

ORAL COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO LANGUAGE ACHIEVEMENT
AND ATTITUDES TOWARD THE LANGUAGE ARTS
AMONG SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS

by

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APPROVAL SHEET

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Relationship to Language Achievement and
Attitudes Toward the Language Arts among
Sixth Grade Students

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ABSTRACT

Title of dissertation: Oral Communication Apprehension and Its
Relationship to Language Achievement and
Attitudes Toward the Language Arts

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Dissertation directed by: Dr. Jessie Roderick
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This study examined the occurrence of oral communication apprehension (OCA) among 547 sixth grade students in two Maryland schools. The focus was on the relationship between OCA and language achievement, as well as attitudes towards the language arts including sex differences.

The Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (McCroskey, 1977) was administered to categorize the subjects into five OCA levels - Low, Moderately Low, Moderate, Moderately High, and High. The scores gained on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills - Language Subtest were used to assess students' levels of language achievement, and their attitudes toward the language arts were measured by their scores on the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale (Arlin-Hills)

Frequencies and percentages were computed for estimating differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among the groups and sexes while Chi-square analysis was used for testing significance of sex differences. Two-way ANOVA and Scheffé test for testing significance of sex differences in language achievement and attitudes to the language

arts, as well as one-way ANOVA and intercorrelations of the scores of the PRCF and the two other measures were done to assess relationships between these variables.

The following were the findings:

1. The High OCA group consisted of 15 percent of the sample, the Low 16 percent and the three combined Moderate OCA groups 69 percent.

2. Sex differences in the occurrence of OCA at each level were of no statistical significance, but slightly more girls than boys were highly apprehensive about oral communication.

3. The Low and Moderate OCA girls' groups scored significantly higher in language achievement than boys in these groups.

4. Sex differences in attitudes toward the language arts were not significant.

5. There was a relationship between OCA and language achievement indicated by a statistically significant difference among the five group means and the high apprehensives scored below the sample mean, while the low apprehensives scored above.

6. There was no relationship between OCA and attitudes towards the language arts as there was no statistically significant difference among the five OCA group means for the attitude scale.

DEDICATION

To my parents for teaching me persistence and a love of learning

To my husband James for being a tower of strength and a soothing
presence

To my children Helen and Peter for being so understanding,
supportive and helpful

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It is with a deep sense of gratitude that the writer acknowledges the contributions of several persons who have helped to make this dissertation a reality.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Communication is the sine qua non of human interaction. Indeed, communication is synonymous with being human. Because the process of interpersonal communication is such an integral part of living and of interacting in social groups and appears so natural and automatic, it is often taken for granted. Taylor, et al. (1977) have put forward the view that "communication is the most important human survival skill, because we need it to maintain contact with the world. Interpersonal oral communication is the only way we contact the world outside our 'skins' apart from non-verbal communication"(p. 4). The process of communication is so important, and the development of efficient communication skills and attitudes appear so easy, that it is difficult to conceive of individuals who are apprehensive or unwilling to communicate with others generally, as well as in specific situations.

Communication between individuals in social systems is essential. This is so not only for the welfare and advantage of the particular social system or group, but for that of each individual within it. Since the school is a social system in itself and is an important and essential component of the general social system, those who manage

schools at all levels should evince keen interest in the communication potential of students and strive to develop an awareness of the needs and problems they may have in becoming efficient communicators. In spite of the fact that schools may be considered noisy places where the majority of the students seem to want to chatter all the time, the interpersonal oral communication needs of some children in the context of the school may be taken for granted.

School curriculum planners may be remiss if they fail to take cognizance of the importance of the oral communication process in planning the daily school experiences of children. The development of efficient communication in speech should be regarded as desirable a personal asset as that of writing and reading. Further, the responsibility of both the curriculum planner and the educational practitioner in the social milieu of the school is to establish a communication situation in which speech flourishes (May, 1967; Burns, 1972). This communication situation is the context in which the participants in the communication process interact. In such a school and classroom setting, it should not be difficult for those who work with children to identify those individuals who, for one reason or another, are apprehensive about or unwilling to engage in communication encounters with others. These are the students who are anxious about oral communication. Their communication behavior and attitudes set them apart from those who are not reluctant to communicate. These are the students who, for research purposes, are classified as oral communication apprehensives because they have a high level of oral communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1970).

The kind of environmental setting together with the kind of educational personnel, be they administrators, planners or educational practitioners, may serve to perpetuate or intensify oral communication apprehension. Both setting and personnel may also serve to prevent the occurrence of oral communication apprehension in the school communication situation. McCroskey and Wheelless (1976) have suggested that "communication apprehension may develop from early childhood by the process of reinforcement of one kind or another (p. 88). If this is so, the elementary years may serve to be the spawning ground for oral communication apprehension. It seems to be the responsibility of both home and school to become aware of the existence of this handicapping condition, of its magnitude in the particular context in which it is studied, and of its possible relationship to other variables such as language achievement and attitudes.

Overview of The Problem

Human communication research has provided empirical evidence on the problem of oral communication apprehension and its impact on human behavior in group settings. Since the 1940's, research done on stage fright in public speaking situations focused attention on the existence of fear or anxiety about communicating (Lomas, 1934, 1937; Gilkinson, 1940). Studies done during the past decade have indicated that fear or apprehension about communication in a variety of contexts other than that which occurs in public speaking situations is a widespread phenomenon (McCroskey, 1970, 1975, 1976, 1977; Phillips,

1968 and 1977; Freimuth, 1976; Daly, 1977; Hurt, Scott and McCroskey, 1978; and McDowell and McDowell, 1978; and Hurt and Preiss, 1978). Such contexts include speaking in home, school, and community settings.

Estimates of the extent of the problem of oral communication apprehension for people of all ages in the population indicate that a sizeable number of individuals are reluctant to engage in communication encounters with others because of anxiety about or fear of communicating. A nationwide survey undertaken by a national survey research organization, (Bruskin Associates, 1979) revealed that from 38 to 40 percent of the population surveyed were individuals who were severely affected by the 'fear of communicating' syndrome (p.2).

Apprehension that affects oral performance and causes an individual to avoid or withdraw from communication encounters with others has become known as oral communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1970). This type of apprehension, i.e. anxiety related to speaking, has been the most widely researched communication apprehension construct, but receiver apprehension (Wheless, 1975) and writing apprehension (Daly, 1975) exist as well. By and large, the syndrome inhibits the development of meaningful communication encounters with others and replaces approach behavior with avoidance or withdrawal behavior. It deprives the individual of the opportunity to learn efficient, necessary and enjoyable communication transactions and interactions with others. (McCroskey, 1970, 1975, 1976; Burgoon, 1976; Daly, 1976, 1977; Phillips, 1968; Hurt et al. 1976 and 1978). Garrison and Garrison (1979) have put forward the view that the fear of communication and the willingness to

participate may have "negative and far-reaching consequences in every aspect of an individual's life" (p. 1). This view has been substantiated by the communication researchers already mentioned.

A communication handicap of the nature of oral communication apprehension may be disadvantageous for the children who are apprehensive about communicating. The individual who shows a high degree of communication apprehension may find the experience of speaking so traumatic that participating in it may be considered more punishing than rewarding. As a consequence he or she may avoid or withdraw from subsequent experiences and thus hamper his or her progress and as a result limit opportunities for learning.

The findings of a variety of recent research have led to the conclusion that oral communication apprehension is a pervasive anxiety trait that may have deleterious effects on the person so affected. Such effects can be seen on the individual's actions, reactions and interactions in communication situations, and even in non-communication ones (Phillips, 1968; McCroskey, 1970, 1975, 1976; Porter, 1974; Burgoon, 1976; Freimuth, 1976; and Garrison and Brown, 1979). Manifestation of fear or anxiety about communication is a handicapping condition. McCroskey (1976) declared that oral communication apprehension is a handicap in interpersonal communication. He suggested that the condition is serious enough to be included in the HEW list of handicapping conditions. He also pointed out the lack of attention that has been paid to its existence in pedagogical circles and even by some communication professionals.

Some studies made during the past decade have revealed that communication apprehension behavior may impede the socialization process (Garrison, 1979), may produce individuals who disclose less than others, and therefore are reluctant to answer oral questions or give information (Hamilton, 1972); may inhibit learning and bring about poor achievement in the classroom (Scott and Wheelless, 1975; McCroskey and Daly, 1976; McCroskey and Andersen, 1976; Smythe and Powers, 1978); may bring about lowered self esteem (McCroskey, Daly and Falcione, 1977); and may even produce feelings of anomie and alienation (Heston and Andersen, 1972). Further, oral communication apprehension may serve as a barrier to block communication between apprehensive students and their teachers who may perceive them in a negative light because of it (McCroskey and Daly, 1976). Peers also tend to have negative perceptions of the high apprehensive, rating them as less attractive, less credible and less desirable than those who have no oral communication apprehension problems (McCroskey and Richmond, 1976).

Finally, one critical aspect which cannot be ignored is the kind of school or classroom setting in which oral communication apprehensives find themselves. Hurt and Preiss (1978) have pointed out that the "education system has provided great reward for verbal behavior in the classroom, and pedagogical devices used ~~may~~ demand frequent verbal output and verbal interaction " (p. 315). Such verbal demands and expectations may adversely effect students suffering from the oral communication apprehension syndrome. This study was intended to alert school personnel to the existence of the problem in school settings and to add to the limited research so far attempted.

Purpose of the Study

The first purpose of the study was to investigate the extent to which oral communication apprehension existed in a sample of sixth grade students in two schools in Charles County, Maryland, and to determine whether there were sex differences in its occurrence.

The second purpose was to investigate whether there was a relationship between oral communication apprehension and language achievement and between oral communication apprehension and student attitudes toward the language arts.

Rationale

The majority of the studies of oral communication apprehension have concentrated on the identification and treatment of the syndrome with respect to high school and college age students who experience difficulty in communicating in speech classes. In view of the nature and magnitude of the problem reported in the previous studies, there is need to investigate whether the problem exists at the elementary school level. Recent literature suggests that the elementary level may be the spawning ground for the initial stages of the oral communication apprehension problem, that its magnitude increases as students get older, and that it may affect achievement (McCroskey, Andersen, Richmond and Wheelless, 1981, and Garrison and Garrison, 1979). If this be the case, more studies are needed to investigate student populations younger than the high school level.

The recent back to basics movement may indicate the concern of parents and educational authorities over the reported decline in standards of achievement at the elementary level, particularly in all aspects of the language arts including reading (Cook, 1977 and Copperman, 1979). It seems appropriate and necessary, therefore, to examine the relationship between oral communication apprehension and achievement in and attitudes toward the language arts.

Theoretical Base

The theoretical framework of the oral communication apprehension construct has its roots in the disciplines of communication and psychology, the latter mainly personality theory and group behavior aspects of social psychology. Broadly speaking, the topic falls under the communication umbrella. Its focus is on the process of human communication, either verbal or non-verbal; on the persons who engage in the communication process, i.e. the communicators, be they source or receiver; and on the communication situation, i.e. the general or particular environmental setting in which the process of communication takes place (Berlo, 1960; Miller and Nicholson, 1976; Taylor et al., 1977; McCroskey and Wheelless, 1976). An additional focus in dealing with the communication process from the standpoint of the communicator, is the provision for the development of communication competence through the acquisition of efficient communication skills. Within the scope of the above, the communication researcher operates by investigating specific aspects of communication to add to the knowledge base of

the discipline and to evaluate the state of the art (Allen and Brown, 1976; Connolly and Bruner, 1974; Hymes, 1972; Lundsteen, 1966; and Barnlund, 1968).

Speech communication is a specialized and most important rib of the communication umbrella. Marlier (1980) defines it as "a discipline concerned with the dynamic, interactive process through which changes are sought in the social world, and occurs in every social context " (p. 324). This definition is in keeping with the more generalized concepts of the scope and functions of the speech communication discipline as it encompasses not only the study of the individual's mechanisms and modes of speech acquisition and production, but the social context in which the process of speech communication takes place (Burgoon and Ruffner, 1978; McCroskey and Wheelless, 1976; Dance, 1972; and Andersen, 1972). The scope and functions of the speech communication specialist have widened and so have those of researchers in the discipline. Emphasis seems to be now more on the pragmatics of speech communication than on the mechanics, more on the interactions and transactions that take place during interpersonal communication encounters between people (Hymes, 1976; Hurt et al., 1978; Marlier, 1980).

Included in the special interests and concerns of the contemporary speech communication specialists and researchers is the concern for the communicator in the process of communicating in the particular social context in which he or she exists. His or her behavior and attitudes in the communication situation are important and both produce clues as to how he or she feels about the communication encounters

he or she engages in. It is through planned encounters such as those which occur in speech classes at high school or college level or in adult speech-making situations that the reluctant or anxious communicator is most easily identified. It is the focus on him or her in a formal speech communication context and in the classroom that gave recognition to the stage-fright syndrome (Clevenger, 1959; Porter, 1974) as well as in its broader context oral communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1970).

Speech anxiety may be conceptualized in the larger pattern of general anxiety. Spielberger (1966) offers a definition of anxiety which embraces the basic ideas behind the concept of speech anxiety or oral communication apprehension. He defines anxiety as "a complex reaction to response -- a transitory state or condition of the organism, which varies in intensity and fluctuates over time. But the term is also used to refer to a personality trait -- to individual differences in the extent to which different people are characterized by anxiety-states and by prominent defenses against such states " (p. 12). McCroskey (1977) has categorized oral communication apprehension as a learned personality trait so the anxiety related to the syndrome is an anxiety-trait (A-trait) according to Spielberger, as distinguished from an anxiety-state (A-state) into which category the anxiety related to public speaking falls. Lamb conceptualized A-Trait as "a dispositional variable which identifies a general proneness to experience anxiety, while A-State anxiety refers to anxiety as it is experienced at a particular moment " (Lamb, 1972, p. 62). Trait-anxiety is the element

which gives the oral communication apprehension construct its psychological base.

Treatment of the oral communication apprehension syndrome by means of systematic desensitization is also psychologically based. Because it is learned, methods can be used to modify the learned behavior. Because anxiety can be treated, a behavior therapy treatment program can be utilized to help in the alleviation of the symptoms. Systematic desensitization is a most successful, effective, and widely used method of helping the person suffering from a high level of oral communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1970, 1972; Paul, 1966; Sheehan, 1971; Lohr and McManus, 1975; Goss, Olds and Thompson, 1977). The method is designed to bring about a reduction of anxiety and help replace avoidance behavior with approach behavior because the physical and psychological manifestations of the syndrome have been reduced.

Assumptions

It was assumed that oral communication apprehension existed among the population from which the sample was drawn and that it can be measured.

Research Questions

1. What are the percentages for the sizes of the groups of children in the sample identified at the various levels of oral communication apprehension?
2. Are there significant sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among the groups in the sample?

3. Are there sex related differences between the oral communication apprehension groups in achievement and attitudes toward the language arts?

4. Is there a relationship between language achievement as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Language Subtest, and oral communication apprehension as measured by the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale?

5. Is there a relationship between attitudes toward the language arts as measured by the Arlin-Hills Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale and oral communication apprehension as measured by the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale?

Hypotheses

1. The percentages for the sizes of the groups of children in the sample identified at the various levels of oral communication apprehension correspond closely to what was expected in the normal distribution of the school population.

2. There are statistically significant sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension (OCA) between the pairs of the sexes in each category of the sixth grade students in the sample.

3. There are statistically significant sex differences in language achievement among the OCA groups in the sample.

4. There are statistically significant sex differences in attitudes toward the language arts among the OCA groups in the sample.

5. There are statistically significant differences in language achievement among the oral communication apprehension groups in the sample.

6. There are statistically significant differences in attitudes toward the language arts among the OCA groups in the sample.

Definition of Terms

Human Communication

"Human communication is a subtle and ingenious set of processes. It is always thick with a thousand ingredients-- signals, codes and meanings-- no matter how simple the message or transaction. Human communication is also a varied set of processes. It can use any one of a hundred different means, either words or gestures...either intimate conversations or mass media and world wide audiences.... Whenever people interact, they communicate... When people control one another, they do so primarily through communication " (Smith, 1966, p.v.).

Speech Communication

Speech communication is defined as "a discipline concerned with the dynamic interactive process through which changes are sought in the social world, and occurs in every social context through the vehicle of language " (Marlier, 1980, p. 314).

Communication Situation

This is the total environment in which communication occurs. Situation includes occasion, surroundings, people, and interrelationships among these factors. All these can affect the communication process. Situation can determine which sensations persons receive and which they perceive. Situations also influence interpretations and responses (Taylor et al., 1977).

Competence

Competence is the child's ability to learn a repertoire of

speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate one's own accomplishments (Hymes, 1970).

Communicative Competence

Communicative competence is defined as "mastery of an underlying set of rules determined by the culture and the situation, affecting language choices in interpersonal communication events" (Hymes, 1970, p.14).

Communicative Performance

This relates to how people use language, for what purposes, and how efficiently (Hymes, 1972).

Achievement

Achievement is defined as "accomplishment; success in bringing about a desired end; that which is successfully attained and the degree or level of success in some specified area or in general; the proficiency attained in scholastic or academic work" (Dictionary of Behavioral Sciences, 1973, p.5).

Academic Achievement Test

This is a test "designed to measure the level of proficiency by testing the individual's performance in a particular subject area " (Dictionary of Behavioral Sciences, 1973, p.375). "An achievement battery is a group of tests that measure the degree of attainment of skills and knowledge in several areas" (Dictionary of the Behavioral Sciences, p.5). In the present study, the Iowa Test of Basic Skills was the achievement measure used. Test L was the language component in the test battery that provided the data on language achievement (Hieronymous and Lindquist, 1971).

Communication Apprehension

Communication apprehension is a broad-based fear or anxiety associated with real or anticipated communication with another person or persons (McCroskey, 1970). Oral communication apprehension is an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with real or anticipated (oral) communication with another person or persons (McCroskey, 1977).

High Oral Communication Apprehension

People who experience a high level of oral communication apprehension are those whose anxiety about or fear of communicating orally outweighs projections of gain from such activity (Phillips, 1968; McCroskey, 1970). High oral communication apprehensives are persons who have or anticipate negative feelings and outcomes from communication, and will avoid oral communication if possible, or suffer from a variety of anxiety type feelings when forced to communicate (McCroskey, Daly, and Sorensen, 1976).

Stage Fright

Stage fright is an acute anxiety condition in which fear symptoms appear and higher mental processes are reduced in efficiency when a person is engaged in speaking to an audience. It is also accompanied by a lack of confidence (Baird and Knower, 1968).

The Reticent Individual

The reticent individual is a person for whom anxiety about participation in oral communication outweighs his projection of gain from the situation (Phillips, 1968).

Language

The term language is used for a socially institutionalized system of symbols--oral and written--by which members of a social community communicate in a fairly standardized way. It is acquired from contact with other human beings and consists of symbolized meanings which act as sources of stimulation mediators for responses (Miller and Nicholson, 1976).

Language Arts

Language Arts is an umbrella term which describes all the language related activities in the elementary school program. It comprises the expressive components of spoken and written language, including spelling and handwriting, and the receptive components of listening and reading, all of which are interrelated (Fisher, 1977).

Attitude

An attitude is a learned predisposition to react consistently in a given manner, either positively or negatively, to certain persons, objects or concepts (Dictionary of Behavior Sciences, 1973).

Methodology

Sample

The sample for the study consisted of 547 sixth grade students, 266 girls and 281 boys. The children were in intact classes, but students with reading problems were not included. The schools from which the sample was selected were situated within ten miles from each other in Charles County, Maryland. Both schools were in a suburban environment,

and the socio-economic levels of parents of the subjects ranged from lower middle to middle class according to income and occupation. The principals of the schools used in this study supplied this information.

Design

This study was descriptive and used empirical data. The scores obtained from The Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (McCroskey, 1977) were used to categorize the subjects into five oral communication apprehension groups -- High, Moderately High, Moderate, Moderately Low, and Low, -- according to McCroskey's method described in Chapter III. The procedures for data analysis are described below.

Procedures for Data Analysis

After the administration and scoring of the oral communication apprehension test designated The Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (McCroskey, 1977), the mean and standard deviation were computed from the scores obtained. The criteria for categorizing the data into five groups according to the students' level of oral communication apprehension (OCA) were applied to the data. This was done for the purpose of identifying the students in each of the five groups. Percentages were computed to indicate what proportion of the entire sample was found to be in each category. Chi-square data for the occurrence of OCA in each category were also computed for the sexes. In addition, a two-way analysis of variance was done to estimate the significance of difference between the means of the groups for the sexes. The Scheffé

test of pairwise comparisons was also used as a further analysis of the group means to further examine significance of each of the pairs.

In order to examine the relationship between oral communication apprehension and language achievement, the mean scores from the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Language Subtest (ITBS-L) for each OCA group, were used to assess whether there is a relationship between the five OCA groups. A one-way analysis of variance was used to test for significance of difference between means. A similar procedure was followed in examining the relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts using the mean scores for each OCA group from the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale. (Arlin-Hills, 1974) A further analysis of the data was necessary to examine the extent of the relationship of the oral communication apprehension test scores and those of the two variables mentioned above. Hence an intercorrelation of the scores for the three test variables was done. Appropriate computer programs were used for analysis of the data.

Limitations of the Study

There are obvious limitations to be found in any study. One of the limitations is that the sample was selected from only two schools in the school system. Another limitation is that the number of students in the sample of sixth graders may not have been large enough to be representative of the sixth grade population. In addition, the results of the study may be limited to the scores on the specific measures of language achievement and attitudes toward the language arts

used to obtain the data for this study. Further, the sample was limited only to subjects from a suburban population.

Significance of the Study

This study may add to the increasing knowledge base on the oral communication apprehension construct. It may also lead to more comprehensive and in-depth studies of a similar nature at the elementary and middle school levels.

In addition, the findings may lead teachers in elementary and middle schools to a greater awareness of the importance of the process of communication in general and of oral communication in particular. Such awareness may result in more interest and attention being paid to those students who may be identified as oral communication apprehensives at both elementary and middle school levels. Such sensitivity may lead to the provision of appropriate classroom environments which cater to the oral communication needs of all students and to develop teaching strategies for the alleviation of problems if they exist among students. Some strategies and appropriate literature are suggested in Chapter V. Elementary and middle school principals and counselors in collaboration with their teaching staffs may also be impelled to fulfill one of their most important roles in promoting and maintaining the oral communication growth and freedom from communication apprehension of their students, as well as stimulate them to become successful and efficient communicators.

Organization of the Study

This report is organized into five chapters. Chapter I consisted of an introduction, a statement of the problem followed by the purpose of the study, the rationale, the theoretical base, the assumptions, research questions and the hypotheses. Also included are the definition of terms, an outline of the methodology including the sample, design and procedures for the data analysis, the limitations and significance of the study.

In Chapter II the review of the relevant literature on the problem of oral communication apprehension is presented. This review includes a discussion of the general concepts and studies on oral communication apprehension in Part 1 and a discussion of recent trends in language arts education in Part 2.

Chapter III describes the procedures for selecting the subjects, a description of the sample and instruments, as well as administration of the tests, the scoring procedures, and the procedures for the analysis of the data.

The analysis of the findings is discussed in Chapter IV. The data are presented in both tabular and textual form. The major findings from the data are interpreted with special reference to the hypotheses stated in Chapter I.

Chapter V summarizes the main conclusions inferred from the findings of the study. Based on these conclusions are recommendations and suggestions for further research as well as implications for education.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature presented in this chapter includes a discussion of the historical antecedents of the oral communication apprehension concept, its reconceptualization, and studies done within the past two decades which have yielded a variety of findings on the construct. Special focus is placed on the oral communication apprehension syndrome as it impacts on children in classroom situations and on its relationship to their academic performance. Literature relating to some current trends in language arts education with special reference to speaking is included in the second section of this chapter.

Part I

General Concepts and Studies Relating to Oral communication Apprehension

This study investigates communication fear or apprehension as it relates specifically to speaking. Presently labelled "oral communication apprehension," its history is rooted in the efforts of early communication researchers and speech specialists who investigated the anxiety symptoms experienced by speakers in public speaking situations. This syndrome, known as "stage fright," "speech fright," or "speech anxiety" by different researchers, has been a concept that has

received a good deal of attention for decades, and attempts have been made to suggest causes and ways to overcome the problem.

Concepts and Studies on the Stage Fright Syndrome

As far back as the 1930's speech teachers and researchers in the speech field were cognizant of the fact that some proportion of the students in their speech classes were having difficulty in communicating with others, were fearful about speaking in front of their classmates in public-speaking classes and were functioning on the periphery of their classes (Hollingsworth, 1935; and Lomas, 1935, 1937). Speech fright was even found to be a cause for dropping out of public speaking courses. Much concern was evinced in the problem and investigators in the field of speech communication sought to find approaches to understanding the nature and magnitude of the speech fright syndrome in specific populations. They also sought to formulate possible causes, to assess the impact of stage or speech fright on other facets of students' lives and to develop strategies for helping students cope with the problem.

Attempts to Measure Stage Fright

Simple surveys of students' feelings and reactions to the speech-making experience were the precursors of more sophisticated and empirically oriented research. Menchhofer (1938) included in a regular questionnaire on poise and mastery of public-speaking techniques an item related to the speech fright experience. Students were asked whether they considered overcoming undesirable nervousness as the most

important feature of the speech course. Of the 224 students 90 percent answered in the affirmative. Menchhofer viewed the stage fright problem as "a deadly enemy" to the person so afflicted (p. 23). He suggested a three pronged attack on the problem: thorough preparation, correct mental attitude and control of physical activity. He had to concede, however, that the second and the last mentioned techniques were difficult to put into effect.

The example above is one example of the interest in the manifestations of the stage fright or speech fright syndrome among students at the college level and at the upper high school level. This interest seemed to have been generated at that time by some research and subsequent writings of Lomas (1934 and 1937). His work had a definite psycho-physiological orientation which seemed to have an impact on the speech field, stimulating both speech specialists and psychologists to think more deeply about the plight of those suffering from the speech fright syndrome. In a study of 116 tenth grade students, Lomas (1934) was one of the first researchers to use introspective or subjective measures to gather data on the personal experiences and feelings of the subjects being studied. This kind of self-report device purported to measure cognitively-experienced stage or speech fright as against audience-perceived stage fright as measured by judges' ratings by observation. He found that with remediation, stage fright tended to decrease progressively over time, but the symptoms recurred if environmental conditions changed.

College freshmen were found to be a readily available population not only for research on stage fright or speech anxiety but for promulgating the literature dealing with its symptoms, its magnitude and techniques for overcoming or reducing its manifestations. Speech textbook writers began to devote some portions of their texts to the explication of the syndrome (Orr, 1931; Hollingsworth, 1935; Murray, 1937; Sarett and Foster, 1946; Eisenson, 1950; Baird and Knower, 1952; and others). Most of these textbooks containing in varying proportions the same body of knowledge about the psycho-physiological aspects of speech fright (Lomas, 1934, 1937 and Gilkinson, 1940 and 1942) assured the readers that the speech fright problem was a pervasive one and offered suggestions for its alleviation. These texts also included the findings of research on the problem to indicate its magnitude.

Using a group of 844 freshmen enrolled in a speech class, Chenoweth (1940) investigated the factors related to the process of adjustment in a speaking situation. He used a rating scale to classify the subjects into adjusted and maladjusted categories, held interviews and collected case-histories. He also used a personality inventory to profile the personality traits of 100 of each of the two categories. Chenoweth found that "there were 25 percent more well adjusted speakers than maladjusted ones; that the well adjusted speakers had a continuous and more varied record of speaking experiences in their past history, and that more well adjusted speakers than maladjusted speakers exhibited a bias toward dominance " (p. 587). The study contributed a list of basic characteristics exhibited by well-adjusted and poorly adjusted

speakers in formal speaking situations and evaluated by the ratings of judges. The maladjusted speakers were the ones who were considered to have manifested the symptoms of speech fright or speech anxiety.

Like Lomas' work in studying and disseminating available information on the speech fright syndrome, Gilkinson's work (1940) has had tremendous influence on the thinking of speech specialists and researchers in the field. Gilkinson's study investigated the social fears of college students who were enrolled in a basic speech course. Instead of using the method of observer rating frequently used in speech research at that time, he chose to utilize an introspective measuring instrument to gather data on the degrees of fear or confidence experienced by the 420 men and women in the sample. He developed a self-report scale consisting of 104 items designed to secure responses from the students on the emotions they experienced in speaking before their classmates during a semester. This self-report instrument was named The Personal Report on Confidence as a Speaker and was considered a device for measuring cognitively-experienced speech fright. The first 54 items were designed to reflect varying degrees of fear, and the remaining 50 to reflect varying degrees of confidence. Students were instructed to circle "yes" or "no" in response to each item as it reflected their personal experiences in the most recent speech. The method of summated ratings was used to obtain a personal score for each individual. Gilkinson (1942 p. 159) reported a "split-half reliability coefficient of .93." Gilkinson himself did not validate the instrument against any direct and independent measure.

The Personal Report of Confidence as a Speaker (PRCS) served as a highly acceptable and reliable instrument for research into speech fright by its constructor and by other researchers for subsequent studies. Gilkinson (1943) reported the results of the second part of the previous study, using the PRCS data already quantified. He sought to correlate the data with such factors as speech skill, academic achievement, morale, experience, training and physical status. Some of the major findings of the Gilkinson study were that there was little or no relationship between the PRCS scores and intelligence test scores and school grades; that the PRCS scores correlated moderately with social adjustment; that there was a low but significant correlation with emotional adjustment; that less confidence and more fear was exhibited by the women than the men; that speech training helped bring about a reduction in fear over a four month period; that the fearful speakers had less formal training and experience in speech activities, had shown a relatively low preference for activities and vocations involving speaking in public, had a generalized low self-evaluation and showed a generalized sense of inferiority when they had to speak in public. Some of these findings corroborated the subsequent findings of researchers involved at a later date in oral communication apprehension, which is included in this review. The Gilkinson (1942 and 1943) studies were significant in that they "indicated a functional relationship between speech-classroom behavior and behavior in a variety of social situations " (Gilkinson and Knower, 1940, p. 255).

The Personal Report on Confidence as a Speaker filled a need for a measuring instrument that was considered to have a satisfactory degree of statistical reliability in the investigation of the speech-fright phenomenon. This self-report questionnaire served as a stimulus for other studies, using it wholly or in part. Paulson (1949) used the PRCS to study the changes in confidence during a period of training of 271 students in the freshman speech class. Only the third part of the PRCS was used in this study. Fifty statements describing varying degrees of fear and fifty describing varying degrees of confidence comprized this section. A pretest and a posttest were given before and after ten weeks of speech training. A comparison revealed that both men and women showed significant increases in confidence. Not all students however who were fearful improved in confidence. Another group of 56 students from the same freshman class but who had not taken part in the first experiment, were put through the same pretest-posttest-treatment procedure. In addition they were asked to speak, not to their classmates, but to a group of strangers, then to take the PRCF test a third time. When scores for the three speeches were compared, it was found that improved confidence tended to remain the same even though the audience for the third speech were strangers.

Two studies which utilized measuring instruments different from the Gilkinson approach to gather data on the speech fright phenomenon were that of Dickens, Gibson and Prall, (1950) and Dickens and Parker (1951). The first, called judges' ratings, (JR) utilized the reports of observers of individuals during the speech experience.

The other used physiological measurements in addition to rating scales and self-report instruments. The Dickens, Gibson and Prall (1950) study involved the observation of the overt manifestations of stage fright during speech. A rating scale was developed by the researchers and the ratings were done by classmates and speech teachers. The rating scale was found to be a reliable technique for measuring the overt manifestations of stage fright. The PRCS and the JR measures were used to validate each other.

The purpose of the 1951 Dickens and Parker study was to investigate the physiological, introspective and rating scale techniques for the measurement of stage fright, emphasis being placed on the first mentioned technique. One hundred college students, 50 male and 50 female were used in this study. Their pulse rate and blood pressure readings were taken shortly after regularly assigned classroom speeches, after which the Gilkinson self-report questionnaire was administered. Judges also rated each student during the speech making session. A month later the same procedure was carried out except that the pulse and blood pressure readings were taken before the speech. Comparisons were made between approaches used and between sessions one and two. The findings revealed that speaking situations measurably affected the blood pressure and pulse rate of the subjects. More of the subjects experienced fluctuations in pulse rate before than after speaking, but there were no statistically significant blood pressure fluctuations before speaking than after. The PRCS scores for the women subjects were higher than that for men toward the "fear" side of the scale. Pulse fluctuations

were also higher. For men, judges' ratings and blood pressure fluctuations were higher.

Synthesizing Stage Fright Research Prior to 1959

Clevenger (1959) was the first researcher to attempt a synthesis of the research on stage fright or speech anxiety undertaken prior to 1959. He set out to analyse the findings of each study in the light of the definitions stated and the measures used to produce the data on which the findings were based. He stated: "The key to fruitful comparison of experiments lies in an understanding of the problems of definition and measurement as they apply to research in stage fright, where these two problems become inextricably intertwined" (p. 134). It was found that some researchers such as Greenleaf (1947) and Low (1951) found it difficult to synchronize definition with measure. Clevenger claimed that in spite of the apparent contradiction evident in analysing and synthesizing the twenty one studies he cited, there was remarkable consistency. His summation of the findings from the variety of studies on the stage fright or speech fright phenomenon yielded the following:

1. Teachers and researchers in speech seem to be more in agreement concerning what constitutes the absence of stage fright or speech fright than what constitutes its presence.
2. The three variables of the stage or speech fright phenomenon are audience-perceived stage or speech fright measured by judges' ratings, cognitively-experienced stage or speech fright measured by self-report

instruments, and physiological disruption as measured by mechanical devices.

3. A positive but weak relationship exists between over-all measures of experienced stage fright and observational indices of certain specific behaviors.

4. Women experience more stage fright than men, but judges observe stage fright more in men than in women. The difference, however, is small.

5. The relationship is stronger between experienced stage or speech fright and personality test scores for women than for men.

6. There is a strong negative relationship between observed stage fright and judges' ratings of speaking ability. Experienced stage fright has a weak negative relationship with observer's judgements of speaking ability (Clevenger, 1959).

Clevenger's review of the literature on stage or speech-fright encompassed a period of two decades. Except for the study by Lomas (1934) which involved subjects in the tenth grade, the studies reviewed involved college level students.

Study of Stage Fright At The Elementary Level

Shaw (1966) was one of the first to attempt to investigate the speech fright phenomenon at the elementary level. His study involved 1,166 elementary subjects and 8 teachers from kindergarten, second, fourth and sixth grades. Shaw used Clevenger's definition of speech fright. "Speech fright involves the fear of impending ill

brought about or triggered by a public speaking situation " (Shaw, 1966, p. 42). He surveyed the selected grade levels to ascertain the degree to which speech-fright existed among the students. He also attempted to assess the relationship between speech-fright and the students' speaking ability and its possible implications for speech readiness. Observation and introspective tests were used to gather data on speech fright. Children were also tested on speech practices to gather data on their speech ability.

Shaw's findings showed that, as measured by introspective tests, the levels of speech-fright varied across the grades. There were significant differences between the levels of speech-fright in the upper and lower grades with children in the upper grades tending to have higher levels of speech-fright than those in the lower grades. According to the results of the self-report measure, it was estimated that 15 to 25 percent of the children in elementary grades appeared to be seriously concerned about speech-fright, the higher percentage being that for the students in the upper elementary grades. Sex differences in the incidence of stage fright were not evident throughout the grades except that second grade boys showed a higher level of speech-fright than girls as measured by direct questions. It was found that, across the grades, students of lower socio-economic levels reported a higher incidence of speech-fright than students of higher socio-economic levels. In direct questions, sixth grade indicated the most speech-fright, and there was also a general indication that the higher the grade the more evidence of speech-fright existed. In reporting on the

relationship of speech ability to speech-fright, Shaw's findings indicated that speech-fright as shown by observation bears a relation to poor speech ability at the 10 percent level, but in general across the grades, poor speech ability did not appear to be predictive of speech-fright or vice versa.

Some Studies Suggesting Remedial Techniques

A discussion of the investigations into the stage-fright or speech-fright syndrome would not be complete without some reference to the literature which incorporated suggestions for possible strategies which may be used for its alleviation. Most of this literature emphasized what the authors considered were the most appropriate techniques for success in public speaking situations (Lomas, 1944, Gilkinson, 1943, Sarett and Foster, 1946, Baird and Knower, 1952, Clevenger and Phifer, 1959, Robinson, 1959, and Ross, 1966). Clevenger and Phifer, (1959) listed these as: techniques that operate in a general way before the speech; techniques of speech preparation; techniques for use before rising to speak and techniques to employ while speaking. Suggestions other than the above related to remedies which purported to benefit the personality of the individual. Such approaches included group counseling therapy sessions (Giffin and Bradley, 1969), systematic desensitization, (McCroskey, Ralph and Barrick, 1970), hypnosis, (Barker et al., 1972), therapy through learned behavioral techniques, using peer helpers (Fremouw and Harmatz, 1975), and cognitive restructuring (Garrison and Garrison, 1979).

Summary

The literature reviewed in this section provided a brief historical and theoretical overview of the concepts, studies and approaches dealing with the stage fright (also known as speech fright or speech anxiety) problem. This section was intended to serve as a backdrop against which to place the oral communication apprehension construct.

Concern over the plight of students in college speech classes who exhibited the symptoms of the stage fright syndrome led speech specialists and researchers to study the problem. A plethora of studies done during the past fifty years has attempted to pinpoint specific manifestations of the problem by using three types of measures -- observer's ratings, physiological measures and self-report instruments. Strategies for dealing effectively with the problem were also developed and implemented.

Lomas (1934 and 1937) was one of the first researchers to seriously investigate the existence of the stage fright problem and to use a self-report device to gather data on the personal feelings of the subjects. He also outlined strategies for alleviating the symptoms experienced during public speaking. He found that applying the strategies tended to decrease the symptoms over time, but there was an increase under different circumstances.

Other researchers like Chenoweth (1940) and Gilkinson (1940) also used self-report instruments to gather data on identifying those students who manifest symptoms of stage fright and may be helped.

The instrument developed by Gilkinson, the Personal Report on Confidence as a Speaker was used in subsequent studies as an efficient and reliable instrument for gathering data on stage fright. A major finding of his study was that there was a functional relationship between speech classroom behavior in a variety of social situations but that there was little or no relationship between PRCS scores and intelligence test scores as well as with high school grades.

Clevenger (1959) analysed the findings of research in stage fright prior to 1959. One of the findings relevant to the present research was that there was a small difference in the occurrence of stage fright between men and women. A synthesis of the findings has been outlined in detail in the extended discussion of Clevenger's findings. He found that there was remarkable consistency in the findings of the studies he cited.

The only study done at the elementary level was that of Shaw (1966). He found that speech fright, the term he used instead of stage fright in his study, increased as children progressed from lower to upper grades. He also found that the problem affected from 15 to 25 percent of the children studied. He also reported a higher incidence of speech fright among students at the lower socio-economic levels.

In conclusion, most of the researchers cited in the review suggested techniques they considered appropriate for alleviating the problem of stage fright at high school and college levels.

Concepts and Studies on the Oral Communication

Apprehension Syndrome

In historical perspective, both the study of stage-fright, (also termed speech-fright or speech-anxiety) and reticence seemed to have made an impact on and stimulated the study of the syndrome known as oral communication apprehension. In a very recent report of a symposium dealing with opinions and research on the concepts surrounding the problems of shyness, reticence, communication apprehension and a variety of other common problems (Phillips et al., 1980), the origins and distinctions between the problems plus differences in methodology and treatment were discussed. Phillips stated that the study of the oral communication apprehension syndrome grew out of the work on reticence done by himself and his associates. McCroskey (1980) the foremost proponent of the concept and study of oral communication apprehension, confirmed this in his reply when he stated: "My communication apprehension construct grew directly from Phillips' work " (p. 230). He also indicated that he considered shyness or reticence the genus and communication apprehension its specie, and that differences existed between the two constructs.

The work of Phillips (1968) provided a knowledge base and outlined a personality profile of the problem communicator whose problem he called reticence. He reported that such persons were unusually distressed about their inability to communicate, avoiding or withdrawing from communication interaction even with peers. They were reluctant to ask questions even of their peers, would abruptly break off communication because of fear of communication, and saw themselves on the periphery of social groups. These characteristics tended to extend to fear of

communicating with significant others, particularly their parents. They were unusually quiet, and attempts to communicate often upset them physically. Face-to-face contacts with other people usually threatened them and they preferred to communicate in writing with others, wherever possible. It was found that persons who suffered from the reticence syndrome described tended to seek occupations and activities which spared them the anxiety associated with attempts to communicate. They did not anticipate success in communicative transactions involving speech. Phillips built up this profile of the reticent person from case studies involving interviews and diary reports from college-aged students.

With this foundation study as a base, McCroskey (1970) reconceptualized and revitalized the basic ideas surrounding the syndrome associated with fear, anxiety or apprehension about participating in communication situations. Both McCroskey and Phillips at that time believed that anxiety was the main cause of the problem and emphasized efforts at relieving such anxiety as part of the solution. The definition of a reticent or communication apprehensive person that seemed to have been accepted by both was: "a person for whom anxiety about participation in oral communication outweighs his projection of gain from the situation " (Phillips, 1968, p. 40; McCroskey, 1970, p. 270). Phillips departed from his earlier position in relation to the alleviation of anxiety as a possible solution (Phillips, 1977). He changed from the communication anxiety position in which anxiety alleviation is the central focus of the intervention process to the rhetoric-therapy position in which training in public speaking skills is used

to stimulate improvement. Adherents of the previous position continued to work on the communication anxiety perspective.

Development of Instruments to Measure Oral Communication Apprehension

In his initial work describing the concept which he termed oral communication apprehension (OCA), McCroskey (1970) attempted to distinguish his construct from that of stage fright and reticence and introduced his self-report measures and their rationale. Four scales were constructed, one to measure anxiety in the public speaking context, and three others to measure oral communication apprehension at three levels-- at grade seven, grade ten and college levels. They were all Likert type self-report instruments intended to tap how the students felt about communicating. A high degree of reliability of each of the instruments was obtained, but the validity remained to be tested. Subsequently, the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension, which was the name chosen for the different versions of the scale, at the high school and college levels, was used in a variety of studies, some of which are mentioned later in this review. McCroskey (1978) reporting on the work done to secure reliability and validity data for the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension Scales (PRCA) at the three levels already mentioned stated:

Subsequent to the publication of the PRCA, a substantial number of studies have been completed utilizing the instrument. The results of these studies suggest that the PRCA: (1) is capable of predicting behavior that is theoretically consistent with the construct of oral communication apprehension, (2) is correlated with other

personality variables at a level theoretically consistent with the ... construct and (3) provides a measure of a stable characteristic of an individual that can be altered by subsequent intervention. (p. 203)

During the period of scale development, five new items, all of which were directed toward dyadic or group communication, were added to the original 20 items of the PRCA scales. The new 25 item scales have been in use in a number of studies. A shortened version of the PRCA instrument was devised to allow for the use of the instrument when time constraints were a factor. Items chosen from the long form were the ones with the best item-total score correlations in a sample of 1,183 college students (McCroskey, 1978).

In a more recent attempt to measure oral communication apprehension among children at the elementary school level, a 14 item instrument was devised. It was patterned after the original instruments designed for use with students at high school and college levels, was validated against them, and correlated highly with them. The advantage of the new instrument was that it was shorter, simply worded, and could be used to identify oral communication apprehensives from kindergarten level to twelfth grade. From kindergarten to third grade, individual administration was the mode recommended. Group administration was recommended for the intermediate grades (McCroskey, 1977). The use of this instrument was demonstrated recently in a study by McCroskey, Andersen, Richmond and Wheelless (1981) in an attempt to generate normative data for children from kindergarten to twelfth grade and also to provide a basis for subsequent research dealing with

the school environment as a source of potential communication apprehension. The new measure was given the designation The Personal Report of Communication Fear (PRCF). This latest oral communication apprehension measure added to the repertoire of instruments available for measuring the construct and provided complete coverage of reliable and valid self-report scales which may be utilized to identify oral communication apprehensive persons of all ages.

Since self-report scales have had practical advantages over other types of measures such as behavioral observation and physiological devices, they have been relied upon heavily in collecting data relating to personal feelings, among which is apprehension about communication. Two other instruments also constructed to measure oral communication apprehension are The Unwillingness to Communicate Scale (UCS) (Burgoon, 1976) and the Measure of Elementary Communication Apprehension (MECA) (Garrison and Brown, 1979). The UCS is a measure of communication apprehension that is based on the pattern of the PRCA, but is more broad-based and attempts to measure a student's unwillingness to communicate. It is a 20-item scale which has items designed to measure anxiety, introversion and frequency of participation as well as anomie, alienation, and self-esteem. It therefore taps a wider variety of communication behaviors than the PRCA. It was constructed for use with college students.

A recently constructed Likert-type, 20-item scale designed specially for elementary school children is the Measure of Elementary Communication Apprehension (Garrison and Brown, 1979). The items on

the scale ask children to respond utilizing smiling and frowning faces to various communication situations on a five point scale. Items were written and revised using McCroskey's guidelines for adapting the PRCA college level scale for use at the lower levels. The format of the instrument makes it more suitable for pre-literate or younger children.

Relevant Studies on Oral Communication Apprehension

Empirical investigations of the oral communication apprehension construct have yielded a variety of findings that indicate its viability and its applicability to real-life situations both inside and outside the classroom. Wheelless (1975) has asserted that "few constructs growing out of the research on human communication phenomena have been found to significantly affect such a wide variety of behaviors as oral communication apprehension " (p. 1). The person who is considered an oral communication apprehensive is one who is found to have a high level of fear or anxiety about communication. An increasing number of research studies have found that oral communication apprehension (OCA) is related to other personality correlates, and that it can be associated with a "wide range of socially maladaptive personality behaviors " (McCroskey, Daly and Sorensen, 1976, p. 377). In addition, a number of studies have concentrated on the possible impact of the OCA syndrome on learning outcomes in the classroom situation (Bashore, 1971; McCroskey and Andersen, 1976; Scott and Wheelless, 1977 and others).

Perusal of the literature on oral communication apprehension has revealed that it is the one form of communication apprehension that

has received a great deal of attention and study. It is not a new term for stage fright because it encompasses more than fear of public speaking. It has been found that people who suffer the stage fright experience may manifest some of the symptoms of oral communication apprehension, but not every person who suffers from stage fright is an oral communication apprehensive. McCroskey (1977) stated that "oral communication apprehension refers to a broad-based apprehension about communication, from talking to a single peer to giving a speech on television" (p.29). Further, the person who experiences the oral communication apprehension problem experiences both the nervousness accompanied by stage fright as well as the abnormal fear of speaking generally, even to peers, accompanied by feelings of unwillingness to or withdrawal from communication.

Studies on the Occurrence of Oral Communication Apprehension.

Some studies have focused on the extent of the problem of oral communication apprehension among individuals in different populations in order to identify and assess those individuals who are high apprehensives. A comprehensive study of the fears of Americans done by Bruskin Associates (1973) on a nationwide basis found that of the 2,543 adult respondents 40 percent reported fear of speaking to a group as their major fear. Although this survey was done with adults it gives an indication of the possible extent of the problem in the population as a whole.

McCroskey et al. (1981) reported an investigation to establish normative data for the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among elementary and high school children, from kindergarten to

grade 12. In a preliminary study they administered the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (McCroskey, 1977) to 248 children at the K - 3 grade levels, 462 at 4 - 6 grade levels and 1,518 at 7 - 12 grade levels. The data obtained from this study and the scores of the Measure of Elementary Communication Apprehension scale (MECA) (Garrison and Garrison, 1979) were used for the purpose of validating the PRCF scale. The PRCF scale was then revised and validated in its final form, using both the MECA and the short form of the PRCA as criterion measures. A concurrent validity coefficient of .98 was obtained. Using the PRCF scale as a measure of oral communication apprehension it was found that children in the lower levels of the elementary school (K - 3) had lower levels of oral communication apprehension than children in the upper elementary levels (4 - 6). It was also reported that a substantial increase in oral communication apprehension appears to occur during grades 3 and 4. It was also found that prior to puberty the OCA norms are achieved and remain constant at a mean level of 36.5, with a range of scores from low to high of 14 to 70. Full details on the above are given in Chapter III.

Mention was made earlier in the literature on stage fright of the work of Shaw (1966) whose study was one of the earliest related to the present investigation. It investigated speech fright among elementary school children and found that 15 to 25 percent of the students in the sample reported high levels of speech fright. This finding is substantiated in later studies by McCroskey and Wheelless (1976), McCroskey (1977a; 1977b), and Garrison and Brown (1979).

Another of the reported studies on oral communication apprehension among elementary school children was that of Wheelless (1971). He studied speech fright and employed different assessment measures such as observer ratings, introspective tests and physiological measures to estimate differences in the levels of speech fright among children of different elementary grades. He found that there was an increase of speech fright from the third to the sixth grades. These findings on the extent of oral communication apprehension in the general population as well as in the elementary school are consistent.

Studies on Sex Differences in Oral Communication Apprehension.

One of the earlier studies reporting differences in favor of men was that of Gilkinson (1942), reported earlier. This was one of the first studies to use a self-report instrument as a device for collecting data on the social fears of college students in speaking situations. Gilkinson's instrument, the Personal Report on Confidence as a Speaker served to gather information on the degrees of fear or confidence experienced by 420 men and women. It was found that women were more fearful than men in speaking situations. In a more recent study mentioned before in referring to the common fears experienced by Americans, Bruskin Associates (1973) reported that 46 percent of the adult females surveyed responded that speaking was their most common fear as against 36 percent of men. This seemed to indicate that women were more apprehensive about speaking than men.

Another interesting related study was that of Porter (1974) who investigated sex differences in oral communication apprehension as part of his work. He used 45 college students to gather data on their fear or anxiety about speaking, using both the self-report techniques and physiological measures. It was found that females not only reported more fear of communication than males but automatic arousal (heart rate) was very much higher in females than in males and that the heart rate increased at a faster rate. The study even though interesting seemed to have a few limitations. Porter suggested that females may be more excitable than males and this may have influenced the results of the study. He also suggested that the sex of the experimenter particularly in the application of heart rate sensors to the chest of female subjects may have affected responses. Another limitation was the small sample size.

The study by Shaw (1966) reported earlier also investigated sex differences in the manifestations of speech fright among the subjects, numbering 1,166 elementary school children. He found that sex differences in the incidence of speech fright across the grades were not evident, but that boys in the second grade had a higher level of speech fright as measured by direct questions.

Two other related studies including sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension are those reported by Greenblatt, Hasenauer, and Friemuth (1980). Both studies made a distinction between biological sex types and psychological sex types as well as androgynous males or females in identifying patterns of reported

self disclosure and communication apprehension. The subjects were 304 speech communication students at a large eastern university. They were categorized according to their scores on the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) for psychological sex type and the Jourard Self-Disclosure Questionnaire 60 (JSDQ 60). The difference in the results between feminine females and androgynous females was not statistically significant. Masculine males scored significantly lower than androgynous males. And finally, androgynous males' self-disclosure total mean scores were not significantly different from that of the androgynous females. It can be noted from these findings that there are significant differences in self-disclosure for the biological sex types but not for the psychological sex types.

The second study consisted of a comparison of the sex types similar to those mentioned above. Instead of the self-disclosure questionnaire, the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (PRCA) measure was used along with the BSRI already mentioned. Sex differences in oral communication apprehension among the categories being tested were investigated. The results revealed no significant sex differences in oral communication apprehension between the biological sexes. Yet the subjects classified as feminine females showed a significantly higher level of oral communication apprehension than the masculine males. No significant differences were found between androgynous males and masculine males, while feminine females showed a significantly higher level of oral communication apprehension than androgynous females.

females. Lastly, no significant difference were found between androgynous males and masculine males. These findings led to the conclusion that "within traditional sex role socialization masculine males are better equipped to deal with situations that call for communication performance" (p.126). In the view of the writer the tendency for men to speak in group situations more than women may be due to cultural influences as well as the above.

Oral Communication Apprehension and Behavior in Group Settings

The findings of a group of studies in which the behavior and preferences of high and low oral communication apprehensives were compared indicated evidence of avoidance or withdrawal behavior on the part of the high apprehensive. Such individuals tend to engage in much less oral communication by avoiding many social situations or participating minimally, or being more silent than communicative if forced to communicate or when communication was unavoidable. Most of these studies were carried out in college settings but their findings may give useful insights for studies at lower levels. In a study done by Weiner (1973) with 115 college students who were asked to choose the seats they preferred to sit in in a room, it was found that the high oral apprehensives chose to sit in positions in which they would not be at the focal points of interaction and leadership in the group. This choice of seats was made so that those individuals who were seated in them would avoid the dominant or leadership roles they may have been confronted with had they chosen other seats. Low apprehensives on the other hand sought the dominant roles, chose seats at the focal points of interaction

and talked a good deal more. Consequently they had greater influence on the group than the high apprehensives. Other researchers such as Wells (1970), Hamilton (1972) and McCroskey and Richmond (1976) had similar findings.

Sorensen and McCroskey (1977) investigated the interaction behavior in small groups of 92 college students, using both zero history and intact groups. They used the Cattell 16 Personality Factors (PF) Questionnaire (1970) and the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (1970), for College level, as the main instruments and the Interaction Behavior Measure (IBM) (1971) as the small group interaction measure. Their study gave support to the hypothesis that in a small group setting individuals with high oral communication apprehension talked much less than those who were less apprehensive. From the findings they concluded that "personality and communication apprehension are significant predictors of interaction behavior in small groups " (p.80). The researchers advised caution in generalizing from their findings because the subjects of both groups were the same people observed at different points in the development of the groups.

A study by McCroskey, Daly, Richmond and Cox (1975) also found that the high oral apprehensive tended to isolate himself or herself from the rest of the group, and this provoked a tendency in others to isolate him or her when in social situations. This substantiated the findings of Phillips (1968) that high oral communication apprehensives did not feel confident and effective in social relations requiring verbalization. An extension of this need to be in areas

of least interaction and to participate less led to the tendency to choose seats on the fringe of the group or at the back of the classroom during activity (McCroskey and Sheahan, 1976). McCroskey (1976) suggested that the tendencies described above served to put high apprehensive individuals at a disadvantage in their group as their influence is neither felt nor generated in the group even though their ideas may be of some worth. He also felt that not only group benefits but significant personal benefits may be at stake for the oral communication apprehensive.

Scott, Yates and Wheelless (1975) reported a finding that communication apprehensive students at college level were less willing to communicate and interact with tutors in a remedial counseling situation. This study dealt with student behavior in an instructional environment, and it was found that in a modified personalized system of instruction, termed PSI, highly apprehensive students preferred the personalized approach less than less apprehensive students. The high apprehensive student sought the assistance of available tutors much less. Similar findings indicating the trend of the oral communicating apprehensive to prefer to be inconspicuous in a crowd were revealed by McCroskey and Andersen (1976). The subjects were 275 students enrolled in two speech classes. High apprehensive students were found to have a preference for large lecture classes over small classes because there was less forced reciprocity, the student could remain relatively inconspicuous, and the expectation of intensive participation from individuals was lessened. This preference pattern was reversed in the

students who showed low levels of oral communication apprehension.

How High Oral Communication Apprehensives Are Perceived. A group of studies investigated how the high oral communication apprehensive is perceived by others. These others included teachers in the classroom situation as well as peers. It was found that other individuals in the environment tended to see the high oral communication apprehensive in a negative light. McCroskey and Daly, (1976) investigated the reactions and perceptions of teachers in the classroom environment toward students with high and low levels of oral communication apprehension. They used a novel approach. Written descriptions of the characteristics of the high and low apprehensive were used to examine the reactions and perceptions of 462 teachers. The perceptions of the teachers in relation to the persons described were recorded on another scale. Findings from a pilot and the main study revealed that teachers perceived the high apprehensive child less positively than the child whose characteristics fitted the low apprehensive profile. Because of the generally quiet nature of the oral communication apprehensive child as well as his or her limited verbal interaction and lack of participation teachers' perceptions of him may be negative. The child with oral communication problems may be expected to do poorly and to achieve less. The researchers suggested that such low teacher expectations become self-fulfilling prophecies.

The methodology of this study was unique. It was also clearly explained, particularly the description of the method of experimental

manipulation and control to obtain the subject's perceptions of the target persons as either high or low apprehensives. It appears however to this researcher that it might have been difficult to control subjective factors which may have in some way influenced their perceptions of the target persons described.

Peers also perceived high oral communication apprehensives in a negative light. McCroskey and Richmond (1976) investigated the effect of communication apprehension on interpersonal perceptions of communicators. The sample consisted of 212 college students. They were each given the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension instrument as a measure of their levels of oral communication apprehension. Simulated descriptions of the characteristics of high and low apprehensives were read by each subject. The subjects' perceptions of the person described were recorded by them on another scale. It was found that the high oral communication apprehensives were perceived as less attractive and less competent by their low apprehensive peers and even by fellow high apprehensives. High apprehensives were also considered less credible and less desirable as opinion leaders than the low apprehensives. Only in four aspects of the scale did the high apprehensives receive ratings higher than those of the low apprehensive and they were in projection of academic success in math, the lab sciences and agriculture, as well as in perceived character. This was another unique study which yielded interesting results, but the problem of subjectivity on the part of the respondents could also have influenced the findings due to personal biases.

Oral Communication Apprehension and School Achievement

Referring specifically to school achievement and activities relating to the teaching-learning situation, there seems to be a dearth of studies at this time. Bashore (1971) investigated the relationship between speech anxiety, IQ, and academic achievement in a sample of 75 high school seniors attending a university laboratory school. He used their test scores on the High School Test, the American College Test, the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude Test as well as the verbal sections of the College Entrance Examination Board Test. The data obtained from these standardized tests were correlated with those from the oral communication apprehension measure. A slightly negative relationship between intelligence and oral communication apprehension was found. In relation to academic achievement, Bashore found that high oral communication apprehensive students performed significantly less well on the achievement tests used in the study. Because of the small sample size and the specialized population from which the sample was drawn the findings may not be generalizable to the wider population. Hamilton (1972) report some evidence to suggest that the high oral communication apprehensives did not perform as well as those in the low group. His findings indicated that students in the high group scored well below the norm when required to participate in small group discussion. With reference to oral communication apprehension and intelligence, which is usually highly correlated with achievement, one aspect of a study done by McCroskey, Daly and Sorensen (1976) examining twenty one personality variables showed no relationship between intelligence

and oral communication apprehension among 90 undergraduate students.

Scott and Wheelless (1977), in their study of college level students found that those with high levels of oral communication apprehension and receiver apprehension, two of the three types of communication apprehension studied, were less satisfied with oral assignments. They also found that high apprehensives were less satisfied with and less comfortable in working with instructional strategies involving oral communication. Oral communication apprehension was assessed with the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension measure and the Receiver Apprehension Test. The criteria used for achievement were examination average and average scores on oral communication projects as well as writing and receiver oriented behaviors. The multivariate analysis results obtained for achievement scores for high and low oral communication apprehensives revealed significant F ratios. A limitation of this study was that there was no control for such variables as "self-esteem, prior academic success, intelligence or student attitudes." Their findings should therefore be accepted with some caution (p. 255).

Another related study on the relationship of oral communication apprehension and school achievement was reported by Powers and Smythe (1980). The subjects consisted of 723 college students enrolled in a speech course. They were assessed by using a 50 item multiple choice examination on key concepts from their weekly lecture, textbook assignments, and classroom discussions, which had to be completed by students for a final grade. The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension

Scale was used for categorizing the students into three OCA groups--Low, Moderate, and High--according to their levels of oral communication apprehension. The data gathered were submitted to multivariate analysis of variance across OCA groups. A significant main effect for OCA level was found, that is, there was a significant difference in achievement between the OCA groups. A further MANOVA was done and a significant OCA effect on final course grades was also found. This finding indicated that Low OCA students achieved significantly higher than either Moderate or High apprehensives. In addition, the Moderate OCA group achieved significantly higher than the High OCA group. In like manner the grades achieved by the students of the three OCA groups differed significantly on four assignments and one written examination based on a series of analyses of variance. Only on one performance measure, the objective examination test, were no significant differences found among the OCA groups. These findings are consistent with those of other studies and therefore may be generalizable to classes organized and evaluated similarly.

Attitudes Toward Learning, Achievement, and Oral Communication Apprehension. In a study of 118 seventh, eighth and ninth grade students in a small, isolated, rural community, Hurt and Preiss (1978) investigated achievement and attitudes toward learning. The OCA categories for classifying the sample into High and Low groups were determined by a ten item version of the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension measure. One aspect of academic success studied was to assess the relationship between OCA and attitudes toward learning in general

or toward the subject for which the students were enrolled. Since no measures of attitudes toward learning or toward their subject were used, the students were asked to respond to four Likert-type statements for this purpose. Another aspect of this study investigated the relationship of OCA and school achievement based on the final grades.

Based on partial correlation analysis of the data, it was found that OCA was significantly related in a negative direction to both attitudes toward school as well as to school achievement. One limitation of the study was the small sample. Another limitation of this study, as the authors explained, was that some uncontrolled variables may have contributed significantly to the variance in attitudes toward school. The number of test items for attitudes was also too limited for valid results. There was also the limitation of using grades as the only criterion for achievement. The findings may also be limited to students of low socioeconomic status in isolated areas. This is one of the few studies reported with special reference to oral communication apprehension and attitudes to school learning.

In a previous study (McCroskey and Andersen, 1976) of 275 college level students, it was similarly found that high communication apprehensives did not achieve as well academically in traditional interaction-oriented educational systems as the low communication apprehensives, but there was no similar relationship in a communication-restricted educational system. The results also revealed that high

communication apprehensives had significantly more favorable attitudes toward mass lecture courses and unfavorable attitudes toward small classes. The opposite was found for moderate and low apprehensives.

The last two studies cited were relevant but they were done with subjects above the sixth grade level. It may also be noted that the findings of these studies cannot be generalized to other populations as they had limitations of sampling and lack of experimental control of variables other than oral communication apprehension. There were no studies similar to the present study on the relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts or oral communication apprehension and language achievement.

Summary

Earlier studies on stage or speech fright were the precursors of later studies on reticence and oral communication apprehension. Phillips (1968) initiated the concept of reticence and outlined the characteristics of what he considered were its manifestations in a reticent person. McCroskey reconceptualized the basic ideas surrounding the reticence syndrome, broadened the scope of the concept to include individuals who were outside the public speaking situation, and labelled the concept oral communication apprehension. He defined his construct as fear or apprehension about communicating generally as well as in public speaking situations, and outlined the basic characteristics of the person who has a high degree of oral communication apprehension.

McCroskey (1970) developed a self-report instrument to gather data on the oral communication apprehension syndrome. This first

instrument was designed for use at college level. He subsequently used the same model to devise similar instruments for use with high school students. These different levels of the same instrument he named the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension. These instruments were widely used in the 1970's to investigate the extent of oral communication apprehension among students from seventh grade to college levels. They were also used to investigate the relationships between oral communication apprehension and other variables. Studies have been done which concentrated on the behavior manifestations of students who are identified as having high levels of oral communication apprehension contrasted with those whose personality characteristics identified them as having low levels. Some studies done recently have investigated the impact of oral communication apprehension on learning outcomes in the classroom situation, at both college and elementary levels. McCroskey (1977) designed a scale specifically for use with children from kindergarten to grade six, based on the earlier models constructed by him. This new scale is known as the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (PRCF).

The literature discussed in this part of the chapter was intended to shed some light on the genesis of the oral communication apprehension syndrome, on the extent of its occurrence, and on instruments constructed to collect data on identifying those who are highly apprehensive about communicating orally. The studies cited presented findings which indicated the magnitude of the problem in different populations and the relationships of the problem to other personality, situational and school-related variables.

PART 2

Trends in Language Arts Education with Special
Reference to Oral Communication

The study of human communication has engaged the minds of researchers for some time. Man has been intrigued with the process by which humans convey messages to and from each other in their interaction in social contexts and how language, one of the mediums of communication, is learned and used in interpersonal communication situations. It is the interest in human communication and how it works that has led researchers to investigate the methods of communication and the sequence of skills required for effectively getting the message across, be it verbally through language in the form of speech and writing or non-verbally by way of gestures and other forms of body language.

Communication and Its Relationship to Language

In tracing the history of language, Blancke (1935) offered a general definition of language by stating that it is an instrument of communication and expression of human thought. This definition embodies the wider aspects of communication through speech and even through nonverbal communication. It also included the language patterns used in communicating in particular speech communities.

Although Blancke's definition is simple, it is comprehensive because it establishes a link between the process of interpersonal communication and language, the vehicle used in the process. It also implies the relationship which is generated by the participants in the communicative process. Burns, Alexander and Davis (1977) used the term communicative event to describe the interpersonal sharing of

experience between living organisms. They described the sequence of events which they felt must occur during the communicative process. The five-step process suggested by the authors to be the basic unit of the communicative process is: "(1) a generator of a (2) stimulus which is (3) projected to a (4) perceiver which (5) responds discriminatively (assigns meaning). This is represented by the model $G^S \rightarrow P^R$." (Burns, Alexander and Davis, 1977, p. 23) In this model G represents the generator, S represents a stimulus, P represents a perceiver, R represents a differential response, and \rightarrow represents projection in time.

The Burns'et al. (1977) description of the communicative process outlined above could be considered a conceptual refinement of the basic model of the communication process including how elements of the model function and interrelate. The most fully explicated taxonomic model of communication generally used in communication theory is Berlo's (1960). This model is based on an earlier one by Shannon and Weaver (1949) but has the quality of identifying factors needed for understanding communication. Reporting on Berlo's concept, Dance and Larson (1972) said Berlo assumed that communication is purposeful and that all that communication behavior has as its purpose the eliciting of a specific response from a specific person. Further, Berlo laid the groundwork for viewing communication in terms of relationships between source and receiver and emphasized the receiver's role in determining communication effectiveness (Berlo, p. 21). Extending and emphasizing the relationship between sender and receiver still further, Savage (1977) put forward the view that "the code used to transmit a message must form a common bond

between sender and receiver, if communication is to occur."

Further, "the strength and effectiveness of communication depend on the language itself and on the communicator " (p. 22).

Descriptions of the communication process so far have been traditional in orientation, based on Berlo's model and its antecedents. A missing link in this older process orientation is the absence of feedback. Although Berlo's concept did not include the use of feedback, he acknowledged the need for feedback between the receiver and the source. Galvin and Book (1972) felt that the inclusion of this important element in the communication process changed the approach from the previous linear one to a circular one encompassing the receiver or listener and his feedback. This emphasizes the interpersonal nature of the process, indicates whether interaction took place and whether the message was accurately transmitted and decoded by the receiver and had any meaning for him. Further, in the second phase of the interpersonal communication process, the listener or receiver exchanges roles with the speaker or source and the process continues. Nonverbal messages such as posture, stance, and facial expression are included in what is transmitted by the speaker as well as what is understood by the receiver and what is conveyed back to the speaker in the feedback. Thus, two or more human beings become related through the understanding of and exchange of symbols (the language code) that evoke meaning (Clark, Erway and Beltzer, 1971; Miller, 1976).

The foregoing exposition served to show that communication is both a process in itself as well as a relationship. It is a process

because it is in motion transmitting the message and its meaning from the speaker to the receiver or listener who receives it, interprets it and may respond by sending a reply back by means of the same process. Berman (1968) further extended the idea of communication as process by suggesting that communication is the sharing of "personal" meaning which she considers to be "the prime function of communicating" (p. 50). The content of the message transmitted by the sender is shaped by his personality, his past experiences, his thought processes, the kind and amount of information he wishes to transmit and by his willingness to share some of his personal self with the receiver or receivers. All these elements point to the complexity of the communication process. They also underline the importance of the communicators in this process. In evaluating what is the prevailing situation in schools Berman stated, "traditionally what has been taught in schools relative to communication has focused upon symbols and language." She also felt that "less attention has been given to the individual in the process of communication" (p. 46).

Communication is also a relationship between the two participants in the process because it involves in the process a connecting of the minds and emotions of the people involved in a variety of ways (Cherry, 1966; Burgoon, 1978). Communication is a two-way street. Groups of persons become related by engaging in the process, and engaging in the communication process is based on the nature of the relationship which changes as the process proceeds. It is important to note that process and relationship are functionally related, one does not cause the other.

Byers and Byers (1972) suggested that the present perspective on human communication is that it spirals out from specific encounters of two persons involved in sending and receiving messages in a dyadic relationship to that which is involved in multiple interrelationships in the social milieu. These relationships which are generated in groups of varying sizes in the speech community, serve as the specific contexts in which repeated communication events occur. The above authors felt that active participation in the communication enterprise --event or events--"of two or more people who have learned the required cultural codes--language of the speech community--"with some degree of competence" is an important part of the process. "A person's competence in using the cultural patterns or codes is his ability to participate in society's life" (p.6). They also felt that any content learned must be put in an appropriate human context. Further, they concluded by saying that "when we focus on content we can stay within the framework of language, but when we are concerned with processes, we must consider the full range of verbal and non-verbal communication" (p.3). The above perspective put forward by Byers and Byers (1972) has attempted to weld the different strands of communication process and function into a unified whole with an emphasis on the broader framework of communication rather than on the narrower focus on language.

From Linguistic Competence to Communication Competence

In a very succinct way, the basics of the communication process and its relationship to language have been outlined so that the present perspective on language arts education may be looked at in retrospect.

An examination of some language arts textbooks has revealed that since the 1960's language arts curriculum specialists who author textbooks for teachers of language in elementary schools have been indicating change in direction and emphasis (Shane, Mulry, Redding and Gilesple, 1962; May, 1967; Berman, 1968; Clark, Erway and Beltzer, 1971; Cazden, John and Hymes, 1972; Halliday, 1973; Hennings, 1975; Lee, and Rubin, 1979; and others). They have been emphasizing that communication is the purpose of language and therefore language teaching and learning ought to be approached through the broader base of communication. They have been advocating teaching language as communication to children, guiding their language growth and development toward competence in communication. Social interaction is also enhanced through the student's involvement in the interpersonal communication relationship.

Current literature has revealed how this shift in emphasis and direction came about. A change seems to have taken place from concentrating on language structure, that is the code itself, to how children learn to use language or make it function for them. The change in focus was from linguistic competence (Chomsky, 1965 and 1968) to communicative competence (Hymes, 1970, 1971, 1972). The Chomskyan perspective had given way to Hymes's notion of children's language and its function in the communication process. Inherent in Hymes' notion is language use in social contexts which takes into account the influence of cultural and social factors.

The linguistic theory which focuses on the external and internal structure of the language code, specifically on language acquisition

(Chomsky, 1965 and 1968) cannot be belittled or ignored. It was accepted and enjoyed acclaim for over a decade. It made a great contribution to the knowledge base relating to the actual structure of the sentences uttered by the speakers of the language as well as the scope and pattern of the utterances made as children developed language. Chomsky (1968) described linguistic competence to mean the implicit knowledge every speaker has of his or her native tongue. He believed this acquired knowledge enabled an individual to speak an infinite number of grammatical sentences in a certain pattern and to understand the utterances of another.

Hymes (1970, 1971, 1972), like Chomsky, believes in the concept of competence, but he has been critical of linguistics because he feels that it has emphasized competence and neglected performance. In actual fact, these two experts in the field have been looking at language and communication from two different perspectives. Chomsky actually regards performance as the actual production of sentences uttered by the speaker. Hymes extends this concept to include the use the speaker makes of his language in actual communication situations in social contexts. He includes in the concept of communication competence the interrelated aspects of form and function. In describing form as it relates to competence, Hymes, like Chomsky, refers to the knowledge surrounding the structure of the language code. Function takes care of language use by real children in particular communication situations. It emphasizes effectiveness in communicating in real communication settings and stresses how communication is learned through acts of communicating (Hopper and Wraether, 1978).

A number of language arts and communication specialists currently subscribe to Hymes' perspective, advocating more and more efforts in schools toward both communicative competence and performance, the first mentioned referring to the repertoire of skills the individual builds up through communicative acts, and the second to how those skills are put to use in actual situations. Wiemann and Backlund (1980) have looked at competency as an educational objective which evolved because of the shift in focus from concentration on content or subject matter to skills (competencies) and abilities. This objective was formulated because of the emphasis placed on what a student should learn in order to function more effectively in different environments and situations. Wiemann and Backlund have related communicative competence to this general objective associating it specifically with the speech communication process and how it functions for individual communicators in actual social situations. DeStefano (1978) asserted that "school plays a powerful role in increasing communicative competence since schooling includes both instruction designed to increase ability to communicate orally and in writing (speaking and writing) and to help students comprehend others' speech and writing (listening and reading)" (p.3). This statement attempted to link what goes on in the language arts curriculum with the new focus on communication competence.

In pointing to the dimensions of communicative competence, Allen and Brown (1976) have described four features that characterize these dimensions: a repertoire of experience from which to make critical choices which are seen when performing desired tasks, after which

the individual is able to evaluate the communicative tasks with reference to the performance objectives previously set up. All these features serve to enrich the individual's repertoire of experiences and help in the building of communicative competence. In looking at the features of communication competence described, Allen and Brown have pointed out that "unlike linguistic competence,.....communication competence is tied to actual performance of the language in social situations" (p.248). This perspective is often referred to as the communication functions approach indicating the emphasis is on how the language code functions in actual use in day-to-day situations in home, school, and society.

Hopper and Wrather (1978) have made the point that children as they develop acquire language features primarily through doing actual communication in the language learning environment, not through being taught the code through formal, structured approaches. The sequence suggested is function before form particularly at the early stages of communication development. Acquisition of grammatical structures in daily usage seems to emerge after the communicator discovers communicative uses for them, they note, and teachers need to take cognizance of the theory and research findings related to changed emphases and new or modified strategies. Fogel (1976) has suggested that "the broad theory of competence is to show how the possible, feasible and appropriate are likely to produce and interpret on-going communication behavior" (p.1). He indicated that if communication competence is to become an objective for teachers and a goal for students, teachers should know how children acquire and use communication behavior, how to evaluate it and the strategies for helping children reach their goals.

Focus on Functional Communication Competence

Larson et al. (1978) have described the extension of the concept of communication competence to make its scope and functions more pragmatic and user-oriented. The functional aspect is emphasized because the authors feel that " a significant proportion of the educational effort is to be directed to the development of individual ability to use language" (p.29) and to use it appropriately and effectively. This involves releasing the communication capabilities of children by encouraging and planning more and more language activities, particularly orally based, that are both spontaneous and structured. Children are helped and encouraged to grow and develop skills in communication by being given the freedom to exercise their capabilities as communicators in settings conducive to growth in functional communication competence.

In developing the functional communication competence paradigm further Larson et al. (1978) have suggested two important aspects which are crucial to the successful growth of competence in communication. They are "appropriateness" and "effectiveness." In a given communication situation the participants in the process are expected to consider, in performing the communication act, just what is socially appropriate in that particular context. The authors stated that "what is appropriate in a given situation is defined by a combination of cultural norms, group norms, standards of the specific relationship, and acceptable language usage" (p.20). Efforts to encourage children to achieve functional communication competence should include helping them become aware that appropriateness is a fundamental criterion for competence. They

need to learn to adapt their communication performance, that is, what is said and how it is said to the social context in which the communication act takes place, to the constraints on speech that the communication situation imposes such as the speaker-hearer relationship, the kind and size of audience and so on. Weimann and Backlund (1980) have very succinctly summed up the general notions about appropriateness when they stated that it

refers to the ability of the interactant to meet the basic contextual requirements of the situation--to be effective in a general sense. These contextual requirements include: (1) the verbal context, that is, making sense in terms of wording, of statements, and of topic; (2) the relationship context, that is, the structuring, type and style of messages so that they are consonant with the relationship at hand; and (3) the environmental context, that is, the consideration of constraints imposed on message making by the symbolic and physical environments (p.191).

With reference to the concept of effectiveness which goes hand in hand with appropriateness in the development of functional communication competence Larson et al.(1978) stated that it is associated with a wide range of outcomes. The term implies achievement of goals or satisfaction of needs. In the communication process the individual may succeed in getting the message across in keeping with the appropriate contextual requirements and be effective or ineffective depending on the outcome obtained. Included in the scope of communicative competence is "the ability of the individual not only to exhibit competent communication behavior appropriate for the particular context but to communicate in such a way that desirable outcomes are enhanced and facilitated" (p.7).

Feingold (1976) emphasized the need for the term "effectiveness" to be considered of great importance in the development of functional communication competence by focusing on the characteristics of the

"effective" communicator. He described this individual as one who "is perceived as being skilled at saying the right thing at the right time, is not difficult to understand, is adept at communicating with others, is aware of the effect of his or her communication on the receiver, and is capable of revealing something of himself or herself" (p.49). This description of the characteristics of the effective communicator illustrates the complex nature of the process which leads the individual communicator toward the goal of efficient and effective communication with others in social contexts. Wiemann (1978) in discussing the need for research and training in speaking and listening literacy has emphasized that the competent communicator is expected to develop concern for the needs, goals, and outcomes of others in the social context while at the same time being concerned about his or her own needs, goals, and outcomes. This underlines the interactive nature of communication. Wiemann stated that "communication competence is a dyadic concept-- it is not enough to consider one participant's goals and outcomes; goals and outcomes of all the participants in the encounter must be taken into account in order to assess the effectiveness of any individual's performance" (p. 315). Considering the various aspects of communication competence outlined it must be pointed out that such competence is learned through a long process of participation in a wide variety of activities in a wide variety of social situations on the part of the communicators. Schools and classrooms constitute appropriate and conducive settings where individuals may gain the knowledge, understanding and skills required for becoming competent communicators.

In their recent explication of communication competence Larson

et.al. (1978) have drawn attention to an anxiety condition known as oral communication apprehension on which current communication literature has focused. They have expressed concern for those individuals who have been characterized as having high levels of fear associated with communication encounters with others, as the condition may serve as a hindrance to the development of high levels of communicative competence. This aspect was included because the authors felt that oral communication apprehension was a related concept and could be considered essential to a reasonable conceptualization of functional communication competence. They argued that apprehension and anxiety about communication are "important as explanatory variables connected with low levels of functional communication competence" (p.16). This implied that individuals who found it difficult to fully engage in the interactions and transactions which are involved in the communication process may be depriving themselves of vital elements necessary for the development of competence in communication.

Similar concern was expressed by Work (1978) in discussing some of the ramifications of competence in speaking and relating these to some suggested guidelines for instruction through which competence may be encouraged. A gist of these are: that instruction should be child-centered and work in accordance with a child's development and his competence; that it should stress the communication process and performance; that opportunities should be provided for children of all abilities to develop their communicative competencies, and that helping children to face the challenge of communicative competence confidently should be a major goal. The anxious communicator's needs may be met in these ways, he added.

Creating Learning Environments Conducive to Growth in Communication

The authors already mentioned in the second part of this chapter as well as others who advocate the teaching of language as communication to children, stress the need for learning environments which create the contexts for growth in communication. Extending the idea of growth further, Stewart (1980) has added the concept of personal growth through communication indicating a direct relationship between the "quality of our communication and our development as persons" (p.70). Since one of the functions of the school is to promote the personal growth and development of each individual in the school environment, communication can be considered as one of the chief means of achieving this. Schools which use ideas such as the above as part of their philosophical base will seek to build learning environments that are conducive to the development of individuals as communicators within the social context of the school (May, 1967; Phillips et al., 1970; Clark et al., 1971; Freeman, 1977, and Garnica and King, 1979).

In focusing on the general educational environment and its function in relation to communication contexts, Nyquist and Booth (1977) described it as "a giant, multifaceted communication event composed of a variety of communication encounters" (p.15). They added that such encounters take place continuously as the participants in this giant communication event interact with each other in dyadic, small group or large group situations. These continuous and simultaneous interactions occur throughout the school day between teacher and student, student and student, teacher and administrator, teacher and parent, counselor and student, counselor and teacher, counselor and parent

as well as the other senders and receivers of messages who carry out their various roles in the context of the giant communication environment called school. It is within the larger framework of overlapping communication events, in the setting of the classroom, that the school performs its vital function of developing and refining the communication skills the children bring with them, toward the ultimate goal of communication competence (Strickler and Farr, 1979). "In addition to whatever language-related curricular content schools offer, they encourage children to use their communication skills in an environment that provides the feedback which is necessary to improve their skills" (p.636).

It is comparatively recently that educators have begun to consider the classroom as a communication environment which provides the context for growth in and through communication. Phillips et al.(1970) referred to the classroom as a verbal community, the dynamics of which emerge out of the interactions between teachers and learners and between the learners themselves. In defining the characteristics of this verbal environment the authors suggested that one could look at "how teachers and students communicate; the way teachers and students view themselves as they interact; the basis on which communication relationships are established; and the nature of the communication climate in which learning takes place" (p.73). The answers to these questions may serve to indicate the kind of classroom setting and the quality of the communication as well as the relationships which actually exist in a particular classroom setting. Another important point made by Phillips et al. is that not only does the physical and verbal environment play a part in how the environment is used and what goes on in it,

but the communicators themselves influence the quality of the setting and the prevailing conditions which are experienced in a particular classroom setting. Nyquist and Booth (1977) expressed similar views and further stated that both teachers and students influence the interaction and communication which goes on within an instructional environment and create the atmosphere that results.

Within a rich, varied and constructive classroom setting that is conducive to interpersonal communication and the gradual development of functional communicative competence, the individual communicator is encouraged to develop in and through communication (Barbour and Goldberg, 1974; Clark, Erway and Beltzer, 1971; Savage, 1977; Smith, 1977 and others). The impact of the environment and the characteristics of the communicators themselves, "their backgrounds, experiences, prior knowledge, emotional attitudes, physical health, interests and a myriad of other human factors, can aid or block communication" (Savage, 1977, p.22) and interfere with the immediate or long-range goals of the communicators involved. These factors may also have an impact on the outcomes of the teaching-learning process. Lynne (1976) has pointed out that the teaching-learning process is essentially a communication process by its very nature, and it relies very heavily on the modes of listening and speaking, which are interactive modes. Hurt and Preiss (1978) have expressed similar views and have in addition commented on the practice in the schools of the nation to provide great reward for verbal behavior in the classroom and frequent verbal output and verbal interaction are demanded of children in the educational environment. Because of these prevailing factors those who organize,

manage, and plan what goes on in their particular educational environments have important and fundamental considerations to bear in mind.

The classroom setting which provides the context for communication growth and aids in producing highly verbal communicators cannot be a subdued and silent place. If a great deal of verbal output and a high level of functional communication competence are desired and expected, experiences and opportunities for all modes of communication, and particularly oral communication, must be provided. All strategies and instructional materials must also match the philosophy and objectives put forward (Mackintosh, 1964; May, 1967; Phillips et al., 1970; Burns et al., 1972; Barbour and Goldberg, 1974; Kean and Personke, 1976; Hopper and Naremore, 1978; Klein, 1979; Petty and Jensen, 1980; and Burns et al., 1980). According to Klein (1979) a talk environment can be designed for any classroom to meet the needs of the communicators, and for the benefit of all. This environment should be natural, built-in, and unified. Although there is need for structure in organizing the curriculum there is also need to encourage spontaneity, and to build feelings of confidence, acceptance, openness, and trust (Barbour and Goldberg, 1974 and Kean and Personke, 1976) in each of the communicators in the classroom setting, so that each child would want to communicate willingly and without fear. It must be noted that those children who are identified as being apprehensive about communication are a special needs group whose needs are just as important as those who have no difficulty in communicating naturally.

McCroskey (1977) has suggested some considerations which may be taken into account when making provisions in the classroom setting for

children who are fearful about communicating. Such children should not be forced to communicate or punished for not communicating. They should be made comfortable in the classroom and encouraged to participate voluntarily in an environment which is not threatening or punitive. Reinforcement should be provided for attempts to communicate.

The authors already mentioned are of the view that communication is at the core of all that is involved in the teaching-learning process and therefore the provisions made for growth in communication should pervade all aspects of the curriculum in general. McCroskey (1977) has suggested the term "communication permissive environment" to describe the total environment which may be allowed to evolve. In this environmental setting children will learn to communicate by communicating and at the same time build functional communication competence which they can use in other general social situations. It is suggested by advocates of this present trend that the understanding of the process of communication and the skills required for efficient oral communication need to be taught just as reading and writing are. Many children may lack the knowledge and skills required.

Teachers in general and language arts and communication specialists in particular play an important role in promoting the trends advocated heretofore in the second section of this chapter. Nyquist and Booth (1977) emphasized the need for teachers to be effective communicators themselves not only to exemplify what is expected as a communicator but to facilitate an open, stimulating, spontaneous yet well organized communication environment. They argue that with changed perspectives the teacher's role is now that of facilitator, manager and technician.

Status of Oral Communication in the Elementary School Curriculum

This part of the review of trends focuses specifically on the status of oral communication or the speaking component of the language arts in the elementary school curriculum. During the past two decades a number of language arts and communication specialists have expressed concern over the place of speaking among the hierarchy of skills and activities planned in language arts curricula. They have pointed out that the importance placed on oral language seems to have diminished within recent years and that the development of oral communication in children seems to have been taken for granted.

As far back as 1964, in the foreword to a document sponsored under the auspices of four national educational organizations-- The Association for Childhood Education International, the International Reading Association, The National Council of Teachers of English, and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development-- Mackintosh voiced the common concern evinced by the joint committee for the improvement of oral communication when she stated that the oral aspects of communication had been considered to be neglected for too long. Further she gave as the reason for the cooperative effort of the joint organizations the consideration that listening and speaking skills are of such crucial importance for effective communication that they need to be promoted and not neglected or bypassed in elementary classrooms. The joint committee examined the basic characteristics of the two major components--listening and speaking--outlined the strategies for building needed competencies, pointed to the need for heeding research findings involving both components, and offered suggestions for improvement in

evaluation. The roles of the teacher, administrator, supervisor, and parent were treated, and suggestions were given for action needed in home and school for helping children use oral language effectively. In concluding the committee stressed the need for equal concern being given to educating children to be effective listeners and speakers in the school situation as is shown for written communication and reading.

In one of the earlier works on teaching language as communication, May (1967) wrote in similar vein when he stated that "more than one educator has decried the paucity of speech instruction in comparison with reading instruction in schools" (p.16). He went on to make a plea for "a much greater impact on oral language growth in the schools" and pointed out "the importance of oral language competence prior to or concomitant with reading instruction" (p.16).

Jenkins (1974) in his discussion on the state of the language arts during the early 1970's described this state as "not completely a happy state" (p.14). He attempted to analyse in retrospect some important aspects of teaching and learning in relation to language arts education, which he said are merely useful indications of changing norms rather than definitive statements about what is happening. He pointed out that the body of knowledge about language had increased in recent years and this knowledge was being put to use for the development of children's understanding and interest in language and the many ways in which it is put to use by them. He stated that children use language to gain an understanding of themselves and their world. Further he observed that the task of the school was to recognize the communicative

ability and prior knowledge of language brought to school by children, and to strengthen this and provide positive attitudes toward language learning. The ultimate goal of language learning and teaching is to bring about more effective use of language. Jenkins reported that during the period under review some emphasis was placed on oral language but that schools attempted to teach far more about language than students needed to know to effectively use it. He put forward the view that "an analytic approach to language has little place in the elementary school, and it probably should be preceded by a functional approach, wherein the child, deductively, learns what he needs to learn to communicate" (p.14). The shift in the emphasis from total rejection of nonstandard English usage to acceptance of what the child brings with him to the communication situation, was mentioned by Jenkins. It was pointed out that greater freedom to use the language patterns of the environment and new respect for the language user's repertoire of skills and his communicative ability seemed to be the perspective at that time.

No sooner had the liberal orientations and changed emphases begun to take root in language arts classrooms than the "accountability" and "back to basics" movements as well as "minimum competency testing" programs intruded and subsequently dominated educational policy and practice. As the three movements gained momentum in the nation's schools, curriculum specialists and administrators of schools seemed to focus more and more on writing and composing skills, on grammar and reading skill development, and less and less on the oral aspects of the language arts. This seemed to be the concensus of language arts and communication

professionals who make analyses of current trends in language arts education (Ritter, 1978; Allen and Wood, 1978; Farrell, 1979; Cazden, 1980 and Hendricks, 1980).

Ritter (1978) in discussing "back to basics" and "accountability" issues as they relate to speech education, has pointed out that the focus of attention in both movements has been on the decline in test scores in the basic literary skills that is, reading and writing or composing skills. Because of this focus undue emphasis has been placed on the planned improvement of reading and writing, to the detriment of oral communication. Activities for the development of oral communication and other enrichment activities are considered "frills" and severely curtailed or eliminated altogether. Ritter suggested that those who are concerned about the diminished importance of oral communication in schools and the elimination of planned speech activities should put forward an effective rationale stressing the primacy of speech among the other language arts components. The interrelationship of speech and the other components and its effective use in strengthening other skills such as writing may also serve to build the case for more oral communication in schools.

Allen and Wood (1978) share the concern of Ritter in their analysis of the current status of oral communication in the curriculum. They have drawn attention to the situation in stating that "most language arts programs focus on the development of print literacy in children. Writing and reading comprise most of the instruction, while speaking and listening are typically offered as extras" (p.286). The authors deplore this narrow focus since it has become generally accepted that

the goal of language arts education is the development of efficient and effective communicators and that goes beyond reading and writing to communicative competence of which oral communication is a major component. The five communication functions which the authors put forward as "central to contemporary life and that may serve as a construct around which instruction may be organized throughout the school years are: controlling, sharing feelings, informing, ritualizing and imagining" (p.287). The authors described in detail the way the five functions operate in real communication interactions and their application to the school situation. They stated that the school should concern itself with oracy-- a combination of speaking and listening skill development, and literacy--reading and writing, as the person who is merely literate may be ill equipped to function effectively in the broad range of communication situations in contemporary life.

Examining in retrospect the decade of the 1970's, Farrell (1979) and Cazden (1980) like the language and communication specialists already mentioned, regarded the "back to basics" movement as a retrograde step in general and specifically in relation to oral communication. Farrell felt that American education has lost the enthusiastic optimism and promising innovative spirit associated with the period between 1965 and 1974. Because of this the child as communicator has been affected. He stated that " the child as creative communicator, capable of generating language never before uttered or written, has been displaced by the child as receptacle of facts, regurgitated by stimulus of teacher or test" (p.610). He encouraged educators to return the child to the center of the curriculum as an active creator rather than a passive

recipient. He suggested that parents and legislators should be convinced by educators that "language is a human phenomenon, one requiring for its fullest appreciation and understanding not just competent performance on tests but significant face-to-face interaction with human beings (p.611).

Cazden (1980) noted trends similar to those of Farrell and others in relation to the effects of the "competency testing" and "back to basics" movements on language arts education. She expressed her concern when she declared that "the language arts are in trouble not from neglect but from distorting pressures and procrustean beds" (p.595). This statement draws attention to the seriousness of the present state of affairs in relation to language arts education because of the effect of the pressures referred to above on how language is conceptualized, as well as attempts to limit the scope of what is done in language arts in most schools today.

Other observations made by Cazden (1980) on the problems created for language arts education by the present limited outlook, included the uncertainty surrounding the goals of language arts education in general and the lack of concern shown in the development of oral communication skills and competencies. She pointed out, however, that little is known about how listening and speaking competencies are learned but that does not constitute sufficient reason for ignoring them in the day-to-day activities in the classroom. Reference was also made to the limitations of the standardized tests used for assessing language in general and oral language in particular, and the effect that their outcomes may have for children. She cautioned that "while

tests may point to the existence of educational problems they cannot solve them" (p.595) and this point may be borne in mind in the planning of programs and the evaluation of them.

The authors cited so far have pointed out the negative impact of the three movements already mentioned on language arts education today. Hendricks (1980) has attempted to reflect on some positive effects of the three movements in the light of what has been regarded as their negative effects on language arts education. She put forward the view that the paucity of contributions on speech methodology evidenced in educational journals during the recent past as well as the undue concentration of editors of journals on other priorities may lead to a revival of interest in oral language and a greater emphasis on its former place among the basics. If this is accomplished it may result in more training being given to teachers in oral communication theory and methods of teaching children how to communicate effectively, at the elementary level. Another point made by Hendricks is that language arts textbooks are still heavily weighted with the prescriptive aspects of language--grammar, writing and spelling-- and the renewal of interest in oral language may influence publishers to emphasize oral communication education in language arts texts. This may help this important component of language to be included as one of the major goals of language arts education, and be perceived in a different light by curriculum planners, teachers, and the children themselves. Hendricks concluded with the suggestion that a merging of ideas and a sharing of knowledge by the communication, speech, and education disciplines should be of great benefit to curriculum specialists, and teachers of speech and language.

The Development of Assessment Instruments to Evaluate Oral Communication

Teachers and education authorities rely on well constructed, reliable and valid evaluation instruments to measure the outcomes of the teaching-learning process and to assess, as objectively as possible, the level of competence of students. Achievement tests and other evaluation instruments have been heavily used to gather data on how well a student has mastered certain specific skills. Cazden (1980) has even suggested that they are being overused generally. Most achievement test batteries incorporate among the subskills tested, the language arts components that are easily testable by reading and making paper-and-pencil responses such as reading comprehension and vocabulary, spelling, punctuation and other skills associated with writing. Evaluation of oral communication or the "speaking" component of the language arts has been neglected. One of the reasons for this neglect may have to do with the difficulty of incorporating a component of this nature among the paper and pencil test batteries which can be administered to large groups at a time. McCaleb (1979) has underscored this lack of assessment measures for oral communication, and has pointed to the need for evaluative procedures and suitable instruments to be developed and utilized so that neglect of this aspect may be changed to interest and action.

A perusal of the literature relating to oral communication by Marchak et al. (1979) has revealed that there is a paucity of evaluation instruments to measure this component. Existing instruments are limited in that they measure specific sub-components only, are

elicited or contrived for the purpose and are therefore not measures of speech produced under natural conditions in a natural setting. It was found, too, that the measures in use were limited to individual and small group administration and could not be applied to the large-group situations such as may exist in school systems. The authors advocated the development of assessment instruments which are more comprehensive in scope to cover a wider variety of situations and communication demands, in order to be truly indicative of a particular child's competence and performance in oral communication. In addition, assessment may focus on both basic oral skills as well as oral activities.

At present education authorities in some states such as Massachusetts, Vermont and Pennsylvania have incorporated oral communication among the repertoire of skills assessed at high school level. At the national level, a recent effort to construct an appropriate and reliable measure to assess oral communication was made. The project was undertaken under the joint auspices of the Speech Communication Association and the National Assessment of Educational Progress organization (Mead, 1980). The development of this instrument is in active progress and aims at developing strategies for assessing communication competencies of elementary and secondary school children. It was found that the development of this instrument to measure oral communication has proved to be time-consuming and the selection of reliable measurement strategies and the elimination of racial and ethnic bias have proved to be difficult. Despite setbacks the completion and release of a valid and reliable assessment instrument to be used on a national basis to evaluate oral communication should fill a need.

Development of New Curriculum Guides to Reflect Changed Emphases

Many states and local education authorities develop and utilize curriculum guides in the language arts to serve as guidelines to their professional staff who teach in that particular discipline. These curriculum guides reflect the philosophy and ideas of the curriculum planners as well as the current trends suggested by the professional organizations which serve the discipline. Two very recent curriculum guides issued by the National Council of Teachers of English give very valuable ideas and suggestions to teachers and curriculum planners to use as models for developing language arts curriculum for the 1980's.

Mandel (1980) has edited a set of guidelines for language arts instruction which could serve as models for local and state development of new or modified curricula. He offered educators three views of curriculum development organized around three different paradigms: the process or student centered model, the heritage or traditional model, and the competencies model. Implications for the language arts curriculum are traced for each of the three perspectives from pre-kindergarten through college. Each section contains a general essay discussing the three paradigms, so that the reader may make his own decision as to the one that best fits the individual teaching philosophy of those selecting the particular model. Mandel suggested that teachers may draw from all of the models or make their own decisions as to which is best according to their underlying assumptions, philosophies and particular emphases.

Glatthorn, (1980) has developed a more focused approach which is intended for use by curriculum planners and those who have direct

leadership in modifying existing curricula. He provides a practical plan for a curriculum which "is true to the intellectual and emotional needs of students while being accountable to society's expectations for a curriculum which is practical and oriented toward skills" (p.x). He felt that schools must go over and beyond the provision merely of survival skills and provide a curriculum which is challenging and coherent, yet capable of meeting individual needs of students and bring about improvement if needed. He also argued that the curriculum should be testable in the areas where testing matters and can be successfully achieved. He also acknowledged the importance of the affective aspects of teaching and learning although he does not elaborate on these. The guide gives details of the framework he suggested for a mastery curriculum in the language arts, which include: curricular mapping, building a content planning matrix, developing the syncretic English curriculum, providing for mandated competencies, using research to improve teaching the skills, and designing and writing mastery units. The guide is comprehensive and forward-looking, bearing not only the present but the future in mind.

The guides described above are included as examples of what has recently been done by the professional organ of language arts educators to provide leadership and direction for language arts education in the 1980's and beyond. Their purpose is to serve as models for improvement and action.

Summary

This review of some trends in language arts education with special

special reference to oral communication spanned several decades but emphasized current trends. The definition of communication cited was formulated nearly half century ago but it is simple and comprehensive and bears some relevance to the efforts being made at the present time to put language teaching into the broader framework of communication.

The process of communication was described so as to bring into focus the knowledge base which forms a backdrop for the present shift in emphasis in language arts education. This change in emphasis was from the analytic study of the structure and content of language i.e. the vehicle, to the process of communication and the interpersonal relationship which evolves as the process is set in motion.

The change in focus from emphasis on linguistic competence (Chomsky, 1965) to communication competence (Hymes 1970, 1971, 1972) was described. An extension of the concept of competence in communication to include functional communication competence (Allen and Brown, 1977, Allen and Wood, 1978, Hopper and Wrather, 1978, Larson et al., 1978, Wood, 1975, Fogel, 1976, and others) was explored. The general consensus of these authors was that children should learn to communicate by communicating, that is, using opportunities for communicating in social contexts in communication environments that have been created for such purposes.

Reference was made to the diminished interest in promoting the oral component of the language arts curriculum because of concentration and preoccupation with "back to basics" and "accountability" requirements. Finally, the lack of assessment instruments for measuring oral communication was underscored and the development of a new instrument was described. Two new curriculum guides were also discussed.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study was designed to investigate the extent to which oral communication apprehension existed among a group of sixth grade students and whether it occurred more in girls than in boys. Further, the study examined whether there were significant sex differences between the oral communication apprehension (OCA) groups in language achievement as well as in attitudes toward the language arts. Another purpose was to determine whether there was a relationship between students' scores on the oral communication apprehension measure and their scores in language achievement and attitudes toward the language arts.

Selection of the Sample

Prior to the selection of the subjects for the study, application was made for about 600 sixth graders in the public school system of Charles County, Maryland, to be participants in the study. Two schools within a ten mile radius of each other with sizeable sixth grades were selected. They were chosen because of their close proximity in geographic location. Together they provided the sample size the researcher requested.

The two schools account for about 16 percent of the total school population. The sixth grade is a part of the middle school organization instead of the elementary school in this county. The sixth grades in both schools are approximately the same size (Charles County Attendance Report, 1981). In the past the county was considered largely rural, but new housing developments and rapid growth have helped to change the population which the schools serve to suburban. The socio-economic levels of the subjects' parents range from lower middle to middle class according to occupation and income. Parental occupations include army personnel, federal, state, and local government workers, law enforcement personnel, managers and owners of small businesses, telephone personnel, technicians, and a variety of professionals. This information was supplied by the school principals from their records as no other official documents were available. Appendix A contains an official fact sheet with further details on the county.

Both schools are built on the open space design. Classroom grouping is heterogeneous. Based on the researcher's observation the classroom atmosphere appeared to be informal. Peer and teacher-pupil relationships seemed relaxed and friendly. The children appeared to be uninhibited in speaking during breaks between activities. With reference to the language arts, the planned activities follow the basic guidelines stipulated by the county (Guide for the Basic Language Skills, 1981). Specific objectives are assigned each grade level and specific skills and activities designed to develop these skills are outlined. The scope and sequence of skills are described fully in the guide. Such skills are recorded as: language and communication (speaking, listening

writing and grammar), vocabulary development (word structure and word meanings in different contexts), capitalization, punctuation and usage as well as reference skills (use of the dictionary, thesaurus and encyclopedia, functions of the card catalogue and parts of a book).

The total sample from both schools consisted of 547 subjects, 266 girls and 281 boys. They were intact classroom groups except for those students who, in the judgement of the school authorities, were considered to have reading problems. This stipulation was made by the researcher so as to ensure that subjects would experience no difficulty in reading and comprehending the items on the self-report instrument and responding to them.

Application for permission to carry out the testing program was made to the Charles County Board of Education, and approval was given prior to the administration of the tests. The principals of the two schools expressed their willingness to have their sixth graders participate in the project and to provide a suitable place and time for the testing program to take place. Both principals and the researcher explained to the sixth grade subjects and their teachers what was the purpose of the study and secured their interest and cooperation. (See Appendix B).

Instrumentation

The Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (PRCF)

This scale was used to collect data on the subjects' fear or apprehension about communication. It is a 14 item, Likert-type self-report scale constructed by McCroskey (1977) and subsequently validated McCroskey, Anderson, et al. 1981). The scale is designed specifically for use with children at the elementary level to obtain responses about the

positive and negative feelings concerning communicating with other people in different contexts. The data when collected are used to identify students with varying degrees of oral communication apprehension from "high" through "moderate" to "low." It assesses the extent of oral communication in the sample to which it is administered. The scale is based on a previous model The Personal Report of Communication Apprehension (McCroskey, 1970) which is frequently used at high school and college levels to tap anxieties that are directed at interpersonal situations, including public speaking ones. The choice of The Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (PRCF) as the instrument used in the present study was based on its availability, its suitability for sixth grade students, its recency, its simplicity and number of items, and its ability to measure what it purports to measure. Permission to use the PRCF was granted orally by its constructor (See Appendix C).

The scale items are scored from 1 (strongly disagree), indicated by "NO" to 5 (strongly agree), indicated by "YES." The respondents are asked by means of short statements how apprehensive they feel about oral communication in different contexts. They are directed to make a choice by circling that point on the 5 point scale which indicates the degree to which each statement applies to the individual personally. (See PRCF Scale, Appendix D)

Examples of a positive and a negative item are:

YES yes ? no NO 2. I look forward to talking in class.

YES yes ? no NO 7. I am scared to talk to people.

It is not a timed test but subjects are encouraged to work quickly and to record their first impression. Subjects are also assured that there

are no right or wrong answers so that they may feel free to make individual choices in the way they relate to them personally without the fear of being considered wrong. All of the 14 items are expected to be responded to during the time the test is administered.

Reliability. For the purpose of establishing the reliability of the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale, (PRCF) McCroskey et al. (1981) administered the instrument to 462 nine to twelve year old students in five school districts. These constituted part of a larger sample of 2,228 students from kindergarten to sixth grade who participated in the study. A split half reliability coefficient of .90 (internal consistency) was obtained for the two dimensions (split half, internal consistency) for the nine to twelve age group which is the age group on which the present study focused.

Validity. McCroskey et al. (1981) computed the validity of the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale for the ten to twelve age group to be .95. The investigators used the Measure of Elementary Communication Apprehension (MECA) Scale (Garrison and Brown, 1979) as the criterion measure for obtaining the validity of the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (PRCF). McCroskey et al. regard the validity figure obtained as quite high and therefore the PRCF Scale can be considered an appropriate measure for the purpose of this study.

Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale

This scale is one component of a larger battery of attitude tests constructed by Arlin and Hills (1974) to give an index of how

pupils feel about the Language Arts activities they engage in within the classroom situation. The total battery consists of four questionnaires specifically aimed at assessing pupils' attitudes toward the learning processes, toward teachers, toward arithmetic and toward the language arts. Each questionnaire is unidimensional, has 15 questions and uses a cartoon format to provide enjoyment. The Language Arts questionnaire covers statements relating to aspects of the language arts other than speaking, including reading, writing and spelling. Speaking and listening are not included among the 15 items which comprise the scale. In the present study the speaking aspect was measured by the PRCF scale.

Arlin and Hills (1974) reported that 14,000 pupils from grades 1 to 12 in a Southern state were tested in the total sample. They were given the four questionnaires mentioned above in rotation. The Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale was a major component. The results for this component are reported below.

Reliability. The authors reported that a sample of 6,000 subjects was used to obtain the reliability figure. The reliability of the test was estimated from the internal consistency measures. The summated ratings from the 8 odd items were correlated with the corresponding 7 even items of the instrument in order to obtain the test reliability coefficient. The resulting product moment correlations were then corrected for length using the Spearman Brown formula. A reliability figure of .83 was obtained. The authors felt that this represented a reasonable degree of internal consistency and could be considered an acceptable

estimate of the generalizability to universe scores (Arlin-Hills Manual, 1974). (See Scale, Appendix E).

Validity. For the purpose of estimating the validity of the tests, Arlin and Hills (1974) carried out a multitrait-multimethod construct validation study of 402 pupils in grades two to six. The pupils took the instruments in cartoon and non-cartoon formats. It was found that the cartoon method for the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale yielded a validity figure of .75. The cartoon method was used in the present study. The authors held the view that if the test was limited to group interpretation only, a reasonable degree of measurement validity may be achieved (Arlin-Hills Manual, 1974). This suggestion was borne in mind in the present investigation.

The Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Test L, Language Subtest

This instrument is a standardized achievement measure. The Board of Education of Charles County has used this measure for assessing the levels of proficiency of its pupils. One component of the total achievement battery, is the Language Skills Subtest, designated Test L. This Language Skills Subtest, is a composite of Spelling, Capitalization, Punctuation and Usage. The total language score was used in this study as the language achievement measure. (See Appendix F).

The ITBS test battery has been used for over 40 years by Boards of Education in the school systems of many states in the nation. The authors claim that the purpose of the test battery is to test

generalized skills and abilities of the testees in the curricular areas covered. Such tests are used to evaluate the performance of students at all levels in different curricular areas including language. A broad national sample was used as the norm group. The norms appeared to be truly representative of the general population. Three types of norms are provided: grade equivalents, age equivalents and standard scores. Each is supplemented by percentile norms for appropriate reference groups (Hieronymus and Lindquist, 1971).

Reliability and Validity. According to the Eighth Mental Measurement Yearbook (Buros, 1978), the reliability of the ITBS achievement test is high, ranging from .84 to .86 for the major test and from .70 to .93 for the subtests. The composite reliabilities for the whole test are reported to range from .97 to .98 for the different grades. Validation figures were not quoted in any of the sources researched. The Buros Mental Measurement Yearbook (1978) states, however that the validation of the test was based on all the commonly used principles for the validation of test content - curricular and statistical. In addition it was reported that, "the real strength of the tests is their curricular validity, careful construction, adequate norms based on a national sample of 74,000 pupils in 213 school systems " (p. 35).

Administration of the Tests

Class lists of the names of the sixth grade students who were to participate in the testing program were obtained from the school principals beforehand. The lists indicated those who remained after

students with reading problems were eliminated. Names of students who were absent on the day of the test were also deleted subsequently.

The tests were administered in the multi-purpose room of the two schools from which the subjects were drawn. This environment was roomy, pleasant and comfortable with individual dual-purpose seats. There was enough space for children to be distributed around the room to obviate the possibility of copying each other's responses. The children were released from their classes in groups so that between 25 and 30 pupils were tested at a time. Teachers and other authority figures were asked not to be present during the actual administration of the tests so as to reduce the possibility of biased responses and to expose all the subjects to the same tester. One school was tested one day and the other the day after beginning at 9 a.m. and continuing throughout the day.

During the test administration the same procedure prevailed with all groups. The tester introduced herself and explained why she was doing the study and what was required of each of the subjects during the session. She said to each group: "I am doing a study to find out what sixth graders in the Charles County area feel about communicating with other people in different situations--for example when speaking before your class. In order to get your personal responses you will be given a questionnaire with 14 statements to which you are asked to respond as it relates to each of you. You should each have a pencil of your own for responding."

The tester distributed one copy of the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale face down, to each child. She instructed the students to turn their copies to the side on which the statements were written and requested that they follow her instructions carefully. She let the children know that their responses would not be seen by their teachers or the school authorities, and that whatever they recorded on their questionnaires would remain confidential. On the chalkboard a printed chart which displayed a larger version of the directions for responding to the scale was pinned up. The tester read and explained the procedure from the chart. The subjects were asked to read from the chart with the tester first, then do so silently from their copies of the questionnaire. The printed instructions read:

DIRECTIONS: The following 14 statements concern feelings about communicating with other people. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by circling your response. Mark "YES" if you strongly agree, "yes" if you agree, "?" if you are unsure, "no" if you disagree, or "NO" if you strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers. Work quickly; record your first impression. (McCroskey, 1977).

Subjects were then asked to write their responses to the self-report scale indicating their choices by circling one of the points on the five point scale. The tester read aloud each of the items before the responses were made by the children and allowed one minute before proceeding to the next item. After the 14th item was completed the tester requested that the children write their names on the top left hand side on the back of the questionnaire, along with the designation of their classrooms. The tester explained that the names

and classrooms were needed merely for grouping of the data by the computer, and that their individual responses would be kept confidential. The completed questionnaires were collected and stacked. The children were warmly thanked for their participation and encouraged to relax for a few minutes while the second questionnaire was being distributed.

The second questionnaire, The Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale was distributed face down. Children were asked to be quiet and to listen carefully because the second questionnaire was somewhat different from the first. The items on this questionnaire asked them about their feelings about school activities involving language. The questionnaires were turned face upward for the instructions to be read along with the tester, as was done with the first test.

DIRECTIONS: We would like to know how you feel about language arts. Blacken in the circle with a pencil to show how you feel. Fill in only one circle for each question. YOUR TEACHER WILL NOT SEE THIS -- Your answers will go straight into the computer. Have fun! (Arlin-Hills, 1974).

As was done with the first instrument, the instructions were read aloud from a chart on the blackboard. Subjects were requested to indicate by raising their hands if they needed to ask any question whatsoever. They were then asked to respond to the self-report scale, filling in each item as it related to them personally. They were allowed a minute for reading and responding to each item. After all the items were completed the questionnaires were collected. The children were complimented on their cooperation and thanked warmly for their participation. The same procedure was followed for each classroom

group to whom the test was administered.

Scoring Procedures

Scoring Procedures for the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale

The individual self-report sheets containing the responses to The Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (McCroskey, 1977 and 1981) were manually scored by the tester. Each item was given a number between one and five according to the point in the scale that was circled by the responder. The scoring key indicated the following: YES = 1, yes = 2, ? = 3, no = 4, NO = 5. The other steps were:

1. Add the scores for items 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, and 12.
2. Add the scores for items 1, 5, 7, 10, 11, 13, and 14.
3. Add 42 to the total of step 1.
4. Subtract the total of step 2 from the total of step 3.

The score should be between 14 and 70.

Scoring Procedure for the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale

This instrument was also scored manually by the tester. Each response was given a numerical value. They were: NO = 0, SOMETIMES = 1, USUALLY = 2, and YES = 3. This indicated that the positive items received the highest points and the negative items the least points. The scores for the 15 items were totalled to obtain a score for each student. Each student's total score was then recorded. The above scoring procedure for this instrument was followed in accordance with the instructions recommended in the constructors of the scale (Arlin-Hills, 1974) in their published manual.

Scoring Procedures for the Iowa Test of Basic Skills -- Language Subtest

This test was administered by the school authorities, and machine scored and recorded by the Houghton Mifflin Scoring Service, publishers of the test. Permission was granted by the Board of Education of Charles County for the individual scores in language achievement for each of the subjects to be extracted from their records.

Data Gathering Procedures

This was a descriptive study employing empirical data. It involved an assessment of the magnitude of the oral communication apprehension problem among the sixth graders in the sample. Sex differences in achievement in, as well as attitudes toward the language arts between the OCA groups were also assessed. The extent of the oral communication apprehension problem was assessed by examining the data collected from the Personal Report of Communication Fear self-report measure. These data were used to categorize the scores into five groups according to the criteria stipulated by the constructor of the instrument (McCroskey, 1977 and 1981). The scores were used for grouping the students into five categories according to their levels of oral communication apprehension. Each OCA group was subdivided into boys and girls. The standard deviation approach was used to differentiate the levels of oral communication apprehension. Subjects who scored higher than one standard deviation above the mean of the whole group were classified as "High oral communication apprehensives." At the other

end of the continuum, subjects who scored one standard deviation below the mean of the entire group were classified as "Low oral communication apprehensives." Students classified in the "High apprehensive" group were the ones who have a high degree of oral communication apprehension as indicated by their responses to the oral communication apprehension measure. Students in the "Low apprehension" category were the ones who were considered to have no oral communication apprehension problems.

The subjects whose scores classified them as mildly or moderately apprehensive in oral communication situations were put into three categories according to their level of oral apprehension. Those whose scores clustered nearer to the "High apprehensive" category, that is, were between half and one standard deviation above the mean, were categorized in the "Moderately High" group. In contrast, those students whose scores clustered nearer the "Low apprehensive" category, that is, were between half and one standard deviation below the mean were categorized as "Moderately Low". The fifth group, that is, those subjects whose scores fell within half a standard deviation of the mean were categorized as "Moderately apprehensive."

Language achievement was measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Test L, Language Skills Subtest. (Hieronymus and Lindquist, 1971). This subtest is the language component of a comprehensive standardized achievement test used to assess the performance of students at the elementary level in specific areas of the curriculum. The tests were not administered by the researcher. They were administered by School Board personnel to the sixth grade students in the sample

prior to the administration of the oral communication apprehension and attitude test measures. The scores were obtained from the last standardized achievement test battery given to the sixth grade students nine months earlier. The composite score for the language subtest was extracted from the students' records.

The Arlin-Hills Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale (Arlin-Hills, 1974) was the other instrument which was administered to the students by the researcher during the testing session, after the oral communication apprehension measure was administered. This short paper-and pencil, self-report measure taps the attitudes of the students toward the different aspects of the language arts except listening and speaking. The scores obtained from this measure were scored according to the procedure suggested by the test constructors (Arlin-Hills, 1974) and discussed in detail earlier in this chapter.

Methods of Data Analysis

The scores obtained from the three tests used to gather the data for this study: The Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale (PRCS), the Iowa Test of Basic Skills-Language Subtest (ITBS-L), and the Arlin-Hills Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale (ALA) were statistically analysed by using the Biomedical and Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Programs (1977). The treatment of the data by these programs was done on the UNIVAC 1108 at the University of Maryland Computer Science Center. The other computations for the percentages of students in each of the five oral communication apprehension groups as well as the Chi-square analysis were done manually.

The data for each of the hypotheses stated in Chapter I were presented in tabular form as shown in Chapter IV and analyzed in textual form as they related to each hypothesis in sequence. Means and standard deviations were used to identify and categorize the five OCA groups using numbers and percentages (Hypothesis 1). A two-way ANOVA and the Scheffé test of pairwise comparisons were done to test for significance of sex differences (Hypothesis 2) for the ITBS-L test. A similar treatment of the data for the ALA test was also done. A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also done to test for significance of difference of the five group means with respect to achievement in the language arts. A similar analysis for attitudes toward the language arts was done to see if there was any relationship between the OCA group scores. (Hypotheses 3 and 4). Finally in order to assess the degree of the relationship, if any, between the OCA scores and the scores for the ITBS-L test, as well as those of the ALA test, an intercorrelation of the scores using Pearson's Product Moment method was done. The correlations were tested for significance at the .05 level. The appropriate table was used for the purpose.

The above methods for data analysis were considered appropriate for testing the six hypotheses of this study stated in Chapter 1.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

The analysis of the statistical data relative to the six research questions is presented in this chapter. The study was designed to assess the extent to which oral communication apprehension as measured by the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale existed among the students in terms of percentages at different levels of its occurrence. An additional focus was to examine whether the scores obtained from the above scale indicated that there were statistically significant sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension. The significance of sex differences in language achievement as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills--Language Subtest as well as in attitudes toward the language arts as measured by the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale, were assessed. A further focus was to determine whether there was any relationship between oral communication apprehension and language achievement and between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts.

The first analysis presented in this chapter relates to the percentage differences in oral communication apprehension among the sixth grade students in the sample at the various levels of its occurrence. In order

to test Hypothesis 1, the mean and standard deviation for the total sample were computed from the raw scores obtained from the oral communication apprehension measure. It was found that the mean score of the sample for the oral communication apprehension scale was 34.88 and standard deviation 9.59. As the mean and standard deviation figures corresponded closely to those of McCroskey et al. (1981) in their study which reported a mean of 36.5 and a standard deviation of 9.6, they were used for categorizing the 547 students into five groups according to the following procedure:

Low -- subjects who scored lower than one standard deviation below the mean of the entire group.

Moderately Low -- subjects who scored between half and one standard deviation below the mean.

Moderate -- subjects who scored within one half standard deviation of the mean.

Moderately High -- subjects who scored between half and one standard deviation above the mean.

High -- subjects who scored higher than one standard deviation above the mean of the entire group.

The data obtained from the administration of the two tests as well as the students' scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Language Subtest are presented in tabular form below, for the purpose of testing the six hypotheses of the study. (See Appendix G for the frequencies of the scores)

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis tested was as follows:

The percentages for the sizes of the groups of children in the sample identified at the various levels of oral communication apprehension correspond closely to what was expected in the normal distribution of the school population.

In order to test this hypothesis the number and percentage of students in each of the five oral communication apprehension (OCA) groups in the entire sample were computed. The distribution of the groups is presented in Table I.

Table I

Total Number and Percentages of Boys and Girls in Each Oral
Communication Apprehension (OCA) Category

Categories	Boys		Girls		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Low	44	8.04	43	7.86	87	16*
Moderately Low	61	11.15	45	8.23	106	19*
Moderate	79	14.44	73	13.35	152	28*
Moderately High	58	10.60	63	11.52	121	22*
High	39	7.13	42	7.68	81	15*
Total	281		266		547	

*rounded to the nearest percent

The data on Table I reveal that 87 subjects or 16 percent of the number of students obtained scores which fell into the Low Oral Communication Apprehensive (OCA) category. According to the criteria for categorizing the students into the five OCA categories, subjects whose scores fell within this category are classified as having the lowest level of oral communication apprehension or no problem at all. The percentages for boys and girls in this category were 8.04 for boys and 7.86 for girls. In contrast, the number and percentage of subjects whose scores fell into the High Oral Communication Apprehensive category were 81 or 15 percent. Students with scores in this category are the ones who are classified as having the highest level of oral communication, and are perceived as having severe oral communication apprehension problems.

The total number of students in the three combined moderately apprehensive groups (106 Moderately Low, 152 Moderate and 121 Moderately High) equalled 69 percent of the total sample. Of this, the middle or moderate group accounted for 28 percent of the total sample. There were 3 percent more students in the Moderately High group than in the Moderately Low group, which indicates that there were slightly more students who were Moderately High apprehensives than Moderately Low. The data also reveal that there is only a one percentage difference between the High and Low groups with the High group the lower of the two. Also, though it is a slight difference, being only two percent, the percentage of students on the two High OCA groups is more than that in the two Low OCA groups. The Moderate groups, in contrast, show wider percentage differences. There is a 12 percent difference between the Low

and Moderate OCA groups and 13 percent between the High and Moderate OCA groups.

With reference to the data stated above, the findings can be summarized as follows:

1. There were 15 percent of the students in the High OCA group which is 1 percent lower than those in the Low OCA group.
2. The percentages of students experiencing the highest level of oral communication apprehension, that is, the High to Moderately High groups ranged from 15 percent to 22 percent of the students in the sample.
3. In the Moderately Low group, there were 2.92 percent more boys than girls, but the sex differences in each of the other OCA groups varied slightly above 1 percentage point.
4. Sixty nine percent of the total sample were classified in one of the moderate groups (Moderately Low, Moderate, Moderately High). Sixteen percent were among the Low or least apprehensive category, and 15 percent in the High or most apprehensive category. Hence, the percentages for the sizes of the groups for the various levels of oral communication apprehension correspond closely to what was found in related studies (McCroskey, 1976; Bruskin Report, 1979, p. 2) and to what is theoretically expected in the normal distribution of the school population.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis tested was as follows:

There are statistically significant sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension between the pairs of the sexes in each category of the sixth grade students in the sample.

In order to test this hypothesis, Chi-square values were computed on frequencies for boys and girls in each of the OCA groups. Table 2 presents the observed and expected frequencies. This method of analysis is based on Garrett's view (1971) that observed results may be tested experimentally against probabilities calculated from the normal curve, and that when n is as large as 100, "the resulting distribution is very close to the normal probability curve and may be so treated with little error " (p. 251).

Table 2
Observed and Expected Frequencies of Boys and Girls in
the Oral Communication Apprehension Categories

Sex Groups	Low	Mod. Low	Mod.	Mod. High	High	Total
Boys	*(44.7) 44	(54.5) 61	(78.1) 79	(62.2) 58	(41.6) 39	281
Girls	*(42.3) 43	(51.5) 45	(73.9) 73	(58.8) 63	(39.4) 42	266
Total	87	106	152	121	81	547

*indicates expected frequencies

These data were used to compute the Chi-square values for each of the cells in the 5x2 block design shown in Table 2. It was found that the sum of the Chi-square values of the ten cells is equal to 2.558. Using tables of Chi-square it was also found that for 4 degrees of freedom a Chi-square value of 9.488 is necessary in order for it to be significant at the .05 level. Therefore it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference between the sexes in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among the groups in the sample. Based on this finding, Hypothesis 2 may be rejected.

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis to be tested is stated as follows:

There are statistically significant sex differences in language achievement among the OCA groups in the sample.

The data for the third hypothesis dealing with sex differences in performance of the boys and girls in the different OCA categories with reference to their language achievement are first presented in Tables 3 and 4. These show both the total means and those for each sex group for the Iowa Test of Basic Skills - Language Subtest.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills - Language Subtest, for the Total Sample and the Sexes

Sex Groups	n	Mean	SD
Boys	281	57.35	23.89
Girls	266	64.47	23.46
Total	547	60.81	23.93

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores of the Iowa Test
of Basic Skills - Language Subtest, by Category and Sex

Category	Boys ' Mean	SD	Girls ' Mean	SD
Low	63.25	22.89	71.49	18.42
Mod. Low	58.64	23.24	62.04	21.83
Mod.	56.23	25.33	68.49	21.58
Mod. High	56.17	21.46	64.46	24.68
High	52.72	26.10	52.90	27.11

Table 3 shows the means and standard deviations for the total sample and for the total boys and total girls for the scores of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills - Language Subtest. Table 4 shows the same data for the five OCA groups subdivided into the sexes. The mean for the entire sample for the language achievement test was 60.81, and the standard deviation 23.93. The means for the females range from 52.90 for the High group to 71.49 for the Low group. With the exception of the High OCA female group, the female means are above the total sample mean for language achievement. The standard deviations range from 18.42 for the Low group to 27.11 for the High. This indicates that there is

greater variability in the distribution of the scores for the High oral communication apprehensive female group than for the Low OCA group. (See Appendix H for histograms of the data).

The figures for the males show that the mean scores range from 52.72 for the High OCA group to 63.25 for the Low. With the exception of the Low male group, the male means are all below the total sample mean. It may also be noted that both the male and female High OCA groups have mean scores of approximately 53, which place them below the total sample mean. This also reveals that both males and females who are High oral communication apprehensives seem to perform below the mean in language achievement, while those who are in the Low category score above the mean, particularly the girls. It may also be observed that the means for girls in the three moderate groups are above the sample mean, while those for the moderate boys fall below. In order to arrive at a conclusion on the above findings a two-way analysis of variance for testing the significance of differences of the group means from the ITBS-L test according to sex was done.

The data for assessing sex differences by a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the Iowa Test of Basic Skills--Language Subtest (ITBS-L) are presented in Table 5 which follows. The columns for this table show the source of variance, the sums of squares, the degrees of freedom, the mean square variances and the F-ratios for the main effects, for sex and OCA, for the two-way interactions of sex and OCA, as well as for the residual sums of the squares. This format is similarly used for the two-way analysis of variance for the attitudes toward the language arts data in Table 9 which follows.

Table 5
Two-way Analysis of Variance for Sex and OCA for the
Iowa Test of Basic Skills - Language Subtest

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects	16354.63	5	3270.93	5.98*
Sex	7159.19	1	7159.19	13.09*
OCA	9432.03	4	2358.01	4.31*
2-way Interactions Sex and OCA	2399.80	4	599.95	1.10
Residual	293790.09	537	547.10	
Total	312544.51	546	572.43	

*Indicates significance at the .05 level

The results of the two-way analysis of variance for the scores of the ITBS-L test show that the F-ratio figures of 5.98 for the main effects, 13.09 for the sex effects, and 4.31 for the OCA effects for the ITBS-L test shown, are all significant at the .05 level. It can be noted that the two-way interactions for sex and OCA show an F-ratio figure of 1.10 that is not statistically significant at the .05 level. It may be, however, explained that the interaction sum of the squares is whatever is left when the systematic effects of sex and OCA have been removed from the total sum of the squares and that it measures factors which are attributable to neither sex nor OCA alone, but rather to both acting

together (Garrett, 1971, p.293). Since the interaction effects between sex and OCA are not significant, it may therefore be inferred that the interaction effects contribute little or nothing to the sex differences in language achievement between the OCA groups.

In order to verify further the significance of differences of paired group means for the sexes, the Scheffé method of pairwise comparison described by Kirk (1978, p.322) was performed on the data to determine the source of statistical significance of the differences between each pair of group means for the sexes. These data are presented in Table 6.

Table 6
Results of the Scheffé Test of Pairwise Comparisons of
Group Means for the Iowa Test of Basic Skills--
Language, According to Category and Sex

OCA Groups	Value	S. Error	T Value	df	T Prob.
Contrast Low	38.75	11.43	3.39	542	.001*
Contrast Mod. Low	33.78	11.11	3.04	542	.002
Contrast Mod.	19.27	8.45	2.28	542	.023*
Contrast Mod. High	8.06	7.55	1.07	542	.286
Contrast High	14.10	4.82	2.93	542	.004

*Indicates pairs of means significantly different at the .05 level.

The above data for the analysis of the paired group means obtained from the scores of the ITBS-L test for the sexes show that

two of the paired group means, Low and Moderate, differ significantly at the .05 level. Based on the two-way analysis of variance and the Scheffé results, Hypothesis 3 is therefore accepted for the Low and Moderate groups.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis tested was stated as follows: There are statistically significant sex differences in attitudes toward the language arts among the oral communication apprehension groups in the sample.

In order to test this hypothesis, the means and standard deviations were computed for the scores from the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale. These data are shown in Table 7 for the total sample and for the sexes. Table 8 shows the same data for the five OCA groups subdivided for the sexes. (See Histograms, Appendix I).

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores of the Attitudes
Toward the Language Arts Scale for Total Sample and Sexes

Sex Groups	n	Mean	SD
Boys	281	20.26	3.74
Girls	266	21.48	3.70
Total	547	20.85	3.77

Table 8
Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores of the Attitudes
Toward the Language Arts Scale by Category and Sex

Category	Boys' Mean	SD	Girls' Mean	SD
Low	21.43	3.93	21.67	3.64
Mod. Low	20.57	3.82	21.93	3.23
Mod.	20.06	4.05	21.56	3.91
Mod. High	19.56	3.10	20.67	3.53
High	19.90	3.44	21.86	4.06

On examining the data in Tables 7 and 8 it may be observed that the entire sample mean computed from the scores of the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale (ALA) is 20.85, and the SD 3.77. The mean for boys in the entire group is 20.26. This is slightly lower than that for the girls which is 21.48.

On examining the means for the OCA groups in Table 8 it may be noted that the group means for boys ranged from 19.56 (Mod. High) to 21.43 (Low). A comparison of the male High and Low OCA groups reveals that the group mean for the High group is slightly lower than that for the Low group, being 19.90 and 21.43 respectively. The group means for girls range from 20.67 (Mod. High) to 21.93 (Mod. Low). These data for girls show very little difference from the mean scores of the total

sample. The total SD is close to the girls' which range from 3.23 (Mod. Low) to 4.06 (High). It can thus be seen that there is no appreciable difference between the group means for the girls and that of boys although the means of the girls were slightly higher in each of the OCA groups. Also it can be seen that the highest mean score for the boys is that of the Low group, while that of the girls is the Moderately Low group. This finding also suggests that Low or Moderately Low oral communication apprehensive students seem to score better on the attitudes toward the Language Arts scale than the more highly apprehensive groups. In order to assess whether the differences among means were significant, a two-way analysis of variance was done for the ALA test. The results of this test are shown in Table 9 below.

Table 9
Two-way Analysis of Variance for Sex and OCA for the
Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects	332.62	5	66.52	4.84*
Sex	215.38	1	215.38	15.67*
OCA	128.83	4	32.21	2.34
2-way Interactions Sex and OCA	35.32	4	8.83	.64
Residual	7381.77	537	13.75	
Total	7749.70	546	14.19	

*Indicates F-ratio significant at the .05 level

Table 9 shows the data for the two-way analysis of variance for the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts test scores. The F-ratio of 4.84 for main effects, sex and OCA, and 15.67 for sex alone are significant at the .05 level. Yet, as the two-way interaction figures between sex and OCA indicated by the F-ratio of 0.64 are not significant at the .05 level, it is necessary to make further comparisons of the paired group means for the sexes in order to find out which of the pairs of group means is significant. This comparison was accordingly done using the Scheffé method of pairwise comparison. The relevant data are presented in Table 10.

Table 10
Results of the Scheffé Test of Pairwise Comparisons of
Group Means for Attitudes Toward the Language Arts
Scale According to Category and Sex

OCA Groups	Value	S. Error	T Value	DF	T Prob.
Contrast Low	-.04	1.81	-.03	542	.98
Contrast Mod. Low	3.24	1.76	1.84	542	.07
Contrast Mod.	2.60	1.34	1.94	542	.05
Contrast Mod. High	-.68	1.38	-.50	542	.62
Contrast High	1.67	.76	2.18	542	.03

The above data reveal that none of the paired group means

for the sexes for the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale was significantly different at the .05 level. Therefore, based on these findings, Hypothesis 4 cannot be accepted.

Hypothesis 5

The next hypothesis tested was stated as follows: There are statistically significant differences in language achievement among the oral communication apprehension groups in the sample.

The relevant data for the group means and standard deviations for each of the oral communication apprehension categories are presented in Table 11 below, for the scores of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills--Language Subtest.

Table 11
Group Means and SDs for the Oral Communication Apprehension Categories
for the Iowa Test of Basic Skills--Language Subtest

Categories	n	Mean	SD
Low	87	67.32	21.09
Moderately Low	106	60.08	22.61
Moderate	152	62.12	24.32
Moderately High	121	60.49	23.47
High	81	52.81	26.46
Total	547	60.81	23.93

It can be observed from Table 11 that the mean scores for the oral communication apprehension groups range from 52.81 for the High group to 67.32 for the Low group. These figures indicate that the children who have the highest level of oral communication apprehension had a much lower mean score in language achievement than those with a low level of oral communication apprehension. It can also be noted that the sample mean is 60.81 and that the High group mean is much lower than that for the sample. On the other hand, the mean of the low group is much higher than that for the entire group. Further, the means of the Moderately Low and the Moderately High groups are about the same as that for the sample, while the Moderate group mean is only 1.31 above that for the sample. Based on the above data it is feasible to infer that there is a relationship between oral communication apprehension and achievement in the language arts. In order to make a further examination of this finding a one-way analysis of variance was also done, the details of which are discussed later in this chapter.

The figures for the SDs for each of the groups range from 21.09 for the low group to 26.46 for the High group. The SD for the scores of the entire sample is 23.93 and the SDs for the Moderately High group is approximately the same (23.47). It can also be noted that the SD for the Moderate group is 24.32 which is 0.39 above the standard deviation for the sample. These figures indicate that there is a wider variability in the spread of the scores within the High group than within the Low, and that the variability of the spread of the scores within the Moderate groups are small and approximate to that of the entire sample. This evidence reveals that there are wider differences in the performance of

the children in language achievement within the High group as compared to children within the Low group, while the differences within the Moderate groups are negligible. These differences between the groups in the spread of the scores within the groups may be attributed to differences in the level of oral communication apprehension between the groups. From this it may again be inferred that there is some relationship between oral communication apprehension and language achievement as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills-Language Subtest.

In order to test the significance of the differences among the group means of the five oral communication apprehension groups, a one-way analysis of variance was done for the scores obtained from the Iowa Test of Basic Skills Language-Subtest. The data for this analysis are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Results of One-way Analysis of Variance of the Group Means
for the Iowa Test of Basic Skills-Language Subtest

Source	SS	df	MS	F Ratio
Between	9195.42	4	2298.86	4.11*
Within	303349.45	542	559.69	
Total	312544.87	546		

*Indicates significance at the .01 level

It will be observed in Table 12 that an F-ratio of 4.11 for the between groups source of variance was obtained. These figures indicate that there is a significant difference among the five group means for the OCA categories at the .01 level of significance. If there was no relationship between the oral communication apprehension factor and achievement in the language arts, it may be inferred that the F-ratio would be found not to be significant at any level of significance. It is feasible to arrive at the conclusion with some confidence that there is a relationship between oral communication apprehension and achievement in the language arts, for this data reveal that the mean scores of the subjects for the OCA groups vary significantly according to the level of oral communication apprehension.

Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 was stated in the following manner: There are statistically significant differences in attitudes toward the language arts among the oral communication apprehension groups in the sample.

The data for the group means and the standard deviations for each of the oral communication apprehension categories are presented in Table 13 for the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale. The format of this table is similar to that of Table 11 for the relevant data of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Language Subtest. In it are shown the different categories of oral communication apprehension groups. The sample size for each of these categories is also given in addition to the means and standard deviations for each.

Table 13
Group Means and SDs for the Oral Communication Apprehension
Categories for the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale

Categories	n	Mean	SD
Low	87	21.55	3.77
Moderately Low	106	21.15	3.63
Moderate	152	20.78	4.04
Moderately High	121	20.12	3.37
High	81	20.91	3.88
Total	547	20.85	3.77

Table 13 shows that the mean scores of the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale range from 20.12 for the Moderately High group to 21.55 for the Low group. The sample mean is 20.85 while the means for the Moderately Low group is 21.15 and 20.78 for the Moderate group. These figures indicate that the means of the five groups are all very close to the sample mean (not more than .07 nor less than .73). Hence, based on these data it may tentatively be inferred that differences in the level of oral communication apprehension may have little or no relationship to attitudes toward the language arts.

The data for the SDs shown in Table 13 range from 3.37 for the Moderately High group to 4.04 for the Moderate group. These figures reveal that there are negligible differences between the SDs of the

groups as well as within the groups in the spread of the scores. This evidence tends to further suggest that there is little or no relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts.

Table 14 presents the data for the one-way analysis of variance for the attitudes toward the language arts scores for the five oral communication apprehension groups. This analysis is intended to examine whether there are significant differences among the means of the five oral communication apprehension groups for the attitudes toward the language arts test scores.

Table 14
Results of the One-Way Analysis of Variance for the Attitudes
Toward the Language Arts Scale

Source	SS	df	MS	F-Ratio
Between	117.23	4	29.31	2.08
Within	7632.47	542	14.08	
Total	7749.70	546		

Table 14 presents the one-way analysis of variance data from the scores of the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale for the five OCA groups. It may be observed from the above table that the F-ratio for the between groups source of variance is 2.08. This indicates that there are no significant differences among the means of the five groups.

Based on this finding it may be concluded that there is no relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts. Hypothesis 5 may therefore be rejected on the basis of this and the above evidence.

A final analysis to test Hypotheses 5 and 6 was done by the method of intercorrelation of the OCA scores of the students in the sample with those obtained from the ITBS-L and ALA tests. The data for this are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Inter-correlation Matrix for the OCA, ALA and ITBS-L Scores

Test Variables	n	OCA	ALA	ITBS-L
OCA	547	1.000	-.087	-.142*
ALA	547	-.087	1.000	.044
ITBS-L	547	-.142*	.044	1.000

*Indicates significance at the .05 level $P=.001$

Table 15 presents the data for the Pearson product-moment intercorrelations of the scores for the three test variables -- OCA, ALA, and ITBS-L for the entire sample. It is to be observed that the correlation between the OCA test scores and those of the ITBS-L is $-.142$, and the ALA is $-.087$. Based on the table for testing significance of correlation coefficients (Garrett, 1971, p. 201) for a sample of 547 students, an r of $-.142$ is significant at the .05 level. From

this it can be concluded that there is a relationship between oral communication apprehension and language achievement as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Language Subtest. On the other hand, the correlation figure of $-.087$ between the OCA and the ALA tests is not significant and indicates no relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts as measured by the Arlin-Hills Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale. The above findings support what was found in the earlier analyses of the data with reference to Hypotheses 5 and 6.

The significant correlation cited above in Table 15 for the OCA and ITBS-L scores is low and negative, indicating that the degree of the relationship between oral communication apprehension and language achievement is slight and only in the negative direction. This finding suggests that as the level of oral communication apprehension increases, there is a corresponding decrease in language achievement. Since the correlation figure for the OCA and ALA test scores are not significant, it can be concluded now with much confidence that there is little or no difference in attitudes toward the language arts between the sixth grade children of different levels of oral communication apprehension in the sample.

The results of the intercorrelations of the three test variables shown above in Table 15 support the findings of the previous analyses of the data for Hypotheses 5 and 6. The consistency of these findings by the different methods of data analyses reinforces the researcher in the view that the results obtained for the two last mentioned hypotheses are most valid.

Another finding of interest from the intercorrelations data in Table I5, though not related to any of the six hypotheses of this study, was the positive though not significant correlation of .044 between the ALA and ITBS-L scores. This indicates that the scores for these two test variables are related in a positive direction, that is, they both increase and decrease simultaneously. This relationship is however slight and not significant as implied by the low and not significant correlation coefficient of .044. Based on this finding it may be inferred that there is little relationship between attitudes toward the language arts and language achievement as measured by the Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale and the Iowa Test of Basic Skills--Language Subtest respectively.

The findings and conclusions arising from the various analyses of the data presented in this chapter are summarized and discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a review of the study, summarizes and discusses the findings, states the conclusions and interprets both in the light of their relationship to previous research. The chapter also makes recommendations for further research and discusses implications for education.

Review of the Study

The study was undertaken to investigate the extent of oral communication apprehension among a sample of sixth grade students selected from two neighboring schools in the Charles County, Maryland school system. It was also designed to assess whether there were significant sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among the students in the sample. Sex differences in language achievement and in attitudes toward the language arts among the students in the five oral communication apprehension groups were also assessed. Another purpose of the study was to investigate whether there was a relationship between oral communication apprehension and language achievement as well as attitudes toward the language arts.

The study was intended to be investigative rather than definitive. It was hoped that it would draw the attention of teachers

and education authorities to the existence of the oral communication apprehension problem, and make them aware that some proportion of the elementary school population may be apprehensive about communicating. The second thrust of the study was to focus on possible pragmatic strategies for dealing with the problem.

The Problem

Communication in general, and oral communication in particular, is of prime importance in the lives of students at all levels and can be considered a basic human survival skill. It is so essential in the school situation because it is a tool to facilitate learning and social interaction, and is used to evaluate the outcomes of the learning process. It has been reported in recent studies that there are people in the society at large who regard fear of communication as a major fear (Bruskin Report, 1973). In the school situation several studies have investigated oral communication at the college and secondary levels as mentioned in Chapters I and II. The present study is an attempt to focus on this "fear of communication" problem at the elementary level, where a dearth of studies exists, and to investigate its relationship to achievement and attitudes relating to language arts.

Research Questions

The research questions that generated the six hypotheses of this study were stated as follows:

1. What are the percentages for the sizes of the groups of children in the sample identified at the various levels of oral communication apprehension?

2. Are there significant sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among the groups in the sample?
3. Are there sex related differences between the oral communication apprehension groups in achievement and attitudes toward the language arts?
4. Is there a relationship between language achievement, as measured by the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Language Subtest, and oral communication apprehension, as measured by the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale?
5. Is there a relationship between attitudes toward the language arts as measured by the Arlin-Hills Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale and oral communication apprehension, as measured by the Personal Report of Communication Fear Scale?

Summary of the Methodology

Below are summarized the main aspects of the methodology:

Sample

The sample consisted of 547 sixth grade students selected from two schools in suburban Charles County, Maryland. The schools are in close proximity and are part of the public school system in that county. The socioeconomic level of the parents of the subjects are lower-middle to middle class.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in the study consisted of two self-report scales and an academic achievement test. The Personal Report of

Communication Fear Scale (McCroskey, 1981) was used to gather data on oral communication apprehension. The Arlin-Hills Attitudes Toward the Language Arts Scale (Arlin and Hills, 1974) was the instrument used to obtain responses from the subjects on their attitudes toward the language arts. The language achievement of the subjects was measured by the Language Subsection (Test L) of the Iowa Test of Basic Skills (Hieronymus and Lindquist, 1971).

Data Gathering Procedures

Two tests, PRCF and ALA, were administered by the researcher to groups of students in their own school setting. The self-report scales mentioned above were administered on two successive days to the 547 students, and manually scored by the researcher. The language achievement measure which formed part of a battery of basic skills tests mentioned above, was administered and scored by the school authorities prior to the present study. The scores of this part of the data were obtained from the students' cumulative records. The data collected from the oral communication measure (PRCF) were used to categorize the sample into the five OCA groups--Low, Moderately Low, Moderate, Moderately High, and High--based on McCroskey's criteria described in Chapter III. The mean of the scores for categorizing the groups was 34.88 and that reported by McCroskey (1981) in his study was 36.5. The SD of this study was 9.59 and that given by McCroskey (1981) was 9.6. These comparative figures are cited here as evidence of the correctness of the procedures for grouping the students in the sample of this study.

The means and standard deviations of the scores were also obtained by computer for the scores resulting from the Iowa Test of Basic Skills, Language Subtest and for the Attitude to the Language Arts Scale (Arlin-Hills). The data were obtained for the total scores of the sample as well as for the scores of the sexes in each of the oral communication apprehension groups. Percentages were used to estimate the extent of the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among the five groups. The Chi-square technique was also employed for testing the significance of sex differences in occurrence in each of the oral communication apprehension groups. Two-way analyses of variance for testing the significance of differences by F-test of the group means of the sexes in each of the five groups were done for both the ITBS-L and ALA tests. The results of these analyses were further tested by Scheffé's method. One-way ANOVA and the method of intercorrelation were also used for testing relationships between OCA and language achievement as well as attitudes toward the language arts.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study may be briefly stated as follows: one of the first limitations which may be mentioned is that the sample was selected from only two schools of the Charles County school system. As a result the findings of the study may not be generalizable to all the schools of the school system. Another limitation is that the results are limited only to children at the sixth grade level in a suburban location of Charles County. In addition the findings were limited to the scores of the three measures used in the investigation.

Summary of the Findings of Related

Research Studies

It is considered appropriate to focus here on the findings of the related research studies reported in Chapter II with special reference to the findings of this study relevant to the six hypotheses being examined. These findings are accordingly summarized below:

1. Shaw (1966) found that 15-25 percent of the children in elementary grades appeared to show high levels of anxiety about speaking and that the higher percentage was for students in the upper elementary grades. This finding on the percentage level of occurrence of the high oral communication apprehensives was also reported by Scott and Wheelless (1977) as well as by McCroskey (1977).
2. Gilkinson (1942) in his study of speech fright found that female college students exhibited less confidence and more fear of speaking than male college students. This finding was likewise supported by another study done by Porter (1974) on oral communication apprehension. Garrison and Garrison (1979) similarly reported that girls were more apprehensive in the early grades than boys and slightly less apprehensive than boys at the high school level.
3. Gilkinson (1942) also found in his study that there was no relationship between speech fright and intelligence test scores as well as school grades. In like manner McCroskey, Daly, and

Sorensen (1976) in their study found no relationship between intelligence and oral communication apprehension at the college level. On the other hand Bashore (1971) found a slight negative relationship between I.Q. and high oral communication apprehension among high school students. He also found that high school students who are high apprehensives performed less well than those who are low apprehensives on high school achievement tests. This finding was similarly reported by Scott and Wheelless (1977). McCroskey and Andersen (1976) likewise reported that there is a relationship between oral communication apprehension and grade point average among college students since they found that high apprehensives scored significantly lower than low apprehensives.

4. A further related finding was that of Hurt and Preiss (1978) who reported a relationship between oral communication apprehension and negative attitudes towards school in general which affected adversely motivation, interest in school subjects as well as school learning at the college level.

5. A finding of interest, though not relevant to one of the hypotheses tested was that of Shaw (1966) who also reported that across the grades, students of low socioeconomic levels show a higher incidence of speech fright than those of higher socioeconomic levels.

Summary of the Findings of This Study

Hypothesis I

The percentages for the sizes of the groups of children in the sample identified at the various levels of oral communication apprehension correspond closely to what was expected in the normal distribution of the school population.

The findings revealed that the spread of the scores obtained from the OCA scale by the entire sample was fairly evenly distributed. It was found that a little over two-thirds of the sample, that is 69 percent consisting of the three moderate groups combined-- the Moderately Low, the Moderate, and the Moderately High OCA groups--clustered around the mean of the scores. It was also found that 15 percent of the sample fell in the High OCA group and 16 percent in the Low OCA group. It may again be stated here that this pattern of the spread of the scores for the moderate and the extreme groups approximate to what was theoretically expected (McCroskey, 1978) and to what was also reported by the Bruskin Report (1979) on a comprehensive study for the United States population. The findings stated above for this study support the hypothesis that oral communication apprehension does exist in varying degrees among the sixth grade students in the sample selected from the Charles County school population.

Hypothesis 2

There are statistically significant sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension between the pairs of the sexes in each category of sixth grade students in the sample.

The findings reveal that sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension (OCA) among the students in the sample are negligible and not significant. Although no significant difference was found in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension between the sexes, the girls in the sample, however, tended to show a greater extent of the OCA problem, particularly in the moderately high group.

Hypothesis 3

There are statistically significant sex differences in language achievement among the oral communication apprehension groups in the sample.

With respect to Hypothesis 3, the data obtained from the two-way ANOVA indicated there are significant sex differences in language achievement for the Low and Moderate OCA groups. It was found too that the mean for girls in language achievement was higher than that for boys. The significance found for sex differences between boys and girls for the above two OCA groups is further supported by the results of the Scheffé test of pairwise comparison of the group means for the sexes.

Hypothesis 4

There are statistically significant sex differences in attitudes toward the language arts among the oral oral communication apprehension groups in the sample.

The data for the two-way analysis of variance used to test this hypothesis reveal that although there was significance for the main effects of sex and oral communication apprehension, there was no significance for the two-way interaction of Sex and OCA relating to

attitudes toward the language arts. The data when further tested by the Scheffé test of pairwise comparison of the group means for the sexes indicated that there were no significant sex differences between any of the pairs of group means for the sexes. This was probably so because it was found that the group means for boys and girls differed slightly in favor of the girls.

Hypothesis 5

There are statistically significant differences in language achievement among the oral communication apprehension groups in the sample.

With reference to Hypothesis 5, the data obtained from the one-way analysis of variance for the scores of the five OCA groups indicated that there is a significant difference in language achievement. A comparable finding reported by Scott and Wheelless, (1977) indicated that there is a relationship between oral communication apprehension and achievement in general.

Hypothesis 6

There are statistically significant differences in attitudes toward the language arts among the oral communication apprehension groups in the sample.

The results of the one-way analysis of variance used to test Hypothesis 6 indicated that there was no significant difference between the means of the oral communication apprehension groups with respect to attitudes toward the language arts.

With further reference to Hypotheses 5 and 6, the results of intercorrelations computed for the oral communication apprehension scores with the language achievement and attitudes toward the language arts scores indicated a low and negative significant correlation between oral communication apprehension and language achievement. However, the correlation coefficient for the oral communication apprehension test scores with those of the attitudes toward the language arts test scores was also low and negative but not significant. This indicated that there is no relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts. The findings made above on Hypotheses 5 and 6 are therefore further supported by the data from the intercorrelations.

Conclusions

Based on the above findings the following conclusions may be made:

1. The data obtained for the various levels of the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among the sixth grade students in the sample are comparable to those of more comprehensive similar studies done by Shaw, 1966; Bruskin Report, 1973; McCroskey, et al. 1981; Garrison and Garrison, 1979. It may therefore be concluded that the sample selected from the sixth grade boys and girls in the Charles County school population was fairly adequate for the purpose of this study.
2. In relation to sex differences in the occurrence of oral communication apprehension, more girls than boys tended to be apprehensive

in oral communication situations at the moderately high level though not at the other levels, indicating a greater problem for girls at this level.

3. In view of the finding that there is a significant sex difference in language achievement in favor of the girls, in the low and moderate OCA groups, it may be concluded that the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among boys appears to be more highly related to their language achievement than it is to that of the girls in these groups.

4. The finding that there are no sex differences in attitudes toward the language arts among the oral communication apprehension groups in the sample leads to the conclusion that the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among boys and girls seems to have no relevance to their attitudes toward the language arts. However, the difference in attitudes toward the language arts between boys and girls is only slight, in favor of the girls.

5. The significant difference of the mean scores in language achievement for two OCA groups, as well as the finding that the students of the Low OCA group scored above the sample mean, while those of the high group scored below the sample mean, are feasible indicators that there is a relationship between OCA and language achievement. This conclusion was further substantiated by the significant correlation found between the scores of the OCA and language achievement tests.

6. As a result of the finding that there are no significant differences among the OCA groups in attitudes toward the language arts, it may be concluded that there is no relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts. This conclusion is

supported by the evidence that the correlation coefficient of the scores for the two tests--OCA and ALA--was low, negative, and not significant.

7. It may therefore be concluded with a greater degree of confidence that there is no relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts.

8. The finding of only a slight positive relationship between attitudes toward the language arts and language achievement implies little relationship between these variables.

Discussion

The findings based on the data presented in Chapter IV emphasize the need for a more comprehensive study of the extent of the occurrence of the oral communication apprehension problem among students at the elementary or middle school levels in the Charles County school system. There is sufficient statistical evidence from the results of this study to support the view that there is some relationship between oral communication apprehension and achievement in the language arts among students at sixth grade level. As this study was limited to the sixth grade level, it needs to be further investigated whether there is to be found the same relationship between oral communication apprehension and language achievement of elementary school children at other grade levels in the county. It may also be of interest, for the purpose of comparison, if another similar study was undertaken in which the subjects consist of a sample of elementary school children selected from

schools in rural or urban areas, or of a sample of children whose parents are exclusively of a low socioeconomic status level.

The findings with reference to sex differences in achievement are consistent with those generally found in other studies comparing language achievement between the sexes at the elementary school level. Although these studies were not concerned with the oral communication apprehension factor in relation to sex differences in achievement in the language arts, the findings reported that girls performed better than boys in the lower grades of the elementary school. It was also found that the sex differences in achievement tended to disappear at the sixth grade level (LaBrandt, 1933 and Vernon, 1955). A major study reporting similar findings was one of the Scottish surveys (1949) in which children of the elementary school population in Scotland were surveyed and comparisons with respect to achievement of the sexes in the basic subjects were made.

The findings of more recent studies on sex differences in achievement in the language arts reported in the literature were generally similar to those stated above. Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) in a comprehensive study stated that sex differences begin very early--from the time of the utterance of the first word or even earlier in babbling, and diminish as the boys "catch up." They further stated that the differences reported in a study by McCarthy (1954) tended to be small, and many were not significant even on large samples. However when there was a difference it almost always favored girls. The same was true generally in later studies, but the study with the largest sample (Templin, 1957) found no sex differences between the ages of

three and six.

Another related study of sex differences in language achievement at the elementary school level was the six-year study by Yarborough and Johnson (1980). In this study the authors also reported that girls outperformed boys in measures of language arts and spelling, but that they were of comparable reading ability at the seventh grade level.

With respect to sex differences in the recall of names of letters, Kail Jr. and Siegel (1977) reported that at all grade levels above grade three, females recalled letters more accurately than males, but there were no sex differences at the grade three level. On the contrary, in a cross-cultural study, Jahoda (1981) found no sex differences in recall of letters by boys and girls in Ghana and Scotland.

It may be concluded from the evidence cited from the above studies as well as the findings of the present study that girls generally tend to achieve better in the language arts than boys up to the grade six level. It may also be concluded that the achievement of the sexes in language arts tend to equalize above the sixth grade level. It may however be mentioned that Plomin and Foch (1981) stated that although verbal ability is "one of the most well established cognitive sex differences, sex accounts for only one percent of the variance of verbal measures." They further concluded that "if all we know about a child is the child's sex, we know next to nothing about the child's verbal ability" (p.383). These comments suggest that the sex differences noted in achievement in the language arts may be due to variables other than sex differences such as cultural factors.

With reference to the relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts, it should also be mentioned that the researcher found during the literature search that no similar studies were done. One of the few related studies found was that reported by Yarborough and Johnson (1980) comparing the sexes at the grade school level with respect to attitudes toward reading and the language arts. The authors reported a significant difference in favor of girls at the .05 level. Since there is such limited research evidence on the relationship between oral communication apprehension and attitudes toward the language arts the researcher is of the view that the findings of this study in this regard should be considered tentative. It is therefore further suggested that a follow-up study, preferably using other attitude tests designed for assessing attitudes toward the language arts of sixth graders, should be done.

Recommendations

In view of the findings relevant to the six hypotheses, there seems to be a need to investigate further the magnitude of the problem of oral communication apprehension among elementary and middle school children, not only in the Charles County school system but perhaps in other school systems. The results of such a survey, if undertaken by the appropriate education authorities may justify the implementation of the following recommendations:

1. School authorities should make financial provisions for the investigation of the extent of the problem of oral communication apprehension under their jurisdictions. This should be done with the objective

of ultimately raising the standard of achievement in the language arts particularly in the elementary school.

2. Follow-up steps should be taken by means of workshops, seminars and other methods of inservice training for the promotion of oral communication apprehension awareness among school personnel at all professional levels. Such training programs should be designed to acquaint school administrators, counselors and classroom teachers with the procedures and techniques for the alleviation of the problem of oral communication apprehension in the schools. These measures should aim at making the reduction of the problem a matter of school-wide concern and at placing on it as much emphasis as on the teaching of the basics.

3. It is in addition recommended that a variety of curriculum guides similar to the one published by the Michigan Speech Association (Cottrell, ed., 1979) and the recent ones by Glatthorn (1980) and Mandel (1980) published by the National Council of Teachers of English may be included among books supplied to the schools by the local education authorities. These instructional guides may be utilized for the implementation of the recommended program of activities as an integral component of the language arts curriculum. Details of these curriculum guides were described in Chapter II, part 2.

4. Strategies and practices in the teaching of the language arts should concentrate on the creation of learning environments conducive to oral communication and the development of communicative competence from the earliest years in the elementary school onward. Such strategies and practices may include the provisions for growth in communication

among the individuals and groups that comprise the total school population through a process that is natural, built-in, informal and spontaneous. In order to achieve this end classroom settings should be conducive to easy interpersonal relationships and pleasant encounters between teachers and children, teachers and teachers, principals and teachers, principals and children, counselors and teachers, counselors and children, and children and children. Ancillary staff as well as parents should be made aware of the need for this emphasis on communication education. In addition, as much emphasis as possible should be placed on dyadic and small group activities to encourage and promote oral communication to the same extent as reading and writing.

5. Further research on the various aspects of this study as suggested previously in this chapter should include the following:

(a) A more comprehensive study of the relation between oral communication apprehension and language achievement as well as attitudes toward the language arts consisting of a sample of children selected at all grade levels throughout the school system for the purpose of validating this study as well as gathering data on other grade levels.

In order to carry out such a study as economically as possible, about ten percent of the students from selected grade levels may be chosen at random from schools in the various localities of the school system. The same test variables as those used in this study should be used. The administration of the tests should be the responsibility of the principals in collaboration with their teachers. Care should be taken to ensure that the tests are administered in the most appropriate and informal classroom settings at convenient times. The

administration of the tests should be preceded by prior preparation of the subjects and assurances that the test results would in no way influence their class grades so as to ensure valid responses. The scoring of the tests may be done by the classroom teachers involved. The collation and analysis of the data should be done by the appropriate persons in the office of the Director of Research for the school system. It would be at the discretion of the school superintendent to decide on any follow-up action which the findings of the survey may justify.

(b) A similar study of elementary or middle school children selected from schools situated in the rural and/or urban areas of the school system involved in this study or in other school systems in the state for the purpose of comparison. It should be of interest to ascertain what results would be obtained if the study is replicated using subjects from schools situated in rural and urban environments. This will enable conclusions to be made on the relevance of environmental variables, which were not included in this study, to the extent of the occurrence of oral communication apprehension among the students studied.

(c) Another study using a sample of elementary school children at the sixth grade level whose parents are exclusively of a low socioeconomic status level for purposes of comparison. As the sample used in this study is classified as middle class, a further study may be beneficial to see if socioeconomic status has any relevance to the occurrence of oral communication apprehension as well as to the other variables studied.

(d) A replication of this study using other language achievement tests and/or attitudes toward the language arts measures of the sixth

grade level could also be a means of providing further research evidence relevant to this study.

6. The dearth of empirical studies on language arts topics with special relevance to oral communication apprehension, found at this time by the writer, reveals that there is an urgent need for more comprehensive research studies on this aspect of language arts education. It is therefore strongly recommended that language arts specialists should consider attempting more and varied research projects relevant to the oral aspects of language arts instruction as an imperative need for the eighties.

Implications for Education

The implications for education arising from this study may be stated as follows:

1. The study may serve to stimulate greater awareness and interest on the part of educators including teachers, counselors, curriculum planners, and administrators in the problem of oral communication apprehension among children at the elementary and middle school levels. Awareness may lead to the identification of those students in the classroom setting who are anxious communicators and who may need to have their special needs taken care of through general and special provisions.

2. Awareness of the results of this study may encourage those who are responsible for the planning of programs and activities in elementary and middle school classrooms to explore the possibilities offered by existing techniques which are at present used in the alleviation of oral communication apprehension at secondary and college levels.

Techniques such as relaxation techniques, systematic desensitization, cognitive restructuring and other ways of helping children who have high levels of speech anxiety to cope with the problem can be utilized. (McCroskey, 1970 and 1972; McCroskey, Ralph and Barrick, 1970; Goss, Olds and Thompson, 1977; Fremouw and Harmatz, 1975; and Garrison and Garrison, 1979). These are known and well-researched therapeutic techniques which have been found successful in reducing anxiety and thus helping in the alleviation of communication fear. Systematic desensitization is one of the more popular techniques used to reduce fear of speaking in high school and freshman speech classes since the 1950's. The procedure involves teaching the person to learn to relax voluntarily then pairing this with images of anxiety-producing situations. It is a behavior modification technique in which the new response of relaxation is paired with and replaces the old response of the threatening situation. This means that the student is conditioned to cope with the anxiety producing situation via relaxation. Several sessions of 15 to 20 minutes of relaxation and about 40 minutes of imagining each session eventually produce reduction of the anxiety symptom and subsequently the high level of communication apprehension.

Cognitive restructuring is another systematic technique that has also proved effective in reducing anxiety in communicatively apprehensive students. Its object is to alter the cognitive dimension of anxiety, and involves being taught to make self-instructional statements, coping statements being substituted for negative self-statements. Students are taught to identify anxiety-producing negative self-statements that are associated with the communication situation which produces

apprehension. Its use in the treatment of the communication apprehensive student is based on the idea that maladaptive behavior is associated with and maintained by irrational statements. Small group sessions are usually conducted and practice given in substituting coping for irrational self-statements. Subjects are encouraged to practice between sessions and to keep a diary of their efforts. Progress is discussed at the beginning of the next session and practice sessions continue until the procedure proves effective in helping the subject cope with his apprehension about speaking. Self-evaluation is also expected and encouraged.

Cognitive modification is a technique consisting of a combination of systematic desensitization procedures and that of cognitive restructuring. Relaxation techniques are used to initiate the treatment sessions followed by exercises using both imagery and coping statements. All of the techniques described so far have been successful in treating the communication apprehensive adolescents and adults. Since sixth grade students are mature enough to follow the oral directions, and since the techniques are learned by inexperienced subjects with little difficulty, treatment programs may be organized for those identified as high oral communication apprehensives. Another technique which is an alternative to the ones already described and does not utilize imagery is called rhetoritherapy. It is based on the concepts of Reality Therapy. The subject is urged to set two sets of personal communication goals related to structured and unstructured communication situations. Goals are placed in a hierarchy and that which is easily accomplished done first. Success in meeting communication goals in class is carried over outside.

3. A further implication may focus on the context in which communication education occurs. The communication environment is an important asset in the development of effective and efficient communicators. It is also necessary for the identification and treatment of children who are found to have problems communicating. One of the outcomes of this study which may arise from greater awareness of the existence of the oral communication apprehension problem in classrooms at any level may be to focus on the building and maintaining of classroom settings conducive to oral communication. Such settings may be organized for the development and promotion of spontaneous oral communication in general without forcing, as well as guided or structured activities to bring about effective and efficient oral communication. McCroskey (1977 and 1980) has underscored the need for this kind of communication atmosphere in the classroom when he suggested the establishment of a communication-permissive climate in all classrooms. He stated that "since in most instructional systems communication plays a vital role in the learning process, it is very important that a communication permissive atmosphere be developed (McCroskey, 1977, p. 22). Phillips, Butt, and Metzger (1974) have extended the idea of building the communication atmosphere in the classroom further when they stated the teacher ought to be the model for communication by the building of his own communication skills so as "to persuade students to participate in productive classroom activities"

4. It has been reported by some of the investigators into the state of the language arts that the "back to basics movement now is "

affecting instruction in all areas of the language arts including "speech" and that the movement further accounts "for a decline in the basic literary skills" (Ritter, 1978, p.119). This notion is substantiated by Cazden (1980) and a number of other concerned educators and communication specialists who deplore the neglect suffered by some facets of the language arts, particularly oral communication. Since communication is of prime importance in our daily lives, and since, in the school situation language, which is the vehicle of communication, is the core around which all the curriculum components revolve, it should be emphasized and given primacy rather than being neglected. Oral communication in particular should be considered a basic and not a "frill" and out of the awareness generated among language arts and curriculum specialists by this study and other similar studies may come a reawakening and revitalization of oral language in schools. A re-evaluation of the place and emphasis on communication in general and oral communication in particular may take place for the ultimate benefit of the communicators to ensure their success in existing verbally oriented schools and in the world at large. Each child's survival in the school situation and in the society would be ensured.

In order for teachers and all concerned to take cognizance of the new or renewed orientations and emphases attention would need to be directed to rethinking of instructional programs and strategies for the language arts, creating viable and exciting activities to bring about growth in and through communication. Any revitalization which is envisioned should encompass all children in the communication environment including and especially those who have been identified as

having high levels of oral communication apprehension.

5. Since it was found in this study that there is a relationship between oral communication apprehension and achievement in the language arts, teachers may focus more on the oral aspect of language arts instruction for the benefit of all elementary and middle school children and particularly for those whose standard of language arts achievement falls below what is normally expected. This thrust should have an impact on raising the standard of language arts achievement in the elementary and middle schools.

6. There may also be implications for teacher education resulting from the greater emphasis on the oral aspects on the teaching of the language arts as one of the possible outcomes of the findings of this study. The curriculum for the training of pre- and in-service teachers at teacher education colleges, with reference to the teaching of the language arts, may be revised in order to prepare teachers adequately for the new thrust in the teaching of communication skills and the development of functional communication competencies. This revised curriculum may be designed to include activities for the training of teachers in the creation of less rigid, more informal and more communicative classroom settings leading to warmer and more relaxed teacher-pupil relationships. Such a relationship may bring about more positive attitudes toward school and school subjects and thus enhancing the mental health of the children as well as their growth and development generally and in communication.

Charles County, Maryland

Brief Industrial Facts



General Information

County Seat — La Plata
 Elevation — Ranges from 100 to 200 feet above sea level
 Land Area — 458 square miles

Population

	Charles County	Maryland
1950	23,415	2,343,001
1960	32,572	3,100,689
1970	47,678	3,923,897
1980	72,751	4,216,446
1985 (Proj.)	80,700	4,344,298
1990 (Proj.)	93,698	4,509,498

Incorporated Towns, 1980 Census figures: La Plata, 2,484; Indian Head, 1,381.

U.S. Bureau of the Census
 Maryland Department of State Planning

Location

Highway distance from Waldorf	(in miles)	(in kilometers)
Baltimore	54	87
Boston	456	734
Chicago	711	1,144
New York	244	393
Philadelphia	154	248
Pittsburgh	287	462
Richmond	89	143
Washington, D.C.	22	35

Climate

(Based on 30 year record)

Average Yearly Precipitation (Inches) — 42.62
 Average Yearly Snowfall (Inches) — 16.5
 Average Summer Temperature (°F) — 74.1
 Average Winter Temperature (°F) — 36.3
 Average Duration of Freeze-Free Period — 185 days

Maryland State Office of Climatology

Charles County Estimated Population

By age groups (July, 1980)

Age	Number	Male %	Female %	Number	Total %
Under 5	2,989	8.2	7.9	5,851	8.0
5-19	11,581	31.7	29.7	22,350	30.7
20-44	14,551	39.9	41.7	29,681	40.8
45-64	5,610	15.4	14.5	10,849	15.0
65 and over	1,765	4.8	6.2	4,015	5.5
Total	36,496	100.0	100.0	72,746	100.0

Maryland Department of State Planning

Maryland Department of Economic and Community Development

Business and Industrial Development
 1748 Forest Drive, Annapolis, Maryland 21401
 (301)269-3514 Telex: 87788

JANUARY, 19

Labor

Labor Market Area — The labor market area of Charles County, as delineated by the Maryland Employment Security Administration, includes all of Charles and Calvert Counties plus portions of Prince George's and St. Mary's Counties in Maryland; part of King George and Westmoreland Counties in Virginia; and a portion of the remaining Washington, D.C. SMSA.

Civilian Labor Force and Unemployment Rate

	Charles County
Civilian Labor Force	
1980 annual avg.	38,587
August, 1981	39,595
Unemployment Rate	
1980 annual avg.	3.9%
August, 1981	4.2%

Estimated Labor Potential

	Charles County
1. 1980 annual average unemployment	1,488
2. Underemployment by hours worked or wages	3,300
3. Public high school graduates expected to enter the labor force	466
4. Residents commuting outside the county to work	14,400
5. Residents planning to enter the labor force	710
male	1,330
female	1,330
Total Estimated Labor Potential	21,694

Wage Rates:* Sept. 1981

Occupation	Average Hourly Wage	Range
Secretary	\$5.90	\$4.40- 7.45
Typist	4.75	3.90- 5.65
Accounting clerk	6.00	5.05- 7.00
Key entry operator	6.50	5.65- 7.30
Computer operator	7.70	6.75- 8.70
Maintenance carpenter	6.20	5.40- 7.05
Maintenance electrician	7.60	6.40- 8.75
Electronics technician	9.10	7.70-10.50
Maintenance mechanic	6.45	5.60- 7.25
Maintenance painter	6.00	5.20- 6.80
Shipping & receiving clerk	4.75	3.40- 5.75

*Charles County EDC.

Selected Industries

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[This list represents a cross-section of industries and not necessarily the largest industries in the County.]

Firm	Product	Employment		
		M	F	T
Embassy Dairy	Milk Processing	187	38	225
Charles County Steel Co.	Structural Steel	62	2	64
Diversified Mailing Services	Multi-mailing and Printing Co.	46	124	170
Charles County Sand & Gravel, Inc.	Ready Mixed Concrete & Concrete Blocks	190	12	202
Whitney Publications	Newspaper Printing	15	45	60
Custom Metals, Inc.	Ornamental Staircases	21	1	22
Automated Graphics Systems, Inc.	Commercial Printing	27	33	60
TASCO	Publications	16	9	25
Pargas	Corporate Headquarters	35	50	85
Mailing Data East	Computer Software	—	—	4
Roplex	Tire Recycling & Processing	—	—	1

Distribution of Employment

1981 First Quarter

Industry	Employment	Percentage	Average Weekly Wage
Federal Government	2,116	12.8	\$40
State Government	80	0.5	28
Local Government	3,556	21.5	21
Private Sector			
Total—All Industries	10,754	65.2	20
Contract Construction	1,155	7.0	26
Manufacturing	883	5.3	28
Durable Goods	206	1.2	25
Nondurable Goods	677	4.1	28
Transportation, Communication & Utilities (Excl. Railroads)	949	5.7	28
Wholesale and Retail Trade	5,197	31.5	17
Wholesale Trade	749	4.5	23
Retail Trade	4,448	27.0	16
Finance, Insurance & Real Estate	462	2.8	2
Services and Other	2,107	12.8	13
Total	16,506	100.0	\$2

Maryland Department of Human Resources, Research & Analysis Division

Industrial Financing

Long term, low interest financing for new and expanding industries is available in Maryland from several sources, including Industrial Revenue Bonds and low interest loans. Brochures describing the sources are available from the Maryland Department of Economic and Community Development (See page for address and telephone number).

Industrial Property

Industrial sites in the County range in size from 1 to 250 acres. Prices per acre range as follows: zoned unimproved — \$10,000 to \$15,000; zoned with water and sewer — \$39,000 to \$64,500; and zoned with water sewer and rail — \$9,500 to \$49,500.

St. Charles Business Park, located on U.S. 301 between La Plata and Waldorf, occupies about 300 acres with 180 acres remaining for development. Additionally, tracts are available in the Graphic Arts Mall, located in White Plains and the La Plata Commerce Center.

White Plains Commerce Center is completing phase one of the construction of the 86 acre industrial park. Lowe's and several other buildings are now in the Park.

Transportation

Highways (Interstate and/or U.S.): U.S. 301.

Rail: Consolidated Rail Corporation (ConRail).

Truck: The Waldorf area lies within the Washington, D.C. Commercial Zone and is served by 90 carriers. 15 carriers are authorized to serve the entire Charles County area.

Water: Served by the Port of Baltimore, 42' channel, 4th largest foreign tonnage port in U.S. Excellent containership facilities.

Air: Served by Washington National Airport and Dulles International Airport near Washington, D.C., and Baltimore Washington International Airport (BWI).

Utilities

Electricity: Southern Maryland Electric Cooperative, Inc.

Gas: The Washington Gas Light Company serves the northern area of the County. Elsewhere, bottled gas is available from local distributors.

Water: The Charles County Department of Public Works provides water for St. Charles Communities and Waldorf. Glymont, Indian Head and La Plata have municipal water systems.

Sewer: Municipal systems in Indian Head, La Plata and Potomac Heights. Waldorf, St. Charles Communities, and Bryans Road are serviced by the Mattawoman Sewerage Treatment Plant, which opened in 1979.

Telecommunications: Major suppliers are C & P Telephone Co., Western Union, IT & T, and Comsat.

Income

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Distribution	Effective Buying Income (EBI) — Dec. 1980		
	Percent Households		
	Charles County	Maryland	U.S.
\$ 0- 2,999	4.5	5.2	6.8
3,000- 4,999	3.1	3.9	5.3
5,000- 7,999	5.0	5.8	7.7
8,000- 9,999	3.3	4.3	5.0
10,000-14,999	9.4	13.1	13.2
15,000-24,999	27.3	30.7	28.2
25,000-49,999	41.4	31.9	29.0
50,000 and over	6.0	5.1	4.8
Median Household	\$24,114	\$20,658	\$19,146
Average Household	\$26,042	\$23,450	\$22,151
Per Capita	\$7,729	\$8,217	\$7,940
Total EBI (Millions)	\$578.1	\$34,813.6	\$1,814,166.8

Effective Buying Income—A classification exclusively developed by Sales & Marketing Management, it is personal income less personal tax and nontax payments. The resultant figure is commonly known as "disposable personal income."

© 1981 S&MM Survey of Buying Power Data Service

Government and Taxes

Type of Government — Three commissioners elected for four year terms.

Taxes — Fiscal 1982

	Charles County	Maryland
Tax Rate Per \$100		
Assessed Value	\$2.07*	\$2.21
Assessment Ratio For New Manufacturers		
Real property	46.8%	46.8%
Machinery, tools, and equipment	Exempt	Exempt
Manufacturers' inventories	Exempt	Exempt**
Warehousing inventories	Exempt	Exempt**

*Includes 10¢ County-wide levy for fire protection.

**Inventories are actually assessed at 100% and taxed by the State, but tax is deducted from State corporation income tax. If necessary, cash rebate is given.

The Maryland Department of Economic and Community Development can provide more detailed tax information. (See page 1 for address and telephone number)

Education

Public Schools in County (1980)

Number: 16 Elementary
6 Middle
2 Other
5 High Schools

Enrollment: 17,586

Cost Per Pupil: \$2,037 (1979)

Staff Per 1,000 Students: 66

Nonpublic Schools in County (1980)

Number: 12

Enrollment: 1,609

Vocational Education

The Charles County Vocational Technical Center, in Pomfret, has an enrollment of 543. Courses offered include agriculture, auto mechanics, carpentry, cosmetology, drafting and design horticulture, industrial electricity, trowel trades, child care, auto body, electronics, health occupation, air conditioning and heating, food service, and sheet metal & welding.

Industrial Training

The purpose of the Maryland industrial training program is to provide new and expanding industry with the skilled manpower it needs to operate profitably.

The program offers performance-based, short-term training which is usually conducted during the pre-employment, start-up phase of operations. Program design is flexible and tailored to meet the needs of the company. This state-funded program will assist in recruiting personnel and will screen applicants for whatever skills and aptitudes the company specifies. For more information, contact the Maryland Department of Economic and Community Development (see page 1 for address and telephone number).

Higher Education

Charles County Community College (enrollment over 3,400), near La Plata offers a two year program leading to an Associate in Arts degree and transfer programs. The George Washington University and the University of Maryland offer off-campus courses in Charles County. In the Baltimore-Washington area there are more than 70 accredited institutions of higher education with over 300,000 college students currently enrolled.

Major Recreation Activities¹⁵⁵

The Charles County Department of Parks and Recreation plans a variety of cultural, athletic and recreational programs for youth and adults throughout the County. Programs are offered at 18 full and part-time school community centers in all areas of the County. There are two regional public parks and five community public parks, offering a variety of activities including an 18 hole golf course, a 60 acre lake, fishing piers, tennis courts, picnic areas, and lighted athletic fields. Annual events include an Arts Festival, Community Celebrations and many holiday special events.

Local Industrial Development Contact

Raymond T. Tilghman, *Executive Director*
Robert E. Blundell, *Industrial Development Representative*
Kay Bowling, *Administrative Assistant*
Charles County Economic Development Commission, Inc.
P.O. Box V, La Plata, Md. 20646
Telephone: (301) 645-0500, Ext. 0690
D.C. Toll Free Number: 870-3000, Ext. 0691
Local After 4:30 934-8700

OF CHARLES COUNTY
LA PLATA, MARYLAND 20646

TELEPHONE: 934-4071

JOSE L. STARKEY
SUPERINTENDENT

OFFICE OF EVALUATION AND RESEARCH
A. BRIAN KLEIN, DIRECTOR

LETTER OF PERMISSION

CONDUCTING INDEPENDENT RESEARCH IN THE CHARLES
COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEMPROCEDURES AND STANDARDS

The Charles County School System is happy to cooperate in the furtherance of student academic advancement and the acquisition of knowledge through the independent research or study of school data and statistics. Such activities, however, must be guided by procedures and standards which serve to guarantee that the sequential teaching and learning processes of both teacher and pupil in our schools will not be interrupted. More important, it is our responsibility to protect the dignity and personal rights of those in our charge by maintaining final determination of the disposition of all data and information within our files. It is for these purposes that the following procedures and standards have been established:

1. Submit a statement of research or study intentions to this office at least two weeks prior to intended date of activity initiation. Include:
 - a) This form signed by applicant (in duplicate)
 - b) Objectives of study
 - c) Instruments to be used
 - d) Specific population to be studied
 - e) Intended data analysis
 - f) Proposed activity schedule
2. If applicant is not using standardized tests, submit to this office a copy of instruments to be used in the research two weeks prior to intended administration date.
3. Make available to this office the statistical results, analysis and interpretation of all research data, as well as a copy of the final research paper at least two weeks prior to its publication.
4. No research or study activity is to be initiated without the specific written approval by the Superintendent of Schools.
5. No student who is studied shall be identified by name or other means in any publication resulting from this study.
6. This research shall not require the direct services of any school personnel at times during which they are on duty for the Charles County public schools.

7. The Charles County School System will be free to use any analysis, information, and/or statistics resulting from applicant's research activity.
8. Be aware that the principal of the individual school is responsible for the operations of that school; thus he may find it necessary to modify or place restrictions upon applicant's activity not indicated in this communication.
9. I, the undersigned, agree to honor all procedures and standards herewith listed in the pursuance of research or study activity relating to the Charles County School System.

Signature of applicant

Ruth v. Thon

Monitored by Office of Evaluation & Research

Christian Klein

Approved

Jane L. Stanley
Superintendent of Schools

4/15/81

ARK:bb

LETTER FROM CONSTRUCTOR OF PRCF.SCALE

West Virginia
University

May 20, 1981

Ruth V. Thom
12504 Millstream Drive
Bowie, MD 20715

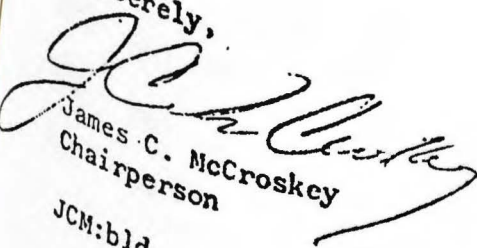
Dear Ms. Thom:

I was pleased to learn that you are progressing satisfactorily on your communication apprehension project. Let me respond to your specific questions.

I would recommend, given the size group you will have, that you construct your high, moderate, and low groups by use of the standard deviation approach.

Briefly, highs are those who score higher than one standard deviation above the mean for the entire group, lows are those who score lower than one standard deviation below the mean for the entire group, and the others are moderates. To have somewhat clearer data, you might include in the moderate group only those subjects who are within 1/2 standard deviation of the mean. This would mean disregarding subjects between 1/2 and one standard deviation above or below the mean or making them into two additional groups, moderate highs and moderate lows. With the size of groups you have, I would favor the latter option.

Sincerely,


James C. McCroskey
Chairperson

JCM:bld

APPENDIX D

PRCF SCALE

PERSONAL REPORT OF COMMUNICATION FEAR

DIRECTIONS: The following 14 statements concern feelings about communicating with other people. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by circling your response. Mark "YES" if you strongly agree, "yes" if you agree, "?" if you are unsure, "no" if you disagree, or "NO" if you strongly disagree. There are no right or wrong answers. Work quickly; record your first impression.

- | | | | | | |
|-----|-----|---|----|----|--|
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 1. Talking with someone new scares me. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 2. I look forward to talking in class. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 3. I like standing up and talking to a group of people. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 4. I like to talk when the whole class listens. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 5. Standing up to talk in front of other people scares me. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 6. I like talking to teachers. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 7. I am scared to talk to people. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 8. I like it when it is my turn to talk in class. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 9. I like to talk to new people. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 10. When someone asks me a question, it scares me. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 11. There are a lot of people I am scared to talk to. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 12. I like to talk to people I have not met before. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 13. I like it when I don't have to talk. |
| YES | yes | ? | no | NO | 14. Talking to teachers scares me. |



Test L Language Skills

Directions: The exercises in this spelling test are like the samples shown at the right. Many of the exercises contain a mistake in spelling. Some do not have any mistakes at all.

You are to look for mistakes in spelling. When you find a mistake, fill in the answer space on the answer sheet that has the same number as the word which is wrong. If there is no mistake in an exercise, fill in the fifth answer space.

The sample exercises at the right show what you are to do.

Use this table to find where your level is to begin and stop on this test.

		Begin With		Stop After
Level 9	→	Page 27, Exercise 1	→	Exercise 31, Page 28
Level 10	→	Page 27, Exercise 11	→	Exercise 48, Page 29
Level 11	→	Page 28, Exercise 24	→	Exercise 66, Page 29
Level 12	→	Page 29, Exercise 40	→	Exercise 85, Page 30
Level 13	→	Page 29, Exercise 58	→	Exercise 105, Page 30
Level 14	→	Page 29, Exercise 67	→	Exercise 114, Page 30

Level 9 Begin Here

1. 1) jam
2) ice cream
3) briK
4) angry
5) (No mistakes)
2. 1) lace
2) learn
3) seat
4) else
5) (No mistakes)
3. 1) hatch
2) gardin
3) yard
4) after
5) (No mistakes)
4. 1) drops
2) fine
3) goat
4) clozed
5) (No mistakes)
5. 1) unnerstand
2) file
3) swear
4) woke
5) (No mistakes)

6. 1) claw
2) lake
3) stock
4) veri
5) (No mistakes)
7. 1) creek
2) hapen
3) trick
4) snail
5) (No mistakes)
8. 1) for
2) smell
3) stor
4) earn
5) (No mistakes)
9. 1) point
2) mouse
3) frum
4) lean
5) (No mistakes)
10. 1) appel
2) gate
3) art
4) dust
5) (No mistakes)

L-1: Spelling

SAMPLE EXERCISES

- S1. 1) our
2) mi
3) your
4) them
5) (No mistakes)

- S2. 1) fill
2) keep
3) was
4) saw
5) (No mistakes)

ANSWERS

S1. ① ● ② ③ ④ ⑤

S2. ① ② ③ ④ ●

Level 10 Begin Here

11. 1) motor
2) nast
3) tea
4) lion
5) (No mistakes)
12. 1) staff
2) blast
3) candle
4) prince
5) (No mistakes)
13. 1) yong
2) knew
3) half
4) next
5) (No mistakes)
14. 1) tons
2) boil
3) kamp
4) stamp
5) (No mistakes)
15. 1) jail
2) lack
3) June
4) acke
5) (No mistakes)

Go on to next page ►

6. 1) bug
2) sand
3) ears
4) noizy
5) (No mistakes)

17. 1) allso
2) never
3) crazy
4) buzz
5) (No mistakes)

18. 1) trout
2) appear
3) louter
4) warmer
5) (No mistakes)

19. 1) west
2) drit
3) shop
4) won
5) (No mistakes)

20. 1) square
2) news
3) quack
4) outdoor
5) (No mistakes)

*Make no marks
in this booklet.*

21. 1) eleven
2) formed
3) farmer
4) anser
5) (No mistakes)

22. 1) gallin
2) strike
3) wind
4) band
5) (No mistakes)

23. 1) sooner
2) foled
3) pipe
4) owned
5) (No mistakes)

Level 11 Begin Here

24. 1) woman
2) page
3) fasen
4) mitten
5) (No mistakes)

25. 1) infant
2) recoll
3) marsh
4) mood
5) (No mistakes)

26. 1) weather
2) burst
3) clerk
4) organ
5) (No mistakes)

27. 1) fariy
2) aloud
3) sadly
4) rug
5) (No mistakes)

28. 1) airplan
2) fireman
3) basketball
4) someone
5) (No mistakes)

29. 1) recess
2) wrist
3) canned
4) derest
5) (No mistakes)

30. 1) steep
2) helpful
3) cansel
4) broad
5) (No mistakes)

31. 1) tape
2) travle
3) egg
4) paddle
5) (No mistakes)

32. 1) cheper
2) drawer
3) governor
4) library
5) (No mistakes)

33. 1) share
2) topic
3) rave
4) clamp
5) (No mistakes)

34. 1) chase
2) grab
3) moveing
4) plowed
5) (No mistakes)

35. 1) spoke
2) foregive
3) thick
4) hook
5) (No mistakes)

36. 1) painful
2) majesty
3) husband
4) ofice
5) (No mistakes)

37. 1) selfish
2) example
3) straiten
4) gentle
5) (No mistakes)

38. 1) apren
2) ledge
3) rent
4) drift
5) (No mistakes)

39. 1) grandfather
2) together
3) female
4) powder
5) (No mistakes)

APPENDIX E CONTINUED

49. 1) exercise
2) furnace
3) thounder
4) laundry
5) (No mistakes)

50. 1) leaving
2) basin
3) inocent
4) uncertain
5) (No mistakes)

51. 1) sneaked
2) trying
3) bore
4) hatchet
5) (No mistakes)

52. 1) hunt
2) gaurd
3) enter
4) drive
5) (No mistakes)

53. 1) gladley
2) nicely
3) bundle
4) rye
5) (No mistakes)

54. 1) groan
2) rushed
3) trusting
4) sighned
5) (No mistakes)

55. 1) alter
2) before
3) setting
4) prise
5) (No mistakes)

56. 1) handsome
2) frozen
3) extra
4) mansion
5) (No mistakes)

57. 1) coach
2) poisen
3) desert
4) summit
5) (No mistakes)

Level 13

Begin Here

58. 1) scream
2) address
3) pattern
4) nurve
5) (No mistakes)

59. 1) cultivate
2) education
3) missionary
4) memorandum
5) (No mistakes)

60. 1) forenoon
2) carfully
3) evidence
4) likely
5) (No mistakes)

61. 1) causion
2) prosperous
3) exciting
4) intention
5) (No mistakes)

62. 1) forth
2) mounitian
3) grain
4) northern
5) (No mistakes)

63. 1) hospital
2) coward
3) persuade
4) surround
5) (No mistakes)

64. 1) scholar
2) cool
3) automible
4) treat
5) (No mistakes)

65. 1) naturel
2) kennel
3) corner
4) seashore
5) (No mistakes)

66. 1) radiant
2) brilliant
3) styleish
4) comical
5) (No mistakes)

Level 14

Begin Here

67. 1) nectar
2) hurricane
3) thoroughly
4) ellection
5) (No mistakes)

68. 1) absent
2) delecate
3) loyal
4) discuss
5) (No mistakes)

69. 1) trousers
2) loaves
3) cough
4) sequence
5) (No mistakes)

70. 1) vessel
2) material
3) sampel
4) raged
5) (No mistakes)

71. 1) affectionet
2) chocolate
3) bulletin
4) inconvenience
5) (No mistakes)

72. 1) detour
2) traffic
3) misery
4) satify
5) (No mistakes)

73. 1) examination
2) reseption
3) foundation
4) composition
5) (No mistakes)

74. 1) engage
2) strain
3) carraige
4) seal
5) (No mistakes)

75. 1) impatient
2) hopeful
3) relitive
4) equip
5) (No mistakes)

76. 1) arouse
2) refund
3) difficult
4) contrary
5) (No mistakes)

77. 1) quantity
2) juicy
3) venture
4) decoration
5) (No mistakes)

78. 1) insect
2) central
3) laborer
4) federal
5) (No mistakes)

79. 1) refer
2) gracious
3) hymn
4) enormus
5) (No mistakes)

80. 1) peroid
2) supplies
3) quarrel
4) reckless
5) (No mistakes)

81. 1) explored
2) anniversary
3) delegate
4) expected
5) (No mistakes)

82. 1) knowlege
2) superior
3) holiday
4) ancient
5) (No mistakes)

83. 1) astray
2) justise
3) contract
4) doorknob
5) (No mistakes)

84. 1) listen
2) facilities
3) referee
4) science
5) (No mistakes)

85. 1) efficiency
2) apparently
3) circilation
4) sarcastic
5) (No mistakes)

86. 1) noble
2) grumble
3) scater
4) onward
5) (No mistakes)

87. 1) celebrate
2) glitter
3) formula
4) modist
5) (No mistakes)

88. 1) pagaent
2) trifle
3) editor
4) kneeled
5) (No mistakes)

89. 1) notch
2) famous
3) edge
4) hustle
5) (No mistakes)

90. 1) furnish
2) earnest
3) orchard
4) battery
5) (No mistakes)

91. 1) janiter
2) remedy
3) syrup
4) ivory
5) (No mistakes)

92. 1) envy
2) grammar
3) transparent
4) choise
5) (No mistakes)

93. 1) discourage
2) generous
3) jury
4) performance
5) (No mistakes)

94. 1) guarantee
2) parliament
3) limitting
4) gymnasium
5) (No mistakes)

95. 1) rejoyce
2) parasite
3) radius
4) quiet
5) (No mistakes)

96. 1) liable
2) pitiful
3) virtue
4) abserd
5) (No mistakes)

97. 1) corrupt
2) shortage
3) total
4) axis
5) (No mistakes)

98. 1) reared
2) gleaming
3) upstairs
4) hardware
5) (No mistakes)

99. 1) beach
2) noticed
3) decieve
4) terrier
5) (No mistakes)

100. 1) circumstance
2) pecular
3) duplicate
4) recipe
5) (No mistakes)

101. 1) annual
2) sway
3) concent
4) touched
5) (No mistakes)

102. 1) aviator
2) villain
3) dialogue
4) instatute
5) (No mistakes)

103. 1) heavily
2) assembly
3) courtesy
4) dignity
5) (No mistakes)

104. 1) wheather
2) uneasy
3) biscuit
4) geography
5) (No mistakes)

105. 1) achievement
2) referance
3) unfortunate
4) misunderstand
5) (No mistakes)

106. 1) millinery
2) obtained
3) effort
4) nessesity
5) (No mistakes)

107. 1) sacrafice
2) appeal
3) stake
4) direct
5) (No mistakes)

108. 1) prior
2) bachlor
3) vaccinate
4) symphony
5) (No mistakes)

109. 1) favored
2) occurrence
3) burried
4) mixture
5) (No mistakes)

110. 1) lieutenant
2) volcano
3) paradise
4) wholesale
5) (No mistakes)

111. 1) artical
2) infection
3) pacing
4) another
5) (No mistakes)

112. 1) struggle
2) carnival
3) excellence
4) importants
5) (No mistakes)

113. 1) headache
2) burglar
3) turtle
4) counter
5) (No mistakes)

114. 1) belief
2) precipice
3) exhibit
4) region
5) (No mistakes)

Test **L** Language Skills L-2: Capitalization

Directions: This is a test on capitalization. It will show whether you know which words in a sentence should be capitalized.

The exercises in the test are like the samples shown below. Many of the exercises contain mistakes in capitalization. Some do not have any mistakes at all.

You are to look for mistakes in the test exercises. When you find a mistake, fill in the answer space on the answer sheet that has the same number as the line containing the mistake. If there is no mistake in an exercise, fill in the fourth answer space.

The sample exercises below show what you are to do.

SAMPLE EXERCISES

- S1.** 1) Tom and jerry
2) picked up all the
3) trash from the picnic.
4) (No mistakes)
- S2.** 1) Sally said that
2) everyone should have
3) been more Careful.
4) (No mistakes)
- S3.** 1) Let's all help
2) to keep our streets
3) and sidewalks clean.
4) (No mistakes)



ANSWERS

S1. ● ② ③ ④

S2. ① ② ● ④

S3. ① ② ③ ●

Use this table to find where your level is to begin and stop

		Begin With		Stop After
Level 9	→	Page 32, Exercise 1	→	Exercise 38, Page 33
Level 10	→	Page 32, Exercise 10	→	Exercise 48, Page 34
Level 11	→	Page 33, Exercise 19	→	Exercise 58, Page 34
Level 12	→	Page 34, Exercise 39	→	Exercise 80, Page 35
Level 13	→	Page 34, Exercise 49	→	Exercise 91, Page 36
Level 14	→	Page 35, Exercise 59	→	Exercise 102, Page 36

APPENDIX E CONTINUED

re

1. 1) The boy on the farm gave
2) me his pet, but i can't
3) keep a goat in the city.
4) (No mistakes)
2. 1) Mrs. tilly takes care
2) of small children while
3) their mothers go shopping.
4) (No mistakes)
3. 1) This jam was made
2) from the plums
3) in our garden.
4) (No mistakes)
4. 1) The oranges that we
2) ate for breakfast
3) were grown in florida.
4) (No mistakes)
5. 1) The big snow came in april.
2) It was a foot deep. All the
3) new flowers were buried.
4) (No mistakes)
6. 1) Here is a letter
2) for Mr. r. Smith.
3) That's you, Dick.
4) (No mistakes)
7. 1) at the outdoor movie
2) you can buy ice cream,
3) peanuts, and popcorn.
4) (No mistakes)
8. 1) There is a train to
2) the seashore, but it only
3) runs on saturdays.
4) (No mistakes)
9. 1) For thanksgiving
2) we had a duck
3) instead of a turkey.
4) (No mistakes)

Level 10 Begin Here

10. 1) Mr. Jones said he would
2) give mike and me a
3) dollar to mow his lawn.
4) (No mistakes)
11. 1) My brother won first prize
2) for his painting. he was so
3) happy he hugged the judge.
4) (No mistakes)
12. 1) You can find the best shells
2) on this rocky beach near
3) the mouth of the river.
4) (No mistakes)
13. 1) When the little robin flew
2) into our yard, i knew
3) that spring had come.
4) (No mistakes)
14. 1) All the rest of the week that
2) brother of mine loves school, but
3) not on monday mornings!
4) (No mistakes)
15. 1) John joked about a city named Walla
2) walla. He said its first settlers
3) liked it so well they named it twice.
4) (No mistakes)
16. 1) "Do you see that balloon,
2) children?" asked miss Wong.
3) "It's far up in the sky."
4) (No mistakes)
17. 1) On the trip to the park,
2) Judy met two rangers
3) who came from idaho.
4) (No mistakes)
18. 1) All that is left
2) of old fort sewell
3) is the dining hall.
4) (No mistakes)

Go on to next page ▶

Level 11 Begin Here

19. 1) That lady has a black
2) cat with white paws. She
3) calls it mittens.
4) (No mistakes)
20. 1) The nurse at school told
2) Ward to go home. She
3) said he had measles.
4) (No mistakes)
21. 1) Every thursday we go to
2) art class. We paint
3) with water colors.
4) (No mistakes)
22. 1) A boy from denmark will live
2) with our family next year
3) and go to school here.
4) (No mistakes)
23. 1) Martha told our story
2) club about her favorite
3) book, *The yearling*.
4) (No mistakes)
24. 1) Jose bought a used dodge and
2) painted it bright yellow. Now
3) the old car looks almost like new.
4) (No mistakes)
25. 1) We found a bunny with a
2) broken leg in the street.
3) we took him home with us.
4) (No mistakes)
26. 1) The ship *Ocean Queen*
2) flew a french flag
3) but had a Dutch crew.
4) (No mistakes)
27. 1) I heard the fire truck
2) coming. I ran and told
3) Dad a store was burning.
4) (No mistakes)
28. 1) Our Easter presents from
2) Uncle Mort did not come until
3) after May day.
4) (No mistakes)

29. 1)
2)
3)
4) (No mistakes)

30. 1) Dear grandfather,
2) Thank you for the
3) cool birthday present.
4) (No mistakes)

31. 1) I wanted a hatchet very much.
2) with love,
3) Philip
4) (No mistakes)

32. 1) At the airport a group of
2) marines was waiting for the
3) helicopter to camp Pendleton.
4) (No mistakes)

33. 1) Ben asked the policeman
2) which street to take to get
3) to the doctor's office.
4) (No mistakes)

34. 1) A big storm on the Pacific
2) ocean made waves that were
3) higher than the ship.
4) (No mistakes)

35. 1) Last Monday we played at
2) Donna's house. I helped her
3) take care of her Brother.
4) (No mistakes)

36. 1) The man at the gas
2) station said Twin
3) falls was not far off.
4) (No mistakes)

37. 1) The best TV show today was
2) about captain John Smith and
3) the Indian girl Pocahontas.
4) (No mistakes)

38. 1) "Birds fly south" was the
2) title of the poem Peggy
3) sent to the magazine.
4) (No mistakes)

39. 1) Tony won a cowboy hat at the
2) carnival. Inside it were
3) the words "Made in Japan."
4) (No mistakes)
40. 1) Joy lives on Clayton street.
2) Carlos lives around the corner
3) at 217 Clayton Court.
4) (No mistakes)
41. 1) At the Grand Canyon, Doris was the
2) only one of our party brave enough
3) to climb to Lookout Point.
4) (No mistakes)
42. 1) In the country school, Arbor
2) day was not a real holiday, but
3) each class planted a tree.
4) (No mistakes)
43. 1) Great Salt lake was once
2) part of an inland sea
3) known as Lake Bonneville.
4) (No mistakes)
44. 1) Among the Indian tribes in the
2) Southwest are a people noted for
3) their art and pottery, the pueblos.
4) (No mistakes)
45. 1) From the time he read *Wind*,
2) *sand, and Stars*, Chris was
3) set on becoming an aviator.
4) (No mistakes)
46. 1) The old Spanish mission had
2) very thick walls. It had stood for
3) almost two hundred years.
4) (No mistakes)
47. 1) Some families call their grandmother
2) "Granny," but our dad says we
3) are to call ours "grandma."
4) (No mistakes)
48. 1) "Want to see a Monkey?"
2) laughed Jim, holding up
3) a mirror to his friend.
4) (No mistakes)

49. 1) My uncle is very proud of
2) his fifty-year-old elgin watch.
3) It still keeps perfect time.
4) (No mistakes)
50. 1) Mr. Jacks says that "Kiddy
2) kollege" is much too fancy a
3) name for a kindergarten.
4) (No mistakes)
51. 1) Go this way to the ocean.
2) The other road runs east
3) along the river.
4) (No mistakes)
52. 1) The Mother cat hid
2) her five kittens under
3) Mother's wash basket.
4) (No mistakes)
53. 1) Our airplane left Pittsburgh at
2) eight o'clock, and we arrived
3) in Oklahoma city at noon.
4) (No mistakes)
54. 1) The map showed that
2) the Highway did not
3) go as far as Weston.
4) (No mistakes)
55. 1) In the United States, the
2) first Monday in September is
3) observed as Labor day.
4) (No mistakes)
56. 1) That tall building at the foot of
2) forty-second Street is part of the
3) headquarters of the United Nations.
4) (No mistakes)
57. 1) "Give me your tired, your poor,"
2) is a line from the poem displayed
3) inside the Statue of liberty.
4) (No mistakes)
58. 1) "Why is the Red sea a sea,"
2) Dee asked, "when it is smaller
3) than many gulfs and bays?"
4) (No mistakes)

Level 14 Begin Here

59. 1) The back of the baby's high chair was
2) decorated with a picture of Mickey
3) mouse eating strawberry shortcake.
4) (No mistakes)
60. 1) "Where is a gas station?" we
2) asked the farmer. "is there
3) one at the next campground?"
4) (No mistakes)
61. 1) Jimmie looked at the Elephant
2) a long time and then asked, "Why
3) does that animal have two tails?"
4) (No mistakes)
62. 1) Our cousin studied her lessons
2) while she was in the hospital and
3) later made all A's on the exams.
4) (No mistakes)
63. 1) When Gary and I went on a camping
2) trip with uncle Bob, we slept in a
3) tent and cooked over an open fire.
4) (No mistakes)
64. 1) "I am not afraid of mountains,"
2) Jan wrote, "but I was afraid when
3) we drove up White Bird ridge."
4) (No mistakes)
65. 1) Ethel's family does not have a
2) washing machine; they send their
3) clothes to the Cloverleaf laundry.
4) (No mistakes)
66. 1) In a Hawaiian village, we
2) saw Native women weaving cloth
3) from the bark of palm trees.
4) (No mistakes)
- HELP WANTED**

67. 1) Boy to deliver groceries after
2) school. Should have bike with
3) carrier. Good pay. BB market.
4) (No mistakes)

68. 1) Girls for saturday work.
2) Evenings 7-9 P.M. Learn
3) gift wrapping. Hall's Gift Shop.
4) (No mistakes)

69. 1) Older Scouts, experienced in
2) camping. Help with Cub Scout
3) trip. See Mr. Mead, 124 Green st.
4) (No mistakes)

70. 1) Bill begged, "come and
2) help me." He was trying
3) to open the big gate.
4) (No mistakes)
71. 1) The new minister talked
2) about Martin Luther, who
3) founded the Lutheran Church.
4) (No mistakes)
72. 1) According to the *Daily Star*,
2) senator Barnes has decided not to
3) run for reelection next year.
4) (No mistakes)
73. 1) We went to Zephyr lodge
2) for the Memorial Day weekend.
3) We swam and fished for bass.
4) (No mistakes)
74. 1) The last words in the old skipper's
2) blurred and battered diary were: "May
3) god go with us . . ."
4) (No mistakes)
75. 1) Do you think of the north
2) as a land where only Eskimos
3) and polar bears live?
4) (No mistakes)
76. 1) The Battle of San Juan Hill
2) was the scene of one of Teddy
3) Roosevelt's famous exploits.
4) (No mistakes)
77. 1) 12 Butler lane
2) Waupaca, Wisconsin 54981
3) March 13, 1971
4) (No mistakes)

78. 1) Scott Stamp Co.
2) Skokie, Illinois 60076
3) Dear sirs:
4) (No mistakes)

79. 1) Please send me the Foreign Stamps
2) described in your advertisement
3) in the Chicago Daily Tribune.
4) (No mistakes)

80. 1) I enclose ten cents in coin.
2) Sincerely Yours,
3) *Harold Stark*
4) (No mistakes)



APPENDIX E CONTINUED

81. 1) The earliest roads in America
2) were indian trails along streams
3) and through gaps between mountains.
4) (No mistakes)
82. 1) The hobos lived in a
2) ruined boxcar that had
3) been forgotten by the Railroad.
4) (No mistakes)
83. 1) "There are many stars in the
2) universe," Professor Bok said,
3) "brighter than the planet Pluto."
4) (No mistakes)
84. 1) The Arrowhead club held its
2) spring archery tournament on what
3) used to be the city dump.
4) (No mistakes)
85. 1) "Biscuit Eater" was an old
2) hound dog. as a pup, he had
3) loved to go rabbit and coon hunting.
4) (No mistakes)
86. 1) Crowds flocked to Sunset
2) Beach to see the freighter
3) that had crashed on the Reef.
4) (No mistakes)
87. 1) If you hear someone shout, "lower
2) the boats, men," don't be afraid.
3) It will only be our parrot.
4) (No mistakes)
88. 1) Every day — rain or shine — some cheery
2) soul goes by our house, whistling the
3) tune of "Oh, what a beautiful morning."
4) (No mistakes)
89. 1) During world war II, American
2) soldiers fought in Europe
3) and also in the Far East.
4) (No mistakes)
90. 1) When Dick was in Italy, he
2) collected picture post cards of
3) the beautiful Churches that he saw.
4) (No mistakes)
91. 1) Dave is in the little league.
2) They play baseball every week
3) on the high school grounds.
4) (No mistakes)

92. 1) We stayed at Crater lake
2) for three days. Then we left
3) Oregon and headed for home.
4) (No mistakes)
93. 1) Betsy Ross is said to have
2) made the first American Flag.
3) This flag is now in a museum.
4) (No mistakes)
94. 1) After a good talk about outer space,
2) the speaker, a well-known astronomer,
3) let us look at mars in the telescope.
4) (No mistakes)
95. 1) Last Monday our principal got
2) up in school assembly and said,
3) "all boys with slingshots. see me."
4) (No mistakes)
96. 1) The Biblical story of the
2) creation of the earth is
3) in the Book of Genesis.
4) (No mistakes)
97. 1) The Pioneers drew a plan for their
2) city before they built homes. They
3) laid out broad streets and avenues.
4) (No mistakes)
98. 1) Popeye may have his spinach,
2) but a child who watches TV
3) wants his precious crispy-crunchies.
4) (No mistakes)
99. 1) I gave dad my savings to buy
2) me an electronics kit like yours
3) when he went downtown today.
4) (No mistakes)
100. 1) Of all the tourist attractions
2) in the southwest, my favorite is
3) the Carlsbad Caverns National Park.
4) (No mistakes)
101. 1) *A Raisin In The Sun* is the story
2) of the trials and triumphs of a Negro
3) family who live in a Chicago tenement.
4) (No mistakes)
102. 1) "I remember your name perfectly,"
2) Canon Spooner once told a visitor,
3) "But I just can't remember your face."
4) (No mistakes)

Test **L** Language Skills L-3: Punctuation

Directions: This is a test on punctuation. It will show how well you can use periods, commas, question marks, apostrophes, etc.

The exercises in the test are like the samples shown below. Many of the exercises contain mistakes in punctuation. Some do not have any mistakes at all.

You are to look for mistakes in the test exercises. When you find a mistake, fill in the answer space on the answer sheet that has the same number as the line containing the mistake. If there is no mistake in an exercise, fill in the fourth answer space.

The sample exercises below show what you are to do.

SAMPLE EXERCISES

- S1.** 1) Our family tries
2) to practice
3) rules of safety
4) (No mistakes)
- S2.** 1) We all fasten
2) our seat belts
3) before, we leave.
4) (No mistakes)
- S3.** 1) We do our best
2) to make our home
3) a safe place to live.
4) (No mistakes)



ANSWERS

S1. ① ② ● ④

S2. ① ② ● ④

S3. ① ② ③ ●

Use this table to find where your level is to begin and stop on this test.

		Begin With		Stop After
Level 9	→	Page 38, Exercise 1	→	Exercise 38, Page 39
Level 10	→	Page 38, Exercise 10	→	Exercise 48, Page 40
Level 11	→	Page 39, Exercise 19	→	Exercise 58, Page 40
Level 12	→	Page 40, Exercise 39	→	Exercise 80, Page 41
Level 13	→	Page 40, Exercise 49	→	Exercise 91, Page 42
Level 14	→	Page 41, Exercise 59	→	Exercise 102, Page 42

Make no marks in this booklet.

APPENDIX E CONTINUED

Level 10 Begin Here

- 1) How old is your pony
 - 2) He's so little that I
 - 3) thought he was a colt.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
2. 1) We found Ted's address
 - 2) in the telephone book.
 - 3) It was 1054 Brook Street
 - 4) (No mistakes)
3. 1) A little bell tinkled
 - 2) as Kent opened the door
 - 3) of the old shoe shop.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
4. 1) The bag of sugar was heavy.
 - 2) We had to ask Mr Grant
 - 3) if he would lift it for us.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
5. 1) On August 10 1919 my
 - 2) grandfather got his
 - 3) first look at America.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
6. 1) Pam ordered a dress and a
 - 2) pair of shoes from the
 - 3) S T Parker Company catalog.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
7. 1) There are many ways
 - 2) to cook eggs I
 - 3) know two of them.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
8. 1) You can ride a ferry
 - 2) into Canada from
 - 3) Seattle Washington.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
9. 1) I am like a magic carpet. If
 - 2) you read me, I can take you to
 - 3) faraway lands. What am I
 - 4) (No mistakes)

10. 1) Pat wore a green
 - 2) top hat in the St
 - 3) Patrick's Day parade.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
11. 1) Lee climbed up on the
 - 2) roof. The ladder began to
 - 3) fall over. He was stuck!
 - 4) (No mistakes)
12. 1) In Joe's collection is a
 - 2) very old comic book. Its
 - 3) date is March 21 1934.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
13. 1) There were no elevators in
 - 2) the building Stan had to
 - 3) walk up to the fourth floor.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
14. 1) The doctor's door was
 - 2) locked. A sign on it said,
 - 3) "Back at 100 P.M."
 - 4) (No mistakes)
15. 1) Our teacher is Mrs Joy.
 - 2) Isn't that a pretty
 - 3) name for a pretty lady?
 - 4) (No mistakes)
16. 1) Dick's our new pitcher.
 - 2) He told us about a rule
 - 3) we'd never heard of before.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
17. 1) No one believed the signs that
 - 2) said the paint was wet. People
 - 3) had to touch it for themselves.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
18. 1) Buzz roller skated home
 - 2) I ran all the way and
 - 3) got there soon after him.
 - 4) (No mistakes)

19. 1) Where was that school bus
2) It was already half past eight.
3) We knew we would be late.
4) (No mistakes)
20. 1) The skunk walked towards
2) us. We ran away. We didn't
3) want to make friends with him.
4) (No mistakes)
21. 1) Jill carefully opened the
2) box. Inside was a gold cat
3) pin. It had green stone eyes.
4) (No mistakes)
22. 1) Mark and Glen have made
2) some paper planes. They will
3) show us, how to make them.
4) (No mistakes)
23. 1) Let's fill the little baskets
2) with nuts candy and popcorn
3) for Ann's birthday party.
4) (No mistakes)
24. 1) Dr Ryan examined our
2) teeth. He said we had a
3) few cavities to be filled.
4) (No mistakes)
25. 1) Is that meat hard
2) to cut. Here's
3) a sharper knife.
4) (No mistakes)
26. 1) Mother says that we
2) cant make candy.
3) There's no sugar.
4) (No mistakes)
27. 1) Whose turn is it to carry
2) water from the spring? Let's
3) all go. It's not far.
4) (No mistakes)
28. 1) We set our watches back an
2) hour when we stopped for
3) lunch in Laramie Wyoming.
4) (No mistakes)

29. 1) 3519 So. Dodge St 172
2) Arlington, Va. 22204
3) May 23, 1971
4) (No mistakes)
30. 1) Dear Cousin Nora
2) When your class comes to
3) Washington, please stay with us.
4) (No mistakes)
31. 1) John drives the car now.
2) He will take you and me down
3) to Mt Vernon for a day.
4) (No mistakes)
32. 1) Are you coming by bus or train?
2) Much love
3) Sarah
4) (No mistakes)
33. 1) Father got up at
2) four oclock in the
3) morning to go hunting.
4) (No mistakes)
34. 1) Dick's home in the summer
2) is the E A Jones Ranch
3) in the Blue Mountains.
4) (No mistakes)
35. 1) I helped Fred choose a
2) turtle and some goldfish for
3) his mother's birthday present.
4) (No mistakes)
36. 1) Dan tested the water
2) with his big toe. It
3) was too cold for swimming.
4) (No mistakes)
37. 1) Mortimer got fighting mad
2) when one of the gang called
3) him Mister. America.
4) (No mistakes)
38. 1) Im going home with Dee,
2) and she is going to show me how
3) to make gumdrop flowers.
4) (No mistakes)



APPENDIX E CONTINUED

39. 1) Do many pupils carry lunch
2) I would rather go home to eat
3) if some of the others do.
4) (No mistakes)
40. 1) Look what you've done
2) to your best, white, shoes.
3) You can't wear them now.
4) (No mistakes)
41. 1) The wool blanket on the
2) bed came from one of the mills
3) at Manchester New Hampshire.
4) (No mistakes)
42. 1) Is this Mona's book?
2) She doesn't take very good
3) care of it, does she?
4) (No mistakes)
43. 1) Mom said that Jan, Jean,
2) and I would all sit together
3) in the back seat, of the car.
4) (No mistakes).
44. 1) Mr and Mrs Day always
2) put red and green lights on
3) their trees at Christmas.
4) (No mistakes)
45. 1) "Do you have your coat
2) and umbrella, Mother called.
3) "It's raining hard outside."
4) (No mistakes)
46. 1) Let's ask Ann's mother
2) to tell us, when it's
3) time for us to go home.
4) (No mistakes)
47. 1) Patty put her pennies nickels
2) and dimes in neat piles. She
3) found that she had two dollars.
4) (No mistakes)
48. 1) The boys loaded Davids
2) old car with bedding and
3) all kinds of canned food.
4) (No mistakes)

Level 10



Here

Level 13 Begin Here

49. 1) Liz said that when she
2) was helping Bob all she
3) did was run run run.
4) (No mistakes)
50. 1) I'll buy the cokes and
2) pizza for the party
3) Sonya will bring popcorn.
4) (No mistakes)
51. 1) The mailman won't come today,
2) so you can't expect to receive
3) Vic's letter before Monday.
4) (No mistakes)
52. 1) Ten dollars is too much
2) to spend, for a fishing rod.
3) Ed's old one will do as well.
4) (No mistakes)
53. 1) We saw the lights of
2) Detroit Michigan from
3) the plane at night.
4) (No mistakes)
54. 1) Tonys dad told him to put the
2) mower in the garage as soon as
3) he finished cutting the grass.
4) (No mistakes)
55. 1) Have you visited the cliff
2) dwellings in Colorado. They were
3) the homes of prehistoric Indians.
4) (No mistakes)
56. 1) "Turn off that record"
2) Mother commanded us firmly.
3) "My eardrums are weary."
4) (No mistakes)
57. 1) Clare said it always made
2) her feel very small to think
3) how many stars there are.
4) (No mistakes)
58. 1) Before leaving, the Scouts
2) doused the fire put out the lights
3) and locked up the cabin.
4) (No mistakes)

Level 11



Here

59. 1) "Oh, cripes!" Ken complained,
2) cross as ever "You always butt
3) in when I'm watching a good program!"
4) (No mistakes)
60. 1) Before you cross the road,
2) do you always look both
3) right and left for cars?
4) (No mistakes)
61. 1) It rained it snowed, and
2) the wind blew. We couldn't
3) see three feet ahead!
4) (No mistakes)
62. 1) It looked to Jim, hiding up
2) in the tree, as if there were
3) ten or fifteen, deer in the herd.
4) (No mistakes)
63. 1) Come to our play, the girls
2) begged. They told us that it
3) would be in the old gray warehouse.
4) (No mistakes)
64. 1) "How many more miles is
2) it to the nearest town,"
3) shouted the leading hiker.
4) (No mistakes)
65. 1) Columbus came in 1492
2) but the Vikings roamed earlier
3) and may have beat him here.
4) (No mistakes)
66. 1) The class secretary asked the
2) committee, "Well, are we ready
3) to vote now or arent we?"
4) (No mistakes)
67. 1) The poster, that Sara made
2) in her art class won first
3) prize in the safety contest.
4) (No mistakes)
68. 1) Very suddenly, the raft broke
2) loose and floated out of reach
3) in the river's rapid current.
4) (No mistakes)
69. 1) We'd pulled the rope as far
2) as it would stretch still it
3) didn't reach to the ground.
4) (No mistakes)

70. 1) 306 Sunflower Ave.
2) Prairie Kans. 66764
3) March 4, 1971
4) (No mistakes)
71. 1) Babe Ruth Sports Goods
2) 21 Atlas Bldg
3) Mission, Kans. 66222
4) (No mistakes)
72. 1) Dear Sirs;
2) Our Little League wants to buy
3) baseballs, bats, and mitts.
4) (No mistakes)
73. 1) Please send us your latest
2) catalog and also let us know
3) "how long delivery takes."
4) (No mistakes)
74. 1) Sincerely yours
2) *Jim Anderson*
3) Little League Manager
4) (No mistakes)
75. 1) "Keep your eye on the ball, Son,"
2) Herb's pop reminded him, but Herbie
3) shut his eyes as he swung the bat.
4) (No mistakes)
76. 1) Jenny recited the poem
2) Little Britches. When she
3) finished it, she was crying.
4) (No mistakes)
77. 1) Maria, the smallest girl, was the
2) one who asked "Mother, is it the
3) same moon that we saw last night?"
4) (No mistakes)
78. 1) Amy's shout, "The boat" brought
2) us running. It was drifting
3) down the river with Amy in it.
4) (No mistakes)
79. 1) Inez is the one who takes' care
2) of her baby brother when her
3) mother's kept busy in the store.
4) (No mistakes)
80. 1) Much to our surprise, the door
2) was open. Wally whispered, "Do
3) you think we left it that way?"
4) (No mistakes)



- 1) Great-grandmother left Cork
 - 2) Ireland, to come to America
 - 3) almost seventy years ago.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Mr. Black owns that run-down
 - 2) little shop right next to City
 - 3) Bank the tallest building in town.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) When the boys went to the store,
 - 2) their mother gave them this list
 - 3) flour, eggs, milk, butter, salt.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Mr. Angeli, our music teacher,
 - 2) said that he was born in
 - 3) Milan, Italy, in 1932.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Paul is tall and blond,
 - 2) but Max his twin brother
 - 3) is short and dark.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) The police found a runaway
 - 2) boy today. He gave his
 - 3) address as, Athens, Ohio.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) This is a Siamese cat.
 - 2) A Persian cats fur is
 - 3) much longer and silkier.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Harry why don't you practice
 - 2) your drums outside? The canary
 - 3) is going crazy, and so am I.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Old Red White and Blue is
 - 2) another popular name for the
 - 3) Stars and Stripes.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Jack Frost, the quick-change
 - 2) artist, came around during the
 - 3) night and now our flowers are brown.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) "Yes, Virginia, there is
 - 2) a Santa Claus." I believe
 - 3) that's how the letter begins.
 - 4) (No mistakes)

- 1) Our hired man Lonnie Briggs
 - 2) brought the geese, ducks, and
 - 3) chickens in the pickup truck.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) "I will rake the leaves" Mac
 - 2) promised, "if you will go to Bill's
 - 3) with me when I'm finished."
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) The paper says it will rain.
 - 2) Therefore we plan to hold
 - 3) the picnic on our back porch.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Eating, sleeping, fishing,
 - 2) boating is the daily routine
 - 3) at the girls' camp in August.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) This blanket is not our's.
 - 2) We brought one but must have
 - 3) left it in our friend's car.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Mrs. Hyo said that she has a
 - 2) bride doll from Seoul, Korea. She
 - 3) asked if we wanted to see it?
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) The pilot's voice came on again.
 - 2) "No folks," he announced, "you will
 - 3) not be able to see Twin Peaks today."
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Whenever I pass by the front
 - 2) door of that old haunted house
 - 3) shivers run down my spine.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) "Men, get going," our leader
 - 2) barked. "We have ten miles
 - 3) to tramp before chow time."
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) That fish had taken hook, line, and
 - 2) sinker. Peter fortunately for us
 - 3) all, had brought some extra tackle.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) "An aquarium" explained the clerk,
 - 2) "should always contain some green
 - 3) plants. They keep the water fresh."
 - 4) (No mistakes)

Test L Language Skills

L-4: Usage

Directions: This is a test on the use of words. It will show whether you know how to use words according to the standards of correctly written English.

The exercises in the test are like the samples shown below. Many of the exercises contain mistakes in the use of words. Some do not have any mistakes at all.

You are to look for mistakes in the test exercises. When you find a mistake, fill in the answer space on the answer sheet that has the same number as the line containing the mistake. If there is no mistake in an exercise, fill in the fourth answer space.

The sample exercises below show what you are to do.

SAMPLE EXERCISES



- S1.** 1) He showed us the way.
 2) Are you afraid to try?
 3) Me and him took turns.
 4) (No mistakes)
- S2.** 1) Tim went first.
 2) The bird flew away.
 3) Pat found a dollar.
 4) (No mistakes)

ANSWERS

S1. ① ② ● ④

S2. ① ② ③ ●

Use this table to find where your level is to begin and stop on this test.

		Begin With		Stop After
Level 9	→	Page 44, Exercise 1	→	Exercise 32, Page 45
Level 10	→	Page 44, Exercise 12	→	Exercise 43, Page 45
Level 11	→	Page 45, Exercise 23	→	Exercise 54, Page 46
Level 12	→	Page 45, Exercise 33	→	Exercise 64, Page 47
Level 13	→	Page 46, Exercise 44	→	Exercise 75, Page 48
Level 14	→	Page 47, Exercise 55	→	Exercise 86, Page 49

Make no marks in this booklet.

Level **9** Begin Here

- 1) The sun rose slowly.
 - 2) Who wonned the contest?
 - 3) Bud stood on his head.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Look at those skaters!
 - 2) Pat took his present home.
 - 3) I asked they to come.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) A bird laid its eggs in the grass.
 - 2) Let's buy some gum at the store.
 - 3) Each pupil brought his own pet.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) A car runned into the ditch.
 - 2) A fish bit on our line.
 - 3) Those apples have worms.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Who has seen the wind?
 - 2) All the crayons were broken.
 - 3) That ain't the way home.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) I know Mark's phone number.
 - 2) Me and him are good friends.
 - 3) Let him come to visit.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) My pockets felt empty.
 - 2) Ted ran to the door.
 - 3) George meeted us at noon.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Put that there jam in your sandwich.
 - 2) Joel had never heard of grapefruit.
 - 3) Run faster and you'll catch him.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Dad and I got tickets for the game.
 - 2) We goes every Saturday.
 - 3) Why don't you come along?
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Save some of those white grapes.
 - 2) Who lost this pair of gloves?
 - 3) The cat's fur felt soft.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Nick weared his tiger mask.
 - 2) Are you going to the park?
 - 3) Clouds made the day dark.
 - 4) (No mistakes)

Level **10** Begin Here

- 1) May I come in?
 - 2) Ralph caught a big fish.
 - 3) Barbara told our secret.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) These bananas look ripe to me.
 - 2) The baby cried most of the night.
 - 3) The show began at seven o'clock.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Let them wait if they're here early.
 - 2) Our kite flew almost a mile.
 - 3) I and Art delivered the papers.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) We hided under the big bed.
 - 2) Have you ever seen a tiger?
 - 3) Here are some great pictures.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Sue has made a ring for you.
 - 2) My shoes is all too little now.
 - 3) There was no one else on the bus.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) This is an Eskimo doll.
 - 2) You didn't leave an orange for Marg.
 - 3) Dad won't leave us play in the barn.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Only him and me knew about the cave.
 - 2) It wasn't very big but was very dark.
 - 3) We always took two candles with us.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Dave had selled all his papers.
 - 2) We saw the car begin to move.
 - 3) These gloves are too tight.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Most boys like to climb trees.
 - 2) We didn't know the hill was so steep.
 - 3) Wild roses grew behind the cabin.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Which of you boys has a red bike?
 - 2) Marty won the prize for his costume.
 - 3) Aren't none of you coming with me?
 - 4) (No mistakes)
- 1) Carlo began working on the puzzle.
 - 2) I never seen the ocean before.
 - 3) This clock runs without winding.
 - 4) (No mistakes)

APPENDIX E CONTINUED Here

23. 1) We forgot what day it was.
2) Ross learned us how to fly a kite.
3) All of our family are going to the beach.
4) (No mistakes)
24. 1) This here pail is too heavy for me.
2) That river runs into the sea.
3) The chipmunk ran into his hole.
4) (No mistakes)
25. 1) All these eggs were in one nest!
2) My hamburger is bigger than yours.
3) Hal give away his biggest melons.
4) (No mistakes)
26. 1) Does black wool come from black sheep?
2) You ought to wear a warmer coat.
3) Our kite was blown into a tree.
4) (No mistakes)
27. 1) We found gooder berries last year.
2) The lion roared still more loudly.
3) Mr. Ryan said you are his best runner.
4) (No mistakes)
28. 1) We came to a little sandy beach.
2) Each of us had brung a swimsuit.
3) Red didn't go in. He had just eaten..
4) (No mistakes)
29. 1) The little boy misses his mother.
2) These boxes of fruit are heavy.
3) Alan blowed on his burned finger.
4) (No mistakes)
30. 1) Mother has gone downtown to shop.
2) Aren't you coming to see our play?
3) This jacket don't zip.
4) (No mistakes)
31. 1) I'm trying to teach my sister to tell time.
2) They should have given us more money.
3) Your mean old dog drank the kitten's milk.
4) (No mistakes)
32. 1) Roger tipped the boat when he stood up.
2) I don't bite my nails no more.
3) Those guitars are much too loud!
4) (No mistakes)

Level 12 Begin Here

33. 1) Suddenly, Ben heard his name spoken.
2) Last week us girls had a slumber party.
3) That sack of groceries is not ours.
4) (No mistakes)
34. 1) Neil wants to ride the elevator.
2) Judy taught Maria how to sew buttonholes.
3) Someone has took Ray's bicycle.
4) (No mistakes)
35. 1) There wasn't nothing in the box.
2) He asked whose flashlight that was.
3) Not a sound could be heard.
4) (No mistakes)
36. 1) The birds ate the seed we left them.
2) Gil wore his boots everywhere he went.
3) The moon had risen before sundown.
4) (No mistakes)
37. 1) The alarm clock did not ring.
2) The bear jump down and ran.
3) I can't reach those top shelves.
4) (No mistakes)
38. 1) The baby cried hisself to sleep.
2) Nancy and I will sit with him.
3) We'll be careful not to wake him.
4) (No mistakes)
39. 1) Dad won't give us any more help.
2) There was no cream in the pitcher.
3) The farmer sold ten of his sheeps.
4) (No mistakes)
40. 1) The wind blew the leaves off the tree.
2) One of the girls is meeting us here.
3) Two pages in this book is missing.
4) (No mistakes)
41. 1) Let Vicky cut the cake.
2) He gave the basketball to Leo and me.
3) Look at those big muscles!
4) (No mistakes)
42. 1) Jean wants one of them puppies.
2) Both of them have white paws.
3) We want to keep one of them ourselves.
4) (No mistakes)
43. 1) They didn't know how to steer their raft.
2) Didn't I lie my coat right next to yours?
3) The storm passed as quickly as it came.
4) (No mistakes)



Level 13 Begin Here

44.
 - 1) Be here at twelve o'clock, and Jerry will give you a ride.
 - 2) They have a fine radio, but they never use it.
 - 3) When the fog lifted, we could see where we was going.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
45.
 - 1) Beside the old church was a clear, cold spring.
 - 2) I wish we had us a lawn as nice as yours.
 - 3) The wobbly young fawn tried to stand up but fell over.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
46.
 - 1) Andy threw a snowball at us, but it didn't even come close.
 - 2) I ate too much candy and spoiled my dinner.
 - 3) Emily can never seem to wrap her packages as neatly as you do.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
47.
 - 1) Craig say he likes olives better than ice cream.
 - 2) The hunter had been attacked by a bear and badly hurt.
 - 3) Grant had caught two big fish and lost them both.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
48.
 - 1) Sheila has a pen pal in India who writes to her often.
 - 2) The current in the river looked so swift we didn't go swimming.
 - 3) In this country you seldom never see a cow pulling a cart.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
49.
 - 1) It began to rain very hard as soon as the wind died down.
 - 2) Here's a letter for you and I from the Campfire Girls.
 - 3) The little kids don't know how to play the game.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
50.
 - 1) Long before we reached shore, the sun had went down.
 - 2) Chinese food is quite different from that of most other countries.
 - 3) Lou's sister wanted Santa Claus to bring her an elephant.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
51.
 - 1) Jan's family subscribes to all five of these magazines.
 - 2) These kind of nut grows only in warm climates.
 - 3) Just look what he has done to that plate of food!
 - 4) (No mistakes)
52.
 - 1) During the storm a baby robin was blown right out of its nest.
 - 2) I don't see anything in the paper about the science exhibit.
 - 3) I have bought several pencils this month, but I've lost them all.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
53.
 - 1) Some white ducks, some swans, and several wild geese swam in the pool.
 - 2) This is as far as the bus runs. We have to walk the rest of the way.
 - 3) The dresses we bought at the Riverdale Department Store were made very bad.
 - 4) (No mistakes)
54.
 - 1) You never seen anything so funny in your life.
 - 2) The car spun around several times and then came to rest in the ditch.
 - 3) May Danny and I help you carry some of those packages?
 - 4) (No mistakes)

55. 1) Mother doesn't let us watch television until we finish our homework.
2) It was a dark, rainy day, and we didn't have nothing to do.
3) Tim ran to the window to see who was coming up the walk.
4) (No mistakes)
56. 1) The sixth-grade pupils are helping to buy Mrs. Martin's present.
2) Steve and Phil are collecting a quarter from each one.
3) We plan to buy her a travel clock to take on trips.
4) (No mistakes)
57. 1) What become of that neat bracelet you used to wear?
2) The kitten ran round and round after its tail.
3) We ran out of paint before the boat was finished.
4) (No mistakes)
58. 1) Karen and Madge gave a puppet show.
2) Karen built the stage for it herself.
3) Madge and her made all the puppets.
4) (No mistakes)
59. 1) Which of these suits is the one to go to the cleaners?
2) Julia had chose the most expensive sweater in the store.
3) Byron was so tired he lay down on the grass and soon was fast asleep.
4) (No mistakes)
60. 1) Mike's red shirt is much too big for him, but he wears it everywhere.
2) Large sheets of plastic is available at the hardware store.
3) There is no fruit that smells better to me than an orange.
4) (No mistakes)
61. 1) Don't make any noise until we get more closer to them.
2) It doesn't sound sensible, I know, but it's true.
3) Now that's what I call a very stupid question!
4) (No mistakes)
62. 1) In the fire drill, everyone knew his place and took it quickly.
2) I think we could have won if Rod Jackson had not been hurt.
3) I wouldn't have fallen down if you hadn't run in front of me.
4) (No mistakes)
63. 1) The Indian tribes were drove farther and farther west by the advancing pioneers.
2) We ought to have the furnace examined before the weather turns cold.
3) Father said he could fix the leaky faucet, but we finally had to call the plumber.
4) (No mistakes)
64. 1) Don't pay any attention to those boys when they show off.
2) Rex had been sick that day and hadn't seen the fire.
3) The old men set on the park benches and told stories all day long.
4) (No mistakes)



APPENDIX E CONTINUED

76. 1) He and his father often go hunting together in the fall.
 2) They left without telling him or me where they were going.
 3) Everyone watched the magician very closely as he mixed the cards.
 4) (No mistakes)
77. 1) The ground was froze so solidly we had to use a pick to dig the hole.
 2) Lois didn't have any fun at the party, because there was no one there whom she knew.
 3) He has always gotten better marks in arithmetic than in spelling.
 4) (No mistakes)
78. 1) Uncle Lee was on a ship that was badly damaged in a storm.
 2) The doorbell rang so loudly that we all jumped up quickly.
 3) Each of the boys in the race tried to run as fast as they could.
 4) (No mistakes)
79. 1) The game was called off on account of it was raining.
 2) We saw the children, so we know where they're hiding.
 3) I wondered why Keith had never spoken about his father.
 4) (No mistakes)
80. 1) A wheel and an oar were lying on the beach.
 2) Maria sang so beautiful she was invited to appear at the Arts Festival.
 3) Marcia sat beside her father at the head table at the banquet.
 4) (No mistakes)
81. 1) We boys swore a solemn oath never to tell what we had seen.
 2) We learned from Lon how to make good fish chowder.
 3) The lumberjack asked if we had ever heard of Paul Bunyan.
 4) (No mistakes)
82. 1) Karl slipped up quietly and caught a beautiful butterfly.
 2) We drug the dead deer off the road and called the game warden.
 3) The pilot dipped the wings of his plane when he flew over.
 4) (No mistakes)
83. 1) Neither Jake nor he knew where they had lost the parcel.
 2) The teeth of the shark are set in double rows.
 3) What is the difference between a daffodil and a jonquil?
 4) (No mistakes)
84. 1) Their bringing a portable radio to the picnic.
 2) Russ helped himself to a big bunch of grapes.
 3) You could have at least washed the dishes after your snack.
 4) (No mistakes)
85. 1) There were fewer children than grownups at the skating rink.
 2) The apples had dried up and shrunked to the size of walnuts.
 3) The muskrat swam through the water with scarcely a ripple.
 4) (No mistakes)
86. 1) Leroy stole in so quietly that none of us heard him.
 2) Murray's pet hamster was loose somewhere in the house.
 3) Each of the girls at the party were given flowers for her hair.
 4) (No mistakes)



65. 1) Why weren't Joe and him at the ball game today?
2) Which one of the two teams played the better ball?
3) Lefty's arm was hurt, so he sat out the game.
4) (No mistakes)
66. 1) Who will go with you? Take someone who's not afraid.
2) Has anyone ever really seen an ostrich with its head in the sand?
3) The ladies on the island fanned themselves with leaves.
4) (No mistakes)
67. 1) We had rode several miles before we realized we had taken the wrong turn.
2) By the time we found a service station, there was hardly any gas left in the tank.
3) Dolores had the most wonderful time on her trip to Mexico.
4) (No mistakes)
68. 1) Ray does not want you to help him; he wants to do it all himself.
2) Mr. Wilson likes cream in his coffee, but Mrs. Wilson takes hers black.
3) All of the winter clothes are stored in boxes in the attic.
4) (No mistakes)
69. 1) Nat had taken the last penny from his bank.
2) Workers use to toil many long hours for little pay.
3) You may use the longer of my two fishing poles.
4) (No mistakes)
70. 1) It don't look as if it is going to rain.
2) You ought to use a ruler to measure the table.
3) "Let that horse alone!" yelled the farmer.
4) (No mistakes)
71. 1) There is a trunk filled with old-fashioned dresses up in the attic.
2) Did Connie say where she was going to?
3) Kathy was given five dollars as a reward for finding the necklace.
4) (No mistakes)
72. 1) Warren dropped the box on Earl's toe, and then the fight began.
2) There was hardly enough flour to make pancakes for us all.
3) July was a hot month, but August was hotter still.
4) (No mistakes)
73. 1) The captain and his cat have traveled around the world.
2) The telephone and the doorbell rung at the same time.
3) A pipe had sprung a leak, and the basement was full of water.
4) (No mistakes)
74. 1) This little clock always stands beside my bed.
2) Helen brought each of us a ivory fan.
3) Three sixth-grade girls from our school sang on the Jackie Carlson Show.
4) (No mistakes)
75. 1) Isn't it rather early for tulips to be in bloom?
2) The canoe without paddles floated far out in the lake.
3) I could have swore I saw a face at the window.
4) (No mistakes)



ATTITUDESTOWARD LANGUAGE ARTS ELEMENTARY

We would like to know how you feel about language arts. Blacken in the circle with a pencil to show how you feel. Fill in only one circle for each question. YOUR TEACHER WILL NOT SEE THIS -- Your answers will go straight into the computer. Have fun!

1. Working with words is fun. NO SOMETIMES USUALLY YES
0 0 0 0



2. I like to read even when the teacher doesn't make me NO SOMETIMES USUALLY YES
0 0 0 0

3. Reading is boring NO SOMETIMES USUALLY YES
0 0 0 0



4. Reading is easy NO SOMETIMES USUALLY YES
0 0 0 0

5. It is fun to practice writing outside of school NO SOMETIMES USUALLY YES
0 0 0 0



6. I like to get out of reading whenever I can NO SOMETIMES USUALLY YES
0 0 0 0

	NO	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	YES
7. Writing is a waste of time	0	0	0	0

	NO	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	YES
8. Reading is fun	0	0	0	0



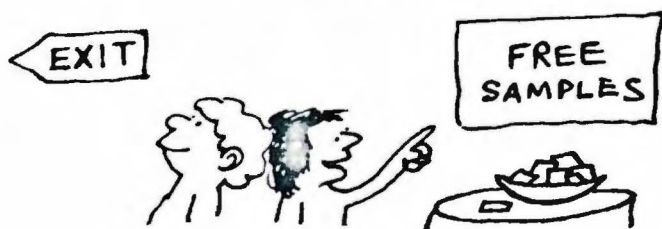
	NO	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	YES
9. Reading is my favorite subject	0	0	0	0

	NO	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	YES
10. There are too many chances to make mistakes in spelling	0	0	0	0



	NO	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	YES
11. Reading is hard	0	0	0	0

	NO	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	YES
12. Reading helps you outside of school	0	0	0	0



	NO	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	YES
13. I like spelling	0	0	0	0

	NO	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	YES
14. You learn good things by reading	0	0	0	0



	NO	SOMETIMES	USUALLY	YES
15. Reading is a waste of time	0	0	0	0

SCORES	ABSOLUTE FREQ	RELATIVE FREQ (PCT)	ADJUSTED FREQ (PCT)	CUM FREQ (PCT)
14.	1	.2	.2	.2
15.	2	.4	.4	.5
16.	2	.4	.4	.9
17.	7	1.3	1.3	2.2
18.	9	1.6	1.6	3.8
19.	3	1.5	1.5	5.3
20.	7	1.3	1.3	6.6
21.	4	.7	.7	7.3
22.	10	1.8	1.8	9.1
23.	17	3.1	3.1	12.2
24.	23	3.7	3.7	15.9
25.	15	3.3	3.3	19.2
26.	11	2.0	2.0	21.2
27.	13	4.2	4.2	25.4
28.	11	2.0	2.0	27.4
29.	10	3.5	3.5	30.9
30.	24	4.4	4.4	35.3
31.	13	3.7	3.7	38.9
32.	14	2.6	2.6	41.5
33.	13	2.4	2.4	43.9
34.	20	3.7	3.7	47.5
35.	22	4.0	4.0	51.6
36.	20	5.7	5.3	56.9
37.	15	3.7	3.7	60.5
38.	14	2.6	2.6	63.1
39.	17	3.1	3.1	66.2
40.	27	4.9	4.9	71.1
41.	15	3.3	3.3	74.4
42.	17	4.9	4.9	79.3
43.	15	2.7	2.7	82.1
44.	17	3.1	3.1	85.2
45.	17	2.2	2.2	87.4
46.	14	2.9	2.9	90.3
47.	7	1.3	1.3	91.6

SCORES

48.	4	.7	.7	92.3
49.	7	1.7	1.3	93.6
50.	6	1.1	1.1	94.7
51.	4	.7	.7	95.4
52.	7	1.3	1.3	96.7
53.	3	.5	.5	97.3
54.	3	.5	.5	97.8
55.	3	.5	.5	98.4
57.	1	.2	.2	98.5
58.	2	.4	.4	98.9
59.	1	.2	.2	99.1
60.	1	.2	.2	99.3
62.	1	.2	.2	99.5
65.	1	.2	.2	99.6
67.	1	.2	.2	99.8
70.	1	.2	.2	100.0
TOTAL	547	100.0	100.0	

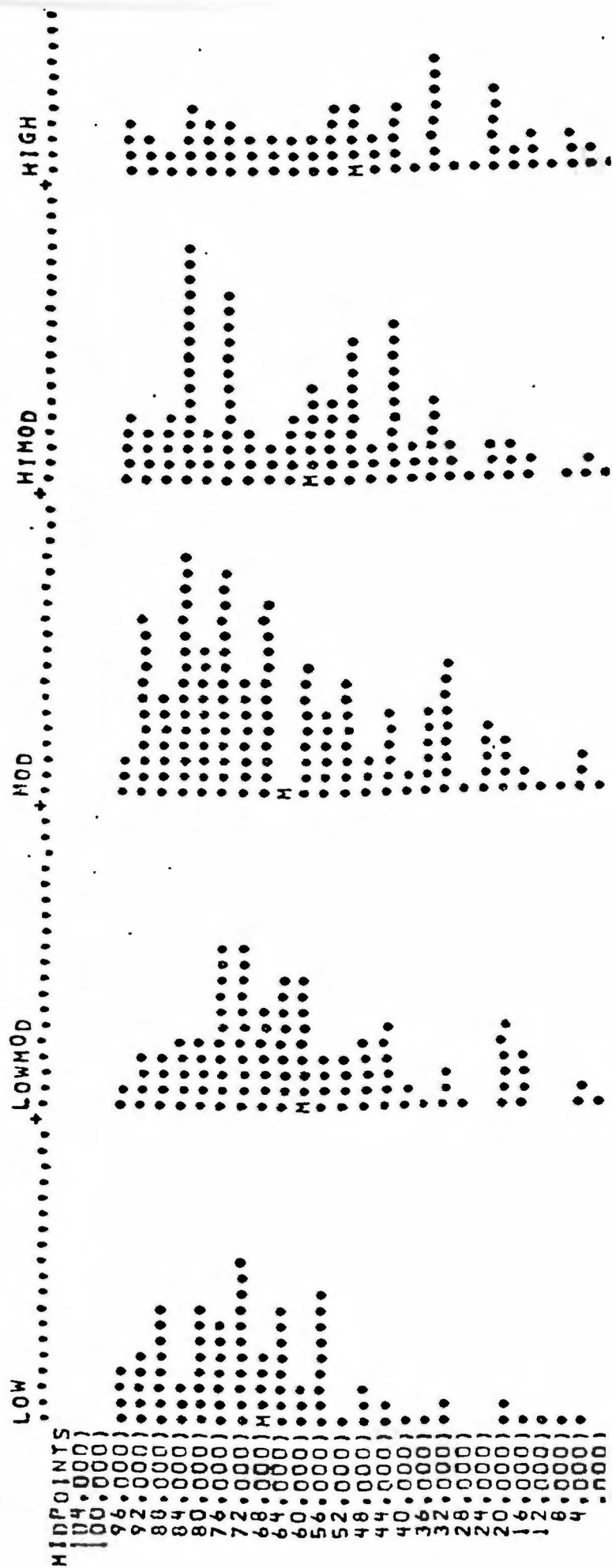
SCORES	ABSOLUTE FREQ	RELATIVE FREQ (PCT)	ADJUSTED FREQ (PCT)	CUM FREQ (PCT)
			.7	.7
1.	4	.7	.7	.9
3.	1	.2	.2	1.8
4.	5	.9	.9	2.0
5.	1	.2	.2	2.6
6.	3	.5	.5	3.1
8.	3	.5	.5	3.7
10.	3	.5	.5	4.0
11.	2	.4	.4	4.2
12.	1	.2	.2	5.1
15.	5	.9	.9	5.3
16.	1	.2	.2	6.4
18.	6	1.1	1.1	6.6
19.	1	.2	.2	7.7
20.	5	1.1	1.1	9.5
22.	10	1.9	1.8	10.4
24.	5	.9	.9	10.6
25.	1	.2	.2	12.1
26.	3	1.5	1.5	12.2
28.	1	.2	.2	12.6
29.	1	.4	.4	12.8
30.	1	.2	.2	14.8
31.	11	2.0	2.0	16.1
34.	7	1.3	1.3	18.5
36.	13	2.4	2.4	20.1
38.	7	1.6	1.6	20.3
39.	1	.2	.2	21.6
43.	7	1.3	1.3	21.8
44.	1	.2	.2	23.0
45.	11	2.0	2.0	23.9
46.	1	.2	.2	27.1
47.	17	3.1	3.1	27.2
48.	1	.2	.2	28.3
49.	5	1.1	1.1	30.3
50.	11	2.0	2.0	

SCORES

51.	1	1.2	1.2	32.2
52.	1	.2	.2	32.4
53.	17	3.1	3.1	35.5
55.	13	2.4	2.4	37.6
57.	17	3.1	3.1	41.0
59.	13	2.4	2.4	43.3
61.	13	3.3	3.3	46.6
63.	5	.9	.9	47.5
65.	19	3.5	3.5	51.0
66.	2	.4	.4	51.4
67.	14	2.6	2.6	53.9
69.	16	2.9	2.9	56.9
70.	1	.2	.2	57.0
71.	5	.9	.9	58.0
72.	17	3.1	3.1	51.1
74.	15	2.7	2.7	63.8
75.	22	5.0	5.0	69.7
77.	13	3.3	3.3	72.9
79.	13	2.4	2.4	75.3
80.	1	.2	.2	75.5
81.	17	3.1	3.1	78.6
83.	5	3.7	3.7	82.3
84.	11	2.0	2.0	84.3
86.	14	2.6	2.6	86.6
87.	7	1.3	1.3	88.1
89.	12	2.2	2.2	90.3
90.	7	1.3	1.3	91.6
91.	10	1.8	1.8	93.4
92.	4	.7	.7	94.1
93.	17	1.8	1.8	96.0
94.	4	.7	.7	96.7
95.	12	1.8	1.8	98.5
96.	2	.4	.4	98.9
97.	4	.7	.7	99.6
98.	1	.4	.4	100.0
TOTAL	527	100.0	100.0	

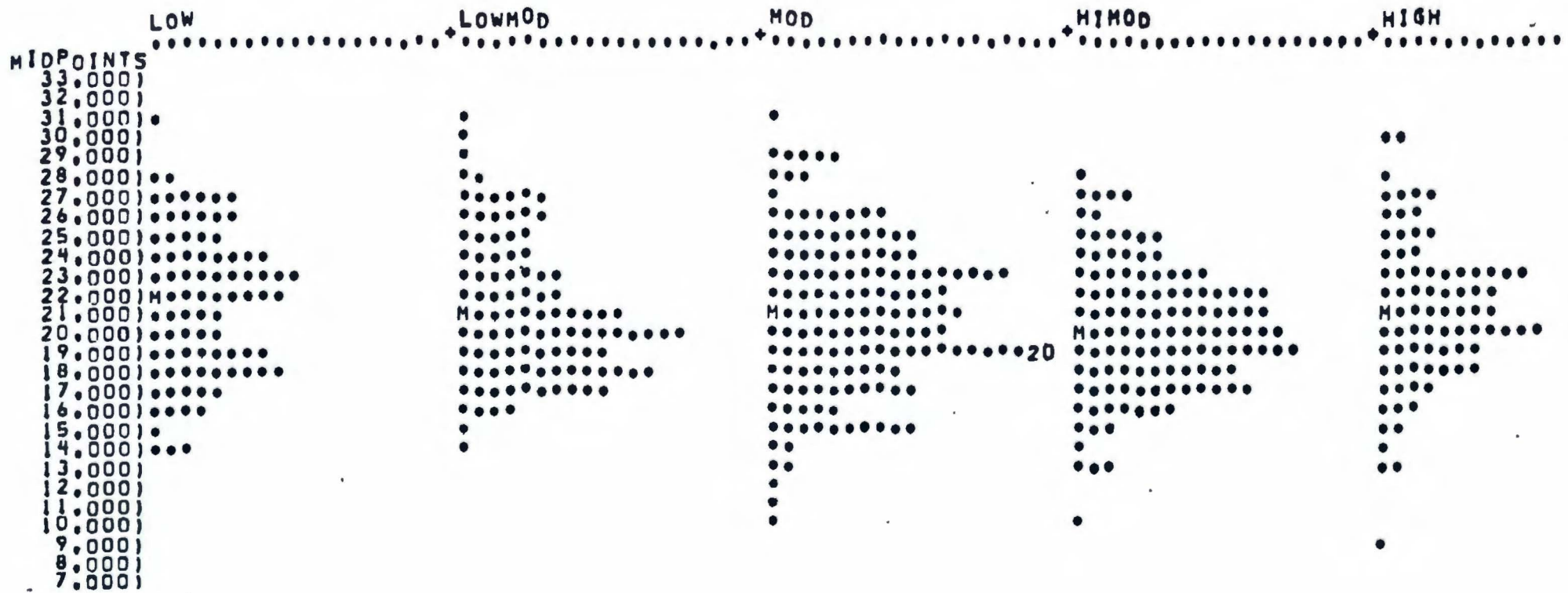
	ABSOLUTE FREQ	RELATIVE FREQ (PCT)	ADJUSTED FREQ (PCT)	CUM FREQ (PCT)
9.	1	.2	.2	.2
10.	2	.4	.4	.5
11.	1	.2	.2	.7
12.	1	.2	.2	.9
13.	7	1.3	1.3	2.2
14.	8	1.5	1.5	3.7
15.	17	3.1	3.1	6.8
16.	23	4.2	4.2	11.0
17.	41	7.5	7.5	18.5
18.	49	9.0	9.0	27.4
19.	60	11.0	11.0	38.4
20.	57	10.4	10.4	48.8
21.	53	9.1	9.1	58.0
22.	49	9.0	9.0	66.9
23.	32	5.5	5.5	76.4
24.	32	5.9	5.9	82.3
25.	30	5.5	5.5	87.8
26.	25	4.6	4.6	92.3
27.	21	3.8	3.8	96.2
28.	9	1.6	1.6	97.8
29.	6	1.1	1.1	98.9
30.	3	.5	.5	99.5
31.	3	.5	.5	100.0
TOTAL	547	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX H HISTOGRAMS FOR SCORES OF OCA GROUPS FOR THE ITBS-L TEST



APPENDIX I

HISTOGRAMS FOR THE SCORES OF OCA GROUPS FOR THE ATTITUDES TOWARD THE LANGUAGE ARTS SCALE



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