication is a process
context
feedback
ingredients of communication
interaction
interpersonal (communication)
intrapersonal (communication)
meaning (semantics)
nonverbal
perception
public (communication)
roles
small group
symbolism

These appear in Table 2 as the points of commonality that would be appropriate for use in a secondary communications curriculum. The areas of: communication research, effects of communication, learning process, logic, purposes of communication and problem solving seems to be outside of the consensus content areas as reflected by these five selected texts.
A Consensus Set of Content Areas

Structuring these fourteen content areas into a possible arrangement appropriate for a secondary communications curriculum produces the following topic areas:

General Considerations
communication is a process
models or ingredients of communication
symbolism
nature of meaning and messages

Intrapersonal Communication
perception
roles

Interpersonal Communication

Small Group Communication

Public Communication

Variables Applicable to all Communication Areas
context
feedback
interaction

Obviously, these fourteen topic areas do not purport to cover every aspect of human communication in detail. The teacher will also have to add some content to his framework. For the teacher who is looking for valid content areas that
are representative of communication theory, these are applicable to the secondary communications curriculum.

Analysis of the Literature on Interpersonal Communication

It has been established that interpersonal communication is part of the human communication whole. According to the consensus content model previously determined, a study of communication theory would include interpersonal communication. However, since many authors have called for an interpersonal communication approach to the secondary speech curricula, it is necessary to examine interpersonal communication separately to determine what would constitute an exclusive interpersonal study.

In examining the literature on interpersonal communication, there seems to be even less of a consensus on what interpersonal is than on what communication is. The reason is that the differences are more pronounced. Again, staying within the discipline of speech communication solely\(^3\), we find several different viewpoints. Applbaum, et. al., explain interpersonal communication in terms of:

\(^3\)Other disciplines like Psychology, Sociology, and Business study interpersonal relationships.
communication that occurs between persons. Interpersonal communication occurs where there is an interaction between two or more intrapersonal systems. Interpersonal communication is sometimes referred to as dyadic communication, or communication between two individuals. (49:33-34)

The examples these authors offer to explain their definition are those of: a young man being interviewed by a perspective employer, a student talking to a teacher about his homework, or a boy and a girl talking as they stroll through the park. This viewpoint says interpersonal communication is primarily an act of communication between two people. Differentiation is made from small group communication, public communication and mass communication.

A second viewpoint represented by Borden, Gregg and Grove (50) is somewhat broader in scope of definition. They include both dyadic and small group communication under the same rubric, "interpersonal communication." They conceptualize only three levels of communication: 1) the individual's communication system (intrapersonal), 2) interpersonal (dyadic and small group), and public (public speaking and mass communication). Galvin and Book (40) also use interpersonal communication in this broader sense.
Although they do not define interpersonal communication, they infer that it includes all communication that is not public speaking.

A third viewpoint is expressed by John Stewart who sees interpersonal communication in an entirely different way. Stewart defines interpersonal communication as:

>a quality of communication instead of a communication setting. In other words, this kind of communication is not restricted to two-person, face-to-face talking. I believe people can communicate interpersonally not only in an informal 'bull session' or a friendly chat, but also in an interview, a committee meeting or conference, a church service, a political rally, or a classroom. (51:6)

Stewart's viewpoint of interpersonal communication being a quality not a setting or level of interaction is significantly different from the other definitions.

Thus, the term "interpersonal communication" is used in at least three different ways in the speech communication literature. This makes a consensus definition more difficult.

In order to reach a consensus definition and set of content areas inherent in interpersonal communication theory, three selected representative texts will be examined. The three texts are:


Each text will be examined for its definition of interpersonal communication and its' content areas. The analysis of these definitions and content areas will produce a consensus definition and a consensus set of content areas for use in a secondary speech communications course.

**Examination of Definitions**

1) Keltner -- This text does not provide a specific definition of interpersonal communication. It does say in the preface that the book develops a concept of interpersonal communication that encompasses the utilitarian, the aesthetic and the therapeutic functions it performs. Keltner defines *communication* as a unique process of symbolic interaction between persons. He defines *utilitarian* as a practical accomplishment of value to one or more members of
the interaction. Aesthetic is defined as some measure of pleasure, enjoyment, or entertainment for one or more members of the interaction. Finally, therapeutic is defined as a treatment, a cure, the removal of an inhibition, the diagnosis of a problem, or the re-establishment of the communicative personality.

2) Giffin and Patton -- These authors state, "by interpersonal communication we are concerned with the face-to-face confrontations between people who are consistently aware of one another. Each person assumes roles as both sender and receiver of messages, which involves constant adaptation and spontaneous adjustment to the other person."

3) McCroskey -- Interpersonal communication is "the process of one individual stimulating meaning in the mind of the other individual by means of some kind of message."

These definitions or inferred definitions represent the views of the authors of these selected interpersonal texts.

Analysis of Definitions

As noted earlier, there are three different uses of the term "interpersonal communication" in the literature. They are: 1) any communicative act other than public speaking; 2) dyadic communication; and 3) an empathic quality of communication. These three texts seem to present new approaches.
Keltner and McCroskey offer definitions that are not significantly different from those of communication in a general sense. Keltner mentions three results or outcomes of communication which are equally applicable to any communication situation. Obviously McCroskey's definition fits any communication situation. Only Giffin and Patton offer a unique or qualifying factor to differentiate interpersonal communication from generalized communication. That factor being "face-to-face confrontations between people" which seems to rule out only the mass communication situation from interpersonal communication. Thus, according to these stated definitions, there seems to be little difference between interpersonal communication and other types of communication. However, in the prefaces to the teacher's manuals which accompany each text, the author's imply some specific differences. For example, Keltner states, "the central thrust of such a course would be directed at the personal interaction of the students with each other and with the instructor." Giffin and Patton state, "with a focus on interpersonal communication we are concerned with the face-to-face spontaneous interaction of people." Finally, McCroskey, whose definition was the broadest of all, refers in the preface to interpersonal
communication as "what happens when two people interact with one another on an informal basis." These statements do imply differences. Bochner and Kelly expand on these stated differences when they define interpersonal communication as "the study of interpersonal relationships" and the goal of interpersonal communication training is "to improve interpersonal relationships among people." (5:2)

From these formal definitions, informal definitions and viewpoints, it seems as if some agreement exists that:

1) interpersonal communication involves the same basic processes (message sending and receiving) as any communication situation;

2) interpersonal communication involves the more informal communication encounters;

3) interpersonal communication occurs in face-to-face encounters; and

4) interpersonal communication involves a second level of interaction -- the personal level -- which is over and above the "content message" function as analyzed by communication theory.

A Consensus Definition

Since the objective of this discussion is to determine the differences between interpersonal communica-
tion and general communication, the consensus definition therefore must combine those elements of stated differences. Combining the points of agreement which recognize differences between interpersonal communication and general communication produces the following consensus definition:

Interpersonal communication is the application of the process of communication (source, receiver, message, etc.) to informal, face-to-face encounters that deal with both content messages and relationships.

This definition can be useful to present to secondary speech students who are studying interpersonal communication.

Examination of Content Areas

The content of these three selected texts also shows the differences in outlooks on interpersonal communication. The unique viewpoint of interpersonal communication is reflected in the content of each text. When the content is displayed and compared via a content analysis table (See Table 3), the areas of differences and commonality become evident.

Analysis of Content Areas

Using the criteria of two of the three texts dealing with a content area to qualify it for a point
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Keltner</th>
<th>Giffin and Patton</th>
<th>McCroskey et al.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes, beliefs and values</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barriers and breakdowns</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal attraction</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relationships</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perception</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nonverbal</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding to needs of others</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roles</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantics (messages and meanings)</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source credibility</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*<sup>a</sup>x signifies content covered in the text; - signifies content not covered in the text.*
of agreement or commonality, the analysis of the content areas (Table 3) reveals eight areas of agreement. Those are:

Barriers and breakdowns
Feedback
Interpersonal relationships
Perception
Nonverbal
Responding to needs of others
Roles
Semantics (messages and meanings)

A further analysis reveals that five of these points of commonality are dealt with in the consensus content areas of communication theory. Those areas covered in communication theory are:

Feedback
Perception
Nonverbal
Roles
Semantics

This leaves only three topic areas that seem to be unique and common to interpersonal communication theory.
Those are:

Barriers and breakdowns
Interpersonal relationships
Responding to the needs of others

Therefore it seems that a course or unit that is limited to the study of interpersonal communication would study the basic communication process, but emphasize the study of these three content areas. These three topic areas reflect the informal and personal orientation of the study of interpersonal communication.

Analysis of Skills

Education is now being described as a process of modifying the behaviors of learners. A teacher is described as a "person who intends to change or modify the behavior of others." (5:1) Effective teaching is defined as "an ability to bring about desirable modifications in the abilities and perceptions of the learner." (52:10) These views are somewhat of a change from the more traditional view of education. Gerlach and Ely explain:

One of the most common conceptions of the role of a teacher is that of a giver of information, perhaps because most of the instruction on the elementary and secondary
levels, and in high education, traditionally has involved the presentation of information. The process begins with the teacher, who has been the prime source of wisdom. (Placement of the teacher in the front of the room perpetuates the tradition of teacher dominance.) If all goes well the process ends with the student, who has often been a passive receiver. Teaching has been described by a not-too-kind critic as the transmission of the material from an instructor's notebook to a student's notebook, by-passing the minds of both. (53:9)

Much of the current criticism of education in general has been its characteristic passivity on the part of students. Students come to school to learn from a teacher who is a fountain of knowledge and all the students need do is to open their minds and notebooks to receive this knowledge. The teacher did the "doing" while the students passively received. The current emphasis, designed to effect a change, stresses learning in the form of observable and measurable student behaviors. Speech education has always dealt with observable and measurable behaviors because the thrust of speech education has always been skill development.
These speech skills are observable and measurable. They require activity not passivity from students.\(^3\)

On the secondary level, speech instruction whether traditional or communications oriented must deal with skill development. Inherent in the many criticisms of traditional approaches to speech instruction is it's uselessness to everyday communication situations. To adopt an approach that would teach just the content of communication or interpersonal theory would be equally inappropriate. Theory for the sake of theory is as inappropriate as activity for the sake of activity. As one secondary speech teacher puts it, "I cannot just teach theory to my students. They cannot translate or put abstract theory into practice. What I need to have is a clearly defined set of skills." (54)

What are these skills? What skills represent communication competency? What skills represent interpersonal competency? The texts examined for the purpose of determining a consensus definition and consensus set of subject matter-content topic areas are of minimal value.

\(^3\)It is somewhat ironic to note that as the field of education moves toward an action-based educational system with objectives based upon observable behaviors, a modern trend among many college and university speech departments is to eliminate student activity in many speech classes.
These texts are not skills oriented. They describe what communication is and/or what interpersonal communication is, but they do not delineate observable skills. None of the communication texts examined described what a student should be able to do at the end of a communications course or what behaviors should be demonstrated in order to be a competent communicator. None of the interpersonal texts examined described the interpersonal skills as such. The texts implied the content students should know, but not what they should be able to do. Anyone studying learning theory knows there is a significant difference between "knowing about" and "knowing how to." This writer has found no indication that "knowing about" communication will produce an effective communicator. What is needed is systematic skill development to bring about improvement in communication behaviors. This should be the goal of a communications oriented secondary speech course. The high school teacher who wants to develop a communications course needs a set of measureable skills to draw from when designing an instructional package. Clearly the texts used for content lack delineation of these skills.
An Examination of Communication Skills

To arrive at a consensus set of skills appropriate for development in the secondary speech class, it is necessary to re-examine those authors who have criticized the traditional approach, called for specific changes and to those few sources that have presented communication information applicable to the high school speech class. After examining these sources and delineating the skills identified in each, an attempt will be made to arrive at a consensus set of skills.

Phillips, et. al., who advocated a communication oriented approach to speech listed the following curricula goals: (22:9)

Students should be able to:

1) Communicate for purposes of need satisfaction;

2) Satisfy the distinctly human need for self-identity and self-esteem;

3) Participate in organized social activity;

4) Confront self;

5) Confront others;

6) Realize developmental potentialities for regulation of behavior and the organization of thinking in problem-solving; and

7) Express creatively and release tension.
In restructuring his fundamentals speech course, Theodore Nelson listed the skills he felt needed developing by stating them as course objectives. His objectives were:

(36:290)

1) to develop in students a sense of responsibility for what and how something is said and toward the person to whom it is said;

2) to bring about in students a self-change in the direction of greater self-insight, more open and tolerant attitudes toward those with whom they speak, a less judgemental approach to the beliefs and opinions of others, etc.;

3) to stimulate the students to acquire a deeper insight and understanding of the nature, functions and effects of the process of communication and interpersonal interaction;

4) to improve the ability of students to speak and participate effectively in interpersonal and small group speaking situations;

5) to search for and identify a set of factors that study and experience demonstrate to be important in order for communication and inter-relating to be effective.

Ray E. Nadeau, who has published a high school text that incorporates some communication theory with the rhetorical theory, list four objectives, i.e. skills, that are directed toward "helping students become better communicators."
His objectives are: (55:1)

1) become more sensitive in communicating with others

2) communicate accurately, sensibly, and intelligently

3) cooperate fully with others in discussion

4) be discriminating and fair in attempting to influence others and in listening to those attempting to exert influence.

The most comprehensive list of objectives-skills for a secondary communication course was made by Allan Frank. He identified not only the broad objectives or skills, but he further identified some of the specific terminal behaviors associated with each objective. Frank identifies the following objectives and behaviors. (19:54-59)

1) Problem-solving and decision making

a. applies steps in scientific problem solving in resolving problems important to him
b. distinguishes between statements of fact and statements of inference
c. applies criteria of logical validity to assess his inferences and those stated by others
d. applies tests of evidence to assess his statements of fact and those of others
e. understands how emotions, attitudes, values, and self-interest influence the problem-solving process
f. verbalizes alternate explanations of data
g. verbalizes alternate solutions to the problem
h. is sensitive to verbal and nonverbal feedback in the group problem-solving situation
2) Stir up intended meanings in others

a. perceives external events accurately
b. knows that different persons will perceive the same event differently
c. understands how needs, values, goals and emotions influence perception
d. can distinguish between symbols and the objects and events they represent
e. believes that meanings exist in people not in words
f. structure messages clearly to increase chances of clear reception
g. asks questions to facilitate the creation of common meanings
h. uses clear, unambiguous language to facilitate the creation of common meanings
i. creates clear, unambiguous auditory stimuli to increase chances of accurate message reception
j. receives speaker's messages accurately

3) Emotional self-expression

a. speaker uses verbal signs which accurately represent his inner states
b. speaker translates his feelings into words accurately
c. listener interprets the speaker's nonverbal signs accurately
d. student accepts his feelings as normal
e. listener practices empathic listening to facilitate speaker's emotional self-expression
f. student understands the beneficial consequences of being able to express himself emotionally

4) Leadership and persuasion

a. believes that persuasion is a more acceptable form of influence than force or threats of force
b. applies ethical standards of persuasion to his own influence attempts of others
c. accurately predicts the capability of the other person to satisfy a need
d. resists influence attempts that could produce harmful consequences
e. speaker makes accurate predictions about the listener's value system and motivational system
f. uses influence to build social cooperation through which all parties benefit
g. understands the effectiveness of various styles of leadership for different leader-follower situations

5) Self-exploration

a. knows the dimensions of a self-concept (how we are, how we perceive ourselves, how we think others perceive us, and how others do perceive us)
b. understands the role of interpersonal and intrapersonal communication in forming a self-concept
c. practices empathic listening to help the speaker to construct an accurate and satisfying self-image
d. reveals his true self verbally and nonverbally, as opposed to putting forth false fronts
e. does not hide his true self by engaging in neutral interpersonal behavior (noncommunication, monotone, etc.)
f. is pleased and satisfied with his self concept
g. has confidence in his ability to communicate with others

6) Form and maintain groups

a. knows how to determine the norms and rules which control interpersonal communication in a group
b. performs the role behaviors required by the social definition of the group situation
c. understands the influence of position, power, prestige on the interpersonal communication in a group
d. knows how to perform task and group maintenance functions
e. successfully resolves conflicts between individual and group norms
f. understands how a clique selects members and excludes persons from membership
g. demonstrates group orientation when engaged in performing a group function
h. challenges and corrects erroneous statements made by group members
i. practices nondirective listening to facilitate the generation of common meanings in the group
7) Verbal play

a. knows the difference between kidding, sarcasm, and verbal knifing
b. knows how to determine the rules governing verbal play in a situation
c. produces clear statements of private experiences for public reception
d. understands what makes verbalizations and other behavior humorous
e. makes accurate predictions about listener's concepts of what is play and what is pleasurable
f. knows how to draw out reticent communicators in social situations
g. applies criteria of excellence to entertaining messages sent over public media (radio, television, film, play productions, etc.)
h. knows how to give pleasure through interested listening
i. is sensitive to feedback which tells him that he has violated the 'rules of the game'
j. can distinguish between game behavior and intimate behavior 'rules of the game'

These objectives and statements of purposes or skills are representative of the kinds of skills these writers see appropriate for developing among high school students. These are obvious differences just as there were differences among the general content areas of communication theory. But among these differences, there are areas of commonality that when matched with the content of communication produce a set of skills a secondary speech teacher may draw from when developing a communications course or unit within a course.
A Consensus Set of Communication Skills

Extrapolating from the above four sets of objectives—skills, the following appear to be a consensus list of skills appropriate to the study of communication theory:

1) the student should be able to demonstrate an understanding of the process of communication and apply this process to a variety of communication situations

2) the student should be able to demonstrate accurate communication of messages

3) the student should be able to demonstrate accurate reception of messages

4) the student should be able to demonstrate an understanding of the role of communication in forming the self-concept

5) the student should be able to demonstrate an increased effectiveness in communicating in interpersonal situations

6) the student should be able to demonstrate an increased effectiveness in communicating in group situations

7) the student should be able to listen empathically

8) the student should be able to solve problems by using communication whether alone or in a group
9) the student should be able to effectively and responsibly use communication to influence others

10) the student should be able to verbalize the satisfaction gained from communicating

11) the student should be able to demonstrate an increased sensitivity to the communication attempts of others

This set of consensus communication skills should prove helpful to a secondary speech teacher formulating a communications curricula. This list of skills is not intended to be all inclusive, but representative. The teacher will probably want to add some other objectives. The teacher should also design some type of pre- and posttest for each of these skills in order to measure attainment.

An Examination of Interpersonal Skills

The teacher who chooses to adopt an interpersonal approach to his secondary speech class is faced with the same problem as those choosing a communications theory or communication-oriented approach. The available texts do not offer an appropriate set of skills for developing in students to encourage interpersonal competency. To arrive at a consensus set of skills it is necessary to re-examine
those authors that called for a change to an interpersonal approach to determine what skills they specified. After examining the skills identified by these authors, an attempt will be made to extrapolate from the skills identified a consensus set of skills appropriate to interpersonal communication.

John Illardo, whose article, "Why Interpersonal Communication," calls for an interpersonal approach to speech instruction, simply identifies 1) improved person-to-person communication (especially in dyadic and small group levels) and 2) the establishment of more meaningful and satisfying interpersonal relationships and the fulfillment of individual potential as the goals of interpersonal instruction. (11:2)

John Stewart was equally brief when he identified the basic interpersonal skills as: 1) meaning-centered communicating; 2) non-evaluative listening; 3) appropriate self-disclosure; self-perception, perceiving others; and 4) nonverbal codes. (20:14)

Allen and Wilmington, who strongly advocate an interpersonal approach in the secondary school, listed the following "understandings and skills" students in the secondary speech class should be expected to develop:
Cognitively, the student should come to understand the complex forces which influence a person in daily communication encounters: self-perception, attitudes and values, perceptions of others involved in the interaction, perceptions of social constraints governing the interaction, perception of the purpose of the interaction, physical encoding and decoding skills, experiential constraints, and language constraints. The student should also come to understand the diverse kinds of interpersonal communication relationships: formal-informal, constrained-free, social-task oriented, etc.; the tone of such relationships: cooperation-conflict, autocratic-democratic, reserved-involved, etc.; and the dimensions of interpersonal compatibility: control, warmth, initiation, etc. In addition, the student should come to understand the nature of messages: verbal, visual, and tactile; and the common barriers and breakdowns in interpersonal communications. But it is not enough that the student simply knows. He should experience interpersonal communication relationships in an informed way. He should experience himself as he interacts with others. He should receive direct feedback and evaluation concerning his communication behaviors in diverse situations. (1:25)

Arthur Bochner and Clifford Kelly reviewed the psychology and sociology literature to arrive at a set of skills for their interpersonal approach to speech instruction. The skills they feel reflect an interpersonal competency are: (5:16)
1) give and receive nonevaluative descriptive feedback;

2) own and help others to own their values, attitudes, ideas and feelings;

3) experiment and help others to experiment with new values, attitudes, ideas and feelings; and

4) take risks with new values, attitudes, ideas and feelings.

Finally, David Johnson in his book, Reaching Out, which is not a speech communication text, but a book evolving out of a federal project called YOUTH REACHING YOUTH, discusses interpersonal skills. The purpose of the project and the book was to "develop effective interpersonal skills" among ghetto residents so that they could transmit these skills to others. The actual focus of the book is skill development. According to Johnson, the main purpose or function of interpersonal skills are to "initiate, develop and maintain effective and fulfilling relationships." (71:2) Johnson identifies four general areas of interpersonal skills: (71:3-4)

1) Knowing and trusting each other -- this involves self-disclosure, self-awareness, self-acceptance and trust;

2) Accurately and unambiguously understanding each other -- this focuses on accurate message communication and the communication of warmth and liking;
3) Influencing and helping each other — this concerns mutual support and influence in the relationship, responding in helpful ways to another's problems, communicating acceptance and support, constructively confronting a friend, and using reinforcement and modeling to influence another person's behavior; and

4) Constructively resolving problems and conflicts in your relationships — this means resolving problems and conflicts with others in ways to bring you and the other person closer together and to facilitate the growth and development of the relationship.

A Consensus Set of Interpersonal Skills

Analyzing these skill offerings, differences among the approaches are again obvious. The points of commonality seem to be:

1) the student should be able to establish and maintain satisfying interpersonal relationships;

2) the student should be able to use non-evaluative listening in his relationships with others;

3) the student should be able to engage in self-disclosure when appropriate to further a relationship;

4) the student should be able to verbalize his self-perception in terms of his relationships;

5) the student should demonstrate an understanding of the variables involved in interpersonal communication; and

6) the student should be able to provide verbal acceptance and support to others in need through communication.
This set of consensus interpersonal skills should prove useful to a teacher formulating a course emphasizing interpersonal communication or formulating a unit in interpersonal communication to be used in a communication-oriented course. Obviously, a teacher who plans to have a whole class or course on interpersonal communication will have to expand on these skills. These are only representative and many of them can be sub-divided into several objectives. Again it would be advisable for the teacher to devise some type of pre-posttest for each skill in order to measure progress toward the objective or attainment of the objective. Instruments to measure final competency can easily be devised.

A Comparison of Approaches

Three approaches for organizing the secondary speech class employing communication principles have been identified in the literature calling for change. Those three approaches were: 1) the communication theory approach; 2) the communications-oriented approach; and 3) the interpersonal communication approach. The analysis of the texts on communication and interpersonal communication
suggest the following guidelines for each approach:

1) communication theory approach -- this curricula approach would emphasize cognitive understandings of the communication process. It would be a theory-based approach developing knowledge and understandings. The general nature and characteristics, as well as, the specific applications of communication would be examined.

2) communications-oriented approach -- this curricula approach would combine theory with performance. The theory would be communication and the performances would be in the various types of communication situations. All levels of communication (intrapersonal, interpersonal, small group, public and mass) would be studied and performed.

3) interpersonal communication approach -- this curricula approach would also include both theory and performance, but its focus would be on the informal, interpersonal communicative situations that students engage in daily. Some knowledge and understanding of the general nature and characteristics of communication would be included, but the prime focus of theory and total performance emphasis would be in interpersonal communication relationships.

The three approaches offer the secondary teacher
alternatives to the traditional, public speaking approach to teaching speech. They offer some basic similarities among all three approaches in that they are all grounded in communication theory. Most of all, they offer teachers an opportunity to choose an approach that best meets his and his students unique curricula needs.

For the purpose of clarity throughout the rest of this document, these three approaches will be referred to under the general term of a communications approach. Thus a communications approach to a secondary speech class may be either a communication theory approach, a communications-oriented approach or an interpersonal communication approach.

Summary

The intent of this chapter was to examine the literature on communication theory and interpersonal communication for the purpose of summarizing and identifying important concepts useful to secondary speech teachers who have little or no background in these areas. Specifically, this chapter:

1) reviewed five representative college texts on communication theory and extrapolated from them a consensus definition of communication and a set of content areas appropriate for use in a secondary communications curriculum;
2) reviewed three representative college texts on interpersonal communication and extrapolated from them a consensus definition of interpersonal communication and a set of content areas appropriate for use in a secondary communications curriculum;

3) reviewed the literature discussing communication and interpersonal skills and extrapolated from it a set of consensus communication and interpersonal skills appropriate for development among secondary speech students; and

4) examined, explained and summarized the three separate curricula suggestions that comprise a communications approach to the secondary speech course. This information is designed for easy adaptability to a secondary speech course.
CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF RESEARCH ON TEACHING COMMUNICATION

AND INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Having identified a consensus set of content areas and a consensus set of skills for both communication theory and interpersonal communication that are appropriate for teaching in a secondary speech class, several questions arise. First, can these concepts and skills be taught? Is there any research data validating the success of teaching communication and/or interpersonal communication? Are there ways of measuring these skills? How can the skills be taught? The purpose of this chapter is to examine the available data on teaching communication concepts and skills for the purpose of developing competencies.

There has been a great amount of research in human communication especially in recent years. Many of the texts previously identified, Mortensen and McCroskey, et. al., for example, serve as excellent summaries of the research in these areas. The thrust of this research, however, is descriptive in that it attempts to identify, isolate, define,
describe or explain some aspect of human communication.

Very little research has investigated the pedagogical aspects of communication. Research has told us how to describe, isolate, manipulate and measure man's communication, but it has not told us how we can teach communication effectiveness. David Smith points out that the recent appeal of teaching interpersonal communication "does not really rest on empirical investigation." (9:1) Those who teach the more traditional public speaking approach to speech education have a larger data base from which to draw conclusions of effectiveness or ineffectiveness of instructional techniques.1

**Listening Skills**

Of the consensus skills identified under communication theory and interpersonal communication, the one that has been researched most concerning pedagogy is listening. There has been quite an interest in listening and quite a controversy over whether it can be taught ever since Ralph G. Nichols' dissertation in 1948.

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In fact, there has been so much research done on listening that many bibliographies and summaries of studies on listening have been published.2

Thompson, who summarized many of the studies in listening in 1967, concluded, "a book written a few years ago would have stated without qualification that listening is a skill that is teachable, but recent investigators have raised serious objections ...." (56:143) The objections raised deal with the testing instruments and the experimental designs so Thompson concluded:

Objecting to designs and instruments, however, seems only to question alleged evidence of teachability and does not provide proof that listening is unteachable. Thus, Ralph Nichols' assumption that many of the factors comprising listening skills are 'readily amendable to training and improvement,' though unverified, is not disproved. (56:144)

2Some of the summaries are: Sam Duker, "A Selected Bibliography on the Teaching of Listening at the Secondary Level" Journal of Communication (Spring, 1955); Sam Duker, "A Selected Bibliography on the Teaching of Listening at the Elementary Level" Journal of Communication (Summer, 1956); Sam Duker, "Master's Thesis on Listening" Journal of Communication (December, 1962); Sam Duker, "Doctoral Dissertations on Listening" Journal of Communication (June, 1963); Sam Duker, Listening Bibliography (New York: Scarecrow Press, 1964); Isabella H. Toussaint, "A Classified Summary of Listening" Journal of Communication (September, 1960); and Sam Duker and Charles R. Pietrie, Jr., "What We Know about Listening: A Continuation of a Controversy" Journal of Communication (December, 1964).
Thus the only skill that has received extensive research to determine whether it can be taught remains in controversy.

**Problem Solving Skills**

Another skill indicated in the consensus set of content areas is problem-solving ability. This skill, as well as the ability to think critically, is often an objective of the more traditional approaches. Group discussions are often used as means of developing these skills.

Larson and Gratz did a study comparing these effectiveness of the group discussion method and the "T-Group" method in developing these skills. The "T-Group" method, which focuses on the "here-and-now" is a commonly used device in many interpersonal approaches. The results showed that:

T-Group enjoyed very marked improvements in critical thinking ability in the absence of formally presented instructional units on 'logic' or 'analysis' or 'reflective thinking.' Small group problem-solving accuracy increased significantly only in the T-Group. (58:57)

While a communications-oriented or interpersonal secondary speech class will not operate as a T-Group, many of the activities suggested for communications learning involve the T-Group emphasis on the here-and-now in group situations. What this piece of research indicates is that such a device will not necessarily be less effective in trans-
mitting traditional learnings, but in some cases may be more effective.

Testimonials

Most of the research data on teaching communication and interpersonal communication that has emerged from the speech communication discipline has been of the anecdotal-testimonial variety. While it is usually considered less reliable than empirical research, most of it is based on actual classroom experiences. Theodore Nelson, who after several years of teaching speech in the traditional manner changed to an interpersonal approach, concluded:

This experience in teaching a Fundamentals of Speech course as training in interpersonal communication seems to suggest to the instructor that certain of those 'other factors' vital to effective oral communication can be identified and developed through this approach. The greater majority of the students felt that their improvement in ability to communicate and relate meaningfully with others resulted from a sharper awareness of their own interpersonal attitudes and habits, from a more accurate concept of themselves and their own general personality structure. They also felt that a stronger desire and greater efforts to understand and identify with the other person's frame of reference and point of view contributed to more meaningful and effective relationships. (36:294-295)

Similarly, Professor Smith talked about the teaching of such vague skills as trust and relationship maintenance. He feels such skills can be taught and produce positive results.
He stated:

... the strategies for relationship maintenance ... can be made concrete and can be rehearsed by students. They do not require the student to change his personality, only to learn new skills. The teacher need not tell his student to become a more trusting person before he can trust, but rather the teacher can teach the student a set of skills which will enable the student to begin to develop trust and, perhaps, in the long run become a more trusting person. (9:10-11)

Both approaches, communication theory and interpersonal communication, call for a greater sensitivity to the nonverbal.

Can nonverbal sensitivity be taught? Clark, Erway and Beltzer report:

Everyone does not have the same ability to read nonverbal cues. There is some evidence to support the hypothesis that sensitive observers may be trained in such reading ability by the use of films, video tapes, and practice in small groups. (57:65)

Another type of anecdotal evidence is that from those who have taught the course and seen its successes. At the University of Kansas extensive research has been conducted comparing the interpersonal approach to the traditional public speaking approach. Bobby R. Patton reports:

In the fall of 1967 an innovation was made in the fundamentals of speech program at The University of Kansas. Students were given a choice between the traditional public speaking course and a new course entitled "Interpersonal Communication," either of which would satisfy
the university speech requirement. That fall we had 11 sections of the new course and 40 sections of the public speaking course. Each subsequent semester the trend has been toward more interpersonal communication classes. In the fall of 1970 we had 56 sections compared with six classes in public speaking. (70:vi)

While this evidence does not prove interpersonal communication can be taught, it seems to indicate that the consumers of the course at Kansas feel it is of some value to them or of more value than public speaking.

Speech Anxiety

There has been a good deal of research done in the area of speech anxiety or stagefright. While this is not a specific skill in teaching communication or interpersonal communication, it is an important element that affects the acquisition and use of these skills in various communication situations. Because of its importance, the research dealing with it will be considered here.

Most of the research has produced significant negative findings. Negative in the sense that the results do not verify any "right way" to deal with stagefright, but shows how not to deal with it. Traditionally, speech teachers have assumed that repeated practice in front of the class enables a student with "speech anxiety" to overcome his nervousness. The feeling has been that the cure is practice.
The research says this is not so. In fact, in severe cases of speech anxiety the repeated practice may complicate rather than lessen the anxiety. The reason is that it is now recognized that although stage fright is common and "normal" to an extent; it is a phobic reaction. One can liken it to claustrophobia. One does not cure a claustrophobic by continually locking him in a closet until he loses his irrational fear of closed places. The same logic applies to repeated practice for someone with stage fright.

Barker, Cegala, Kibler and Wahlers report:

Serious cases of speech anxiety are not likely to be treated successfully by the repeated practice method. Paul's (Gordon Paul) study, for example, suggests that distributed practice by students with serious speech anxiety may serve only to reinforce and maintain anxiety previously attendant on the speaking situation. (59:31)

While this type of evidence does not offer the speech teacher insight into proper instructional procedures, it does offer some important advice in regard to improper procedures which is equally important. A teacher who is trying to develop communication skills in students must be aware of the level of speech anxiety in students and what not to do that would increase it. Anyone filled with speech anxiety is likely to be an ineffective communicator.
Grading Procedures

An equally important and similar area of pertinent research for the communications instructor is in the area of grading. While also not being an area that relates directly to proving that communication skills or interpersonal communication skills can be taught, grading is an integral procedure involved in the teaching process and as such warrants consideration here.

Obviously, a high school speech teacher must give grades and these grades are based upon evaluation of student performance. Does this have any effect upon students' communication? Does it have any effect on students' learning of effective communication techniques? The research says yes. The purpose or objective of a communications class is to improve and develop new skills. This is often done by trial and error. A student who is immediately penalized by a poor grade for any "error" will not take risks, try something new and thereby not learn new communication skills.

Phillips, et al. say:

A typical response by teachers to the inadequate performer is a penalty in the form of a poor grade. The existence of evaluation heightens the threat presented by any assignment ... a situation in which the student is required to perform orally for a grade is potentially so demoralizing that it should be
discarded as a pedagogical tool. The only defense of grading is that it tends to compel participation. But compulsion is a poor substitute for motivation. Furthermore, there is evidence that most students learn affective oral communication more efficiently without the presence of grading. Students need places where they can practice at making mistakes. Training in oral communication offers precisely such an opportunity to try and to fail without penalty. (22:146-154)

The research seems to bear out these observations. Alvin Goldberg who reviewed much of the research literature on grading in speech classes concluded, "the threat of external evaluation will cause a group to be less communicative, less friendly, and less coordinated than groups that are not so threatened." (160:307-308) E. Paul Torrence discovered that, "groups allowed to evaluate themselves became significantly more productive than groups evaluated by an external source." (61:394-398) To a teacher who is striving to develop open communication, the research on grading of students' oral efforts in the classroom bears careful consideration. Again this research does not provide the teacher with a clear consensus on what or how to do things, but it offers some very concrete guidelines on what not to do in order to achieve certain results.
Interpersonal Skills

As stated previously, there is a dearth of research in the discipline of speech communication on how to teach effective communication or on whether it can be taught. One discipline that has done a good deal of research trying to get at these questions is the discipline of counseling and therapy. It has long been recognized that to be an effective counselor one has to be an effective communicator. The skills of interpersonal communication and counseling and therapy are so similar because they both involve relating effectively with others and establishing and maintaining relationships. So it became a very critical issue to counseling and therapy to determine whether these skills could in fact be taught to others. Dr. Robert R. Carkhuff appears to be one of the leading researchers in this area. In 1967 he, following closely the research and findings of Carl Rogers, identified the crucial interpersonal skills as accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth and genuineness.³

³Note the similarity of these characteristics to those previously identified under the consensus skills of interpersonal communication.
Having identified these interpersonal communication characteristics, Carkhuff and others designed experiments to determine whether they could be taught. In one study conducted by Truax and Douds, Carkhuff reported, "Evidence from this didactic and experientially-based program suggests that specific training can lead to relatively effective communication of accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth and genuineness." (62:108) In another study using prospective undergraduate dormitory counselors, Carkhuff, Berenson and Myrus found that, "The trainees, in relatively brief periods of time, demonstrated significant improvement and high levels of functioning on the therapeutic dimensions of empathy, positive warmth and genuineness ..." (62:109) In his 1967 book with Truax, *Toward Effective Counseling and Psychotherapy*, Carkhuff reports many other studies that verify the finding that skills in interpersonal communication can be effectively taught to others.

**Communication Skills**

Concerning the problem of teaching people the basic skills of how to communicate, Carkhuff also did a good deal of research. Basically, Carkhuff sought to determine if a person who was not functioning normally in communication abilities could be taught to communicate effectively. In
one study, using a group of Veterans Administration neuropsychiatric patients who were totally uncommunicative, the researchers were able to totally reconstruct the communication process. (63:232) In other studies, groups given communication training, "demonstrated significantly higher levels of interpersonal functioning than a pre-post tested time control group ..." (63:232) From these studies and others, Carkhuff concluded, "patients were trained in behavioristic ways to communicate effectively." (63:230)

A finding of further interest to the speech teacher concerned the behavioral tool used -- practice. Carkhuff reported:

It is to be emphasized that of all the training programs for which extensive data are available, these groups, trained with a behavioral emphasis on practice, demonstrated the most constructive change in interpersonal functioning. (63:235)

While Carkhuff's research and findings are not from the speech communication field and do not represent efforts to teach in a "traditional classroom situation," they do provide some significant evidence that communication and interpersonal skills can be taught.

Studies Involving Secondary Students

In reviewing the meager research studies pertaining to teaching communication and interpersonal skills, one is
struck by the fact that the studies that have been done were all conducted using college or graduate students. This poses some questions to the efficacy of using these same instructional techniques with secondary students. Therefore, an important question is have there been any studies showing these skills can be taught to high school students with success? This investigator found no such studies in the area of speech communication. One study from counseling and psychology was identified. Dr. Norman Sprinthall, Chairman of the Department of Counseling and Student Personnel Psychology, University of Minnesota, conducted an important study using high school students. Dr. Sprinthall sought to teach Carkhuff's interpersonal communication traits to a group of high school students. He based his measurement on both pre- and post test of the experimental group and comparisons with a control group within the same high school. Dr. Sprinthall concluded:

In assessing the outcome of such a class we found that the high school pupils quickly learned effective communication skills and that the program also produced personal growth. Using pre-post measures of skills such as empathy, positive regard and immediacy, the teenagers not only demonstrated statistically significant changes but also achieved higher levels on these scales than commonly achieved by professional trainees in graduate schools and in a shorter time period. In other words, the teenagers learned quickly (in one high school semester) and at
high levels of effectiveness how to respond to emotions of their peers. The point to note here is that we were frankly quite surprised to find that the teenagers were capable of learning the high facilitating condition of effective counseling communication faster than graduate students. (69:6)

When Sprinthall compared the experimental group with the control group of high school students who did not receive any instruction in communication effectiveness, he found:

On both measures of psychological development, the teenagers demonstrated significant growth. The level of ego development and the level of moral maturity were significantly higher at the end of the semester when compared to their own pre-test scores and to the 'control' classes in the high school itself. (69:6)

All findings were confirmed by the "testimonials" of the students involved. Sprinthall points out:

The students in their own 'talk' and in post-class interviews indicated their experiences included positive growth and development. (60:6)

While this is only one study and it is unwise to make too many generalizations from one study, it does seem that certain communication or interpersonal communication skills can be taught to secondary students with success and possibly resulting in positive personal growth.
Teaching Skills

This review of these scattered research results seem to indicate that communication skills and interpersonal communication skills can be taught. Sprinthall's research seems to indicate these skills can be taught to secondary students. This question is how? Education texts are replete with guidelines for teaching knowledge and facts, but sparse on how to teach skills. Skill development is very different from simple knowledge acquisition. Speech teachers have always used oral performance calling it "practice" as a cornerstone in speech skill development. However, this is usually not "practice" since the performances were always graded. Practice was a significant factor in Carkhuff's findings and procedures, but practice seems to be only one of the necessary ingredients for skill development. David Johnson has identified the process he used to teach interpersonal skills to the ghetto youth. His "five-step" process for learning new interpersonal skills was:

1) Becoming aware of the need for and uses of a new skill;

2) Identifying the behaviors involved in the new skill;

3) Practicing the behaviors;
4) Receiving feedback concerning how well you are performing the behaviors; and

5) Integrating the behaviors into your behavioral repertoire. (71:6)

These steps to skill development that Johnson found very successful in his training seem to be easily adaptable for classroom use. It seems probable that a teacher could structure his course or unit in communication or interpersonal communication skill improvement around these five steps and expect some measure of success.

Measuring Skills

The final concern of this chapter is can these skills be measured. Education is currently being influenced by a behavioristic trend. This is evidenced by the rising popularity of behavioral objectives and programmed learning procedures. One of the tenents often espoused by the behaviorists is that if a learning cannot be measured, it has not been effectively taught. Another way of putting this is, if learning cannot be measured; one cannot determine whether one has in fact taught. Obviously, if we intend to teach communication and interpersonal competencies and learning, we must be able to measure them.
There are several very reliable and sophisticated measurement instruments available. The most widely used is the "Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation Form B" or called the "FIRO-B" developed by William C. Schultz. (64) This instrument measures interpersonal needs and behaviors. The "Interpersonal Communication Inventory" developed by Bienvenu is a self-report questionnaire of about forty items that measures eight aspects of interpersonal communication behavior. (65) J. Hughey recently developed a fifty item instrument designed to assess patterns of conversational behavior and competencies. (66) Finally, Kolb and Boyatzis have produced an instrument that produces data on feedback and helping behaviors. (67) Bochner and Kelly say of Kolb and Boyatzis's instrument, "this sociometric model integrates a number of the behavioral dimensions directly relatable to competence acquisition behaviors ..." (5:23) Also, Carkhuff has several instruments that measure the interpersonal behaviors he identifies: accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth and genuineness. (62)

Although these instruments have been tested for validity and reliability, they are somewhat sophisticated and may be difficult for a teacher to use who is unfamiliar with statistics. There are other devices that can be easily used
by classroom teachers and these are frequently reported in the professional speech journals. One example is Zima's Self-Analysis Inventory: An Interpersonal Communication Exercise. (68:108-114) The teacher can examine several of these instruments and design his own. A simple pre-test that gives valid information concerning communication skills or even perceived skills that can be administered again as a post test can serve as a measure of skill improvement or acquisition. At the beginning of the year, course or unit the student can be asked to perform certain communication or interpersonal communication tasks at which time he can be rated on a teacher devised form by himself, the class and the teacher. At the end of the course or unit the student can perform the same tasks and again be rated in the same manner. Frequent use and revision of such a procedure can produce an instrument of significant value for the classroom teacher.

The main point is that these behaviors or skills can be identified and measured. Such a measurement procedure can aid the teacher and students to 1) determine what are the areas of communication weakness so that instruction
and practice can be undertaken, 2) determine whether progress is being made toward competency and 3) whether competency has been attained or at what level is the learner functioning after communication instruction.

Summary

While certainly not conclusive, this review of the available literature on teaching communication and interpersonal skills does give encouragement to the teacher who wants to attempt such instruction. There is research data that has identified interpersonal skills. There is research data available indicating these skills can be taught to others. There is some evidence that points to a possible approach to imparting these skills to students. Finally, there are instruments available or easily designable that will attempt to measure these skills among secondary speech students.
CHAPTER VI
INTEGRATED CURRICULA FOR TEACHING COMMUNICATION
IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an information data base from which a secondary speech teacher can draw when formulating a communications curriculum. As was noted previously, the communications curriculum can be organized as a communication theory approach, a communication-oriented approach, or an interpersonal communication approach. This choice is up to the individual teacher. The following information data base, which covers all three approaches and is called an integrated curriculum for teaching communication in the secondary school, will include:

1) A rationale for a communications approach;

2) A rationale and explanation of "an integrated curriculum;"

3) Alternative assumptions for a communications course;

4) Alternative structures for the communications course;

5) Appropriate content-subject matter areas for a communications course;
6) Appropriate content-matched learning activities for a communications course; and

7) Appropriate instructional strategies for a communications course.

While specific suggestions, recommendations and preferences of this writer will be identified, this curriculum is not intended to be prescriptive. It is the firm belief of this writer that one measure of course effectiveness is the extent to which a curriculum reflects the instructor's beliefs and the extent to which the instructor is comfortable teaching the subject matter. Any prescriptive curriculum would severely limit the teacher's freedom of choice in curriculum design and thereby limit the potential effectiveness of the course. Any teacher should feel free to add, delete, or in any way re-organize this information in the best manner to meet his needs or the needs of his program and students.

Rationale for a Communications Approach

One of the most distinctive aspects of being alive is the potential for joy, fun, excitement, caring, warmth, and personal fulfillment in your relationships with other people. Making new friends, deepening ongoing relationships, even falling in love, depend on your interpersonal (communication) skills. Much of human society and human action seems based
upon the liking people have for each other. The words which name degrees of interpersonal attraction, such as like, love, dislike and hate, are among the most frequently used words in the English language. Because man is a social animal, most of his happiness and fulfillment rests upon his ability to relate effectively to other humans. In addition, the foundations of all civilizations rest upon man's ability to cooperate with other humans and to coordinate his actions with theirs. We are dependent upon other people for much of our personal happiness and fulfillment, and we must work effectively with other people in order to engage in our vocations and avocations competently. There is no way to overemphasize the importance of interpersonal skills in our lives. (71:1)

This writer recommends a communications approach for the secondary speech class because:

1. It deals with all the human communication behaviors, not just public communication.

2. It deals with an important aspect of the humanization process — communication.

3. It allows students to identify their own communication problems and needs.

4. It helps students to understand the communication processes in which they daily engage.

5. It allows for the development of new important communication skills.
6. It allows for practice of new behaviors and skills in a non-threatening, supportive environment.

7. It facilitates transference of new skills into the everyday behaviors of students.

8. It helps students deal with ordinary communication problems that occur everyday in the family, at work, in school, or with friends; it is relevant.

9. It allows an opportunity for important personal growth in the direction of realizing one's potential.

10. It allows students to improve their interpersonal skills which are so vital to their success and happiness.

11. It is more consistent with and makes better use of the most recent research findings in speech communication.

An Integrated Communications Curriculum – Rationale

An "integrated curriculum" for a secondary communications course, means the total integration of both theory (content-subject matter) and performance activities (oral communication exercises and games) for the purpose of developing, changing or reinforcing the behaviors and learnings identified in the course objectives. One of the major criticisms against the traditional speech curriculum was its heavy activity orientation. Many critics noted the pervasiveness of speech activities for the sake of speech activities. The only "theory" presented was the theory of
the activity. Persuasion is an example. Persuasive speeches were often taught not for the purpose of learning about the nature and complexity of the "persuasion phenomenon," but persuasive speeches were taught solely for the purpose of learning how "to give a persuasive speech." The criteria of measurement for effectiveness was not whether the speech persuaded anyone, but whether it was deemed acceptable by the instructor. Often oral interpretation readings or panel discussions were used as activities to teach students how to perform the activity in accordance to prescribed rules of performance rather than as alternative communication processes with their own unique complex set of variables. How to do generally has been emphasized to the exclusion of genuine understandings of the human communication process. Allen and Willmington observed:

In a maze of speech performances, the logic of public communication is lost. The student of such courses may end up performing without really knowing what public communication is all about. In the art of public communication a complete view of public discourse is not often provided. Furthermore, preoccupation with student performances of the common forms of public communication often interferes with the student's ability to grasp the key concepts that govern all public communication. (1:32-33)
Therefore, Allen and Willmington lament the fact that currently a typical student completing a speech course in our secondary school defines human communication as, "giving speeches, reading poetry and prose, acting in plays and producing radio and television programs." (1:15)

Students must know something about what they are doing. Oral activity without any theory base is meaningless. However, so is theory in communication without any opportunity to practice or "try out the theory." As Phillips, et. al., observe, "there is no evidence to indicate that reading about communication helps anyone to communicate better." (22:150)

That is why an "integrated" speech curriculum model is suggested. As John Stewart and his colleagues at the University of Washington conclude:

We are convinced that students often manage to avoid genuine learnings by intellectualizing about concepts instead of experiencing what it is like, for instance, to try a new style of interpersonal relating. In short, oral assignments and exercises are vitally important. We do not believe each student must give ten speeches -- or even five. But each student does have the opportunity to participate in a wide variety of exercises in which he can validate what he has read and discussed by experiencing it. (20:8)

This aspect of an "integrated curriculum" conforms to the widely accepted educational maxim that experiential learning is most efficient.
A second aspect of the "integrated curriculum model" concept is that the learning activities must be matched and immediately follow theoretical concepts. One should not teach theory then assign some oral performance and/or exercise while telling students to "practice the theory now." A teacher should not randomly intersperse the study of theory with some occasional breaks for oral performance. All oral performances, activities, exercises or games should be used to: 1) help students understand a concept by experiencing it; 2) give students an opportunity to practice new communication behaviors; and/or 3) give students an opportunity to demonstrate new competencies. Often, a teacher may precede a theoretical concept with an oral activity and have the students "pull the theory from the practice." In any case, the practice must be matched with theory.

In summary, an integrated curriculum for teaching communication in the secondary school is a curriculum that both teaches theory (cognitive learnings) and uses oral performance to achieve instructional course objectives. These performance-practice activities are matched with concepts and used for a definite instructional purpose.
Alternative Assumptions for a Communications Course

In Chapter Three, some of the assumptions that seem to underlay the current traditional secondary speech class were identified. The curriculum being proposed in this document is inconsistent with most of those assumptions. Therefore, any teacher who proposes to change his secondary speech curriculum to a communications approach, is urged to adopt a set of curricula assumptions consistent with a communications approach.

The assumptions upon which this curriculum is based are:

1) Human communication is a complex phenomenon consisting of many variables.

2) Effective communication can best be achieved by studying the process and practicing the skills involved.

3) Human communication is a transactional process not a linear or interactive process.

4) All levels of communication (intrapersonal, interpersonal, small group, public and mass) are equally important and should be studied and practiced in a secondary speech class.

5) Oral performance for a grade does not constitute "practicing" of communication skills.

6) The secondary speech class should be a communications laboratory which provides a supportive, non-threatening environment for students to experiment with new communication behaviors and skills.
7) The fundamental aim of oral communication is to evoke desired responses in listeners.

8) The affective dimension (students' feelings, attitudes, and values) is an appropriate domain for instruction in a secondary speech class.

9) The speech class is an appropriate place for developing positive interpersonal skills in students -- skills that involve human relationships.

10) Effective communication skills rarely just happen; they are learned.

11) The speech class is an appropriate place to help students to grow toward self-actualization.

12) Grades are an inappropriate source of motivation.

While these represent the basic assumptions upon which the following suggested curriculum is based, they are just representative of the types of alternative assumptions a secondary speech teacher might adopt for his communications course.

**Alternative Structures for a Communications Course**

Charles Balcer and Hugh Seabury identified three common ways of organizing the traditional speech course. They were: 1) the fundamentals approach, where each instructional unit was a different fundamental (voice control, bodily activity, language, etc.) and the subject matter and performance were matched to the specific fundamental being studied; 2) subject matter approach where each unit was structured around
a topic area (the most common example was using the five canons as the basic structure); and 3) the activities approach where each unit was based upon a specific oral activity (public speaking, oral interpretation, debate, etc.) and the theory and oral performance were matched to the particular activity under consideration. (29:115-220)

Under a communications approach to the secondary speech curriculum the same type of structures are available. However, the communications course structure will be somewhat determined by which of the three communications approaches is selected by the teacher.¹ The communication theory approach almost dictates a structure revolving around topic areas. A communications-oriented approach or an interpersonal communication approach allow for more flexibility. The interpersonal approach could be structured around content topic areas with oral activities and exercises used in conjunction with the particular topic area. For example, interpersonal feedback.

¹See Chapter Four for a detailed explanation of the three suggested communications approaches: communication theory approach, communications-oriented approach and interpersonal communication approach.
interpersonal trust, or empathy could be topic areas with specific oral exercises used in conjunction with each. The communications-oriented approach seems to offer the most flexibility in that the teacher can organize around topic areas, can organize around the particular communication model studied, or can organize around the different levels of communication.

For example, a course structured around topic areas might be organized in the following manner:

- **Unit I** - understanding the communication process
- **Unit II** - verbal communication
- **Unit III** - nonverbal communication
- **Unit IV** - interaction
- **Unit V** - communication variables

Etc.

A course organized around a communication model might follow this format:

- **Unit I** - a model of communication
- **Unit II** - the sender
- **Unit III** - the receiver
- **Unit IV** - the message
- **Unit V** - encoding messages
- **Unit VI** - decoding messages
- **Unit VII** - channels
- **Unit VIII** - feedback
- **Unit IX** - noise

A communications course structured around the levels of communication might use the following organization plan:

- **Unit I** - intrapersonal communication
- **Unit II** - interpersonal communication
While this writer recognizes the logic and validity of each of the three communication approaches referred to in the literature (communication theory, communication-oriented, and interpersonal), a combination of communication theory and communications-oriented is considered best. By combination, this writer means a course that is well-grounded in the theory of communication and structured around the different levels of communication. Specifically, the following course format is suggested:

Unit I - The process of communication: the study of selected models and theories of human communication

Unit II - Intrapersonal communication: the study of the self as a potential communicator

Unit III - Interpersonal communication: the study of one-to-one communication and relationships between people as related to communication

Unit IV - Small group communication: the study of the group and the communication variables involved in group communication

Unit V - Public communication: the study of public speaking and the variables involved

Unit VI - Mass communication: the study of communication through print, broadcasting and film.
The advantage of this course structure is that it blends the study of theory with opportunities for oral performance in each level of communication. It offers a logical progression from understanding the basic theory, understanding oneself, to communicating one-to-one, communicating to a few, to communicating to an audience, to finally communicating to the masses. This approach also covers all human communication situations a person will ever be involved.

A final set of alternative structures for a communications course deals with time. Conceivably a communications curriculum could be organized as:

1) a unit within a course;
2) a mini course;
3) a semester course; or
4) a year course.

The semester course in which the student would be allowed to choose a course in public speaking, debate, oral interpretation, drama, etc., to follow his basic understanding of human communication is preferred.

2This writer acknowledges that there is no consensus as to what constitutes a "mini course." Some schools have had one-day mini courses, three-day mini courses, week mini courses and even nine-week mini courses.
In summary, several curricula alternatives are available for the communications course. Such a course could be organized using a theory base or a performance base. The communications course could be organized around topic areas, a selected communication model or even levels of human interaction. Several time alternatives are also available. The semester course integrating theory and practice while combining general communication theory and levels of interaction is suggested.

**Appropriate Content Areas for a Communication Course**

The content areas will be organized under the unit headings of the previously suggested course structure:
1) communication theory; 2) intrapersonal communication; 3) interpersonal communication; 4) small group communication; 5) public communication; and 6) mass communication. The content areas for each unit will be listed and explained. No attempt will be made to provide all of the relevant data necessary to teach each concept. An attempt will be made, however, to provide more information than the mere content outlines offered by some writers in this area.

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3 See Buys, et. al. or Galvin and Book, in the bibliography.
but not to the extent of providing the detailed and highly technical information that the college texts offer. The teacher can organize the data he needs to embellish the material provided, once he understands the nature of the concepts to be studied. In essence, an attempt will be made to bridge the gap between the sketchy outlines and the college oriented texts already available by providing elaborations of general content areas. Many secondary teachers have found these available sources inadequate either because they provide too little information or too much so that the teacher cannot easily adapt it for the secondary classroom. Again, this discussion is not intended to be prescriptive. The subject areas are only representative and suggestive of the topics that might be studied under each general content area. The material is written for the teacher with no background in communication theory. The teacher with a background will probably want to add more detail. Any teacher using this content sources should feel free to add, delete, or re-arrange any of the following information to suit his purposes.

4See the communication and interpersonal communication texts reviewed in Chapter Four.
Unit One: Communication Theory — The Process of Communication

The basic aim of this unit is to give the student a working knowledge and background in human communication. This knowledge is necessary for the more detailed study of specific communication situations that will be studied in succeeding units.

I. Definition of Communication —

A. The teacher may offer a definition like the consensus definition as discussed in Chapter Four (The act of communication is a process in which a source transmits a message carrying meaning via symbols through interaction with a receiver who decodes the message to achieve understanding.) or the teacher can provide several definitions and encourage the class as individuals or in groups to arrive at their own definition of communication.

B. The concept of process — a process is a dynamic, ongoing, continuous, ever-changing phenomenon. Communication is a process and because it is, one cannot really examine communication per se. One can only examine it as a frozen moment in time. Communication has no real beginning or end. When one examines human communication, one looks at a picture, a suspended moment, that has preceding causes and succeeding results that are often unknown as one looks at communication. This presents somewhat of a limitation in studying communication or any other process.

C. There are some identifiable characteristics of communication —

1) human communication is a social interactive phenomenon — it occurs when persons interact with each other.
2) communication stems from a desire and intent to send a message to another person - it is purposeful; meaning can always be attached to any human behavior, but communication occurs only through purposeful activity.

3) communication involves symbolic interaction - the only time communication occurs is by using symbols.

4) communication involves a measure of achievement or success -- communication does not happen automatically every time a source tries to send a message to a receiver, it must be made to happen. One of the most common misconceptions about communication is that it occurs automatically.

5) communication is multidisciplinary - there are many other ways to study communication than from a speech communication point of view (see Knower in the bibliography).

II. Models of Communication --

A. What is a model? A model is a representation of something else.

B. What types of models are there?

1) symbolic -- a blueprint
2) physical -- a model car or airplane
3) functional -- an artificial lung
4) structural -- a family tree or an organizational chart of a school district

C. Some examples of communication models --

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Source} \\
\text{\rightarrow} \\
\text{\rightarrow} \\
\text{Receiver}
\end{array}
\]

Figure 1. A Simple Communication Model (40)
Figure 2. The Shannon-Weaver Model (79)

Figure 3. The Schramm Model (79)

Figure 4. The Berlo Model (80)
These models are representative of the types of communication models available in the literature that attempt to illustrate human communication. The Shannon-Weaver (Fig. 2), Schramm (Fig. 3) and Berlo (Fig. 4) models illustrate the following common ingredients of communication:

1) source
2) receiver
3) encoding
4) decoding
5) message
6) channel
7) noise
8) feedback

Thomas Scheidel offers a model (Fig. 5) with only three ingredients: agent, interaction, and context. While this is somewhat different from the other models, it does graphically illustrate the process of communication.

D. Use of communication models -- communication models should be used to aid students in identifying the ingredients of communication and their relationships in the process.
III. Levels of Communication --

A. Intrapersonal\textsuperscript{5} -- communication "with oneself;" thinking; introspection

B. Interpersonal -- communication on a one-to-one basis; dyadic communication

C. Small group -- communication with a few; formal meeting of a small group of people or a "bull" session

D. Public -- one-to-many; public speaking to an audience

E. Mass -- communication to an unseen many; use of the media (print, broadcasting, film) to communicate with large numbers of people

IV. Purposes or outcomes of communication -- the reasons why people engage in communication with others. Keltner identified three basic outcomes of communication:

1) utilitarian or functional - to accomplish some practical result

2) aesthetic - to achieve some measure of enjoyment, pleasure, or entertainment

3) therapeutic - to achieve a treatment, a cure, the removal of an inhibition, the diagnosis of a problem, or the reestablishment of the communicative personality. (33:9)

\textsuperscript{5}Although intrapersonal is commonly referred to as a separate level of communication, this writer feels that intrapersonal is not really communication in a true sense. Communication is a social, interactive phenomenon and as such requires the participation of another person. A more appropriate designation for intrapersonal would be information processing or thinking. However, in order to be consistent with the general literature, intrapersonal is included here as a separate level of communication and will be referred to as such throughout this document.
Communication is an integral part of all of our lives. Our modern society runs on communication. It is nearly impossible for a man to exist successfully today without the ability to communicate.

V. The Encoding and Decoding Processes - we must encode our ideas into messages in order to send them and the receiver must decode them back into ideas in order to understand them.

A. Encoding - the process of the source selecting a means of expression, translating ideas into forms of expression, selecting appropriate symbols and/or words for a receiver.

B. Decoding - the process of a receiver giving meaning to a message through his own perception. Receivers must interpret messages (symbols or codes) according to their own background, attitudes, abilities, etc.

C. Variables and causes of breakdowns - most causes for the failure of communication originate in the encoding and decoding processes. The two main variables and causes for communication breakdown are:

1) selective perception - each person views reality based upon his background, experiences, culture, and attitudes. He assigns meanings to reality on the same bases. Often these "personal views" of reality are inaccurate. The result is that people see and hear what they want to see and hear. These perceptions affect the encoding and decoding processes.

2) semantics - meanings are not in words, but in people. A word used by an encoder may not always be decoded in the same way by the receiver. The vast varieties (denotative and connotative) of meanings of words create problems in the encoding and decoding processes.
VI. Ways of viewing the communication process -- there are at least three ways of looking at the basic process of sending and receiving messages and describing the process. Those are:

1) as an act or action -- this refers to the basic process of sending a message from a source to a receiver. Many writers have explained communication in this manner. Graphically, it is represented as:

Figure 6. Communication-As-Action

This is basically how the literature of rhetoric views the process of communication.

2) as an interaction -- this refers to a mutual or reciprocal influence between two or more persons. This view is based upon the theory of stimulus-response. Person A sends a message to person B who in turn responds by sending a return message via feedback. This is represented as:

Figure 7. Communication-As-Interaction

Many of the early communication texts use this approach to explain communication. See Berlo (80) for example.
3) as a transaction - both the action and interaction explanations focus on the meaning or the content of the message. A transactional point of view recognizes a second level of communication that deals with "relationship messages" that tell the receiver who we are and what we think of him. In any communication situation between two people (me and you), there are six people involved in the transaction. Those six people are: me, my view of me, your view of me, you, my view of you and your view of you. I can act upon you. We can interact. But in reality our six people are transacting. There have been attempts to represent graphically this transactional process, (47:95) but none of these models are considered appropriate, by this writer, for presentation in a high school class. (The teacher should note the discussion of transaction analysis which will be explained later and relate it to this view of communication.)

VII. Use of symbolism in communication - communication is totally a symbolic activity. This is one distinction between man and animal. Man can respond to both signs and symbols; animals respond only to signs. A sign announces, a symbol reminds.

A. A symbol is something that stands for something else. They can be both verbal or nonverbal.

B. Verbal symbols - words, all words are symbols because they represent something else. The word "chair" is not the chair itself, but a representation of a real object - a chair. By manipulating these verbal symbols (words) man communicates.

C. Nonverbal symbols - gestures, non-language utterances, etc. A wave of the hand may represent "goodbye". A moan may represent disgust. By using these nonverbal symbols, man communicates.
VIII. Barriers and breakdowns in communication - as mentioned earlier, communication does not automatically occur. Often it fails to occur due to a barrier or a breakdown in the process.

A. A barrier to communication is a factor that inhibits or blocks communication from occurring. These may be inhibitions within the speaker, prejudices in the speaker or receiver or even hostility in the receiver for the source causing a blocking of all messages.

B. A breakdown is a failure of the human communication system. Some common breakdowns are: speakers who talk too loud or too soft; speakers who talk too fast or too slow; or speakers that ramble on and on. A receiver who is inattentive or fails to give accurate feedback can cause a communication breakdown.

C. A third factor that causes failure in communication efforts is called "noise." This is usually an intervening force outside the receiver and source. It can be literal noise like a jet flying overhead that prohibits reception of a message or it may be physical like a cluttered bulletin board behind a teacher that distracts students' attention.

IX. Communication variables - a variable is used here in the sense of an element that when changed causes other changes within the system or process.

A. The source is a variable - no two people are alike. Certain characteristics about people attract or repel other people. These are the variables: friendliness, language, voice, appearance. The most important variable affecting communication, especially in persuasive communication, is source credibility. How much is the speaker trusted, respected as a source of valid information?

B. The message is a variable - the different organization and/or content of a message affects the receiver. Some messages are readily received while others due to many factors are rejected.
C. The receiver is a variable - again no two people are alike so no two people will receive a message the same way. The listeners' state of mind, beliefs, feelings all vary and do affect the reception of any given message.

D. The context is a variable - some messages are appropriate for certain contexts and inappropriate for others. If the context in which a message was sent is changed before it is received, it will affect the communication.

X. Nonverbal communication - as indicated earlier, we do communicate both verbally (through language) and nonverbally. An understanding of the nature of nonverbal is essential for understanding the phenomenon of communication.

A. Definition of nonverbal - all symbolic messages sent by a source that do not use language.

B. Importance of the nonverbal in communication -

1) Keltner (33:106) cites studies showing 65% of all social messages are nonverbal with only 35% verbal.

2) Mehrabian (72) reports that the impact of a message on the listener is: .07 verbal, .38 vocal and .55 facial.

3) Knapp (73) points out that the nonverbal always overrides the verbal when the two conflict.

C. Types or categories of nonverbal messages - messages can be carried nonverbally in six ways:

1) paralanguage - vocal cues that do not involve language; pitch, volume, crying

2) sign language - gestures, language of the deaf

3) action language - physical actions that are usually unintentional - a yawn may suggest a person is tired, sleepy or bored
4) object language - the use of flags, jewelry, cosmetics, clothing, etc. communicates messages

5) tactile - communication by touch - a pat on the back to communicate approval

6) space and time - the distance at which two persons stand or sit when communicating tells something about their relationship; a phone call at 3 a.m. usually communicates alarm

D. Some principles of nonverbal communication -

1) one cannot NOT communicate nonverbally - this means one cannot act in such a way that meaning cannot be assigned to one's behavior by an observer. This is not necessarily communication since the behavior may not be symbolic or purposeful, but any behavior or lack of behavior is meaningful.

2) nonverbal communication is especially effective in communicating feelings. Man usually communicates knowledge or information verbally. The nonverbal behavior is especially indicative of how the sender feels about the message or maybe just how the person feels in general at any given moment. Hostility, warmth, acceptance and indifference are usually communicated nonverbally.

3) since the nonverbal communicates feelings most accurately and since feelings are usually more difficult to distort than words, the nonverbal message overrides the verbal whenever the two are in conflict. The maxim states: actions speak louder than words.

XI. Listening - of the four communication activities or behaviors man demonstrates (speaking, listening, reading and writing), listening is the most pervasive. Man spends 42% of his communicative time listening. Communication depends upon accurate or effective listening.
A. Listening vs. hearing - unless deaf, all of man's waking hours is spent hearing. Hearing is a passive process of receiving sound waves through the auditory senses. Listening is an active process of attending to and attaching meaning to that which is heard.

B. Types of listening - several scholars have categorized listening into types. One representative list is offered by Henning. (74:38-44) He identifies four kinds of listening:

1) protective listening - nature's automatic hearing and screening process; necessary for self-preservation

2) partial listening - only parts of the auditory impulses received are selected for awareness

3) preferential listening - that which is under the receiver's conscious, willed control

4) panoramic listening - full focus listening - similar to protective listening, but occurs only when receiver consciously opens his mind to all auditory stimuli received

Generally listening can be categorized by the degree of attention paid to what is heard.

C. Some common listening problems -

1) viewing a topic as uninteresting
2) criticizing a speaker's delivery instead of his message
3) getting over stimulated or emotionally involved
4) listening only for facts
5) preparing to answer questions or points before fully understanding them or before the speaker has finished speaking
6) faking attention
7) listening only to what is easily understood
8) permitting emotionally laden words or personal prejudices to impair comprehension
D. Some suggestions for improving listening --

1) be mentally and physically prepared to listen
2) think about the topic in advance whenever possible
3) build your vocabulary as much as possible
4) be flexible in your views
5) judge content, not delivery
6) listen for ideas
7) resist distractions
8) keep your mind open

XII. Transactional Analysis - this is a construct from counseling theory that is also a communication theory. It provides a unique and effective way of looking at people as communicators to determine "where they are at" or "where they are coming from." A transactional view of communication says that more than content is being transmitted. Facts about a person and how a person sees you are also part of the message.

A. Transactional theory identifies four "life states" from which any person operates. These life states reflect how the source views himself and how the source views his receiver. These four states are:

1) I'm not OK; You're OK
2) I'm not OK; You're not OK
3) I'm OK; You're not OK
4) I'm OK; You're OK

A close observance of a person and closely listening to what he says will enable almost anyone to identify the life state of any communicator. The particular life state significantly effects the persons communication. Certain life states encourage open kinds of communication and accepting kinds of reception of the messages of others.

B. A second tenet of transactional analysis is identifying the three ego states of a person. Each person is actually three persons or three ego states. Our communication originates always from one of the three ego states. To determine that "second level" of information being transmitted
in any message one needs to identify which ego state is talking. The three states are:

1) the parent - this is a huge collection of all the external events perceived by a person in his early years. In the parent are recorded all the rules and admonitions and laws children get from their parents to govern their living habits. These rules provide a powerful influence throughout one's life.

2) the child - this is the internal events a person feels throughout life. These are the persons feelings, emotions, likes and dislikes. The child also houses the traits of curiosity, joy and creativity.

3) the adult - this is one's computer. It processes information received and makes rational judgements based upon the best alternatives. A strong adult also serves as a mediator between the parent and the child.

Thus at any given moment both the source and receiver of messages is composed of a parent, adult and child.

Figure 8. Transactional Ego States
Complimentary or successful transactions occur when the ego state of the source is talking to the same ego state in the receiver.

![Diagram of complimentary transactions]

Communication breakdowns occur when these transactions get crossed.

![Diagram of crossed transactions]

By determining which state the source or receiver is operating from, one can avoid crossed transactions and seek out complimentary transactions. This will improve one's chances for communication. This also provides a method of analyzing the causes of communication breakdowns. (Further explanation is given in Harris, *I'm OK -- You're OK*; see the bibliography.)
These twelve content areas provide an information base about human communication from which a secondary student can work from when trying to analyze and improve his own communication efforts. It also provides the theoretical base needed to begin to analyze the different levels of communication interaction.

Unit Two: Intrapersonal Communication - Self Communication

The basic aim of this unit is to give the student an opportunity to explore his self-concept, to answer the question, "Who am I," especially in terms of his communication abilities.

I. Definition of intrapersonal communication - this is the communication that occurs within ourselves, when we are both sender and receivers of information and this is the process by which we as individuals process information and attach meaning to our environment.

II. Self-concept - who are we, what can we do? Which of the four life states do we operate from and can we identify which ego state we are operating from at any given moment? What do other's think of us and how do their opinions govern what we think of ourselves and how we act?

A. How the self-concept affects communication

1) in terms of self-fulfilling prophecy - each person behaves in a manner as consistent as possible with his self-concept. A person who sees himself as a failure is likely to be a poor communicator

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6See the discussion of transactional analysis in Unit One.
2) in terms of the messages we select to send or receive - our self-concept controls our encoding, decoding and responding to messages

B. How to improve the self-concept - one can change or improve one's self-concept, but only through deliberate action. First, one must introspect to determine what is one's self-concept. Then one must interact openly using self disclosure to determine how other's perceive how we operate in our environment. If the data gathered by these processes are in conflict, our self-concept is unrealistic and can be changed by processing the "new" data that one allows to enter from external sources.

C. The role we play - how many roles do you assume daily? Student? Friend? Son? Lover? Brother? What roles do you assume and how do they affect your communication? Do you communicate with your mother the same ways as you do with a friend? Do you talk to your teacher in the same manner you discuss things with your brother?

III. Basic elements of the individual communication system

1) receivers - the five senses
2) information processing system - the central nervous system
3) transmitters - the body, eyes, and voice

IV. Effective thinking - the heart of interpersonal communication is the thinking process. The ingredients of effective thinking are:

1) classifying ability - seeing differences and likenesses
2) analyzing ability - breaking down a whole into its parts; a problem into its components
3) inference-making ability - inductive reasoning
4) evaluation ability - ability to make judgements and draw conclusions
5) language ability - ability to use words accurately
6) emotional control - ability to curb emotions and impulsiveness
7) attitude of flexibility - ability to examine new and differing viewpoints with an open mind; avoiding premature closure

V. Background of self - where do we come from and how does our unique background affect our communication? Some background areas to explore are:

1) ethnic - racial
2) regional
3) religious
4) economic
5) social

How do these affect the encoding and decoding process?

VI. Self as a communicator - how well do I communicate?

1) on a one-to-one basis
2) in a small group basis
3) with an audience
4) with my family
5) with my friends
6) with strangers

An exploration and understanding of these aspects of intrapersonal communication, should give the student a base from which to work when improving his communication skills.

Unit Three: Interpersonal Communication

The basic aim of this unit is to identify the skills involved in one-to-one communication and provide an opportunity for students to improve those skills in sending messages and establishing and maintaining relationships.

I. Definition of interpersonal communication - the application of the process of communication (source, receiver, message, etc.) to informal, face-to-face encounters that deal with both messages and relationships.
II. Skills of interpersonal communication -

A. According to Carkhuff (62)

1) accurate empathy
2) nonpossessive warmth
3) genuineness

B. According to David Johnson (71)

1) knowing and trusting each other
2) accurately and unambiguously understanding each other
3) influencing and helping each other
4) constructively resolving problems and conflicts in your relationships

C. According to Bochner and Kelly (5)

1) give and receive nonevaluative descriptive feedback
2) own and help others to own their values, attitudes, ideas, and feelings
3) experiment and help others to experiment with new values, attitudes, ideas, and feelings
4) take risks with new values, attitudes, ideas and attitudes

III. Effectiveness in interpersonal communication

A. According to Johnson: the degree to which the consequences of your behavior match your intentions

B. According to Bochner and Kelly: the capacity for effective interaction with one's environment; the ability of a person to relate with other people

IV. Self disclosure - an important factor in establishing and maintaining relationships is self disclosure.

A. Definition of self disclosure:

1) means revealing how you are reacting to the present situation to the person you are with
2) means giving information about the past that is relevant to understanding how your reacting to the present situation

3) means sharing with someone how you feel about something he has done or said

4) does not mean revealing intimate details of your past life, it is not a personal confession

5) in general, a relationship is built upon events two people experience together and what two people say and do to each other. A person comes to know you and understand you by seeing how you openly react in various situations and the past is important only to the extent that it clarifies present actions.

B. Rules for self disclosure

1) it is not a random or isolated act but rather part of an on-going relationship

2) it is reciprocated

3) it concerns what is going on within and between persons in the present

4) it creates a reasonable chance of improving the relationship

5) account is taken on the effect it will have on the other person

6) it is accelerated in a crisis

7) it gradually moves to a deeper level

V. Developing and maintaining trust - a very important factor in developing and maintaining a relationship is trust.
A. Elements of trust

1) you are in a situation where a choice to trust another person can lead to either benefits or harms -- you realize that trust involves risk

2) you realize that the benefits of harms received by you depend on the future behavior of the other person

3) you expect to suffer more from the harms than you expect to gain from the benefits

4) you feel relatively confident the other person will behave in such a way as to bring you the benefits

B. Building trust - the best way to build trust is to genuinely be a trusting person. You must display this trust to others and finally whenever trust is placed in you, you must respond in a trusting manner. The key to building interpersonal trust is being trustworthy. This means engaging in reciprocal self-disclosure, avoiding rejection, ridicule or disrespect to others in relationships.

VI. Communicating feelings - relationships cannot be developed and/or maintained unless there is an open communication of feelings between the participants.

A. The most important feeling to express is warmth. The expression of warmth results in positive attitudes towards the expresser. The expression of warmth shows friendship, acceptance and trust. It is the most crucial and powerful tool in building and maintaining a relationship.

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7This statement does not imply that one should always trust everyone. Sometimes it is wise to be cautious and somewhat reluctant to trust. This statement does imply, however, that one must have the ability to trust and be willing to trust when appropriate.
B. The suppression of feeling should be avoided.

1) unresolved feelings cause biased judgements and actions in relationships

2) unresolved feeling affect the person's perception of events and information in a relationship

3) overall, unresolved feelings create barriers, conflicts and lead to a deterioration of the relationship

C. Verbal expression of feelings - feeling can be expressed verbally by:

1) naming the feeling - "I feel angry", "I like you"

2) using similes - "I feel stepped on", "I feel like a playful colt"

3) report the kind of actions the feeling urge - "I feel like slapping your face", "I feel like giving you a big hug"

4) using various figures of speech - "I feel like someone up there likes me", "I feel like I have a mountain on my back"

D. Nonverbal expression of feeling - since our non-verbal behavior does signify our feelings, we should be aware of our behavior and work for accurate and genuine showing of feeling through the body, face, posture, tone of voice. Recognize how you really feel and let your body show it.

VII. Responding to another's problems - a very important factor in a relationship is being able to discuss your problems openly. It takes skill to respond in a helping way to a person with a problem. Therapists dedicate themselves to developing these skills.
A. The two most important feelings you must convey to the person who is telling you his problems are:

1) warmth
2) acceptance

Carl Rogers believes that if the helper can create an open, accepting and nonthreatening environment for the revealing of problems, the person can most likely solve his own problem.

B. The key factor in helping is controlling your verbal responses. There are five types of responses:

1) evaluative response
2) interpretative response
3) supportive response
4) probing response
5) understanding response

The manipulation of these responses to meet the needs of the person with the problem increases the effectiveness of the responder.

VIII. Confrontations - constructive confrontation can be invaluable in a relationship in terms of improving one's interpersonal skills and in improving the quality of the relationship. Constructive confrontation can lead to productive change.

A. Definition of confrontation - a deliberate attempt to help another person examine the consequences of some aspect of his behavior

B. The process of confrontation -

1) authentically express or describe the behavior you dislike or feel inappropriate

2) reaffirm the feeling of warmth you feel towards him as a person

3) reward any behavior change by your positive actions toward him
IX. Solving interpersonal problems - one measure of effective interpersonal skill is the extent to which a person can solve his interpersonal problems - problems he has in relating to other people

A. Identifying the problem - a problem is best solved when it meets the following criteria:

1) it is important to you
2) you are personally involved
3) you really want to solve it
4) it is solvable

B. Process of solving problems -

1) identify the problem
2) realize the harms created by the problem thus increasing the genuine desire to solve it
3) list all possible solutions and their consequences
4) select the best solution
5) identify a plan for implementation
6) do it

X. Resolving interpersonal conflicts - this is similar to an interpersonal problem except that two people are directly involved and action needs to be taken by both to bring about a solution. Usually the action of one person prevents, obstructs, or interferes with the action of another. This is usually best resolved by both parties reestablishing a climate of trust between each other and then mutually structuring a solution that actively involves both persons in cooperatively working toward a solution. The two key factors are: mutual trust and mutual cooperation.

XI. Defensive communication - an important interpersonal skill is learning to replace defensive communication with supportive communication.

A. Defensive communication occurs when a person perceives a threat in a communication situation. The person feels he must devote his energy and attention not to the topic being discussed, but in:
1) how he can defend himself  
2) how he can appear favorably to others  
3) how he can win  
4) how he can dominate  
5) how he can take the offensive  

B. Defensive communication is usually self-defeating in that it is contagious and encourages the other person to become defensive.  

C. Supportive communication creates a positive feeling of trust and openness.  

D. Characteristics of defensive communication -  
   1) evaluation  
   2) control  
   3) strategy  
   4) neutrality  
   5) superiority  
   6) certainty  

E. Characteristics of supportive communication -  
   1) description  
   2) problem orientation  
   3) spontaneity  
   4) empathy  
   5) equality  
   6) provisionalism  

(For a detailed discussion of defensive and supportive communication, see Jack Gibb in the bibliography.)  

XII. Dyadic communication - interpersonal communication takes place in face-to-face and one-to-one situations. Some forms of these dyadic situations are:  

A. Intimate interaction - between husband and wife, close friends or family members  

B. Social conversation - talk for the sake of talk, has no value at the moment, usually between strangers or acquaintances
C. Interrogation - characterized by a highly structured, one-way, closed and linear process, police questioning of a suspect

D. The fight - no control or order between the two persons, a lack of an agreement to disagree, the object is usually to harm, destroy, subdue the other person by verbal attacks

E. Debate - a formal process of handling disagreements by presenting opposing views to a third party and asking for adjudication

F. Interview - verbal interaction between two persons who both speak from time to time, but one has a preconceived and serious for the transaction.

XIII. Interviewing - an important interpersonal skill that all high school students should learn is how to conduct themselves in an interview situation.

A. Types of interviews -

1) information-getting - example; public opinion poll
2) information-giving - a press conference called to announce a new program
3) advocating - example; sales interview
4) problem-solving - involves both information and persuasion; is a two person discussion
5) counseling interview - example; therapist-client
6) employment - seeking or applying for a job
7) reprimanding or correcting - student visits principal
8) stress interviewing - usually connected with some behavioral research or a type of employment interview where the purpose is to determine how the interviewee acts under pressure

B. Types of questions -

1) closed - calls for a specific response usually of just a few words
2) open - often vague questions that call for a response of some detail or more than a few words

3) mirror questions - reflect back part of the interviewee's previous answer for the purpose of seeking more unstructured information on the same topic

4) probing questions - very structured questions used to seek more specific information on a particular subject

5) leading questions - questions in which the desired response is strongly implied

C. Types of inappropriate answers to questions in an interview

1) oververbalized answers - giving too much and sometime irrelevant information

2) irrelevant answers - has nothing to do with the question

3) partial response - only part of the requested information is given

4) inaccurate answer - either purposefully or accidentally giving false information

5) no response - when the question is dropped or ignored

D. Appropriate behaviors - most local or state employment offices publish guidelines for applicants. A teacher should obtain copies and discuss them with students.
An understanding of these concepts and practice of the corresponding skills should enable students to improve their interpersonal communication and their ability to establish and maintain satisfactory relationships. Much of this information on interpersonal communication came from David Johnson's *Reaching Out.* (71) For elaboration of self-disclosure, interpersonal trust, communicating feelings, confrontations and resolving interpersonal problems and conflicts, see David Johnson in the bibliography.

**Unit Four: Small Group Communication**

The basic aim of this unit is to give students a working knowledge about the processes of groups and how to effectively participate in a group situation.

I. Definition of small group communication - interaction and communication between members of a small group. A small group has been defined as, "a number of persons who communicate with one another often over a span of time, and who are few enough so that each person is able to communicate with all the others face-to-face." (75:1)

II. Types of groups

A. primary - usually the family

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*Groups are often classified as being public or private. The difference being the presence of an audience. Public groups have an audience and the messages are usually directed to the audience. Private discussions without an audience have messages directly solely to other group members. The type of groups considered here under "small group communication" are private while public group discussions will be considered under "public communication."*
B. casual - coffee groups, social gatherings

C. educational - formal classes, study clubs, purpose of the group: to instruct, to teach or to learn

D. therapeutic - therapy group under the direction of a trained therapist whose function is to guide personal improvement

E. problem-solving - has a defined goal, committee, board

III. Problems of the individual in a group - whenever a person joins a group there are certain problems that face the individual

A. belonging - upon joining a group, most people have a strong desire to "belong", to be a part of the group

B. involvement - the degree to which members commit themselves to the deliberations, decisions and actions of the group

C. desire to control or lead - some have a strong desire to be a leader and have strong influence while others avoid any leadership responsibility

D. role - what function will the new member play in the group

E. identity - the desire to establish some characteristic identity that will enable others to separate us from the rest of the group

F. affection - personal emotional feelings that each member has for the other individuals in the group

IV. Group problems - each group that forms has certain problems that arise and must be dealt with

A. identity - what is the purpose of this group, why does it exist, how is it different from other groups
B. structure - involves leadership system and subgroups, if any

C. standards - standards of behavior and beliefs, sometimes these are expressed in a rules of conduct other times they remain implied

D. management - the need for a proper balance between the socialization process in a group and the task functions. All work or all play is bad for a group.

V. Group decision making processes - every group develops a means of reaching decisions. These means may be explicit, implicit, or sometimes vary depending on the immediate situation. Some ways of reaching decisions are:

A. majority - opposition is evident and recognized, but a decision is made based upon more approval than disapprovals

B. consensus - everyone in the group agrees to the decision

C. authority - a single individual makes the decision for the group

D. free ride - one member makes a suggestion, there is no real opposition so it is accepted, usually comes from a pervasive apathy

E. steamrolling - two or more members decide upon a procedure and cajole or coerce to get acceptance

VI. Leadership - every group must have some type of leadership that seeks accomplishment of the group goal. Generally there are two main types of leadership than can be manifested in a group:

A. recognized - there is a recognized leader who may be appointed, elected or may have naturally assumed the position
B. shared - the leadership functions are shared by all members of the group, either by explicit directions or as a matter of course

VII. Leadership styles - there are three main "styles" of leadership:

A. authoritarian - leader completely dictates the procedure to the group

B. laissez-faire - opposite of autocratic, low degree of control, asserts little direction

C. democratic - allows for free participation by all members of the group, usually employs the majority or consensus techniques to reach decisions

VIII. Leadership functions - there are certain duties or functions a leader or leadership should accomplish

A. prepare for meeting in advance, make all arrangements

B. aim for maximum participation by all members during the meeting

C. encourage progress toward the group goal

D. create a permissive and open atmosphere

E. maintain necessary control

F. take responsibility for resolving conflicts

G. take responsibility for implementing decisions

In general the atmosphere and productivity are the main concerns of a leader. The success of a group is often measured by the quality of the leadership.
IX. Participants' functions - anyone who is a member of a group has certain functions he should strive to fulfill in order to make for a more productive group.

A. listen carefully and thoughtfully to others
B. be sure to know the goal of the discussion
C. speak your mind freely
D. strike while the iron is hot
E. do not try to dominate the discussion
F. do not fight over the ownership of ideas
G. indulge in friendly disagreement
H. try to maintain an open mind
I. keep all comments on the topic at hand
J. be prepared for all meetings and discussions
K. help others to participate
L. try to make the experience pleasant for all
M. avoid interrupting the progress of the meeting or discussion
N. abide by the rules or standards of the group

X. Desirable group attitudes - to assure an effective small group communication situation, all group members, whether leaders or participants, should strive at all times to see that communication occurs. For this to happen, the situation should:

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9These desirable attitudes do not imply that total conciliation should be sought at the expense of progress. Some types and amounts of competition are helpful and also desirable. Destructive competition must be avoided.
be cooperative  
make constructive use of conflict
have participation distributed among many
encourage freedom of expression
follow an orderly problem-solving sequence
give all participants a chance to satisfy their ego needs
provide some opportunity for training in leadership skills
reduce dependency on a single leader
reflect a willingness of all to accept responsibility for accomplishing group tasks
enable group to make decisions affecting its progress
provide maximum opportunity for the development of feelings of security
informal
reflect an active emotional and intellectual involvement

NOT

competitive
let conflict divide the group
limited to a few
inhibit expression of ideas
reflect disorderly, illogical thinking
give only a few the chance to satisfy their needs
disregard the need for training the members in leadership
increase dependency on a single leader
develop a disregard for individuals responsibility to group
leave all decisions to a few
increase feelings of threat and defense
formal
reflect disinterest and a noncommittal attitude
XI. Problem-solving sequence — for a group to make effective decisions, be productive and solve problems, there must be some agreed systematic way of dealing with problems. Many writers have listed various steps in solving problems, all of which are acceptable, one sequence is:

A. analyze the problem
B. determine causes of the problem
C. establish standards for judgement
D. consider possible actions
E. settle on a best solution

The study of these topic areas, combined with effective practice exercises should give secondary speech students the necessary knowledge and skills to operate effectively in a small group communication situation.

Unit Five: Public Communication

The basic aim of this unit is to provide students with the knowledge and skills to effectively communicate in a public speaking situation, before an audience, be it a formal situation or speaking in front of one the other classes.

I. Definition of public communication — public communication is speaking before an audience (public speaking), it is characterized as being primarily a monological communication situation in which the receivers (the audience) do not participate verbally. The receivers are present and do constantly send nonverbal feedback to the speaker and sometimes verbal feedback. There is no verbal interaction among the receivers.
II. Preparing a speech - there are certain considerations that need attention when preparing a message for public consumption.

A. choosing a general subject area  
B. reducing to an appropriate topic  
C. analyzing the audience  
D. researching the topic  
E. organizing the speech  
F. wording the speech  
G. practicing the speech

III. Delivering the speech -  

A. eye contact  
B. posture  
C. gestures and bodily movement  
D. using notes properly  
E. interpreting audience feedback  
F. understanding the effects of delivery  
   1) effects on credibility  
   2) effects on information gain  
   3) effects on audience's emotional response

IV. Persuasion - the act of influencing the beliefs or attitudes of an audience to conform to the intention of the speaker. Any study of public communication must include some discussion of persuasion since most public communication is persuasive in some way. There are many technical aspects of persuasion worthy of study. The actual organization of topic areas relating to persuasion should be left to the total prerogative of the teacher. However, the one mandatory
topic under persuasion is the nature of proof. This would include a discussion of the three types of proof: ethos (source credibility), logos (logical proof), and pathos (emotional proof).

V. Public discussion - the study of public discussions either for gathering information or solving problems. Some examples that might be studied are:

A. panels
B. symposiums
C. film-forums

VI. Public debate - reasoned advocacy before an audience-judge. The purpose of studying debate is to learn how to present a set of congruent arguments formulated into a "case", reply to arguments against your "case" and plea for the adoption of your arguments by the audience.

A. construction and argument
B. refuting an argument
C. building a case or plan of action
D. types of debate situations
   1) formal
   2) informal
   3) parliamentary

In general, most speech teachers possess the expertise to formulate and teach a unit in public communication since this is what presently constitutes 80% of the traditional speech course. The emphasis on public communication when using a communications approach is on the study of the communication variables (speaker, message, audience) not on
rules of action.

Unit Six: Mass Communication

The purpose of a mass communications unit is to provide students with an understanding of mass communication as another level of communication. The main focus of the mass communication unit is to investigate the types of mass communication systems and the variables involved when communicating through these systems. The unit is not intended to be an introduction to broadcasting.

I. Definition of mass communication - the mass distribution of identical copies of the same message to receivers unseen and often unknown to the sender and unknown to each other in the sense of interaction.

II. Types of mass communication - methods for the mass distribution of messages

A. Print - the print media includes magazines, newspapers and books. The study of the print medium as a means of communication is journalism.

B. Radio - the audio transmission of messages through the airwaves using mechanical equipment. The study of radio is called broadcasting.

C. Television - the audio and video transmission of messages through the airwaves using mechanical equipment. The study of television also comes under broadcasting.

D. Film - the audio and video distribution of messages through copies of film to be played on a projector.

III. Important variables in mass communication

A. Audience - since the audience is unknown and
unseen, target audiences are projected and analyzed for the distribution of messages. A source can speculate who his audience is, but since the mode of distributing the message is widespread, there is no certainty.

B. Channel - the same channels (visual and audio) are used as in the other types of communication. Only television and film use both. But their use is limited by mechanical complications. This poses a new set of problems for the communicator that are unique to this level of communication.

C. Feedback - since the audience is unseen, immediate feedback is unavailable. The source must identify new ways of obtaining feedback and new modes of monitoring his messages in the absence of feedback.

D. Persuasion - the media have been proved to be a very powerful persuasive device. Much of what is presented to receivers of mass media messages is received as fact. The nature of media makes receivers passive and thereby more susceptible to persuasion.

E. Gatekeeper - the gatekeeper is the one who selects the messages that are to be sent. In the print media, the reporter is a gatekeeper, the copywriter is a gatekeeper and so is the editor. In broadcasting, the reporter or writer is a gatekeeper, the performer is often a gatekeeper and the program director is a gatekeeper. In film, the writer, producer, director and film editor, as well as, the censor are gatekeepers. Parallels can be drawn to "gatekeepers" in other areas.

IV. Government regulations - the mass communication level is unique in that it is widely controlled and regulated. Other than the implications and restrictions involved in freedom of speech, no other level of communication is regulated like the mass media.
A. Freedom of the press
B. Federal Communications Commission (FCC)
C. Motion Picture Association of America (MPAA ratings)

These are some of the topic areas that can be studied to give students an understanding of mass communication as a level of communication and its unique variables.

**Appropriate Learning Activities for a Communications Course**

In order to achieve the learning objectives identified for the secondary communications course, it is suggested that the content-subject matter be matched with appropriate learning activities. A learning activity is defined here as any situation in which students actively participate in a teacher initiated activity with a defined instructional purpose.

**Guidelines for Selecting Learning Activities**

Some of the guidelines a teacher may follow when selecting or creating learning activities to be used with concepts in a communications course are:

I. The activity should be matched to a concept or skill stated in an instructional objective.

II. The activity should have an instructional purpose.

For example:

1) to help students understand a concept or skill

2) to give students an opportunity to practice a communication skill or skills
3) to allow students to demonstrate competency in a skill or skills

III. The activity should be followed by a de-briefing period in which the teacher leads a class discussion designed to:

1) analyze the activity just completed (what was the purpose of this exercise?)

2) evaluate the activity (was it successful? unsuccessful?)

3) verbalize learnings from the activity (what did you learn from participating in this exercise?)

4) verbalize feelings (how did you feel when participating in this exercise?)

Care in Using Communication Activities

Many of the activities listed in this chapter and other sources of communication activities are of a very sensitive nature. They are sensitive in that they often deal with private thoughts and feelings of students. Some of the activities border on "sensitivity training" and can easily be misunderstood by students and parents, as well as, be misused by teachers. Special care should be taken when using these sensitive exercises. Some guidelines for using these activities are:

I. The teacher should understand the activity fully.
II. The teacher should have an instructional purpose for using any communication activity.

III. The instructional purpose should be consistent with previously stated and approved objectives.

IV. The teacher should feel comfortable and qualified with any communication activity selected for use.

V. Whenever an activity gets out of control, it should be terminated.

VI. Whenever an activity creates unnecessary and unhealthy feelings of tension among students, it should be avoided or terminated.

VII. The teacher should know the general psychological health of his students and consider any possible ill effects of sensitive activities.

VIII. Whenever the teacher is in doubt about an activity, he should not use it!

These activities should be used solely for the purpose of facilitating the acquisition of knowledge about communication and communication skills. They are not suggested for use as personality training or for enabling a speech teacher to play "psychologist."

Sources of Activities

The activities which follow come from a variety of sources. Some are from published materials. Some are original to this dissertation. Some of these activities are variations of activities this writer has seen, used in his own classes, participated in, or heard about in casual
conversations. Finally, some of these activities come from Pfeiffer and Jones' manual for human relations training. (76) Those from copyrighted works will be identified. Those which are original or from unidentifiable sources will not be documented. Those or the variations from Pfeiffer and Jones will not be identified since they are considered to be in the public domain. Pfeiffer and Jones have stated:

These volumes are copyrighted, but there are no implied restrictions concerning the reproduction of these contents. Users should feel free to duplicate and/or modify the forms, charts and descriptions. (76:v)

Unit One: Communication Theory

I. Models of communication: the following activities are appropriate to use when teaching about communication models.

1. Have students create communication models that incorporate the elements of communication and indicate the process (dynamic) aspects of communication. (40:4)

2. After having students create their own models of communication, have them explain their models to 1) a small group or 2) the whole class. (40:4)

3. After having students create their own models of communication, divide them into small groups for the purpose of combining their models into one; then have each group explain its combined model to the class.
4. Have students observe and keep notes for a day, or a week on several different communication situations. In class have the students apply their communication model or a general model to each situation identifying the elements and processes.

II. Purposes of communication: the following activities are appropriate to use when teaching the various purposes or outcomes of human communication:

1. Have students analyze examples of communication (speeches, films, art, plays, etc.) to determine the purposes of communication for each example. (40:5)

2. Have students create a list of examples for each of the different purposes of communication.

3. Have students select a personal relationship, or one they observe, and describe the levels of communication involved in terms of communication purposes. (40:5)

III. Importance of communication: the following activities are appropriate to use when emphasizing the importance of communication.

1. Have students chart their own communication activities for one day from the time they awake to the time they go to bed. They can do this by preparing a chart of the four communication activities the day before. The chart should divide the day into fifteen minute segments. If during that fifteen minutes they engaged in that communication activity for a significant period of time, they can make a check on their chart. The chart can look like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>SPEAKING</th>
<th>LISTENING</th>
<th>READING</th>
<th>WRITING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8:00 am</td>
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<tr>
<td>8:15</td>
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<td>8:30</td>
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<td>8:45</td>
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<tr>
<td>9:00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
By adding the check mark in columns, the student can determine the amount of time spent that day in that communication activity. For example, if there are 14 checks under reading, that equals 3½ hours spent reading. Five checks under writing would equal 1½ hours spent writing. By getting a grand total and dividing the sub-total of each communication activity into the grand total, percentages can be determined.

Students can compare their results with other students. The teacher can chart the results on the blackboard and add them to determine class totals and class percentages. The teacher can compare the class percentages with national averages which are:

- Listening 42%
- Speaking 32%
- Reading 15%
- Writing 11%

2. Have students interview three persons concerning the amount of time each spends communicating in his profession.

3. Have students interview someone in their chosen profession and ask how important is oral communication to that profession. Have students report the results to the class.

IV. Feedback: the following exercises are appropriate to help students understand the concept of feedback and to practice giving and receiving feedback in a controlled environment:

1. Bring several simple objects to school (can opener, hammer, safety pin, etc.). Send three students to the board with instructions to look only at the board and not to look at each other's drawings. Select a student to face the class (looking in the opposite direction from the board) and describe the object you give him to those at the board by not telling what it is or its uses. Allow no feedback between describer and persons drawing at the board. When the describer has finished, have everyone
look at the drawings, comparing the drawings to each other and to the real object. There will probably be few similarities. To demonstrate the benefits of feedback, do the exercise again. This time allow feedback — the describer can sit facing the board and the drawers can ask questions. The results should be more accurate. The teacher can then lead a discussion on what happened, what the differences were, and what feedback is.

2. You can demonstrate different forms of feedback by asking one student to make a statement to a second student. The second student is handed a card by the teacher indicating the type of feedback he to give, i.e., verbal positive, verbal negative, nonverbal positive, or nonverbal negative. (3:204)

3. Have students in dyads discuss a subject that is controversial to them observing one rule: every statement made must be paraphrased by the receiver until the sender is satisfied with the understanding the receiver has of his statement. Follow this with an open discussion either as a class or small groups about the nature of feedback. (3:204)

4. Have students singularly or in groups list as many possible means of feedback (verbal and nonverbal) in the different levels of communication: interpersonal, small group, public, and mass. (40:3)

5. Have students form dyads and discuss a given topic for ten minutes. At the end of ten minutes, have them discuss the kinds of feedback they thought they were sending and what they did receive from the other person.

6. Have students make a list of the feedback they get and give to teachers for one week. Have a class discussion on ways to improve feedback in normal classroom situations.

V. The following activities are appropriate for aiding a teacher to explain the variable context in communication:
1. Read a sentence containing an unfamiliar word or one in which a familiar word is used in an unfamiliar manner. Then ask the students to discuss the clues provided by the context and the meaning that they indicate. (3:195)

2. Have students write a "spin-the-dial" script (lines from one television or radio program immediately juxtaposed with a line or lines from another television or radio program) and perform it before the class. Talk about the humorous results of using lines "out of context."

3. Read aloud sentences in which certain words are omitted. Ask students to listen to the sentences and then fill in suitable words. (3:195)

4. Have students select a page of dialogue from a play then role-play the dialogue in different contexts (at a baseball game, kneeling at an altar during a marriage ceremony, in a bar). Follow with a discussion of how when contexts vary, messages are changed.

VI. Nonverbal: the following activities are appropriate for use in conjunction with the concept of nonverbal communication:

1. Have students put on a style show in class wearing many different items of clothing. Discuss what each "wardrobe" tells about its wearer. Discuss what messages, attitudes can be communicated by clothing.

2. Divide the class into two teams, each team, in turn sends a member to the board to write a nonverbal message (car honking, traffic light, etc.), when a member "draws a blank", he sits down. The team that has the last man standing is declared the winner. (3:204)

3. Put class into dyads. Have them sit face-to-face with one acting as a sender and the other as receiver. The purpose is to have the sender communicate some intended message nonverbally. After a few minutes change roles. Follow with a discussion.
4. Have students view several pictures cut from magazines and describe in writing what messages they get from each picture. Have them read their descriptions orally to the class or in groups.

5. Have students observe nonverbal messages for a couple of days and report the different types they saw and how they interpreted them. Some examples: peace sign, wave, slap on back, etc. (40:19)

6. Have students imagine they received a wrong number telephone call last night, but ended up talking to the complete stranger for fifteen minutes. Have them list what they could tell about their caller by his/her voice. Some examples: sex, age, race, mood, nationality, etc. (40:20)

7. Have the students go to another class and demonstrate different feelings through physical movement. Give the class a checklist so they can try to match the demonstration with a list of feelings. (40:21)

8. Divide the class into groups of four or five. (Sitting on the floor is best and somewhat separated from the other groups is desired.) Place a deck of standard playing cards in the middle of each group. The cards represent the following emotions:

   2 = contentment
   3 = shyness
   4 = indifference
   5 = fear
   6 = frustration
   7 = loneliness
   8 = sorrow
   9 = anger
   10 = hope
   Jack = happiness
   Queen = joy
   King = warmth
   Ace = love (71:11)

Each person draws eight to ten cards, depending on the number of players (there must be at least ten cards left face down). The object of the game is to get rid of all of your cards. You get rid of cards by accurately identifying emotions expressed by other players and by communicating emotions yourself. To begin, the dealer picks one card from his hand and lays it face down in front of him. He becomes an expresser. The card represents an emotion. He expresses the emotion (see above) to the other players. When they identify the emotion, or think they have, they see if they have
the same card. If so, they place them face down in front of them. If they do not have the card, they pass. When all players cards are down, the cards are turned up simultaneously. If one or more players cards match the expresser's card, the expresser puts his card and all of the matching cards on the bottom of the draw-deck in the center. Any player who puts down a wrong card, must return it to his hand and draw a penalty card from the draw-deck. You draw the same number of cards from the draw deck that you put in front of you. If no cards match the expresser's; he failed to communicate. He must return his card to his hand and draw a penalty card, however the players do not have to draw penalty cards. The next player to the left becomes the expresser. Play continues until someone rides himself of all his cards. When you hold two or more cards of the same emotion, you must play all of them if you play one. The expresser may use any nonverbal behavior he wishes, but no words can be used. You may even involve other players, if you can do so without revealing the emotion to them verbally.

VII. Symbolism: the following activities are appropriate to use when teaching the concept of symbolism:

1. Ask students to keep track of the signs and symbols they see in an average day. Report them to the class. (3:199)

2. Have students create symbols representing products for advertisements. (40:89)

3. Have students discuss how signs, symbols and signals are important in their lives and what effect they have. (40:89)

4. Have students discuss how sources (individuals and organizations) use symbols to communicate messages about themselves. (40:89)

VIII. Barriers and breakdowns in communication: the following exercises are useful in teaching students to recognize communication barriers and breakdowns:
1. Have students identify some breakdown that happened in one of their own communication efforts. Then have them prepare a four-part paper that 1) gives a description and detail of the context in which the situation occurred, 2) describes the breakdown, 3) pinpoints where and why it occurred, and 4) gives suggestions on how it could have been avoided. (3:214)

2. In a situation they select from their daily activities, have students identify the three messages involved: the one intended, the one sent, and the one received. Have students compare the differences.

3. Have students list a number of external causes of breakdowns (interference) in communication situations. (i.e.: airplane, too hot or cold, crowded room, etc.) (40:3)

4. Have students list as many internal barriers of communication as they can identify. (language differences, prejudices, education differences). (40:4)

5. Create examples of breakdowns or barriers to communication. Have students role-play the situations. Discuss solutions to the problem and choose the best solution. Replay the scene using the solution.

IX. Listening: the following activities are appropriate for teaching or improving listening:

1. There are several excellent listening tests that can be administered to the class for practice or to be used as a pre- or post test. (See Ralph Nichols or Larry Barker in bibliography).

2. Send five people from the room. Tell the remaining students a story. Invite the five back one at a time. Have one member of the remaining group tell the first person to return the story. Each returnee will then in turn tell the story to the next person to return. The last version will differ significantly from the original story. (3:209)
3. Read a short story to the class, and ask the students to tell what happened in a one-sentence summary. (3:211)

4. Have students listen as you read the names of a number of objects. For example, muffin, cake, spoon, cookie. Then have them select those that are alike in function or category or perhaps the one that is different. (3:212)

5. Select a passage from a piece of literature and read it to the students rapidly. Encourage them to listen closely. After finishing reading, ask five objective questions over the passage. Compare the scores. Compute a class score so each student can compare his score to the class score.

X. Transactional Analysis: the following activities are appropriate for use in conjunction with the theory of transactional analysis:

1. Have students analyze a story they are reading for an English class or for pleasure and report which of the four main life positions the main characters are operating from. Have them explain their positions in groups or in front of the class using quoted examples from the story to prove their point.

2. Have selected members of the class read a portion of a play aloud in class while the rest of the classes notes: 1) the life position of each character as revealed by his dialogue and actions, and 2) specific statements from the parent, adult and child.

3. Have students analyze their own behavior and determine which life position they are operating from and specific examples from their own conversations that represent: parent statements, adult statements, and child statements.

4. From Vital Speeches, anthologies of famous speeches or political broadcasts on television, have students examine a speech and identify the three types of ego statements used by the speaker.
5. Role-play any situation in class, audio or videotape it. Have the participants analyze their parent, adult, and child statements. Do statements from one of the ego states evoke any particular kind of statement from the receiver?

These are only representative activities appropriate for understanding the basic principles of communication theory. More are available in the specific sources cited in the bibliography.

**Unit Two: Intrapersonal Communication**

The basic aim of intrapersonal communication is the development of self-awareness and an adequate self-concept so the individual can communicate effectively. The activities that follow serve as devices the teacher can use in aiding students to do some serious self-analysis and in gathering data about himself.

I. Self-Concept

1. Have students compose a list of at least twenty-five adjectives that they think would best describe themselves. Only seven of the adjectives can describe physical attributes.

2. Have students discuss factors that influence the development of a self-image and give examples of how certain factors have affected them personally. This can be done in groups. (40:35)

3. Have students answer a self-assessment completion exercise. (Examples: I get angry when ....; I like people to think I am ....; when people depend on me, I ....). (40:35)
4. Have each student write and tell a story to the class or in groups in which one of the characters is himself. After each story, have the listeners discuss their views of each character and eventually say which character they think is the author and why. (3:201)

5. Ask each student to do the following: construct a personal profile. Identify your likes, dislikes, prejudices, talents, heroes, events that influenced your life. Analyze yourself in terms of personality, socially, intellectually, emotionally, morally, religiously, economically, and politically. (3:201)

6. Have each student identify an animal or famous person that he perceives as resembling himself. Let the class identify what they think the speaker and animal/person have in common. The student can identify the traits he had in mind. (3:202)

7. The teacher should bring the largest mirror possible to class on a given day (floor length, if possible), let each student go to the back of the room and stand in front of the mirror for a short time. They are instructed to view themselves and to think about what they see. They are to think about what others see in them. They are to consider their image from these standpoints: 1) how they see themselves; 2) how others see them; 3) how they would like to see themselves. When they return to their seats, they should write answers to the following questions:

   1) When I looked in the mirror, what did I see?
   2) How would I change myself, if I could?
   3) Do I feel handsome? Pretty?
   4) Do I feel graceful? Awkward?
   5) Do I generally like what I see?
   6) How do I feel others see me?

8. Have students write a paper or a speech on the uniqueness about themselves. Have them note how they are different from their classmates. Have them note the ways they are glad to be unique - different.
9. Have students write as complete an analysis as possible on themselves answering these questions:

1) What are my communication strengths?
2) What are my communication weaknesses?
3) How effective am I in communicating one-to-one?
4) How effective am I in communicating in a group situation?
5) How effective am I in communicating before an audience?
6) How effective am I or do I think I would be in communicating on radio or television?
7) What communication skills that I don't have now, would I like to have?

This should be done near the beginning of the year, course or unit. It can be used again at the end to see if any changes in self-perceptions have occurred as a result of the course.

10. Have students fill out a Johari Window on themselves using the other classmates as "the others." (See appendix for a copy of the Johari Window). Again this should be done near the beginning of the course so it can be done again at the end for the purpose of comparison.

II. Background of Self

1. Have each student examine his family background to determine ethnic, regional, racial, religious, or economic influences that affected his upbringing and hence the way he encodes and decodes messages. This may include areas such as:

- food
- songs
- furniture
- entertainment (customs)
- vocabulary
- prejudices
- parental attitudes

III. Information processing abilities

1. Read a paragraph aloud in which one-sentence does not belong. Ask students to identify the sentence that does not fit the topic. (3:196)
2. Read sentences which contain one word which is poorly chosen, perhaps an inappropriate adjective, noun, or verb. Ask students to spot the word which does not belong. (3:196)

3. Have students write a dialogue between two roles of themselves: parent-child; parent-adult; adult-child. (some examples: try something new vs. be conservative; be organized and work hard vs. be carefree and fun-loving). (40:36)

IV. How others really do perceive me

1. Have students write a short description on how they have changed as a person over the past three years. Then have them ask a parent, sibling, or close friend to tell them how they think they have or have not changed over the same time period. In a short paper, analyze the results. (40:39)

2. Have each student try to isolate specific ways he looks for feedback from other people about himself. Over a period of a few days or a week, jot down the information he receives in this manner. (40:38)

3. Near the beginning of the course, have each person note the first impressions each has of each of the other members of the class. After a period of time has passed so that the students have gotten to know each other, let them choose partners with someone they feel open and comfortable with. At this time let each share his first impressions of his partner and discuss how they have changed or remained the same.

4. Have students create a greeting card for someone in the class whose name they choose or their partner in a dyad. Have them share their cards and their reasons for the messages involved. (40:38)

5. Arrange an interview with a close friend who will be willing to be honest with you. Before the meeting prepare a list of questions for him to answer about you, your appearance, your personality, your attitudes, etc. On a separate sheet of paper, answer the questions yourself, in advance. After your friend has answered the questions, compare his
answers with yours and discuss the differences. (33:61)

Unit Three: Interpersonal Communication

The aim of these exercises is to give students an opportunity to develop an awareness and to practice the important skills of relating to others on a one-to-one basis and in establishing and maintaining relationships.

I. Initiating relationships - the purpose of this activity is to initiate a new relationship, share initial feelings and thoughts, take risks in revealing yourself and give an receive honest feedback.

1. Everyone stand up and mill around the room, making sure that you pass by everyone present. Greet each person nonverbally. This may be a handshake, a smile, a wink, a sock on the arm, etc. After five minutes of milling, find a person you do not know. If you know everyone present, find the person you know the least well.

2. Sit down with the person; each of you take 2½ minutes to introduce yourself to the other. Do this by discussing the question, "Who am I as a person?"

3. Turn around and find someone else near you whom you do not know or know least well of the others present. With your new partner, each of you take 2½ minutes to discuss the most significant experience you have had recently.

4. Find someone else you do not know or do not know well and each of you take 2½ minutes to discuss what you want to accomplish from this class.
5. Find a new partner for a final time. Each of you take 2½ minutes to share a fantasy or daydream that you often have. It may involve success (being a millionaire), love (having every girl or guy fall in love with you), or what you would like to do next vacation.

6. Now form a group no larger than ten. Try to be in a group with as many of the partners you have talked with in the previous activities. In the group discuss:
   a) how do you feel about the different members on the basis of the previous activities, first impressions
   b) which activity do you feel was most helpful in getting to know your partner
   c) what do you feel you have learned from this exercise
   d) which individuals of those you talked with would need to open up more if you are to get to know them better during the course
   e) anything else that seems relevant to initiating relationships. This may continue to the end of the period. (71:19)

II. Self Disclosure

I. The purpose of this exercise is to examine the link between self disclosure and liking someone.

1. Pair nonverbally with someone who is almost a total stranger. No words are to be spoken. After two minutes of silence together, privately rate your liking for this stranger on the response form. (The form follows this exercise).

2. During the next five minutes each person introduces himself to the other. You may say anything about yourself you think will help the person get to know you better. At the end of five minutes total sharing of information, make the second rating privately.
3. Now for five minutes communicate nonverbally with each other. Touch each other, clasp hands, walk-arm-in-arm, or whatever, all without words. Then privately make the third rating of each other.

4. For five minutes tell each other your favorable impressions of each other. You may begin by saying, "the things I like about you most are ...." Following, privately make the fourth rating.

5. Now for five minutes share your unfavorable impressions. You may begin by saying, "the things I dislike about you are ...." Finally, privately make the last rating.

6. As a group pass in your rating sheets to the instructor who by adding all the scores and dividing by the number of individuals in the class.

7. Discuss the results.

    a) how did your liking for the other person change from rating to rating to rating?

    b) was this similar or different from the group average?

    c) usually the more two individuals self-disclose to each other the more they like each other. Was this true for you? (71:25-26)

Reaction Ballot: My Liking For My Partner

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating scale:</th>
<th>10 = like better than anyone I know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9 = like much</td>
<td>8 = like some</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 = like a little</td>
<td>6 = average or slightly better liking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 = average or slightly below liking</td>
<td>4 = dislike a little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 = dislike some</td>
<td>2 = dislike much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 = strongly dislike; would prefer not to see again</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II. The purpose of this exercise is to help students to examine self-disclosure and interpersonal openness in a systematic way.

A. In a group of five or six, spend 20 minutes discussing:

1) What are the risks in being self-disclosing with another person? When is it better not to open up with your reactions to another person?

2) What are the benefits from self-disclosing? When is it necessary or when is it merely helpful?

3) Does self-disclosure refer only to verbal behavior? Can one self-disclose without words?

4) What kinds of behavior can lead you to feel that you are self-disclosing when others do not see you as self-disclosing at all?

5) Is there any difference between "telling somebody off" and being self-disclosing with him? Is there any difference between passing judgement on another person and being self-disclosing with him?
B. The next discussion should focus on the kinds of behaviors that indicate to others that you are ready for them to share with you their reactions or impressions of you.

1) What do the members of this group do that leads you to feel that they want or do not want you to be self-disclosing with them?

2) Describe specific actions of any member that 1) makes it easier to self-disclose or 2) makes it difficult to self-disclose.

3) Take no more than 20 minutes to share these impressions with your fellow group members. Then see if the groups can draw some general conclusions on helping and hindering self-disclosing behaviors.

C. This final session should focus on constructive self-disclosing in an effort to enhance our relationship rather than threaten it.

1) Each person should name the group members whose self-disclosure he finds most comfortable. That is, name the group members with whom you would be most comfortable about having share their honest reactions to something you have said or done in the group.

2) What do these group members do that leads you to be receptive to their self-disclosure about their reactions to your behavior? What do other group members do that results in your being less receptive to their being self-disclosing to you?

3) Take no more than 20 minutes to share these impressions with your group members. Then try to draw some conclusions about what helps and what hinders receptiveness in others (71:35-36)

(Note: the teacher can adjust the time limits given to meet the given class periods.)
III. Trust - interpersonal trust is an important part of establishing and maintaining satisfactory relationships.
The following exercises are designed to aid students in identifying trust in themselves, others and in developing a feeling of trust.

A. Trust Circle - the group (8 to 10) stands facing into a circle. Make the circle very close and tight. A volunteer, or person who wishes to develop more trust in the group, stands in the center of the circle then is handed around inside the circle by the shoulders and upper torso. He should stand with his feet in the center of the circle, close his eyes, and let the group pass him around or across the circle. His feet should not move from the center of the circle. (Note: anyone who does not trust themselves should not be part of the circle and anyone with back problems should not go to the center of the circle). After as many people have tried this as want to try it, discuss the following questions:

1) How did it feel being on the inside of the circle? What were you thinking about; what was the experience like for you? Did you let go and put trust in the group?

2) How did it feel to be a part of the circle, passing others around? What were you thinking about? Did you feel differently with different people in the center? Did you mind having the person in the center put his trust in you and the group?

3) Some groups are very careful in passing a person and some are more aggressive. What did your group do? Did it differ with the person in the center? What does this say about the group and its members?
B. Trust Walk - each member of the class pairs up with another person. One person is designated as the guide, the other as a blind person. The blind person should close his eyes or be blindfolded, if possible, and the guide will lead him around the room. The guide should grasp the wrists of the blind person and either from the side or from behind guide the blind person around the room, planning as "rich" an experience as possible for the blind person using all the other senses except sight. Touching experiences such as feeling the wall, the covering of a chair, the hair or face of another person are all interesting. If you can go outdoors, standing in the sun or the breeze is enjoyable. After 15 minutes, reverse the roles and repeat. After both have been the blind person, discuss the following questions.

1) How did it feel being the blind person?
2) What were some of the best experiences your guide gave you?
3) What did you learn about the guide?
4) What did you learn about the blind person?
5) How did it feel being the guide?
6) Trust, in this situation, is characterized by the blind person relaxing and letting himself be led easily. Did this happen?

C. Trust Fall - partners stand, one with his back turned to the other's front. With his arms extended sideways, he falls backwards and is caught by his partner. Reverse roles and repeat. You may like to try this exercise with several different partners. (Note, someone who is not physically strong enough to catch his partner, should not participate.) After the experience, discuss the following:
1) How did it feel to fall? Did you doubt that your partner would catch you?

2) How did it feel to catch your partner? Did you trust yourself to catch him?

3) How does this exercise affect interpersonal trust?

(Teachers note: any student who does not want to participate should NOT be made to. These three exercises must be entirely voluntary.)

D. Trust discussion - the objectives for this exercise are for the members of the class to arrive at a summary statement concerning the ways in which trust can be built in a relationship. (This is best accomplished after the students have participated in one or more of the preceding trust activities or similar activities.) The procedure to follow is:

1) Divide the class into groups of 4 or 5.

2) Arrive at the 10 most important things a person can do to develop trust in a relationship. Take about 20 minutes for this.

3) Share the results with the whole class.

4) As a class, rank the 10 most important aspects of developing trust from the most important to the least.

5) Discuss the procedures involved for each person to attempt to model their behavior after the list. (71:58)

IV. Perception and understanding of other's feelings - this is a crucial factor in any relationship. If they cannot accurately understand the other, there cannot be true empathy. The following exercises are designed to aid
students in understanding and developing skills in perceiving and understanding the feelings of others.

A. Perception Check - the best way to check your perception of the feelings of others is by examining a "real" situation. The best procedure is for the teacher to set up a tape recorder and two desks in a semi-private corner of the room. Students should be instructed on how to operate the recorder and not to erase any other parts of the tape. During a convenient time, students go back to the tape recorder in pairs. With the tape on, each takes turns talking about something they feel strongly about while the other person responds in an understanding way. Each person should have about 5 minutes or a total of 10 for each pair. After the whole class has recorded, each pair should then listen to their recordings checking the depth of perception demonstrated by the responder. Notes should be made while listening. The guidelines for checking the perception are:

1) Did you convey the message in your responses, "I want to understand your feeling?"

2) Did any of your responses sound like these:
   a. "Am I right that you feel disappointed that ...."
   b. "Did you feel angry about ...."  
   c. "I get the impression you are annoyed at ...."
   d. "I'm not sure whether your expression means you are hurt, irritated or confused?"

3) In general, perception-checking responses aim:
   a. to communicate that you want to understand the other person as a person -- and that means understanding his feelings; and
b. to help you to avoid actions that you later regret because they are based upon false assumptions of what the other person was feeling. (71:100)

B. Practicing understanding and empathy - have students demonstrate physical empathy for a person who is expressing a strong feeling (annoyance, pleasure). Have the students form pairs, each consisting of a student X and a student Y. Have the X's leave the room while the Y's are instructed to physically emphasize, or not emphasize, with their partner. Upon the X's return, have either one pair or all pairs simultaneously, work together, with the Y's varying their physical reactions. Discuss the results. Some questions are:

1) At what point did X feel Y was being most understanding?

2) At what point did Y find you were most able to identify with how X was feeling?

3) What were the effects of physical posture on understanding and empathy? (40:53)

C. Have students report on conversations in which they consciously tried to avoid using "I", "ME", "MINE", or "MY". (40:53)

D. Have students keep a record of three conversations during a week when they are conscious of trying to verbally mirror their understanding of the source's message back to the source. This can be done by using such phrases as: "What I hear you saying is ....", "Is this what you are saying ....?", "Let me tell you what I'm understanding ...." (40:53)

V. Expressing Warmth and Acceptance - besides just expressing understanding, a friend must express warmth and acceptance. These activities practice these skills.
A. The objective of this exercise is to increase your skills in the use of nonverbal cues to express warmth. In order to increase your awareness of these nonverbal cues, you will role-play the expression of coldness and warmth. Some of the nonverbal cues you may use are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CUE</th>
<th>WARMTH</th>
<th>COLDNESS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tone of voice</td>
<td>soft</td>
<td>hard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>facial expression</td>
<td>smiling, interested</td>
<td>poker-faced, frowning or disinterested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>posture</td>
<td>lean toward other, relaxed</td>
<td>lean away from other, tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eye contact</td>
<td>look into other's eyes</td>
<td>avoid looking into other's eyes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>touching</td>
<td>touch other softly</td>
<td>avoid touching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gestures</td>
<td>open, welcoming</td>
<td>closed, guarding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spatial distance</td>
<td>close</td>
<td>distant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1) Divide into pairs. Designate one as A and one as B.
2) Person A makes three statements about his childhood in a warm way. Then person A makes three statements about his childhood in a cold way.
3) Person B gives person A feedback on how successfully he role played the expression of warmth and coldness.
4) Reverse the roles and repeat step 2.
5) Find a new partner. Repeat steps 2 and 3 with the new partner. This time discuss the characteristics of a person you want as a friend.
6) Find a new partner. Repeat steps 2 and 3 with the new partner. This time discuss what you could do to improve your relationship with your partner.
7) Discuss the exercise in the class as a whole.
   a. Was it easy to role play warmth and coldness?
   b. How successful did you become in nonverbal expression of warmth and coldness?
   c. Are there other ways to express warmth nonverbally?
d. What are your reactions and feelings to this exercise?

B. This exercise is designed to help identify the feelings involved in acceptance and nonacceptance. One student volunteers to be "it." The rest of the class walks around the room talking, but ignores and moves away from "it." "It" tries to communicate with the others. Follow with a discussion of how it felt to be "it" and how it felt shutting "it" out. Do as often as someone wants to be "it." (40:48)

C. Another exercise for the same purpose is to have the class as a whole form a tight circle. One volunteer stands outside the circle. The circle is tightened by locking arms and pressing close to each other's sides. The outsider has to break into the circle by forcing his way to the center. (Students should be cautioned not to be too rough.) After everyone who wants to be the outsider gets the chance, discuss the experience. (71:149)

VI. Confrontations - these two exercises are appropriate for helping students to understand the process of confrontation and to practice confronting persons in a controlled, nonthreatening environment.

A. Role-playing constructive confrontations:

1) Divide into triads; designate a confronter, a person being confronted, and an observer.
2) Take the first role-playing situation (which will follow). The person being confronted plays the person described. The confronter tries to confront the other with as much authenticity and involvement as possible. They make notes on the effectiveness of the use of the skills involved in constructive confrontation.
3) Switch roles and repeat step 2.
4) Have the observer report his findings.
5) Discuss the results as a whole class, then list the most effective ways of confronting people.

The role-playing situations are:

1) A person who often criticizes the behavior of others.
2) A person who is extremely shy in groups.
3) A person who frequently embarrasses others by gross remarks and bad manners.
4) A person who jokes about other people's problems.
5) A person who is always overly affectionate to everyone and makes others feel uncomfortable.
6) A person that is so "nice" he is "unreal." (71:165-166)

B. This exercise provides an opportunity to practice good confrontation skills with everyone in the group. The procedure for the exercise is as follows:

1) Everyone who wishes to participate in the exercise should stand in a circle.
2) One at a time, the participants walk around the circle, stopping in front of each person. You are: 1) to look directly at the person, 2) to touch him, and 3) to tell him how you feel about him and your relationship.
3) After every participant has gone around the circle, the group discusses their reaction to the exercise, what they learned about themselves and each other, and what they may do to improve their relationships with the other members of the group. (71:167-168)

VII. Resolving conflicts - long term relationships can be maintained only if there is some effective ways each party or both parties have to resolve conflicts. The following exercise is designed to create a real situation involving interpersonal conflict. From this exercise, students can test their understanding or skills in resolving conflicts among
people.

A. Divide into triads. Each person contributes 25 cents to the triad. The 75 cents should be placed in the middle of the triad.

B. The triad has 15 minutes to decide how to divide the money between TWO individuals. Only two can receive money. It is not legitimate to use any "chance" procedure, such as drawing straws, flipping a coin, etc. You must negotiate within the triad to reach a decision. The purpose of the exercise is to get as much money for yourself as possible.

C. As soon as your triad reaches a decision, write out on paper your answers to the following questions:
1) What were your feelings during the exercise? Be as specific and descriptive as possible.
2) What behaviors did you engage in during the exercise? Be specific.
3) How would you characterize your style of resolving the conflict in the exercise.

D. In your triad, give each other feedback concerning what you perceived to be the feelings, behaviors, and conflict styles of each other.

E. In the class as a whole, describe what you learned about yourself, and your style of dealing with conflicts. (71:206)

VIII. Interviewing - this is one interpersonal situation that almost every person will find himself and wanting some level of skill. The following exercises are designed to supplement the content-subject matter in developing skills in interviewing.

A. Each student applies for a job as a grass cutter, babysitter, dishwasher, or clerk in a store, etc. The teacher or other students act as the employer asking pertinent questions. (3:205)
B. The student selects an advertisement out of the paper for a job he would like to apply for. He writes a proper business letter requesting an application and interview. He fills out an application form for the job. (Sample forms free to teachers are usually available at any local or state employment office.) Another student is appointed employer. The employer must compose an appropriate set of questions relating to the specific job to ask the mock interview. The teacher is to read and approve the business letter, application form, and interview questions prior to the scheduling of an interview. On the day of the mock interview, the student hands the employer (an appointed student) his completed application and the employer proceeds to ask appropriate questions from his prearranged list and the completed application form.

C. Students are sent out into the community to interview someone for information. After choosing a person and a reason for the interview, an introductory letter is sent requesting the interview. After the interview, the class as a whole discusses the results, their feelings and what they learned. (3:205)

D. Have students role-play an interview situation (job, college, etc.) Change the same interview according to different seating arrangements: 1) interviewer behind the desk, interviewee opposite; 2) interviewer behind the desk, interviewee on the side; 3) interviewer and interviewee sit in chairs directly facing each other; and 4) interviewer and interviewee sit in chairs angled slightly toward each other. Discuss any changes in atmosphere, status, or feelings due to physical positions. (40:51)

IX. Roles - an important factor in examining our interpersonal communication is the roles we play or fill. Our communication changes as our roles change. The following exercises are designed to aid students in examining roles as a definite communication variable in interpersonal communica-
A. Have students describe in detail two or three roles they assume during a day or a week. Ask them to be specific about the image or kind of person communicated by each role. For example:

| language | at home |
| appearance | with parents' |
| attitudes | friends |
| posture | alone |
| in the following situations | with boy/girl friend |
| | with "the gang" |
| | on a job |
| | with teachers |

B. Have students select an out-of-class situation in which they feel they have a specific role or image. Each student is to deliberately attempt to behave in a manner partially inconsistent with the role or image and report the reactions of the observers to the class. (40:52)

C. Have students create "masks" which they "hide" behind in different situations. These can be verbal descriptions, pictures cut from magazines or originally drawn masks. Have each student explain his mask to the class. Follow with a discussion of the whole class on:

1) What kinds of masks do people wear?
2) Why are they necessary?
3) When do people drop them?
4) What effect do they have on communication?
5) How can you begin to help someone drop his mask?
6) Is it always desirable to drop one's masks? (40:52)

X. Judging Success of Interpersonal Communication - an important asset for anyone examining his interpersonal skills is data on how successful were his communication attempts
in an interpersonal situation. The following activities are representative of one's that can be used or devised to get feedback on success or failure of communication in interpersonal encounters.

A. Have students talk to another person about what the other person would like in terms of a home, furnishings, vacation, etc. Then have students fill out a questionnaire as they think the other person would respond. Let the other person judge the accuracy. (40:24)

B. Have each student present a "training speech" to his partner. The speech should attempt "to train" the partner for a particular job or aspect of a job. After the talk, give the listener four or five prepared questions to insure that the message was truly understood. Discuss the answers with the partner.

C. Have pairs of students interview each other, in general or on a particular subject. After a period of time, give them a multiple-choice questionnaire which each student must answer 1) for himself and 2) for his partner. Have them compare their answers and total their communication accuracy scores. (40:49)

Unit Four: Small Group Communication

The basic aim of these exercises is to give the student an opportunity to develop an awareness of the factors involved in communicating in a group situation and to practice the skills also involved.

I. Understanding Some Group Procedures -

A. Have the class as a whole or a committee selected by the class attend a city council, board of education, or some other group meeting and report to the class on the procedures observed. A general discussion can
follow on procedures for decision making.

B. Have all but two or three members of the class participate in an open discussion (without the teacher as a participant) on any given topic. Have the two or three nonparticipants act as observers and specifically observe the nonverbal communication apparent during the discussion. After about 20 minutes, have the observers report their findings. Follow with a discussion of nonverbal in group situations.

C. Have the class divide into about four small groups for a discussion of a topic. Assign one observer per group. The observer is to analyze and report on the interaction patterns in each group.

II. Purposes of Groups - the following exercise may aid students in understanding purposes of groups. Have each student list the groups to which they belong, the problems of belonging to groups, the purposes of belonging, and the needs fulfilled by belonging. In an open class discussion, have students discuss and determine reasons why people join groups and what needs are fulfilled by organized groups. In preparation, students may interview persons affiliated with groups and seek answers to these questions. (40:61)

III. Importance of Groups - in order to help students assess the importance of groups and group communication skills, have students interview their parents, relatives or businessman to find out how many groups each of them belongs to which requires him to participate in a group discussion. Determine what problems each sees in the groups when they engage in
discussion. (3:206)

IV. Cooperation vs. Competition – one of the most important understandings for a potential group member to realize is that productivity stems from cooperation not conflict. Conflict within a group can prohibit any productive results. The following game demonstrates this principle:

A. Students are divided into groups of four and told that they are going to play a game in which the purpose is to win as many points as you can. (Note: the teacher must be careful to use this exact terminology. The students must feel that the "you" refers to them as a group, but in reality it refers to them as a class.)

B. Each group is given an index card saying RED and one saying GREEN. The game will consist of 10 rounds. Each round is played by each group handing the teacher one of their two index cards. The number and color of cards given to the teacher each round determines the points allocated. The scoring basis is:

GGGG (four green cards) = + 50 pts each team
GGGR (three greens, one red) = + 300 pts for the team voting red
                             - 100 pts for the teams voting green
GGRR (two greens, two reds) = + 200 pts for two teams voting red
                             - 200 pts for two teams voting green
GRRR (one green, three reds) = + 100 pts for teams voting red
                             - 300 for team voting green
RRRR (all red cards) = - 100 for each team
C. The teacher should keep score on the board using the following system:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ROUNDS</th>
<th>TEAMS VOTE</th>
<th>CUMULATIVE SCORE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
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<td>3 D</td>
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<td>6 D X2</td>
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<td>9 D</td>
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<td>10 X 10</td>
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D. The teacher should note that the way the teams vote should be recorded under "Teams Vote" and the points each team got each round is recorded under "Cumulative Score." The total category should be recorded discretely by the teacher. The way the total is scored is: GGGG yields +100 pts (50 per team), GGGR yields 0 pts (+300 and -300), each of the others yields 0 pts, except RRRR which yields -100 (-50 per team). The total category is the important score, but the students will get involved in competition and conflict by trying to "get more points than each other." The teacher should also note that rounds, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, and 9 are followed by a D. This indicates a "discussion round." Before voting for that round, each group elects a representative to go to the center of the room to bargain and/or negotiate their vote for that round. The teacher should give no more than 3 minutes for the bargaining. Then the representatives return to their
groups to decide on their vote. They are not bound by the center of the room discussion. The X2 means the vote is doubled. The X 10 means the vote points is times ten.

E. The teacher should keep track of time and adhere to time limits for bargaining and deciding how to vote.

F. The teacher should have the teams separated as much as possible to allow for private discussions and the teacher should try not to reveal how each group voted when collecting the cards.

G. At the end of the game, the teacher reveals the significance of the total score and shows how even though one team may have gotten more points, the class lost because the total is not what it could be. The highest possible in the total is 2100 pts. Many times the total score will be minus.

H. Finally the teacher leads a discussion on the game with the purpose of getting the students to verbalize the fact that competition prohibited their getting 2100 total points and that only by cooperation could the game actually be won.

(Note: a second purpose for this game could be the development or discussion of interpersonal trust.)

V. Group Decisions vs. Individual Decisions - another important realization for a potential group member is that often, group decisions are superior to individual decisions. The following exercise is designed to point up the superiority of group decisions over individual decisions.

A. The teacher hands each student a copy of the following set of instructions and exercises and ask each student to complete the form privately. The sheet should read:
N A S A EXERCISE

You are in a space crew originally scheduled to rendezvous with a mother ship on the lighted surface of the moon. Mechanical difficulties, however, have forced your ship to crashland at a spot some 200 miles from the rendezvous point. The rough landing damaged much of the equipment aboard the ship. Since survival depends on reaching the mother ship, the most critical item available must be chosen for the 200-mile trip. The fifteen items left intact after landing are listed below. Your task is to rank them in terms of their importance to your crew in its attempt to reach the rendezvous point. Place number 1 by the most important item, number 2 by the second most important, and so on through the least important, number 15.

The items left that are usable are:

a. _______ box of matches
b. _______ food concentrates
c. _______ 50 feet of nylon rope
d. _______ parachute silk
e. _______ two .45 caliber pistols
f. _______ one case of dehydrated milk
g. _______ two 100 pound tanks of oxygen
h. _______ stellar map of the moon's constellation
i. _______ life raft
j. _______ magnetic compass
k. _______ 5 gallons of water
l. _______ signal flares
m. _______ first-aid kit containing injection needles
n. _______ solar-powered FM receiver-transmitter
o. _______ portable heating unit

(Note: the teacher should not answer any questions beyond reading the instructions.)

B. After the students have completed their individual rankings, place them in groups of five or six and give them an additional blank form and ask them to complete it as a group. They can refer to their own rankings, but they cannot change any of their
own rankings. Give the group about 15-20 minutes to come to a group ranking. Encourage them to arrive at a consensus whenever possible.

C. After the group has ranked the same items, have each person score his own paper and one person also score the group paper. Scoring is done using this key:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. 15</td>
<td>i. 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. 4</td>
<td>j. 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. 6</td>
<td>k. 2</td>
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<td>d. 8</td>
<td>l. 10</td>
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<td>e. 11</td>
<td>m. 7</td>
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<td>f. 12</td>
<td>n. 5</td>
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<td>g. 1</td>
<td>o. 13</td>
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<td>h. 3</td>
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</table>

Numerical scores are obtained by determining the net difference between each answer and the correct answer as indicated above. For example, if your answer for f was 9 and the correct one is 12, the net difference is 3, which is your score for that item. If your answer for n was 7 and the correct answer is 5, the net difference is 2, which is your score for that item.

D. After the individual scores have been tallied by adding the scores for each item, the teacher should list the individual scores on the blackboard by groups.

E. Next to the individual scores for each group, the teacher places the group score on the board.

F. The group scores will generally be lower than the individual scores. The lower the score the better.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Range</th>
<th>Grade</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 19</td>
<td>excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 - 29</td>
<td>good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 39</td>
<td>average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 - 49</td>
<td>fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>poor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
G. Finally the teacher should lead a class discussion on the exercise in which the students should verbalize that the group decisions were generally better or lower than the individual scores.

VI. Leadership - students should realize that the quality of leadership is one of the most crucial factors in determining group efficiency. Students should also realize that leadership can exist in one person or be shared by the group or several members. No matter what form, leadership should be present for a group to operate efficiently.

The following activities deal with leadership.

A. Have each student assume the leadership of a group (perhaps even the whole class) for a period of time. Allow each student to experience and experiment with various leadership styles to determine which type he personally prefers. (40:65)

B. After some practice and experimenting, have each student write a paper or explain to the class which style of leadership he would feel most comfortable assuming and his reasons.

C. Divide the class into four groups randomly and have each group designate a leader. Have the groups discuss a common problem for 20 minutes. Then have an open discussion and have each group evaluate its progress and its feelings. Have them discuss whether the appointment of a leader had any affect on the discussion. Discuss the amount of participation by each person.

D. Follow the same directions as stated in activity C. above, but this time do not appoint a leader or even mention leadership. After the discussion, ask if a leader emerged? What type of leadership was present? Was a designated leader needed?
E. Have students identify groups and the style of leadership which would be most effective for that group on the basis of 1) purpose of the group, 2) membership, 3) outside constraints (time, size, etc.). (40:65)

F. The above activities can be combined into one experimental group that given 4 separate tasks on four separate days can try on a given day 1) an appointed leader, 2) an elected leader, 3) an emerging leader, and 4) no leader. Have, after the four days, the groups discuss the differences and note the effects that leadership had on the group's progress.

VII. Duties of Leaders and Participants - the following two activities are designed to help students understand and internalize the duties of members of a group.

A. After having participated in several in-class group situations, form four groups and have two groups create a list of duties of a group leader and have the other two groups create a list of duties or responsibilities of group participants. These can be compared with each other and with the list found under subject matter for group communication in this paper. Have the students combine all lists into a list that will be dittoed for class distribution.

B. Have students interview various people who are members of a group and ask them to 1) identify the most important duties of a group leader and 2) the responsibilities of group participants.

VIII. Problem-Solving - one of the most frequent and important tasks of groups is to solve problems. Besides learning the steps in solving problems, students need various group experiences in order to develop skills. The following exercises deal with group problem-solving situations.
A. A good beginning exercise to point up the need for a plan and direction in solving problems is:

1) Have the class as a whole become a problem-solving group (if the class is too large then divide it into two groups).
2) Write a problem on the board and leave the room, or completely disassociate yourself from the discussion. Do not assign a leader and do not answer any questions except that the problem on the board is to be solved.
3) After about 20 minutes ask for a solution or the state of the discussion at that point.
4) Follow with a open discussion covering: How did you get started? What kept you moving? What happened or failed to happen in the 20 minutes? Could the discussion have been handled more effectively? What was needed to aid the deliberation process? (Try to get them to verbalize the need for a systematic plan for solving problems). (40:62)

B. Have the class divide into small groups and assign each a problem to solve. Tell them that they have the entire period to solve the problem, but a solution must be given by the end of the period. (Note: it will probably take each group most or all of the period to solve the problem). The next day, divide the class into the same groups. Give them a problem equal to that of the day before, but this time tell them that they are in competition. The winning group will get (have some prize) a reward. Again tell them that they have all period, but the first group with the solution will win. (Note: the increased efficiency). Afterwards, lead a class discussion comparing the efficiency of the two days. Point up how groups can work fast and effectively when necessary, but otherwise they will "fill the time allotted."

C. Tell students they have a class period to solve a particular problem in groups of 5-7. Unknown to the rest of the class, plant two problem members in each group. Have them do things like pleading personal interest, sidetracking, making cutting
criticisms, etc. After 20-25 minutes, have the groups report their progress and discuss any problems they had. After a bit reveal the "plants" and discuss how to handle situations and how to go about the business of solving the problem.

IX. Organizing a Group - Learning how to get a group organized so it can proceed with its task is an important skill. The following exercise will enable students to learn the importance of organization and have some practice in getting a group organized.

1) Seat the students in a circle with the teacher standing outside the group.
2) The teacher gives only these directions: You are to calculate the average height in feet and inches of this group. If a member does not know his exact height, he may give an estimate. The group must agree on the answer and appoint someone to submit it to the teacher.
3) The teacher can repeat the directions again, but then he must step away and not talk until the group submits its answer.
4) Follow with a discussion on organizing a group. Have students suggest methods. (77:22)

S. Judging Group Effectiveness - As in each of the other communication situations, students can best improve when they have some feedback on how effective and/or ineffective they are communicating in a group situation. Some methods of judging group effectiveness are:

A. The fishbowl - have the members who are participating in a group discussion sit in a close circle. Have the rest of the class (non-participants) sit in a circle surrounding the group so that you have two concentric circles: an inner circle of participants and
an outer circle of observers. During the discussion the observers can be assigned to look at one group member and analyze his participation or they can be given a general topic to examine like nonverbal communication or interaction patterns. Following the discussion, the observers rate and report their findings. (77:51)

B. Freezing the action - at a given moment the teacher interrupts the group and asks: "How is it going?" "Are you attaining your goals?" "Are you working together in an effective way?" "Do all of you feel good about the way things are going?" (77:52)

C. Take five - use the last five minutes of the period to evaluate the groups effectiveness and share perceptions of each others participation. (77:52)

D. Another version of Freeze the Action is: stop the group, ask each person to turn his chair around 180 degrees so that he cannot see the other members of the group. On a sheet of paper, answer the following questions:

1) Beginning to your left, name each person in your group.
2) Give at least one important statement each person has made on the topic so far.
3) Who was the last person talking before you were interrupted?
4) What was he saying?

Have them briefly talk about the results before continuing the discussion.

E. Questionnaire - after a discussion, the teacher can ask each group member to answer the following questions and not to put his name on the paper.

1) I liked or did not like this group because ....
2) This group could have been more effective if ....
3) Which group member can most easily influence you to change your opinion?
4) Which member can least easily influence you?
5) Which group member would you like to get to know better?
6) Which member do you think is best liked by the entire group?
7) Which group member was most important to the success of the group?
8) For me to be happier in this group, the other members should ....

The teacher can collect and combine the results and post them on a bulletin board in the room. No discussion is needed. (77:53)

F. Role-Playing - the teacher can stop the discussion and instruct them that when they resume, they are to role-play the person on their immediate left or the teacher can assign each member another member that they are to role-play. Also students can be told to role-play someone else in the group, but not to say who they are playing. Besides giving students some feedback, it provides practice in understanding another's point of view. (77:54)

G. Mechanical Devices - discussions can be audio or videotaped and analyzed by the participants.

Unit Five: Public Communication

The basic aim of exercises and activities in public communication is to provide students an opportunity to gain experience and develop skills in speaking before an audience in a protected, non-threatening environment. Emphasis should not be placed on learning "how to give different types of speeches," but on identifying and mastering certain skills of public communication.
I. Speech Anxiety - more than any other communication situation, public speaking creates intense anxieties for many speakers. Everyone experiences some "nervousness" to some extent. But there are a substantial number of people that experience severe speech anxiety. If your course is an elective, chances are these people will avoid the course. If the course is required, some means need to be taken to identify those whose "nervousness" borders on a neurosis. The following exercises may be helpful in identifying the severe cases and dealing with the less severe levels that will probably be common to all of the students in the classroom.

A. Divide the class into four groups and have each group discuss two of the following eight common fallacies:

1) Self-confidence is the same as "not being afraid."
2) Fear is a sign of inferiority.
3) Fear is bad and undesirable.
4) Only cowards are afraid.
5) Being unprepared is the main cause of nervousness.
6) Proficient speakers do not have fear.
7) Self-confidence will come suddenly after enough practice, and then you will never be nervous again.
8) Anything painful or unpleasant is undesirable. (3:245)

B. Have each student write a description of his thoughts, feelings, and behavior when faced with a task that really meant something to him. (3:245)
C. Have students prepare a two or three minute report of a personal experience in which they experienced fear. Seat the class in a circle and let each student give his report. (3:245)

D. Have each student complete a PRCS Form (Personal Report of Confidence as a Speaker) or a Fear Inventory Form or both (See Appendix for a copy of both). The teacher can make a class tabulation and post the results. The teacher can show the pre and post tabulation results of previous classes. Students who have similar scores may want to talk with each other about their similar feelings. Any student who has an extremely high score on either or both of these instruments is probably an example of a severe speech anxiety person. This student should be channeled to the counselor (see recommendation regarding speech anxiety).

II. Audience Analysis - the following activities provide students with opportunities to better understand the function and procedures involved in analyzing a prospective audience and some practice.

A. Have each student investigate a specific group in the community. He is to analyze that group as a prospective audience for himself as a speaker giving a speech on a specific topic. Have him prepare an outline of a speech and explain why the speech and certain parts of its components are appropriate for his particular audience.

B. Before one of their class speeches, have each student complete the Audience Analysis Form (see Appendix) using his classmates as his target audience.

C. After students have selected a topic to be given in a class speech, have each student prepare a questionnaire to be administered to the class containing information they would like to know about their audience before they prepare their speech.
D. Have each student report on three topics he feels would be appropriate for presenting or persuading the class on or about, based upon his audience analysis. (40:80)

E. Have students discuss the types of "audience psychology" that speakers or entertainers use. Some specific topics for discussion are: use of warm-ups at a political rally or television program; use of chanting or clapping in some church services; use of lighting effects in discotheques; or Hitler's mass tactics with crowds. (40:84)

III. Source Credibility and Using Proofs. - These activities are correlated to the discussion of credibility and using proof in speeches.

A. Have students determine what factors may 1) give a speaker credibility before a speech and 2) what methods a speaker can use to gain credibility during a speech. This can be an individual or group project. (40:79)

B. Have students introduce each other as speakers and try to establish credibility for them.

C. Have students try to establish credibility during a speech, employ some measurement device to determine success and have the audience determine what methods were employed. (40:79)

D. Play a recording of a speech and have students identify the types of proofs used and evaluate their effectiveness. (3:243)

E. Hand students a dittoed copy of a speech and have them underline and identify in the margins the different types of proofs and tabulate a total number of each and a percentage of each. Discuss the results.
G. Allow students to give speeches using different types of proofs in the speech. A single speech may focus on only one type of proof or it may use two.

IV. Organization of a Speech - two activities that can supplement the discussion of speech organization are:

A. Organization relay race - divide the class into two or more teams. Each team is given a space of the blackboard. The object of the game is to put a logical outline of a speech on the board first. When the teacher gives the signal, the first team member goes to the board and writes a speech topic. When he returns, the second member goes to the board and writes a speech purpose, the third a thesis sentence, the fourth an introduction, etc. The first team to write a complete outline for a speech, in a logical order, wins the race. (3:246)

B. Scrambled speech - the teacher types up a famous speech, dittoes off several copies and cuts them into sections. The scrambled sections are presented to a group who must unscramble the speech and put it into a logical order.

V. Understanding the Processes of Public Communication - the following exercises are not aimed at any specific principle, but can be of help to students in identifying and understanding the process of public speaking.

A. Have students compare one-to-one, small group situations and public communication to determine what is unique to public speaking. (40:79)

B. Have students formulate a basic message. Structure an opportunity for each student to deliver the message 1) one-to-one, 2) in a small group, and 3) before the whole class in a semi-formal situation. Discuss the results and differences.
C. Have students interview a variety of professionals to determine when and why they are called upon to speak in public situations.

D. Have students prepare a personal list of situations in which they foresee themselves having to give a public speech (present and future). (40:79)

E. Have students determine what verbal adjustments a source must make when speaking to an audience (e.g. restating to be sure message was heard). (40:81)

F. Have students determine what nonverbal adjustments a source must make when speaking to an audience (e.g. speaking more slowly, using larger gestures). (40:81)

G. Have students attempt to give a speech to a tape recorder or even a videotape recorder. Discuss the effects and differences from speaking to an audience.

VI. Effectiveness of Delivery - rather than to lecture on the rules of "good delivery," a teacher might use some of the following activities to get the students to determine their own list of do's and don'ts for delivering a speech.

A. Have students report on the most effective speaker they have ever heard. Give specifics on what was effective. (3:244)

B. Ask students to go to a public speech or view one on television, if that is the only opportunity, and to listen carefully, observe the speech and answer the following question after the speech:

1) Did the speaker use an organizational plan familiar to you? What was it? What were the major points of his speech?

2) Did the speaker use visual aids? What types did he use? Were they effective?
3) How did the speaker attract and maintain interest and attention?
4) What did you see the speaker do that was particularly good?
5) What did you see the speaker do that you would hope to avoid when giving a speech? (3:244)

C. Have students listen to a newscaster and write a paragraph describing the delivery he used. Was it over played? Under played? How would you rate him as a speaker. You might compare a local newscaster with a national (network) newscaster. (3:249)

VII. Nonverbal Variables - the following activities are designed to assist students in identifying and considering the nonverbal variables that can affect a public speech.

A. Have students give speeches of various lengths to determine the effects of the variety of length on audience reaction and comprehension. (40:83)

B. Have students interview teachers to determine what times of the day they think are best and worst for holding a class's attention. (40:83)

C. Have students list and discuss the factors in the environment that can aid or hinder a speaker (room size, temperature, arrangement, acoustics). (40:83)

D. Have students deliver speeches from several vantage points: 1) behind a podium, 2) standing beside a desk, or standing alone close to the front of the audience. Discuss the differences. (40:83)

VIII. Determining Effectiveness - as was true in the other forms of communication, the student must gather data on his effectiveness or ineffectiveness. Some means of doing this are:
A. After a speech have the students give a short questionnaire to his audience (five or less questions) covering the major points of his speech to see if he did communicate. Let him tabulate and evaluate the results.

B. Before a persuasive speech, the student or teacher can administer a semantic differential to measure the students attitudes on the topic to be presented. A simpler device would be a favor, against, neutral scale. The teacher collects the results or the student can do so. After the persuasive speech, the same instrument is administered to determine any change of opinion.

C. The use of a tape recorder or even better a video recorder can be effective as a means for self-evaluation. In each case, the student should be allowed to evaluate the results himself.

These activities are representative of the types of instructional exercises that can be used to help students understand and practice public communication. The purpose of the activities should be on developing understandings and allowing for practice, not on getting grades for the gradebook.

Unit Six: Mass Communication

The mass communication activities are designed specifically to assist students in understanding what are the ways one can communicate to large groups of people at the same time and to allow students to practice formulating and sending messages using mass media techniques.
The following are some appropriate activities:

A. At the beginning of this unit, ask students to keep a viewing-listening log for radio and television, including what programs they hear and see and for approximately how long. When the results are reported, discuss the average amounts of time people (adults, teenagers, children) listening and watching the mass media. (3:278)

B. Ask each student to read at least one article each week about mass communications. The articles are to be kept in a notebook with a brief reaction to be included. From time to time, set aside class time for students to report and lead a class discussion on a article he has read. (3:280)

C. Have the class as a whole make a survey of the listening-viewing habits of their friends and neighborhood. Have them map it out and plan well to avoid any duplication of effort. Plan to survey in an orderly manner. Use some systematic plan. Form committees to do various aspects (formulating the questions, typing the questionnaire, compiling the results, etc). After the project is completed and analyzed, discuss how the mass media makes use of surveys for determining message content. (3:280)

D. Sending messages via the mass media –

1) Divide the class into groups. Each group is to select a specific message to be communicated to the public via the media. (A commercial is usually appropriate.)

2) Have each group prepare a written copy of the message appropriate for distribution in the print media (magazine or newspaper ad). Have the groups display their messages on a bulletin board.

3) Next have them prepare a radio script to convey their message. Have these audio-taped and played for the class.
4) Next have the group prepare a television script to convey their message. Video tape the skit and play it for the class.

5) Finally have each group write a short film script with a story that will convey their message. Make a film, edit it, and show it to the class. The film will probably have to be silent.

6) After all of these activities have been completed, discuss the differences between the media as modes of sending messages.

D. Students can as a class organize a news program. Some members acting as writers, some as reporters, some as broadcasters. This can be combined into a 15 minute television news or radio news program that includes: national news, local news, sports, fashions, weather, commentary, etc.

E. Field trips to newspapers, radio stations or television studios are appropriate.

In general, activities in the mass media are often limited by the facilities of the school. There are several ways, however, to expose students to the mass communications as a mode of sending messages.

**Instructional Strategies for a Communications Course**

The overall suggested strategy for the communications course is the integration of content and learning activities as explained earlier in this chapter. This instructional plan matched with an appropriate course structure provides a sound basic course design. This section will examine some of the specific instructional strategies available for use in a communications course.
Hough and Duncan (77) identify four instructional strategies:

1) direct communication strategy
2) interactive strategy
3) group strategy
4) independent strategy

They define strategy as a pattern of behaviors used to facilitate student attainment of objectives. (77:164) Each of these strategies will be examined for its appropriateness to the secondary communications course.

Direct Communication Strategy

A direct communication strategy is a pattern of behaviors involving the intentional and persistent initiation of information from a single source. A direct communication strategy can be teacher initiated (lecture, film, record, television) or it can be student initiated (oral report, speech, playing a record).

I. The teacher initiated direct communication strategy is the most commonly used strategy in education.

The types of strategies and their use in a speech communication course are:
A. Lecture - although this is the most widely used strategy it is generally regarded as the least effective means of transmitting information. It is also the least appropriate strategy for a communications course since its focus of attention is on the teacher and an effective speech communication course should be student rather than teacher centered. Its most appropriate use in a communications course would be for giving directions, explaining assignments and initiating student activities (dyads or groups). Lengthy lectures should be avoided unless there is no other way of presenting the information.

B. Text - a text is a good source of information for students and is an appropriate means of getting information to students. However, there is only one high school text even mentions communication theory.

C. Handouts - an excellent source of information because they can contain only the information the teacher considers relevant to the topic being studied and they can be geared to the needs of a particular class.

D. Films, tapes, records, etc. - can be an excellent source of information, if appropriate materials can be found.

II. The student initiated direct communication strategy is very appropriate for the secondary speech communication course as is any strategy that is student centered.

A. Speeches will be used to demonstrate and to practice the skills of public communication.
B. Informal reports - excellent ways of having students share with the class some individual project or study in communication. Many of the activities listed for use in the communications curriculum call for student reporting of the class.

III. Some guidelines for using direct communication strategies are:

A. Use teacher initiated strategies sparingly due to the minimal feedback from students obtained.

B. Excessive use tends to make students passive.

C. They should be well planned and organized.

D. They should be geared to the students' ability level.

Interactive Strategy

An interactive strategy is a pattern of behaviors involving reciprocal communication between two people at a time. An interactive strategy can be teacher initiated (teacher asking a question of a student) or it can be student initiated (student asking a question of a teacher or another student).

I. Teacher initiated interactive strategies are widely used in classrooms. They occur when a teacher asks a student a question and the student responds. In order to be a strategy, there must be several of these question-response behaviors consecutively. This
II. Strategy is appropriate for "pulling information out of students," determining levels of student understanding, and measuring of learning.

II. Student initiated interactive strategies occur when students initiate the solicitations. The responses can be made by the teacher or by other students. The key factor is that the student is controlling the flow of the information. This is the most appropriate strategy for "inductive teaching."

Often, teachers can use this strategy to explain concepts and/or clear up points of confusion by having the student ask the questions. The student to student interactive strategy would be widely used in a communications course since many of the activities require dyads. All practice of interpersonal communication will be interactive strategy.

III. Some guidelines for using interactive strategies are:
A. Use them to personalize instruction.
B. When interacting with a student, the teacher should listen carefully to the student's comments and observe his nonverbal behaviors for message cues.
C. When interacting with a student, the teacher should avoid ignoring the rest of the class.

D. The teacher initiated strategy can best be used for:

1) Diagnosing problems by finding out what a student does not know.

2) Reviewing information.

3) Reinforcing learning.

4) Stimulating particular kinds of thinking.

5) Measuring learning.

Group Strategy

A group strategy is a pattern of behaviors that promote multi-directional communication -- communication that emanates from many sources (especially students) and is directed to many destinations simultaneously. The group strategy occurs when members of a group talk in random fashion to the group rather than to one person. There is no sustained pattern of interaction. The group strategy can be teacher-student (teacher is a group member) or student-student (teacher does not participate).
I. Teacher-student group strategy - the teacher is a member of the group, but does not have any superior status, does not control the discussion and does no more talking than the average student participant. In other words, the flow of communication is not channeled through the teacher. It flows from participant to participant. The teacher participates as an equal participant. This is a very appropriate strategy for the "de-briefing" of a communication activity. It is also appropriate for planning an activity or project.

II. Student-student group strategy - the teacher is not a member of the group and does not participate. The communication flows from student to student in a random manner. This is also excellent for "de-briefing" or evaluating an activity or even planning an activity when the teacher wants the students to do it all themselves. The teacher has no input. The teacher can listen as an observer.

III. Some guidelines for using the group strategy are:
A. Let the group do the teaching; the teacher, whether a participant or not, must not take an active role.
B. The teacher uses primarily indirect behaviors seeking clarification and accepting student ideas. The goal is to focus the responsibility for the discussion to the students.

C. All comments whether by teacher or students should be directed to the group not individuals.

D. The group should be an appropriate size -- everyone should be able to participate easily.

E. When using a student-student group strategy, be sure the group has the necessary skills to obtain the objective.

F. Seat the group in a circle or a similar arrangement where everyone can see each other to facilitate participation.

**Independent Strategy**

An independent strategy is a pattern of behaviors designed to facilitate students' independent activity to attain instructional objectives. Whenever a student is working alone and initiating his own learning, that is an independent strategy.
I. Independent strategies are becoming popular in the move toward individualized instruction. There are many opportunities for using this strategy in the communications course. Many of the activities involving introspection in intrapersonal communication lend themselves to an independent strategy. Students should have in-class opportunities to work privately, to direct their own learning, and to set their own pace. Presently, this strategy is popular in honors courses and some project approaches. In most classes, however, it is often reserved for out-of-class (homework) activities.

II. Some guidelines for using the independent strategy are:

A. Independent activities should be well planned, well organized.

B. Independent activities must have specified goals and objectives that are clear to the students.

C. The teacher should structure the conditions and environment so that the student can learn effectively and efficiently by himself.
D. The tasks must be within the range of the student's capabilities.

E. The teacher should monitor the progress and offer minimal assistance when necessary.

F. The best way to help is by asking questions rather than making statements and telling the students answers.

Guidelines for Selecting Appropriate Strategies

I. Avoid using one strategy for an entire period. Rarely can one strategy sustain attention and interest for a full period.

II. Select the strategy in terms of what is the best way to approach this subject matter or activity not in terms of what is the most convenient for the teacher.

III. Avoid getting into a rut (using the same strategy in the same way consistently). Even if a particular strategy seems to be the best way of conducting the lesson, any strategy over used looses its effectiveness.
IV. The best strategies for the communications class are those that are student centered not teacher centered. The primary role of the communications teacher should be a guide, a facilitator, a responder.

Summary

Thus the suggested overall strategy for a secondary communications course is an integration of theory and activity for the purpose of achieving instructional objectives. Within that instructional framework, the teacher can select appropriate direct communication strategies, interactive strategies, group strategies or independent strategies. The prime consideration for choosing strategies is its usefulness in aiding student learning.
Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present information helpful to a secondary speech teacher who intends to design a communications course for his/her speech class. This was accomplished by presenting a rationale for a communications approach, presenting an explanation and rationale for an "integrated curriculum," providing some alternative structures for a communications course, providing content-matched learning activities, and discussing appropriate strategies for teaching the secondary communications course. It is hoped that this information data base is sufficiently complete to prove useful in aiding a secondary speech teacher plan and implement a communications approach.
CHAPTER VII
AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the teacher with a listing of references that will be helpful in formulating and implementing a secondary communications course. The books and periodicals which follow all have relevance to the content and learning activities outlined in the previous chapter.

Books


This recent college speech methods text strongly advocates an "interpersonal approach" to the secondary speech class. This text presents an excellent discussion of the need for a change, but is lacking any content or curricular guidelines for change. It is most useful in developing a philosophy or rationale for a communications approach.


This recent college communication theory text provides an excellent overview of the general tenents of communication theory and a discussion of the various levels of communication. Of the general college communication theory texts, this one is most adaptable for secondary use.

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An excellent collection of readings pertaining to the area of counseling and other related helping professions. Many of the articles are directly related to the skills involved in interpersonal communication. Three particularly relevant articles are:

- Carl R. Rogers, "The Interpersonal Relationship in the Facilitation of Learning."
- F. J. Roethlisberger, "Barriers to Communication Between Men."
- William W. Purkey, "The Task of the Teacher."


This paperback contains much of the recent research on listening in an easily readable form. It can be of significant importance and use when developing a unit on listening. It also contains some materials easily adaptable for pre-posttest measurement devices for a secondary speech class.


A collection of readings and research reports of the early studies in interpersonal communication. Most of the studies are relevant to the content area of communication and interpersonal communication, but a secondary speech teacher without a background in research and statistics may have some trouble interpreting many of the studies.


This is the pioneer effort in modern speech communication theory. It has an excellent discussion of the elements of communication and offers a model to aid
understanding. One of the best discussions of "process" as it relates to communication is here. Most of the material can be adapted for secondary use.


This work introduced Berne's theory of transactional analysis. It is still the most complete discussion of the general theory although it is couched in semi-technical jargon.


This paperback focuses on the "games analysis" part of transactional analysis. It also contains a synthesis of the general theory of transactional analysis. Many useful examples appropriate to the study of structural and transactional communication can be gleaned from this work.


This revised edition of Braden's popular college speech methods text contains a new chapter by Dr. J. Donald Ragsdale on teaching a communications course. The chapter gives primarily an overview and some background to the development of such a course. Some discussion on course objectives and topics for study is provided.


Professor Brooks has gathered some very important journal articles relating to the teaching of speech. The first section deals with content areas in communication while the remaining five sections deal with education and instructional topics. These discussions can prove very helpful in assisting a teacher in developing new instructional strategies for a communications course.

This text is one of the more popular college general speech communication texts. It includes sections on: "An Overview of Communication", "Intrapersonal Communication", "Interpersonal Communication", and "Public Communication." This probably the best overall college text in terms of its adaptability to the secondary class and the quality and quantity of relevant information.


This is a recent college speech methods text. While it seems to encourage an alternative approach to the teaching of secondary speech, it does not provide any content or curricular guidelines. It does have an excellent section of learning activities appropriate for use in a secondary communications course. It also has the other standard chapters relating to the teaching of the "other" areas of "speech."


This is designed to be a general college communication text. It focuses solely on and provides relevant information on the individual communication system, interpersonal communication and public communication. Much of the information can be adapted to the secondary level.


This paperback is a collection of readings in nonverbal communication. This would be most useful as a reference book for the teacher to use to get examples. Most of the readings would not be that interesting for secondary students.

In these two volumes Carkhuff has summarized most of the major studies that relate to the teaching of helping (interpersonal) skills in counseling and therapy. While the material in these texts is not useful as content for a communications course, it can be useful for the teacher who wants to examine the research in "teaching" these behaviors and in clarifying the nature of the behaviors.


This counseling text has the best discussion and explanation of the specific interpersonal skills that are involved in counseling and in interpersonal communication behavior in general.


In this text the authors make a plea for transforming the classroom into a communications laboratory. They provide the basic rationale, some specific suggestions and a few appropriate learning activities. This book is most useful in gaining some background information on the rationale and function of a communications-oriented class.


This text provides exactly what the title implies. It's material is very relevant to the secondary speech teacher. It not only provides a great deal in terms of skills needed to help students, but has some areas of content relevant to the secondary communications course. The chapters on the self-concept and on communication are most valuable.

This paperback is an excellent collection of articles on the various aspects of communication. It has many articles for easy use in the secondary class. It covers communication theory, nonverbal communication, semantics, listening, defensive communication and questioning.


This is a general speech communication text for the college level. While not as complete as many of the other communication texts, it does combine general communication theory with the traditional public address approach.


This short paperback applies Berne's "game analysis" of transactional communication to student's in-class behaviors. It is organized like *Games People Play* by Berne. It can serve as a source of excellent examples to provide students of ordinary transactional classroom situations. A familiarity with transactional analysis is helpful before reading this book.


This is an excellent source of material on communication for the secondary speech class. This is a very brief, well illustrated and simply explained introduction to the phenomenon of communications. This is definately a must book for any teacher who seeks visuals to explain communication.


This was a best selling paperback that introduces the field of nonverbal communication in terms of bodily movements. Although this book is written for popular
use, it is an excellent source of material and examples for a secondary unit on nonverbal communication.


This paperback was written to be a college speech methods text or a supplement to a general speech methods text. It strongly advocates an "interpersonal approach" to teaching secondary speech. It provides some possible unit objectives, very little content, and many excellent learning activities. Many of the activities include areas other than just interpersonal communication situations.


This general collection of articles on speech communication contains a few articles relevant to the secondary speech course, but most of the articles are rhetorically oriented and deal with issues not relevant to the secondary course.


This interpersonal text is designed for a college interpersonal course. It does have much relevant information to a secondary interpersonal unit. It is an excellent resource for teachers. The teacher's manual has some appropriate activities for the communications course.


This is a supplemental collection of readings to the Giffin and Patton fundamentals texts. It has many excellent and appropriate readings especially Gibbs' article on defensive communication.

Goffman, a socialologist, has collected some very insightful observations on human behavior. This paperback is a rich source of examples on man's efforts to communicate and avoid communication through nonverbal means.


Similar to Goffman's earlier book in that it examines nonverbal behaviors in man. This book focuses on the behaviors man uses in public. Again, this book is rich with examples on nonverbal communication.


This book is an important work in the area of nonverbal communication.


Like Hall's earlier book, this is an excellent discussion of nonverbal communication.


This is a popular and simplified version of Berne's transactional analysis. It is non-technical and very readable. It is a must for any teacher who wants to teach a unit on transactional analysis. Most of the material can be presented as is to high school students.


This is a must book for any teacher who wants to teach a communications course. This is most useful and practical interpersonal communication text published. It not only contains excellent content material, but
has matched learning activities. It can easily be used as a text for a junior or senior level high school class. It is the best source of interpersonal learning activities available.


This is the most significant text published on self-disclosure. It provides a wealth of material and source of appropriate examples for teaching intrapersonal communication and interpersonal communication.


This was one of the first college interpersonal texts and still is the most widely used. It does not deal with interpersonal communication (dyadic) exclusively. It contains excellent material for use in the secondary class on intrapersonal, group, and public communication. The strength of this text is the inclusion of many excellent learning activities at the end of each chapter. Most of the content and activities in this book are easily adaptable to the secondary class.


This is an abbreviated paperback form of Keltner's earlier interpersonal text. Some of the structures of interpersonal communication have been omitted.


This paperback is the best source of information on general nonverbal communication published. It has summarized in a very readable form most of the major research on nonverbal communication. It is an excellent and easily adaptable source of information on nonverbal communication for the communications course.

This short paperback contains many of the widely used communication games that are applicable to teaching communication theory. It is definitely usable in the secondary setting. The teacher's manual also contains some games and some instructions for their use.


The case studies and examples of interference in communication provides an excellent source of information for the secondary teacher.

Lewis, George L.; Everett, Russell I.; Gibson, James W.; and Schoen, Kathryn T. *Teaching Speech*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1969.

This is an excellent college speech methods text. While no specific mention of a communications approach is made, much of the information is applicable. There are numerous rating forms that can be adapted to various communication settings and the chapter on broadcasting is an excellent resource of content and activities.


This recent collection of articles and essays has four articles on intrapersonal and interpersonal communication plus an article on small group, listening and nonverbal communication.


This recent general speech text is rhetorically-public address oriented, but it does contain excellent and appropriate chapters on semantics, small group communication and mass communication.

This is an excellent interpersonal text. It is more complex than Keltner, but it deals only with interpersonal communication. It has an exceptional section on interpersonal attraction which is not dealt with in any of the other interpersonal texts in this bibliography.


McLuhan has been called the genius and the fool of the electronic age. This text presents his basic views of media. The reading may be somewhat difficult for many secondary students. The teacher might select some of McLuhan's basic premises and present them for open discussion.


This is an excellent source of information on nonverbal communication.


This is probably the most complete and significant text on communication theory since Berlo. It is somewhat technical and needs adapting for secondary students. It is however very comprehensive in its discussion and analysis of human communication.


This excellent collection of articles and essays on communication has many that are perfect for secondary use. The articles on messages are most appropriate. Several of the articles on intrapersonal and interpersonal are also excellent for high school students.

This is the only high school text currently available that combines communication theory with the traditional public speaking emphasis of secondary speech classes. The secondary teacher who wants a text for a communications course will have to choose this one. It is still heavily weighted towards public address.


This was the first important book on listening from the pedagogical point of view. It is still a very good source of material and activities on listening.


This paperback, like *Body Language,* was written for general popular consumption. Therefore it is written in simple language void of research evidence. It is easily usable with high school students. It is an excellent source of visuals to represent various non-verbal behaviors.


This text is somewhat of a standard in the field of persuasion. It can be an important resource to any teacher formulating a unit on oral persuasion.


This best selling paperback is an excellent source of material and examples of how persuasion is used daily by the media to get people to buy certain products or perform actions. Most of the material and examples will be familiar to secondary students.

These three manuals contain games and exercises for use in human relations training. Most of these exercises involve communication and are therefore applicable to the communications course. While the teacher should select exercises with care, most of the ones in this volume can be used in a high school class.


This is an important source of information on small group communication. The material can be adapted to a secondary unit on small group communication.


This is the best source of information explaining the speech classroom as a communications laboratory. This text is strong on criticism of the present approaches to speech instruction. It is heavy on a philosophy and rationale for communications instruction from primary grades through college. It offers some specific suggestions for implementing a communications course. This book is a must for any teacher wanting to use a communications approach to speech instruction.


A very practical text for public and small group discussion. This is a must source for anyone teaching group discussion on the secondary level. It can be used as is with secondary students. One strength of the book is its numerous forms for rating and evaluating discussions.

Powell explains five levels of human communication and gives examples and modern illustrations for each. His most important contribution is his discussion of the roles people play when interacting with each other. This is an important source of information for both intrapersonal and interpersonal communication.


This is a widely used college speech methods text. Although this recent edition does not mention a communications approach, it has a good deal of valuable information on teaching a secondary speech class. The chapter on criticism is especially good.


While this is a book on therapy, it contains a chapter on "Student-Centered Teaching". This chapter is a must for a teacher wanting to use a communications course to develop personal oral skills among students.


This is a collection of various Rogers' articles and excerpts of his speeches. It has an excellent section on teaching and education. It also explains many of the interpersonal skills such as empathy and genuineness. This should be read by all teachers of interpersonal communication.


An important resource on nonverbal communication.

Scheidel presents his view of human communication in this text. His model of communication is somewhat different than most and provides a difference when comparing models or theories. This is a very comprehensive text and emphasizes public communication more than most communication texts.


In this text, Schutz presents his theory of interpersonal behavior based upon three factors. He also presents his FIRO-B instrument used to measure interpersonal behavior. This text is somewhat technical, but contains much valuable information for anyone teaching interpersonal communication.


While this paperback is primarily an introduction to encounter groups, it contains many activities that when carefully selected and administered are appropriate for communication skill development. The book also gives some guidelines on using sensitive activities.


This collection of essays by many communication experts provides an excellent overview of the field of communication theory.


Smith demonstrates how sensitivity can be taught. He debunks the "sensitivity training" fads and presents a systematic approach for teaching people to be more sensitive. He also presents measurement
devices.

Stanford, Gene, and Stanford, Barbara Dodds. Learning Discussion Skills through Games. New York: Citation Press, 1969.

This small paperback is an excellent collection of games and exercises for teaching skills in small group discussion. It presents no content, just games. This is a must resource for someone seeking activities.


In this volume of essays, Stewart presents his view of interpersonal communication. His view that interpersonal communication is a quality not a setting is somewhat unique. His supporting essays are excellent. Overall, this is a very good source for material on interpersonal communication.


This is a very comprehensive discussion of human communication. It is definitely too technical for the average secondary student and may provide some problems for the secondary teacher without a background in communication theory. It illustrates many of its points by using popular dramas.


This is the only text available on teaching mass communication in the secondary school. It is an excellent source of content material and activities. It is a must source for anyone formulating a mass communications unit for the secondary school.
Periodicals


This article was the pioneer effort in suggesting a change to a communications approach in the high school speech class. It develops a rationale and outlines some content areas. It also outlines some appropriate activities.


This issue of this publication is devoted to secondary speech instruction. There are many useful articles appropriate to the communications course.


This issue of this instructional publication is devoted entirely to nonverbal communication. While it focuses on nonverbal behavior in the classroom, it is a rich source of ideas and examples for any unit in nonverbal communication.

Gow, John E. "'Public Speaking or Communication?': Comprehensive Change in the Speech Curriculum." Today's Speech. Fall, 1972.

Gow's article calls for a change from the traditional public speaking emphasis to a communication theory approach. While Gow's comments are directed to the college course, most of his criticisms and many of his recommendations are appropriate to the secondary speech class.

This article attempts to answer the question posed by the title and it also provides a rationale for teaching interpersonal communication in speech.


In this article, Knower tries to bring some organization to the chaos resulting from the widespread use of the term "communication" in speech. He accomplishes his task by categorizing communication and explaining the multidisciplinary nature of communication. He also explains the function of a communicology.


This article provides a simplified explanation of nonverbal communication in easy to understand terms. For the speech teacher, it provides many excellent adaptable examples of nonverbal communication.


This brief article reports on a semi-communications course now being taught by Sister McMahon.


In this article, Stewart reports on the success he and his colleagues have had teaching interpersonal communication at the University of Washington. While he explains the basic course for the college level, much is applicable to a high school communications course.

Sprinthall reports on the movement in the secondary schools toward psychological education. He also reports on successful experiments on teaching interpersonal skills to high school students. This article is a must for any teacher who finds himself having to defend the use of interpersonal-intrapersonal instructional devices in the secondary classroom.


Zima explains his instrument that measures factors involved in interpersonal communication competency. This instrument is easily adaptable for use as a pre-post test for a secondary communications course.

Unpublished Materials


This dissertation outlines a speech curriculum for the junior high grades. Much information that is communications oriented is included.
Cross-reference

To assist the teacher in locating relevant materials, these bibliographic entries have been cross-referenced into important topics. Under each topic appears the names of authors whose works have material relating to the topic.

**Communication Theory**

- Applbaum, Anatol, Hays, Jensen, Porter, and Mandel
- Berlo
- Borden, Gregg, and Grove
- DeVito
- Ellingsworth and Clevenger
- Fabun
- Gibson
- Knower
- Mortensen 1972, 1973
- Scheidel
- Sereno
- Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson

**Intrapersonal Communication**

- Applbaum, Anatol, Hays, Jensen, Porter, and Mandel
- Avila
- Brooks, William D. 1971
- Coombs
- Jourard
- Keltner
- Powell
- Rogers
- Stewart 1973

**Interpersonal Communication**

- Applbaum, Anatol, Hays, Jensen, Porter, and Mandel
- Avila
- Barnlund
- Brooks, William D. 1971
- Carkhuff
- Carkhuff and Berenson
Coombs
Giffin and Patton
Illardo
Johnson
Keltner
Lee
McCroskey
Phillips and Erickson
Rogers
Schutz 1958
Stewart
Smith
Zima

**Group Communication**

Phillips and Erickson
Potter and Anderson
Stanford and Stanford

**Public Communication**

Brooks, William D. 1971
Borden, Gregg, and Grove
Ellingsworth and Clevenger
Makay and Sawyer
Nadeau
Scheidel

**Mass Communication**

Brooks, William D. 1971
Lewis, Everett, Gibson, and Schoen
McLuhan
Wiseman and Wiseman

**Nonverbal Communication**

Bosmajian
Fast
Goffman 1959, 1960
Hall 1959, 1969
Knapp
Mehrabian 1968, 1972
Nierenberg and Calero
Ruesch and Kees
Persuasion

Makay
Oliver
Packard
Scheidel

Listening

Barker
Keltner
Lewis, Everett, Gibson, and Schoen
Nichols and Stevens

Learning Activities

Brooks and Friedrich
Buys, Carlson, Compton, and Frank
Clark, Erway, and Beltzer
Galvin and Book
Giffin and Patton
Keltner
Krupar
Pfeiffer and Jones
Stanford and Stanford
Schutz 1967
Johnson

Instructional Approaches

Allen and Willmington
Braden
Brooks, Deems
Brooks and Friedrich
Buys, Carlson, Compton, and Frank
Clark, Erway, and Beltzer
Fadley
Galvin and Book
Johnson
Lewis, Everett, Gibson, and Schoen
McMahon
Phillips, Dunham, Brubaker, and Butt
Reid
Sprinthall
Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to provide the secondary speech teacher with the necessary resources to investigate a communications approach to high school speech. This was done by providing an annotated bibliography of books, periodicals and unpublished materials. Finally, these sources were cross-referenced into subject-topic areas.
CHAPTER VIII

IMPLICATIONS OF A SECONDARY COMMUNICATIONS COURSE

The communications curricula represents a significant departure from the current curriculum in the basic secondary speech class. The purpose of this chapter is to examine the implications of such a new curriculum. The areas to be considered are: the implications for the administration; the implications for the current educational system; the implications for the teacher; the implications for the student; and the implications for the remaining secondary speech curriculum.

The Administration

Any significant change in the curriculum of a secondary course, as this would be, must be approved by the administration. In reviewing a proposal for a communications curriculum in the high school, a principal or curriculum coordinator, should make an effort to understand the factors which are behind the suggested change. Buys, et. al. contend:

The administration should become familiar with the suggested program and the implications involved in undertaking such a program. It will want to become acquainted with the basic litera-
ture of communication theory and understand that effective speech communication curricula do not deal primarily or solely with the needs, interests, and skills of solitary speakers, but that all the ingredients of the communicative process are the data of speech education. (4:301)

Since this curriculum may be significantly different from the expectations parents may have of a "speech class" and due to the sensitive nature of working in intrapersonal and interpersonal communication, the administration will want to be familiar with the communications curricula and its objectives so that questions from parents can be answered. The speech teacher should proceed with full implementation of this curriculum only after securing the full approval and support of the administration.

A second administrative person that needs to be consulted is the counselor. The cooperation of the counselor who schedules students into the communications class is vital. In most cases, counselors view the speech class as a "wastebasket" or "dumping ground" for problem students or students of low ability. (82:262) The counselor can make or break a new course by the type of students he channels into it. Therefore, the counselor or counselors should be fully informed about any curriculum change and the nature of the new course in terms of its objectives, content, and activities. The speech teacher
may even find it helpful to discuss what types of students might benefit from a communications course and what type of student might be uncomfortable in the course.

Finally, Buys, et. al. state:

Perhaps the most important administration challenge will be finding -- or the making -- of teachers adequately trained to handle speech communication curricula. In those cases where new personnel are not available, in-service training for interested teachers is a possibility. Teacher institutes and special classes for retraining purposes should be made available. (4:301)

The administration, once it gives its approval and support to a new communications curricula, must be willing to provide funds for the needed equipment (videotape recorders) and resources.

The System

The system of education or "schooling" of children has come under attack from many quarters recently. Illych, Holt, Kohl and Silberman have severely attacked "the system" as the root of all of our educational problems. While this may be an exaggeration of the fact, the system is designed to resist change and innovation. The implementation of a communications course may come into direct conflict with "the system." The teacher proposing such a course should consider two main points of confrontation -- grading and
class structure.

Grading

The most obvious point of confrontation is the matter of grading and grades. Many of the authors cited in this document have criticized current grading practices in the speech classroom. The practice of grading every student's oral performance has been challenged. Phillips, et al. have called grades for speeches a "demoralizing" weapon that "should be discarded as a pedagogical tool." (22:147) John Gow suggests, "traditional methods of examination may also need change." (7:23) Finally, Buys, et al., conclude, "the use of traditional grading and testing systems may be unwise." (4:301) These statements indicate that some of the writers who advocate change in the secondary speech course also advocate change in the grading systems. This change could cause a direct conflict with a system that calls for regular six-weeks grades based upon what the students are doing (performing) in the class.

The implementation of a communications course does not mean the total elimination of grades, although this may be desirable. Much research needs to be done on grades in speech classes before any definitive conclusions can be made. What is called for is the elimination of grades from
every or most student oral performances. It is appropriate for students to demonstrate a level of competency for a grade after the students are allowed to practice the skills. Students should not be graded everytime they perform some oral activity in class. Grades can be determined on the basis of group or individual contracts. These contracts can state what a student intends to learn and what he intends to do to achieve his goal. Implicit in each contract is a system for evaluation or grading. The system can be designed to meet the specific needs of students. Therefore, the grading system may or may not include grades on oral performances. Six-weeks or intermediary grades can be given to reflect the amount of progress toward the overall goal or separate contract has been made for that grading period.

In summary, the authors calling for change to a communications course also call for changes in the traditional grading practices. These changes may conflict with the "system" of a particular school. If the system prohibits any changes in the grading system, this does not mean that a communications course cannot be implemented. It may only mean modifications in course structure and objectives. Such modification may reduce the effectiveness of a communications course.
Classroom Structure

A second area of potential conflict between a communications course and "the system" concerns the common standard and expectation of a "good" classroom with a "proper" learning environment.

Room Arrangement

Teachers have always been rewarded for having nice neat rows and quiet classrooms. Seemingly, the system equates learning with quiet and complete order. Obviously the nature of the activities of a communications course preclude the straight rows with quiet, attentive students listening to the teacher in the front of the room. In fact, a good learning situation in a communications class may appear to an observer to be chaos. Obviously, the speech class cannot disturb other classes, but there must be the freedom to rearrange the environment to suit the instructional goals, not the expectations of others. The system also values teacher talk over student talk. Kenneth Brown points out:

Teachers in the early primary grades encourage and reinforce student talk, but beginning around the third grade teacher talk begins to increase and amount of praise decreases as does acceptance of student ideas and amount of student-initiated response. In higher grades, the transfer of information from
teacher to student seems to be more important than teacher - student and student - student interaction. To the teacher, the acquisition of information supercedes the process of learning. Typical teaching behavior is 'telling' and student behavior is 'listening'. (10:28)

Similarly, John Holt concludes:

Our schools and teachers have in a very real sense taken away, stolen from most people words, talk, language, with all its power and possibilities. For they do not say to children, 'language, words belong to you, for you to use, for your purposes, your growth, your needs.' On the contrary, they say, 'You may not talk ... except when we tell you, and then only about what we want you to talk about, and in the way we want you to talk about it. All other talk and ways of talking are illegal, to be repressed and punished.' (83:176)

Is it not somewhat ironic that one of the often stated goals of education is to promote the socialization process and we typically accomplish this by putting 20 to 30 energetic and enthusiastic young people next to each other and warn them not to talk to each other?

Obviously, this is contrary to the communications curriculum suggested. If anything, student talk is to be more valued than teacher talk.

A final, but negotiable, area of possible conflict between the communications course and the system is the need for flexibility. Buys, et. al., suggest, an effective speech communication program will depend upon involvement
of the student in reality-based experiences, provision must be made for student mobility, flexible scheduling, and wide use of field trips. (4:301) Anne McMahon, a Wisconsin high school teacher who proposes the adoption of a communications approach, points to the problem of flexible scheduling. Many of the activities require some flexibility in room use and in students' time. She says,

The time arrangement which may be used for the accomplishment of these objectives may consist of a single large group session early in the week followed by two small group sessions at intervals during the week. Activities for a week or a unit may be cued during the large group session and then continued during the week. (21:157)

The master plan for the building use and the scheduling of students' time during the school day would supercede the speech class, but hopefully there will be room for flexibility.

**The Teacher**

The teacher appears to be the most important factor in implementing a communications curriculum because he is "the only professional in the classroom" and it is through his efforts that any curriculum is successful or not. There seems to be nine specific implications of a communications curriculum for the teacher. Most of them deal with atti-
attitudes, behaviors and procedures teachers should have or employ.

**The Teacher as a Listener**

The teacher should be a good listener. The typical teaching pattern is for the teacher to talk and students to listen. In a communications course, where students are encouraged to verbalize their thoughts, feelings and learnings, teachers must learn to LISTEN to students. Unfortunately, teachers are not very good listeners as a whole. Phillips, et. al. point out, "The listener behavior of a teacher can be a tremendous inhibiting factor on learning, and negate the positive aspects of encoding functions." (22:15) They suggest four ways a teacher can become a better listener.

A. The teacher should be receptive to students' and their ideas.

B. The teacher should listen with sincerity and trust.

C. The teacher should listen for what was meant.

D. The teacher should become an auxiliary figure through listening.

By an auxiliary figure, Phillips, et. al., mean;

... the teacher allows himself to become a listener for a greater portion of the time. (Doing this) he will notice changes in the classroom behavior. Students at first will flounder, but eventually they will emerge as
curious initiators of learning. The teacher can assume the position of auxiliary -- a helper in the learning process but not chief disseminator of information. (22:17)

The Teacher and Classroom Atmosphere

The teacher should avoid creating traumatic situations in the classroom. Traumatic occurrences are situations that threaten the self-concept or the general "OK" feelings of the student. The goal of the speech communication is to be non-threatening so students can feel free to experiment and grow. Clark, Erway and Beltzer see the primary job of the teacher in a communications course as working, "to achieve an atmosphere devoid of personal threat, which might distort accurate communication." (57:23) Phillips agrees that, "Students need places where they can practice at making mistakes ... oral communication offers precisely such an opportunity to try and to fail without penalty."

(22:154) Clark, et. al. have coined the phrase "communications laboratory" to explain the type of atmosphere they see appropriate for the speech classroom. They see, "All of the problems of human communication can occur in the classroom, yet the participants are relieved of the necessity of suffering the consequences of their failures." (57:23) Again Phillips agrees that students, "may even use the
speech classroom as a laboratory where they can practice the actual presentation they are assigned to make in some other classroom." (22:154)

The Teacher and a Permissive Style

In order to accomplish or create an open, protected, non-threatening atmosphere, the teacher must have a basically permissive teaching style. Unfortunately, the term "permissiveness" has been given many negative connotations by many people, especially administrators. It is often interpreted as meaning absolute freedom to destroy property, no restrictions or control, freedom to create chaos, and freedom to do what one pleases at the expense of others. That is not how the term is used here. As used here, permissiveness means the style of the teacher that encourages students to be themselves -- to have their own ideas, beliefs, and values. Permissiveness in this sense is characterized and created by an atmosphere of acceptance, empathy, respect, and genuine understanding. The teacher, in effect, gives each student the permission to "be himself" instead of constantly trying to fit himself, his ideas and beliefs into an artificial mold created by the teacher. In "transactional" terms, the teacher lets each student know that he is "OK"
and constantly strives to reinforce the students own feelings of "OK-ness".

This permissive style and the accompanying open, non-threatening environment is a prerequisite to the learning of communication skills especially interpersonal skills. These skills require personal risk-taking and exploration by the students and this will happen only when the atmosphere and teaching style is conducive. In their curricular suggestions, Buys, et. al., call for "a climate of freedom" to "pervade the speech communication classroom". They caution the teacher to "avoid an environment which forces the student to turn to him for direction and reinforcement." (4:33) Phillips, et. al., also call for permissiveness on the part of the teacher. They conclude, "Generally, it takes a reasonably permissive atmosphere in a classroom to create a favorable climate for, and need for oral communication. The permissiveness also provides the conditions for meeting individual needs instead of treating all students exactly alike." (22:21) Similarly, W. W. Purkey writes:

It is difficult for self-esteem to grow in an environment where there is little or no freedom of choice. If the student is to grow and develop as an adequate human being, he needs the opportunity to make meaningful decisions for himself. This also means that he must have the freedom to make mistakes, and even to laugh at his inadequacies. When the student has a say in
his own development and is given personal decisions to make, he develops faith in his own judgement and thoughts. (84:261-262)

This discussion of permissiveness is not related to class structure or discipline. The teacher must have control of his class at all times. This can be done while also maintaining a permissive style.

In summary, then, permissiveness is an important and necessary ingredient in teaching speech communication. It is usually created by the teacher's attitudes and nonverbal behavior rather than verbalizations.

The Teacher and Cooperative Planning

To effectively accomplish a student-centered course, the students should be given some active role in the planning throughout the course. There are many opportunities where students can assist in determining the next units or activity. Students can often assist in choosing instructional strategies for implementing a particular unit. If the course is truly for the students and not for the teacher, students should actively participate in meaningful planning decisions. Allowing students to assist in planning develops responsibility and helps communicates respect and acceptance of students' ideas.
Calling for student participation in curricular planning, does not imply that the teacher should let the students "take over the class." This does not imply that the teacher should always allow the students to "throw away all of the teacher's plans." The teacher is the only "professional" in the classroom and must rely on his professional judgement. John Gow, who strongly advocates student participation in curriculum planning, says:

I am not advising that teachers abdicate the teaching role; but I do believe that if it is shared, the result would be an enrichment of learning for all. I am assuming that active participation in a course is more beneficial than passive response, that motivation to learn will increase if the student is treated as a resource with something positive to contribute. (7:22)

Thus, active student involvement in some phases of curriculum planning is appropriate for a student-centered communications course.

The Teacher and Peer Communication

The teacher should encourage peer communication. This practice is implicit in the curriculum. If students are to learn to communicate better, the best place to begin is with each other in the class. The communication should be meaningful and not always specified. Besides the interaction between students, the teacher should encourage open and
honest feedback. Several exercises have been provided to encourage this. The communication, interaction and feedback, between students in a speech communication class provides an opportunity for students to really get to know each other which also facilitates good communication and healthy relationships. Clark, et. al. say:

Rarely do we recognize the critical importance of devoting extensive time within a given classroom to the primary research of getting to know each other in depth so that whatever verbal and nonverbal communication proceeds between and among the inhabitants of the classroom -- the world -- can be built on a more solid and meaningful ground of what we know about each other -- not what we think we know about each other, not what others have told us about each other, not what the conventional labels that we use for each other dupe us into thinking we know about each other. (57:78)

The Teacher as a Facilitator

The teacher should act as a facilitator in the classroom. The communications curriculum calls for a different role for the teacher -- a facilitator. The class should be student-centered, not teacher-centered. If the students are going to be allowed to assist in the planning and the development of their communication competencies is the prime goal of the class, the teacher must act as a facilitator
-- a director -- of various learning activities designed to achieve the course objectives. Buys, claims that, "the learning-teaching process in a speech communication course cannot be the traditional teaching procedure based on telling." The teacher must "facilitate (an) effective learning-teaching environment." (4:301) Galvin and Book say that in an interpersonal-communications curriculum, "learning is doing that which is relevant and of interest to the doer. The teacher becomes defined as a facilitator, a person who cares, a person who responds to questions and requests for growth. The teacher as a 'god' is dead." (40:ix) Clark, et. al., provide an explanation of the "facilitator" role when they say:

The teacher is viewed as a 'facilitator' who uses his skills when they are needed to assist the group. The teacher, as a facilitator, gives information and directs the discussion as needed, but he does not establish himself as the sole leader of the group. The students sense a greater relevancy of the subject matter to their own lives and gain a greater understanding of themselves. (57:19)

Thus the implication of the communication approach is for a change in the traditional role of the teacher in the classroom. The change from a dispenser and leader of all learning to a facilitator also involves the switch from a teacher-centered class to a student-centered class. The main
characteristic of this switch is a lessened emphasis on the learning of an X amount of information to the development of the students as communicators. Kenneth Brown wants teachers to, "be less concerned with teaching a given body of information and more with interaction as a process of individual growth and development. (10:28) In the same manner, Clark, et al. described their student centered communications course as one in which, "the old lecture format for presenting material be put aside and that the emphasis be put upon how the student deals with substantive material rather than on how he retains it. In place of stressing a student's ability to recall notes, we would prefer that the student be forced to make some decisions about ideas and the utilization of data." (57:vii)

The Teacher as an Evaluator

The teacher should act as a positive, supportive influence on his students. Traditionally, the speech teacher has acted as a "professional critic" when students perform. The speech teacher has attempted to give students both good and bad criticisms. The "jam sandwich" approach, where "negative comments are sandwiched in between positive ones" has been a recommended practice. The communications course with its totally non-threatening environment, seeks a change
towards the teacher giving only positive feedback. Jeffery N. Golub, a high school teacher in Washington State, claims:

Students at the secondary school level need -- in varying amounts and frequency -- approval, direction, and reassurance that their work is acceptable and that their teachers, think well of them as individuals. (85:140)

This notion is akin to the behavior modification principles that come from B. F. Skinner's operant conditioning. The difference is that speech teachers in using positive feedback are not trying to change bad behaviors as much as they are trying to develop positive self-concepts. The effective communicator is one with a healthy self concept and is working from a strong "I'm OK" position. When students strip away their defenses in a communications course by being honest, open, and genuine, the teacher should respond only in positive ways. Any mis-directed negative criticism could negate future open communicative attempts. Purkey explains:

The self is remarkably conservative, and once a child has formed a negative image of himself as a learner, the task of the teacher becomes extremely difficult. Therefore, the prevention of negative self concepts is a vital first step in teaching. (84:255)
The Teacher as a Director of Communication Activities

The teacher must be careful in using sensitive activities and remain within his area of expertise. Many of the activities involve some real "soul searching" for students and "opening-up." The teacher must be sure of his ability to handle these situations wisely and professionally. The nature of intrapersonal and interpersonal communication is very personal and sensitive. The teacher should examine each exercise in terms of his students abilities and maturity. Galvin and Book point out:

Your students may appear to be quite mature, but there will be moments when they cannot, or do not, choose to deal with certain intrapersonal or interpersonal issues. Exercise thoughtful discretion when using intrapersonal and interpersonal activities. If rapport among the students is not conducive to certain activities, or if certain students are particularly uncomfortable participating in certain exercises, do not use the exercises in class. (40:xv)

The teacher should also examine his reasons for using certain exercises. If he is convinced the activities are useful in helping his students to understand and practice certain appropriate communication skills, he should use the exercises. If however, he wants to try out an activity to "see what happens" or to "see what the kids will do or say," he should choose less sensitive activities. The
teacher who does not act with caution and with sense can cause more trouble than good.

The nature of intrapersonal and interpersonal communication is that it deals with the core of one's personality. A teacher who encourages open, honest communication and responds with openness and sincerity may become involved in students' personal matters. This is where the speech teacher needs to examine his limits of expertise. Do not try to "pry out" student problems and do not try to handle student problems that are outside of your expertise. Refer such matters to competent professionals; do not try to play psychologist in the speech classroom. Galvin and Book warn:

Because communication necessarily involves human relations, you may begin to become involved in student concerns beyond the scope of class concerns. Try to relate student reactions or concerns to the communication process and remain within your own area of competence. Do not become a counselor or psychologist. Recognize the limitations of your area of expertise and act accordingly. (40:xvi)

The Teacher's Personality

The teacher should have a personality compatible with the goals of the communications course. While a secondary speech communications class is not a course in "personality training," the goals of effective communication are integral
to a healthy personality. The teacher who is trying to develop certain communication competencies by establishing and maintaining a non-threatening and supportive atmosphere, must possess certain personality characteristics. Carkhuff and Rogers have identified the characteristics needed to be a facilitator. It is necessary for the speech communication teacher to communicate respect and trust to his students while being genuinely empathetic. Phillips, et al. maintain:

... we tend to communicate more openly and honestly with individual we feel we can trust. The potentially explosive circumstances surrounding teacher-student communication will become more manageable when both realize that in order to do more than endure each other in mutual distrust teachers as well as students must first be willing to discover how well they may serve each other. (22:75)

What teachers must do is to examine the nature of the content, activities and implications involved in teaching a communications course. In doing so, many will find themselves unsuited for the task. Many may find themselves uncomfortable dealing with students in the manner suggested. Those who feel that their personalities are not suited to teaching communication as outlined in this document should not try. The teacher, his personality and his feelings about himself and his subject matter are the most important
factors for success of a communications course. John Makay contends:

... the most salient factor for creating an exciting and 'real world' course, in my view, is the individual classroom instructor and what he brings to guide his students. One can know all of the latest theories, be apprised of all the most exciting games and activities derived from behavioral science and the rhetorical tradition and know a great deal about test construction, but if one is an unexciting, unimaginative, stuffy, teacher out of touch with the place 'our students heads' are at', the teaching-learning environment and it relationship to the real world is bound to drag and an artificial experience in tedious time consumption for the majority of students in the course. (86)

In essence, this means that a teacher of a communications course must possess certain personality characteristics. If he does not, he should stay with what he is comfortable and effective at teaching. As Makay further states:

as instructors of speech communication, especially interpersonal communication, we must be open, genuine, positive, exciting in developing quality in our relationship with students in the facilitation of learning which in turn can have a lasting effect on what our students take with them when they leave the classroom and the experiences with our courses. (86)
One way a teacher can examine his suitability to teach a communications approach to the secondary speech class would be to answer the following questions:

- Am I projecting an image that tells the student that I am here to build, rather than to destroy?

- Do I let the student know that I am aware of and interested in him as a unique person?

- Do I convey my expectations and confidence that the student can accomplish work, can learn, and is competent?

- Do I encourage students to try something new and to join in new activities?

- Do I allow students to have a voice in planning, and do I permit them to help make the rules they follow?

- Do I permit students to challenge my opinions?

- Do I distinguish between students' classroom mistakes and their personal failure?

- Do I avoid unfair and ruthless competition in the classroom?

- Do I learn the name of each student as soon as possible, and do I use that name often?

- Do I share my feelings with my students?

- Do I practice courtesy with my students?

- Do I arrange some time when I can talk quietly alone with each student?

- Do I spread my attention around and include each student, keeping special watch for the student who may need extra attention?

- Do I notice and comment favorable on the things that are important to students?
- Do I show students who return after being absent that I am happy to have them back in class, and that they were missed?

- Do I remember to see small disciplinary problems as understandable, and not as personal insults?

- Do I avoid having 'favorites' and 'victims'?

- Do I usually make it through the day without punishing students?

- Do I permit my students some opportunity to make mistakes without penalty?

- Do I make generally positive comments on oral performances?

- Do I give extra support and encouragement to slower students?

- Do I take special opportunities to praise students for their successes?

- Do I manufacture honest experiences of success for my students?

- Do I have doubts about the usefulness of speech as it is currently taught (public speaking)?

- Do I feel that communication competency can be learned?

- Do I feel students can and should learn to develop skills in intrapersonal and interpersonal communication?

- Am I convinced that the subject matter and activities outlined in this document belong in the secondary speech classroom?

While these questions are keyed to many characteristics important to teaching communications, they also represent many of the characteristics of good teaching in general.
What is important is that if a secondary speech teacher answers most or many of these questions negatively, there is good reason to believe that this teacher may not be very comfortable teaching a communications course as outlined in this document using the procedures recommended. The teacher who responds "no" to most of these questions may be more comfortable teaching the traditional public speaking oriented secondary speech course.

The Students

A change from a traditional public speaking oriented speech class to a communications approach will have several important implications for the students. It will automatically effect students' expectations. Too often speech has been viewed as an easy course with little work other than a few speeches. Its popularity has also resulted from its being a "fun course". Hopefully, the switch to a communications orientation will not take any of the "fun" out, but it surely will add some work. Many of the assignments entail a great deal of out-of-class work as well as in-class productivity. The expectations of little or no work that have been perpetuated by counselors (82) will not be fulfilled. The communications approach, especially when taught as a student-centered class, will require students
to assume much more of the responsibility in the classroom. Opportunities for self improvement in meaningful areas of one's life will be available. However, just attending class and doing "some of the work" will not bring about behavior change. Students' will have to provide motivation for change and work for it. The old maxim that you "get out of it what you put into it" is certainly appropriate for a communications course.

The student-centeredness, the call for open and honest communication and the nature of the intrapersonal and interpersonal activities will confront students with something very new and some of them may have difficulty in dealing with it. Students are not accustomed to being open and honest and self-disclosing with teachers and even their peers within the confines of the classroom. Many will be very uncomfortable at first. They will probably think this is another version of the old "academic game" students play with teachers to "psych them out". Little will be accomplished until the students perceive the teacher as being genuine and the curriculum and its activities as offering something of value. David Johnson offers some advice to students when he says:
While you practice the behaviors involved in the skills discussed, you may at first feel self-conscious and awkward. Practicing the behaviors may sometimes seem more like role-playing than genuine behavior. Do not let this stand in the way of increasing your interpersonal skills. It is through role-playing that most new skills are developed. If you keep practicing the behaviors, the self-consciousness and awkwardness will pass and you will become quite comfortable in using your increased skills. (55:6)

The most important factor effecting the behavior and improvement or lack of improvement in a communications course is peer group approval. The teacher must not only try to motivate individuals to strive for improvement; the teacher must work very hard at creating an atmosphere of group approval. The class must operate as a group and as a supportive group. Again Johnson says:

In learning new skills, the approval of a group is a powerful source of motivation and support. The group should consciously try to give approval to those members who are seriously trying to increase their interpersonal skills. The more a person practices and develops these skills the more group approval he should receive. By the same token, if a group supports members' attempts to experiment with new behavior and take risks in trying out their new skills, everyone's progress will be enhanced. There are few influences upon our behavior more powerful than a group of friends. Using the group influence to facilitate our learning is one of the most constructive ways of ensuring the development of our interpersonal skills. (55:7)
In summary, the students must come to recognize the values and opportunities a communications course offers. Many will not want to accept this responsibility. They should have an alternative course available. Students' understanding, acceptance and cooperation with the course objectives is imperative for the success of a communications course.

The Curriculum

Many secondary schools, especially those with extensive speech programs, have a curriculum which builds on itself. The first course provides basic skills needed for other courses. Students taking an advanced debate course should have had public speaking experience, persuasion experience and even some debate experience in the basic course. Students who take a drama course should have had some background in speaking, voice control and breathing techniques from the basic course. A switch from a traditional-activity oriented or fundamentals-oriented basic course to a communications course will necessitate some changes in the other speech courses. After such a course as discussed in this document, the student would enter any other speech course with an understanding of the theory behind the communication effort and would have basic...
communication competencies, but he may lack knowledge in some areas like the vocal or breathing apparatus, the areas of the stage, or the duties of the first negative speaker. The student may lack some experience in "formal activities" of speech. Therefore any change in the basic secondary speech course, which is implied in this discussion, would require a change in the total speech curriculum. The teachers involved need to determine the goals, objectives of their program and design a curriculum that will best meet those goals. It is possible that the traditional course may best meet those needs.

Summary

The change from a traditional secondary speech course to a communications approach should be made only after the implications of a change upon the administration, the system, the teacher, the students and the curriculum are considered. A hasty or half-hearted change almost invites failure. The uppermost consideration must always be what is best for the students.
CHAPTER IX
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the secondary school speech course in terms of recent challenges and recommendations for a change to a communications approach. This was accomplished by examining the speech course as currently taught in most secondary schools. From this "traditional approach", a set of underlying assumptions were formulated. The literature on speech education (since 1968) was examined to determine what criticisms have been made against the speech course and its traditional curriculum. The specific recommendations for change were analyzed and categorized. The characteristics of a communications approach were identified. The literature on communication theory and interpersonal communication was examined for the purpose of determining some consensus definitions and content areas appropriate for such a recommended secondary communications course. Finally, a curriculum data-base was
presented to serve as a resource for secondary speech teachers wanting to implement an alternative speech curriculum. This data-base included: a rationale for a communications approach; an explanation and rationale for an integrated curricular approach; alternative assumptions for a communications course; appropriate content-subject matter areas for a communications course; appropriate content-matched learning activities for a communications curriculum to assist learning; appropriate instructional strategies for implementing the communications curriculum; and an annotated list of resources available to teachers appropriate for planning and teaching a communications course. Finally, the implications of such a curriculum for the secondary level were examined.

Conclusions

Based upon the data generated and analyzed in this document, the following conclusions seem warranted:

1. The traditional secondary speech course is predominately oriented towards performing activities in public communication.

2. There is ample evidence of stagnation and criticism of current practices to warrant a re-examination of the traditional approach, its goals,
and it's instructional procedures.

3. The prime suggestion for change in the secondary speech course is the adoption of a communications approach.

4. Communication and interpersonal communication skills can be identified, measured and taught.

5. An appropriate communications curriculum can be formulated for the secondary speech course.

6. Any secondary speech curriculum must involve skill development along with acquisition of cognitive learnings.

7. Some resources and strategies are available to assist the secondary teacher in implementing a communications curriculum.

Recommendations

Based upon the data generated and analyzed in this document, the following recommendations seem warranted:

To the Secondary Speech Teachers:

1. The suggested communications curriculum should be implemented as the first course or first semester of the basic secondary speech course.
2. The course should be called "communications" instead of "speech".

3. The students who demonstrate significant speech anxieties (stagefright) should be referred to the school counselor or a professional trained in systematic desensitization procedures.

4. The practice of giving grades for all oral performances should be modified. Alternative grading procedures for the communications course should be explored.

5. The teacher should create a student-centered class rather than a teacher-centered course.

To the Secondary Administrators:

1. The administrator should encourage the speech teacher to investigate alternative approaches to teaching the basic speech course.

2. The administrator should familiarize himself with the literature on the communications approach.

3. The administrator should try to make available the equipment and resources needed to implement a curriculum change.
4. The administrator should explore flexibility of scheduling students into speech communication classes and work with the speech teacher in exploring alternative grading procedures.

To the Teacher Training Institutions:

1. The colleges should include courses in communication theory, intra- and interpersonal communication, small group communication, public communication, and mass communication as part of the curricula for perspective speech teachers.

2. The colleges should integrate theory and developmental practice as part of their communication and interpersonal courses.

3. The speech methods course should devote some time to examining subject matter, sample curricula, and instructional strategies appropriate for teaching a communications approach.

4. The student teaching experience should allow for some experimenting under supervision with communication approaches.

To the Speech Scholars and Researchers:

1. The speech researcher should identify the important skills in oral communication.
2. The speech researcher should **identify** the most appropriate and reliable **techniques** for developing communication skills.

3. The speech scholars need to **develop more resources** for secondary teachers to use in teaching communication.

4. The speech scholars and researchers need to **write** textbooks appropriate for a secondary speech communications class.

5. The speech educators, scholars, and researchers should test the theories presented in this document in an effort to validate them or replace them with more appropriate methods of teaching secondary students how to communicate.
APPENDIX
Appendix A

The Johari Window

The Johari Window (named after its originators, Joseph Luft and Harry Ingham) represents the awareness people have of themselves. The four areas of awareness are represented in the model of the "window" below.

```
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Known To Self</th>
<th>Not Known To Self</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Known To Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Known To Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

The teacher can have students fill out their own "window". After some exercises in feedback or self-disclosure, students can draw another window for themselves and compare the results.

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Appendix B

PRCS Form

This instrument can easily be used by classroom speech teachers to measure the amount of anxiety or perceived anxiety students have toward public speaking. The form as presented below can be reproduced by the teacher and scored. The underlined answer indicates anxiety. Teachers can determine class averages to aid in detecting those with high anxieties or the teacher can use the scoring criteria used by Gordon Paul.

Personel Report on Confidence as a Speaker Form

Instructions: This instrument is composed of 30 items regarding your feelings of confidence as a speaker. After each question there is a "true" and a "false". Try to decide whether "true" or "false" most represents your feelings associated with your most recent speech, then put a circle around the "true" or "false". This information is confidential and will only be known to you and your teacher. Work quickly and don't spend too much time on any one question. We want your first impression on this questionnaire. Be sure to answer every question.

1. I look forward to an opportunity to speak in public. T F

2. My hands tremble when I try to handle objects on the platform. T F

3. I am in constant fear of forgetting my speech. T F

4. Audiences seem friendly when I address them. T F

5. While preparing a speech I am in a constant state of anxiety. T F
6. At the conclusion of a speech I feel that I have had a pleasant experience. T F
7. I dislike to use my voice and body expressively. T F
8. My thoughts become confused and jumbled when I speak before an audience. T F
9. I have no fear of facing an audience. T F
10. Although I am nervous just before getting up I soon forget my fears and enjoy the experience. T F
11. I face the prospect of making a speech with complete confidence. T F
12. I feel that I am in complete possession of myself when speaking. T F
13. I prefer to have notes on the platform in case I forget my speech. T F
14. I like to observe the reactions of my audience to my speech. T F
15. Although I talk fluently with friends I am at a loss for words on the platform. T F
16. I feel relaxed and comfortable while speaking. T F
17. Although I do not enjoy speaking in public I do not particularly dread it. T F
18. I always avoid speaking in public if possible. T F
19. The faces of my audience are blurred when I look at them. T F
20. I feel disgusted with myself after trying to address a group of people. T F
21. I enjoy preparing a talk. T F
22. My mind is clear before getting up to speak. T F
23. I am fairly fluent. T F

24. I perspire and tremble just before getting up to speak. T F

25. My posture feels strained and unnatural while speaking in front of an audience. T F

26. I am fearful and tense all the while I am speaking before a group of people. T F

27. I find the prospect of speaking mildly pleasant. T F

28. It is difficult for me to calmly search my mind for the right words to express my thoughts. T F

29. I am terrified at the thought of speaking before a group of people. T F

30. I have a feeling of alertness in facing an audience. T F

This form can be used by the teacher as a pre-post-test to measure the effectiveness of anxiety training or even a speech course. The teacher can also collect scores from classes over a period of time to aid in determining abnormal scores.

Appendix C

Fear Inventory

Using the form below, teachers can gather data on individual students or whole classes regarding their reactions to fear. Tabulations can be made and discussed as a group or a private discussion can be arranged with individual students.

Fear Inventory Form

Instructions: The following statements deal with physical reactions to fear usually associated with speaking in public. Note "yes" if you have experienced this reaction and "no" if you have not. Space is provided for your answer.

Mouth dries out __________
Mouth gets wet __________
Blush __________
Get red spots (blotches) __________
Hair stands on end (goose bumps) __________
Spine tingles __________
Hands are hot __________
Hands perspire __________
Feel warm all over __________
Perspire all over __________
Voice gets high and tight
Voice gets hoarse
Nervous
Tense
Tremble
Hands shake
Knees tremble
Shortness of breath
Breathe fast
Hands get cold
Heart beats more rapidly
Cramps
Butterflies in the stomach
Other (______________________________)

This form can be used by the teacher in many useful ways. It can be very helpful for gathering data regarding fear and anxiety reactions to public speaking.

Appendix D

Audience Analysis

The following form can be given to students before they are to give a speech in-class to an imagined audience. The use of this form can aid students in adapting a speech to a specific audience and it can aid the teacher in determining what processes and adaptations were intended.

Audience Analysis Form

Name ___________________________ Date _____________________

Title of Speech __________________________________________________

1. Specific group I'm addressing: ____________________________________

2. Specific purpose of my speech: ________________________________

3. Number of people in audience: ________________________________

4. Sex of audience: ________________________________

5. Educational background of audience: __________________________

6. Average age of audience: ________________________________

7. My membership in this group is:
   a. elected ______
   b. voluntary ______
   c. compulsory ______
8. Attitude of audience toward me:
   a. they respect me
   b. they know me well
   c. they don't know me
   d. they dislike me
   e. I don't know

9. My attitude toward the audience:
   a. I like most of them
   b. I know most of them
   c. I don't know most of them
   d. I have no attitude

10. Interests of my audience:
    a. they like to save money
    b. they are interested in change
    c. they don't like to change
    d. they have little interest in the group
    e. they are aware they have a problem

11. Place of speaking:
    a. there will be a speaker's stand
    b. the audience will be comfortable
c. the acoustics will be good

d. there will be a public address system

Appendix E

Group Observer Form

The following form can be given to students who act as observers of groups. The form gives them certain areas to evaluate and gives them an easy way to report their observations. The form can be used to report on the whole group or it can be adapted to report on one member who is being observed.

Group Process Observer Report Form

Members of group: ________________________________________________

Topic of group: __________________________________________________

Interpersonal Communication Skills

1. Expressing (verbal and nonverbal)-

2. Listening -

3. Responding -

Communication Patterns

4. Directionality (one-to-one, one-to-group, all through the leader) -

5. Content (cognitive, affective) -

Leadership

6. Major roles (record names)
   information processor -
   coordinator -
evaluator -
harmonizer -
gatekeeper -
follower -
blocker -
recognition seeker -
dominator -
avoider -

7. Leadership style
   ___ democratic   ___ autocratic   ___ laissez-faire

8. Leadership effects
   ___ eager participation
   ___ low commitment
   ___ resisting
   ___ lack of enthusiasm
   ___ holding back

Climate

9. Feeling tone of the meeting -

10. Cohesiveness -

Goals

11. Explicitness -

12. Commitment to agreed upon goals -
Situational Variables

13. Group size -

14. Time limit -

15. Physical facilities -

Group Development

16. Stage of development -

17. Rate of development -

Observer Reactions

18. Feelings experienced during the observation -

19. Feelings "here and now" -

20. Hunches, speculations, ideas, etc. about the processes observed -

Overall Rating

21. Overall I would rate the effectiveness of this group as being -

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