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'A Ship Leading Itself ... ': A Study of Two Methods to Teach the Public Speaking Course

Rodney K. Marshall
University of Tennessee - Knoxville

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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Rodney K. Marshall entitled "A Ship Leading Itself ... ': A Study of Two Methods to Teach the Public Speaking Course." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Communication.

Michelle T. Violanti, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Mark Miller, Douglas Raber, Carol Tenopir, John Haas

Accepted for the Council:

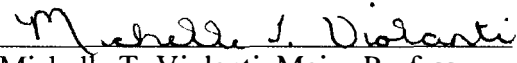
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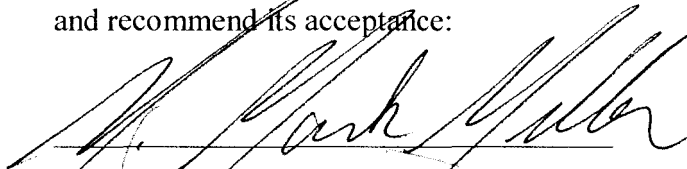
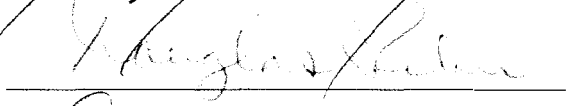
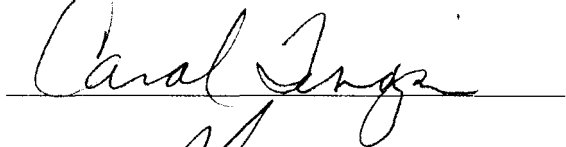

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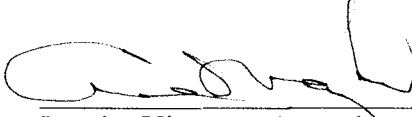
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Accepted for the Council:


Interim Vice Provost and
Dean of The Graduate School

"A Ship Leading Itself...":
A Study of Two Methods to Teach the Public Speaking Course

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Rodney K. Marshall

August, 2001

To my immediate family:
parents
(Keith & Mary Marshall),
sister-in law, niece, & nephew
(Pam, Sarah, & Joshua Marshall),
sister & nephew
(YoVonna & Lance)
for all their support;
and in memory of my brother,
Timothy Alan Marshall
(1955-2000).

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This project was a learning experience, not the "pain and toil" that I was lead to believe it would take. Yes, I got tired of trying to think "creatively" toward the end, but it was a very enjoyable process in which I am indebted to several individuals.

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ABSTRACT

With the advent of the Internet, more and more classes are being moved to that medium. This study looks at using that medium to assist classroom instruction. Teaching the Public Speaking class with online-assistance requires placing the majority of the content online and using classroom instruction for individual conferences between the student and instructor to prepare for presentations. This study investigated the outcomes of this method of instruction and compared them to the traditional lecture/discussion method of teaching the class.

The outcomes investigated concerned student perceptions of course satisfaction and preparedness for speeches, their willingness to communicate, and their immediacy with the instructor (verbal, nonverbal and total immediacy). An instrument was developed and used in this study to measure skills needed to become information competent. A Post Hoc analysis examined student perceptions of learning the course concepts, instruction in the course, and communication with the instructor.

With 232 participants (147 traditional and 85 online-assisted), all hypotheses were supported. Students' perception of their willingness to communicate and information competency increased through the course. Online-assisted students perceived greater increases in their willingness to communicate and information competency skills compared to traditional students. Also, online-assisted students felt greater immediacy (verbal, nonverbal, and total) with the instructor than the traditional students. Finally, online-assisted students reported greater course satisfaction and preparedness for presentations. In the Post Hoc analysis, online-assisted students perceived a greater

perception of learning, better instruction of concepts, and better communication than the traditional students reported. The study introduced a new instrument to quantitatively measure information competency, the Information Competency Assessment Instrument. The instrument was found to be very reliable. In a validity study, it was found to have good content and predictive validity.

Conclusions, limitations and future research were discussed. Also, recommendations were suggested for those that would be interested in using the online-assisted method to teach the Public Speaking course.

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CHAPTER I

Thirty years from now the big university campuses will be relics. Universities won't survive.... It's as large a change as when we first got the printed book.

Peter Drucker

INTRODUCTION

The Internet and related information technology were major developments in the 1990s. Because no other medium has offered individuals easy access to so much information, Internet use provides a wealth of research opportunities. Although hard to measure exactly, an estimated 377 million people, 148 million in the U.S. alone, are connected to the Internet (NUA, 2000a, b). In 1999, homes with Internet access increased from 26.2 percent to 41.5 percent ("Computers in households," 2000). What are individuals doing online? The answer is practically anything they want. For the most part they are using e-mail to keep in contact with friends and family, entertaining themselves with online games, searching for information to answer questions, and shopping at the many sites offering everything from books to clothing and hobby activities.

The new millenium has increased Internet and related information technology use in education. Over the past 10 years, the typical college has doubled its spending on information technology services (Olsen, 2000b). Helping faculty members integrate technology and instruction continues to be the main priority of academic-computing administrators (Carlson, 2000). In comparison to 1994, e-mail (by students and

university faculty and administration) use has risen from 10 to 60 percent and course web sites have risen from 7 to 30 percent of college courses (Carlson, 2000). The Internet is a learning tool with which every student needs to be acquainted and feel confident using. In fact, Fairleigh Dickinson University will soon be requiring students to take at least one course a year online (Westfeldt, 2000). This is one way to use the technology and incorporate it into the lives and resources of the students.

Students returning for fall 2000 classes found their campuses “invisibly altered” (Olsen, 2000a). Installing wireless networks on campuses has made information technology available for students and faculty with laptop computers. Even though the wireless networks operate slower than the home-based personal computer, the key to being wireless is mobility. In fact, wireless networks are helping some colleges create what they call “nomadic” learning environments, where students can move freely from one location on campus to another while still being connected to the server (Olsen, 2000).

The World Wide Web (WWW) offers many unique characteristics and features for both educator and student. These attributes range from cost effectiveness from a university business perspective to convenience and flexibility of structure for the student (Kubala, 1998). Focusing primarily on the students, this study is designed to examine outcomes associate with two methods of teaching Public Speaking: traditional and online-assisted. The traditional classes uses lecture/discussion and exercises to prepare students to speak. The online-assisted classes asks students to read the textbook for content, uses online quizzes and exercises to check their retention, with the instructor to prepare them for speeches. The variables associated with the study include student

perceptions of willingness to communicate, information competency, and instructor immediacy.

Theoretical Foundation

Expectancy Violations Theory (EVT) assumes individuals hold expectations and preferences about the nonverbal behavior of others (Burgoon & Hale, 1988). Expectancy has been defined as “a prediction about what will happen in some situation, it is a probability judgment based on previous learning” (Gigliotti, 1987, p. 365). A violation of these expectations causes a change in arousal and heightens the prominence of cognitions about the communicator and the behavior exhibited. Within human communication research, scholars have concentrated on developing and testing a theoretical model used to explain expectancy violations (Burgoon, 1983, 1985; Burgoon & Hale, 1988; Burgoon, Stacks, & Burch, 1982). Elements of the model include expectancies, violations and arousal, communicator reward valence, behavior interpretation and evaluation, and violation valence (Burgoon & Hale, 1988). An example and explanation of these elements illustrate how the model works.

Expectancies

The Expectancy Violations model postulates that people develop expectations about the behavior of others. Expectations an individual has in an interpersonal encounter are formed by social norms, relationship information, and contextual cues. In other words, these expectations include judgments of what behaviors are appropriate, feasible, possible, and typical for a communication event (Burgoon & Hale, 1988; Kreckel, 1981). Thus, if an individual's communication partner conforms to

expectancies, the expectancies and their nonverbal behaviors should operate largely out of this awareness. For instance, when we meet someone for the first time, it is generally expected to greet the individual with a handshake. This is something that we have learned to expect from our society. Other cultures do not necessarily expect the same response or reaction.

Violations and Arousal

If the communicator violates expectancies to a recognizable extent, the violation increases the violatee's arousal (Burgoon & Hale, 1988). This arousal change produces a response--drawing attention away from the apparent purpose of the interaction and focusing it on the person who produced the violation. Deviant characteristics or behavior cause people to remember specific details about the deviant (Langer, 1978; Langer & Imber, 1980). Unexpected language use transfers attention from the content level of an interaction to the relational inference (King & Sereno, 1984). Overall, violating changes the nature of an interaction (Burgoon & Hale, 1988).

Communicator Reward Valence

Reward value influence attaches a positive or negative valence to a violation. Reward is the exclusive attachment of all the relevant communicator and relationship characteristics that can be judged on an evaluative continuum (Burgoon & Hale, 1988). Humans are inherently inclined to make evaluations of one another. Based on assessing the costs and rewards associated with such preinteraction features as physical attractiveness, status, gender, age, and acquaintanceship and such interactional factors as task knowledge, use of humor, type of feedback, and conversational style, interactants

place each other on a valence continuum ranging from positive to negative (Burgoon, Stern, & Dillman, 1995).

Behavior Interpretation and Evaluation

The communicator reward value influences the valencing of a violation in two ways: it may affect interpretation or evaluation. Many nonverbal behaviors carry implicit relational messages and other social meanings (Burgoon, Buller, Hale, & deTurck, 1984; Burgoon et al., 1986; Burgoon et al., 1985; Burgoon & Saine, 1978). Any given act can carry multiple interpretations which may influence which meaning is selected. Reward may also mediate a violation. An intimate overture, for instance, may be welcomed from a positively valenced violator but not from a negatively valenced one. Even though there are some nonverbal behaviors that produce a definite positive or negative evaluation, many behaviors depend on the source of the behaviors to be evaluated (Burgoon & Hale, 1988). An example could be a student coming into an instructor's office for a visit concerning a low grade on an assignment. If the instructor greets the student with a smile, pleasant handshake, and listens attentively to the student (positive eye contact, leaning forward, etc.), then the student is more likely to perceive that the instructor is honestly listening and considering the student's point of view, thus the behavior results in a positive evaluation of the situation. But, if the instructor does not greet the student with the customary handshake, leans back in the chair and is distracted with other things in the environment, then the behavioral results will probably be viewed negatively. The reward factor with the positive evaluation is expected to be high (positive). The negative evaluation will probably expect little or no reward. But, if the student in both situations

does not convince the instructor to change the low grade, the expected reward from the positive behavior is violated.

Violation Valence

Positively evaluated behaviors should produce favorable communication patterns and consequences; negatively interpreted and evaluated deviations should generate unfavorable interaction patterns and consequences. This model also predicts "that an extreme violation, if committed by a high reward communicator, can be positively valenced, producing reciprocal communication patterns and positive outcomes such as higher credibility and attraction" (Burgoon & Hale, p. 63, 1988). Again, looking at the previous example of the positive behavior toward the student. If the instructor shows positive behavior in greeting and listening to the student and still doesn't agree with the student's argument, the exchange is going to be considered a violation of expectancy. However, if the instructor proceeds to fully explain the reasons, the student could possibly understand the instructor's position and thus respect the instructor more. The violation ends up strengthening the relationship between the student and the instructor.

This interpretation and evaluation process as filtered through communicator reward is illustrated in Figure 1. In the case of a violation, the arousal change stimulates the interpretive process. If the meaning of the behavior(s) is initially unclear, one must first choose a positive or negative interpretation. Once this decision is made, the interpreted message is evaluated. Simply stated, does the recipient like or dislike receiving it? Assessing a behavior as a positive or negative violation can occur at either the interpretive or evaluative stage. The valencing process does not have to be an

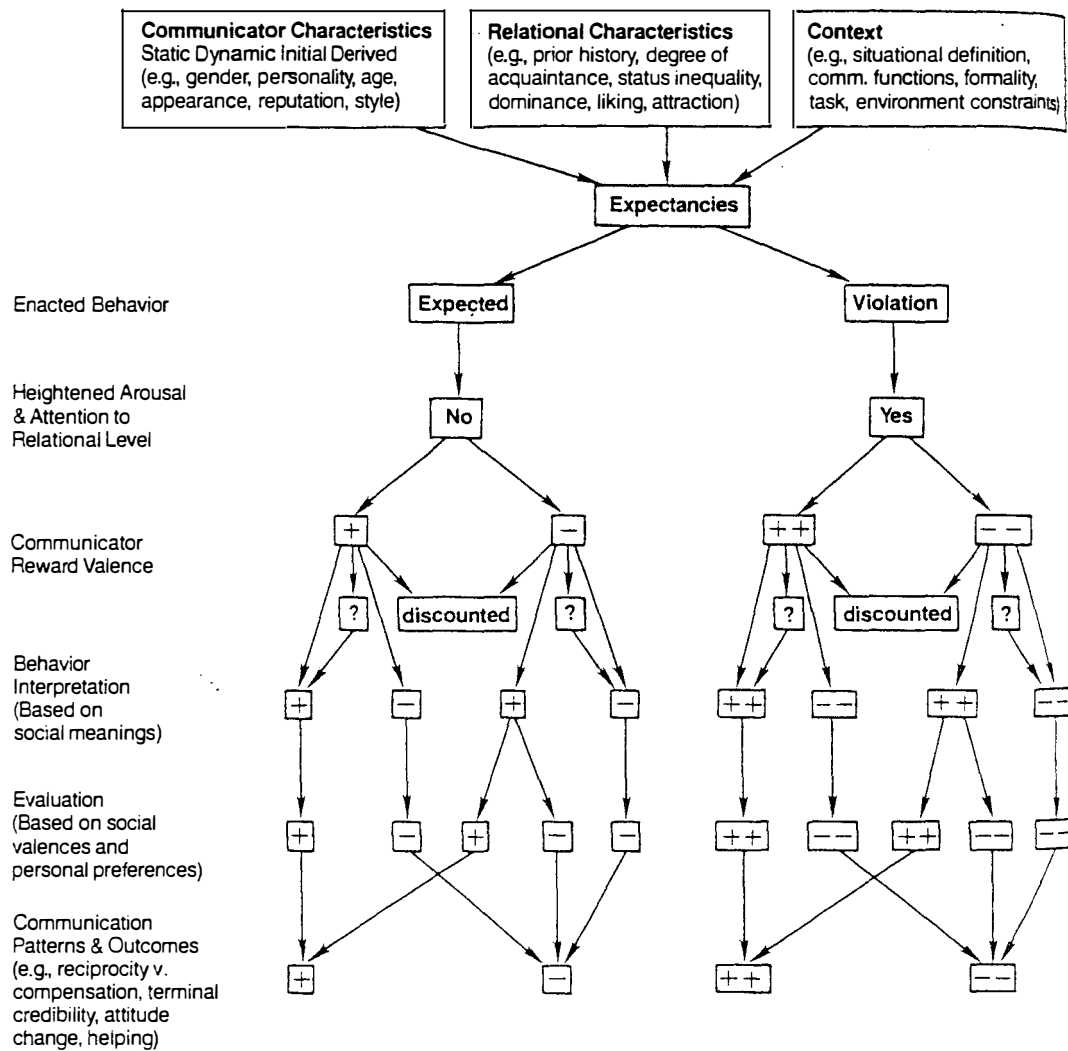


Figure 1. The Nonverbal Expectancy Violations Model (Burgoon & Hale, p. 64, 1988)

Note: For simplicity, communicator reward valence, behavior interpretation, and behavior evaluation valence have been dichotomized into positive and negative but should be understood to represent continuation. Double pluses and minuses denote greater magnitude of effect.

awkward or lengthy cognitive effort. If behavior evaluations have been conditioned and interpretation is a habitual activity, the process may occur almost automatically.

While much of the research has been conducted concerning expectancy violation at the nonverbal, interpersonal level (Burgoon & Hale, 1988), several studies have addressed expectancy violation within the instructional setting. An expectation about what will happen in some situation is based on previous learning. The expectations that students bring to a setting can affect their behavior and outcomes.

Gigliotti (1987) examined students' expectations of introductory sociology courses and whether expectation violations influenced course evaluations. He found that students had a high level of entry expectations that were violated by the teacher in a positive manner, meeting or exceeding what students initially expected. Communication expectations and their violation each produce positive significance for taking more courses with the instructor (Gigliotti, 1987). Perry, Abrami, Leventhal, and Check (1979) studied student expectations of instructors' teaching ability to assess its influence on student ratings. Students who had high expectations of the instructor and viewed a high expressive lecture (e.g., expression, gestures, etc.), rated the teacher as outstanding, stimulating, and a good instructor. Koermer and Petelle (1991) examined whether violations that are incongruent with student expectations are significantly different than congruent violations of expectancy in relation to student rating of instruction. Students with high expectations/high experiences evaluated teachers more favorably than students with low expectations/high experiences, low expectations/low experiences and high expectations/low experiences.

When college students enter a new classroom setting, they bring a set of expectations derived from previous experiences (Holahan, Thomas, & Kelly, 1981).

With this view in mind, this project investigates the relationship between course outcomes and whether student expectations are violated. The Public Speaking classes are organized into two different groups: (1) a traditional, lecture style group (expected) and (2) an online-assisted group, where expectancies are violated by the different instructional methodology. Variables of interest include individual conferencing, immediacy (verbal and nonverbal), willingness to communicate, and information competency.

A discussion of the Expectancies Violation Theory has just been conducted. A definition was given along with a detailed look at the elements that make up the model (expectancies, violations and arousal, communicator reward valence, behavior interpretation and evaluation, and violation valence). A look at research using this model in the classroom setting was also discussed leading to the design of this study. Attention will now be turned to the rationale, variables, and proposed hypotheses for this study.

Rationale and Hypotheses

This section considers the literature on web-based instruction, which encompasses web-assisted instruction. Next is presented research on the basic public speaking course and web-based instruction. The following material addresses the specific variables investigated in this study: individual conferences, verbal and nonverbal immediacy, willingness to communicate and information competency. Hypotheses appear at the end of each area.

Web-based Instruction

Web-based instruction is defined as an innovative approach for delivering instruction to a remote audience using the WWW (Khan, 1997). Web-based learning environments use the resources of the WWW to create a context supporting and fostering learning. The Web can provide a wealth of information not readily available in textbooks or faculty lectures. Students can access information and resources related to a class topic from around the world simply by having a computer with an Internet connection. The information is usually current, presented in meaningful contexts, and affords students the opportunity to explore more widely a topic, interest, or fact. In addition, web-based instruction can be interactive and collaborative in nature resulting in what many are calling a global community (Wiens & Gunter, 1998). Through e-mail, listservs, conferencing tools, and newsgroups, a “virtual community of learners” can exchange knowledge, ideas, and perspectives.

Currently, web-based instruction is growing faster than any other information technology (Crossman, 1997). More and more university faculty use web-based instruction as an integral part of their courses. The rationale for providing this learning platform is sound. Education cannot operate in isolation and must respond to societal change (Wolcott, 1998). Web-based instruction offers one medium for education to accommodate the information age and a networked world, has the potential to replace traditional university-level education altogether, and could provide a catalyst for a total reconceptualization of education in general (Daugherty & Funke, 1998).

However, as in any new approach to teaching and learning, critical issues need to be examined before universities convert to web-based instruction. Web-based instruction is only a vehicle for designing a learning context, one approach, one strategy for conveying knowledge to individuals (Clark, 1994). The pedagogical soundness of this medium involves many factors that have yet to be investigated fully (Reeves & Reeves, 1997). Recent literature on web-based instruction discusses many considerations affecting the potential success of web-based instruction (McManus, 1995). Increased attention is being given in the distance education literature with the key players in this innovative change being the university faculty member and students (Garson, 1996; Gunawardena, 1990; Porter & Riley, 1996).

While many investigations concern web-based instruction, most pertain to placing whole courses on the WWW. But what about those who just want to use the web to enhance or support their teaching? Not much is written concerning this particular use of web-based instruction and the WWW. Mitchell (interviewed in Slattery, 1998) states the simplest use of the WWW to support a class is for instructors to place their name, e-mail address and links to favorite sites on the web page. This gives the students instant access to communicating with the instructor as well as an opportunity to know more about their instructor.

Mitchell also suggests putting class notes on the WWW. Four advantages spring from this effort. One, links can be easily established to other resources. Second, links can be made to connect course material to concepts of similar or connected importance. “Students can click on a link and instantly see how new material links back to what they

learned earlier in the term” (Slattery, 1998, p. 153). A third advantage is that color photographs, overhead transparencies, animation, and video clips can be reproduced on the page. A web-enhanced course can provide different learning modes for different learners (Scott, 2000). For instance, visual learners might benefit from animation and creative graphics, while an individual who learns by hearing might listen to a video stream. Fourth, interactive activities can be incorporated, such as quizzes and tutorials.

A web-enhanced course capitalizes on the strengths of traditional and distance education without fully committing to either of them (Scott, 2000). He also emphasizes the flexibility of a web-enhanced course. Students can access the web page any time of the day or night. Instructors can access course information, check student progress, and/or add content to the course page from virtually any place a computer connection can be found. Web-enhanced courses yield a lower withdrawal rate than distance education courses and e-mail communication has increased interaction between students and instructor (Scott, 2000). On the negative side, a web-enhanced course requires more time up front to develop and during the course to communicate with students. “For the instructor and students, an online course is writing-intensive.” (Kassop quoted in Weiner, 2000). This naturally takes more time.

The Basic Course & Web-based Instruction

The basic speech course is a staple in most American colleges and universities. Ninety percent of colleges and universities use a public speaking or hybrid approach to the basic speech course (Schnieder, 1991). In many colleges and universities, the basic speech course is a requirement for many disciplines, not just the Speech/Communication

Studies Department. If it is not a requirement, the basic speech course is highly recommended (Gibson, 1989). These courses derive importance from being the prime reason for the birth and development of the speech communication department (Seiler and McGukin, 1989). According to several national surveys conducted in the United States, the primary focus of the basic speech course is public speaking (Gibson, Hanna, & Leichty, 1990; Gray, 1989). If we are going to begin studying web-based instruction, the basic speech course, which reaches so many students, becomes a useful starting place.

Individual Conferencing

Teachers taking more of an interest in the student as an individual, conducting hands-on activities and increasing higher-order thinking skills, matter a great deal to student learning (Classroom techniques, 2000). Students using these activities outperformed their peers by about 70 percent of a grade level in math and 40 percent of a grade level in science. Student-faculty interactions, which include both formal classroom experiences and informal interactions outside the class, are crucial to the academic continuation and intellectual development of students (Tinto, 1987). The frequency and quality of student-faculty interactions significantly predict first-year academic outcomes, such as college satisfaction and attrition (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1976).

Out-of-class communication (OCC) not only helps in retaining students, but also in improving their college experience. Students who engage in OCC with faculty show greater academic and cognitive development (Terenzini, Pacarella, & Blimling, 1996), higher educational aspirations (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1991), greater levels of academic integration into the university (Milem & Berger, 1997), and increased feelings of

affirmation, confidence, and self-worth (Kuh, 1995). Informal contact, OCC, was also positively related to immediacy and trust (Jaasma & Koper, 1999).

Because student-faculty out of class communication produces a more positive outcome for students, it seems natural to predict individual conferences with the instructor during the class time have the same effect. The class under investigation is a skills class. Students come into this class and leave with skills that will make them a more efficient communicator than when they started the class. Conferences are times where the instructor has the time to visit individually with each student. These visits consist of pointing out the positive aspects of the student's presentation and areas that he/she needs to work on. Will this make a difference in the students' perceptions and comfort level in the class? These issues lead to the following hypotheses:

- H1: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course are more satisfied with the course than those enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.
- H2: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course have a more positive perception of their preparation for presentations in class than those enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

Immediacy

Nonverbal and verbal instructor immediacy are variables familiar to communication education researchers. Nonverbal immediacy behaviors are non-spoken actions which are approach behaviors, signals of availability for communication,

typically multi-channeled, and communication of interpersonal closeness and warmth (Andersen & Andersen, 1982). Immediacy can be communicated in a variety of ways:

“Varying voice pitch, loudness, and tempo; smiling; leaning toward a person; face-to-face body position; decreasing physical barriers (such as standing or sitting behind a desk); gestures; using overall body movements; being relaxed and spending time with someone can all communicate immediacy.” (Cooper, 1995, p. 58)

Gorham (1988) expanded the research on immediacy by launching the research phase in which verbal immediacy behaviors were also examined:

The teacher’s use of humor in class appears to be of particular importance, as are his/her praise of students’ work, actions, or comments and frequency of initiating and/or willingness to be engaged in conversations with students before, after, or outside of class. In addition, a teacher’s self-disclosure, following up on student initiated topics, reference to class as “our” class and what “we” are doing; provision of feedback on students’ work; asking how students feel about assignments, due dates, or discussion topics; and invitations for students to telephone or meet with him/her outside of class if they have questions or want to discuss something all contribute meaningfully to student reported cognitive and affective learning. (pp. 47-48)

Studies suggest that instructor immediacy and perceived cognitive, affective, and behavioral learning are highly related (Andersen & Andersen, 1982; Christensen &

Menzel, 1998; Christophel, 1990; Comstock, Towell, & Bowers, 1995; Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Zakahi, 1990; Richmond, Gorham, & McCroskey, 1987; Sanders & Wiseman, 1990). While it is important to note that instructor immediacy (both verbal and nonverbal) affects students' learning, these studies were conducted with traditional lecture style classrooms. Because students are meeting individually with the instructor, immediacy should increase as they come to know each other better. This leads to the following hypotheses:

H3: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course perceive a higher rate of instructor immediacy than students enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

H3a: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course perceive a higher rate of instructor verbal immediacy than students enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

H3b: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course perceive a higher rate of instructor nonverbal immediacy than the students enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

Willingness to Communicate

People have been found to avoid communicating for several different reasons: being genetically coded toward quietness, feeling socially alienated, seeing little point in putting forth the effort, or lacking competency or skill (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990; Richmond & McCroskey, 1985). At least 20 percent of the U.S. population avoid communication because of communication apprehension (CA), the "level of fear or

anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons” (McCroskey, 1977, p. 78). Avoiding communication creates a personal, social, occupational, and educational handicap. Those who avoid communication earn lower grades, do poorer on job interviews, and move up the corporate ladder less often (Richmond, 1984; Taliaferro, 1977). Generally people perceive them as less competent personally, socially, and professionally (Richmond, 1984).

Although no specific research has been conducted to test the student’s willingness to communicate in the Public Speaking class, Morreale, Hackman, and Neer (1998) have found a significant increase in willingness to communicate from the beginning to the end of the semester in the Interpersonal Communication class. If this is occurring in interpersonal classes, there is also reason to expect it to happen in other communication courses. Thus the following hypotheses are submitted:

- H4: The student’s willingness to communicate increases through the course of the semester in the Public Speaking course.
- H5: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course experience a greater increase in their willingness to communicate than those in the traditional Public Speaking course.

Information Competency

Alvin Toffler (1990), in his book *Future Shock*, coined the phrase “information overload.” Now, not only has everyone heard of the phrase, practically everyone has experienced it. We know how “information overload” feels: overwhelming, frustrating, and even defeating (Breivik, 1998). Today, with the new technology and the ease of

finding information, no one can escape this feeling of information overload. Learning to handle this “information” can be mind boggling. This feeling seems inevitable as the available body of information increases. In fact, by the year 2020, the available body of information is expected to double every 73 days (Appleberry, 1992). How will individuals find the information they need in this coming “tidal wave” of information?

Information literacy, how an individual defines, researches, evaluates, and uses information, has been studied for several years. The information literate individual has “mastered the abilities to locate, organize, evaluate, and communicate information. The information literate individual is empowered for effective decision making, for genuine freedom of choice, and for participation in a democratic society in the twenty-first century” (Breivik, 1998, p. 3). The information literate individual is now ready for life-long learning as an information citizen (Hawes, 1994).

Many colleges and departments across the university campus desire information literate students. These include Agriculture/Economics, Business, Communication and Fine Arts, Engineering, English, Humanities, Law, Medical and Health-Related Studies, Sciences, Sociology, and World Civilization (Breivik, 1998). “Information literacy is a survival skill in the information age” to help keep us from “drowning in the abundance of information” flooding our lives (Breivik & Gee, 1989, p. 12). It is just as important in the context of the workplace as it is in one’s personal life (Haycock, 2000). Some professionals in the librarian field see the teaching of information literacy as the teaching of a conceptual foundation and organization of information sources and systems (Chiste,

Glover, & Westwood, 2000). Information literacy “includes (the teaching of) an integrated set of skills (research strategy and evaluation) and knowledge of tools and resources” (Breivik & Gee, 1989, p. 24). These skills are what make the individual competent at finding and using information. Thus, information competency is the integration of information literacy, developing areas that can be taught to individual to become information literate (Smith, 2000).

Hence, information competency is very important in becoming information literate. The skills needed to become information competent are taught in the Public Speaking class (e.g., deciding a topic, researching, assimilating and organizing material, etc.). If this can be shown, then the class will prove more beneficial to a student’s education for life than simply the decrease of communication apprehension and the increase of communication competence. With this in mind, the following hypotheses are investigated:

H6: The student’s self-perceived information competency increases through the course of the semester in the Public Speaking course.

H7: Self-perceived information competency of students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course increases more than students enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

Because there is so little research between the online-assisted and traditional classes, the following question will be of interest:

RQ1: What, if any, is the relationship between demographic data (sex, grade point average, class, and major) and various outcome from this

study (Information Competency, Willingness to Communicate, and immediacy)?

This chapter looked at the Internet and its effect on society. The theoretical foundation, expectancy violations theory, was defined and connected to this particular study. It then considered the Internet and its affect on education. A discussion on web-based instruction followed with a brief consideration of using the Internet to assist traditional education. Finally, the different variables to be studied were introduced leading to research hypotheses and a question to be considered. The following chapter examines the literature written about these subjects in more depth.

CHAPTER II

To furnish the means of acquiring knowledge is the greatest benefit that can be conferred upon mankind. It prolongs life itself and enlarges the sphere of existence.

John Adams (1735-1826)

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter considers the literature related to the relationship between teaching methods and outcomes associated with teaching public speaking. Because this study deals with the Public Speaking class specifically, the literature reviewed includes a variety of methods and variables of interest. Finally, the literature involving the variables in the study (immediacy, willingness to communicate, conferences, and information competency) are discussed.

Public Speaking Class

Most American colleges and universities teach the basic speech course, a requirement for many disciplines. Approximately 90 percent of colleges and universities use a public speaking or hybrid (half of the class devoted to interpersonal communication and half devoted to public speaking) approach to the basic speech course (Schnieder, 1991). If the course is not a requirement, the basic speech course is highly recommended (Gibson, 1989). These courses are important because they were the prime reason for the birth and development of the speech communication department (Seiler & McGukin, 1989). According to several national surveys conducted in the United States, the primary focus of the basic speech course is public speaking (Gibson, Hanna, & Leichty, 1990;

Gray, 1989). Secondary foci reported in the surveys are communicating interpersonally, communicating in small groups, and listening effectively.

The pedagogical processes associated with the basic Public Speaking course have been debated for many years. For example, how many speeches should each student give? Some have examined the value of having students speak on a topic, consider the evaluative comments from the instructor and peers, rework the speech, and deliver it again (e.g., Gring & Littlejohn, 2000). In this manner, students could specifically practice those skills and techniques necessary to improve the presentation. A majority of students benefit from this process, especially those who begin the course with the weakest public speaking skills (Gring & Littlejohn, 2000).

Other approaches use portfolios in the class. Using portfolios promotes mindful learning, an environment of students thinking on their own as opposed to a regimented learning atmosphere (Jensen & Harris, 1999). Public speaking portfolios may (1) make the class more applicable and relevant to students, (2) benefit in the creative process of speech preparation, (3) create a developmental journey for the student, and (4) enhance class community. Portfolios contain journals (guided by specific questions on a daily and weekly basis), a "speech process log" detailing their specific brainstorming, conferencing (if any), research strategies, speech outline, different drafts of the speeches, self-recorded rehearsals of the presentation, artifacts (e.g., peer evaluations, teacher evaluations, self-reports of communication apprehension), and a videotape of the individual's presentations through the semester. Some use portfolios containing only videotaped presentations (Voth & Moore, 1997). Outcomes from portfolio have been twofold: first, instructors see

how the student learns and understands the public speaking process; and second, the student is able to have a record of past strategies and performance to improve upon them through the semester (Jensen & Harris, 1999).

Recently, some instructors have experimented with teaching Public Speaking via other media. Several programs teach the basic speech through distance education. At one community college students purchase a textbook, watch videotaped lectures, and complete the same assignments as those who attend the traditional class (Carr, 2000). Students mail or e-mail completed assignments as well as videotapes of their speeches. After developing each presentation, the student must find a place to deliver it, audience members to listen to, and someone to videotape the speech. Audience members “sign in” for accountability and the form is mailed in with the presentation video to be graded (Spence, 2000).

Distance education and online Public Speaking courses have received little research attention. Duplicating face-to-face course content via videotapes placed online, Clark & Jones (2001) found more men enrolled in the online course and more students reported spending more time on the course than female students. Finally, online students preferred working independently and classroom students preferred getting to know their classmates. Others use the Internet in conjunction with face-to-face class time (Butland, 2001). Interactive quizzes on a class web site replace tests. Students view and evaluate videotaped materials as well as complete team projects using a discussion forum connected to the course home page. These online activities create class time opportunities for improving/developing students' skills (Butland, 2001).

Over time, many have documented the benefits of enrolling in a Public Speaking course (e.g., Allen, Berkowitz, Hunt, & Louden, 1999; Ellis, 1995; MacIntyre & MacDonald, 1998; McCroskey, 1977, 1992; Robinson, 1997). This body of research suggests students exit the public speaking course better prepared to communicate with others in a variety of contexts.

Communication apprehension and communication competence have been investigated more than any other variables. Researchers have consistently demonstrated that students perceive their competence increases and apprehension decreases during the course of the semester they were enrolled in Public Speaking (Ellis, 1995; Marshall, Violanti, & Haas, 2000; Rubin, Rubin, & Jordan, 1997). While these studies tell us much about the face-to-face classroom, we are still in the process of investigating alternative teaching methods. Students enrolled in classroom and online courses have reported similar decreases in communication apprehension (Clark & Jones, 2001).

Examining classroom and online-assisted courses, Marshall and Violanti (2001) have found increases in competence and decreases in apprehension using both formats. Interestingly, those enrolled in the online-assisted classes report statistically significant increases in competence as compared to those enrolled in traditional classes.

Because communication apprehension is the focal point of Public Speaking research, the class has been an ideal place to test procedures to help individuals deal with their anxiety. Behnke and Sawyer (1999) investigated state and trait anxiety at three different points in the speech preparation process: when the speech was assigned, when speeches were being prepared, and immediately before the presentation. They found that

the highest anxiety point was just prior to speaking and the lowest anxiety point was during speech preparation. Reducing anxiety just prior to speaking works best with a combination of methods (cognitive modification, systematic desensitization, and skills development) while skills training alone was least effective (Allen, Hunter, & Donohue, 1989).

The Public Speaking class has also been used to investigate learning outcomes (Messman, Jones-Corley, Mezzacappa, & Crusan, 1998). This study compares a large-lecture/break-out sections to the traditional, self-contained section of the course. Students' cognitive learning outcomes are slightly higher in the large-lecture/break-out sections versus self-contained sections. In addition, affective learning decreases for all students from the first day of class and slightly more for students in the large-lecture/breakout sections.

Overall, the public speaking class serves as a general education requirement for many college students. Improving instruction by testing various teaching techniques in relation to student skills and knowledge has been one research focus. The Public Speaking class has been seen not only as a means to educate students in the finer points of public address, but also as a test-bed for research projects. Although communication apprehension and communication competence have been the focal outcomes of the class, learning outcomes associated with different methods of teaching the class have also been investigated. Instructor immediacy, the next variable of interest, has also been addressed in these studies.

Immediacy

Immediacy focuses on the communication behaviors that “enhance closeness to and nonverbal interaction with another” (Mehrabian, 1969, p. 302). The immediacy principle states that “people are drawn toward persons and things they like, evaluate highly, and prefer; and they avoid or move away from things they dislike, evaluate negatively, or do not prefer” (Mehrabian, 1969, p. 1). Immediacy occurs through nonverbal communication channels (e.g., eye contact, facial expressions, tone of voice, postures, and movements) and verbal communication channels (e.g., praise of students’ work; visiting with students before, during, and after class; and using personal pronouns such as our, we, us, etc.). These channels allow people to share thoughts and feelings with each other. The opportunities for immediacy are increased through proximity, thus people who associate with one another have greater opportunities to increase immediacy and ultimately to increase liking (Mehrabian, 1971).

The study of teacher immediacy as a variable in classroom interaction and outcomes has been well documented in instructional communication research (Nussbaum, 1992). Scholars interested in the relationship between teacher immediacy behaviors and student learning typically proceed with the assumption “that decreased physical and/or psychological distance between teachers and students is associated with enhanced learning outcomes” (Gorham, & Zakahi, 1990, p. 354). Christophel (1990) has examined the effects of teacher immediacy behaviors and student motivation on perceived cognitive and affective learning and found significant, positive relationships

among these variables. In all cases, teacher immediacy behaviors, in conjunction with state motivation, have positive effects on student learning at all levels.

Gorham (1988) has examined immediacy behaviors and their impact on student learning to determine specific behaviors that could be modified in actual classroom situations to improve student learning. Though verbal and nonverbal immediacy impact learning, nonverbal immediacy behaviors seem to have a more significant effect on learning than do verbal immediacy behaviors. Looking at teacher immediacy in the classroom across race and culture, Sanders and Wiseman (1990) have found that teacher immediacy behaviors are positively correlated with perceived cognitive, affective, and behavioral learning for all racial and ethnic groups (White, Hispanic, Asian, and Black). White, Asian, and Hispanic students' immediacy is more highly related to affective learning than to behavioral learning. Two differences are that immediacy is more highly related to affective learning for Hispanic students than for Asian or Black students, and immediacy is more associated with affective learning than cognitive learning for Hispanic students. Overall, teacher immediacy behaviors have had a positive impact on learning in the multicultural classroom (Sanders & Wiseman, 1990).

Using behavioral alteration techniques in conjunction with nonverbal immediacy behaviors positively influences affective learning (Plax, Kearney, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1986). Prosocial BATs (behaviors that draw the student/instructor relationship closer) increase students' positive perceptions of teacher nonverbal immediacy and affective learning. At the other end of the spectrum, antisocial behavior alteration techniques (behaviors that cause a distance in the student/instructor

relationship) decrease students' perceptions of the teacher's immediacy and negatively impact student affect (Plax et al., 1986).

Direct measures of cognitive learning are rare in research on teacher immediacy. For example, Kelley and Gorham (1988) have manipulated immediacy through the use of four combinations of eye contact and physical positioning and found significant positive relationships between immediacy and learning in all cases. Wheelless (1975) also has found positive significant relationships among attitudes towards instructor and course, immediate recall, and student-teacher interaction.

Immediacy variables, in various ways, are typically associated with good teaching. However, teacher behaviors that students perceive as being negative are more central to student demotivation than positive teacher behaviors are to student motivation (Gorham & Christophel, 1992). Humor, self-disclosure, and teacher narratives all prove to be characteristics of effective teachers (Christophel, 1992; Nussbaum, Comadena, & Holladay, 1987). Also, immediacy, communicator style, self-disclosure, and interpersonal solidarity, positively influence the evaluation of the teacher (Baringer & McCroskey, 2000; Scott & Nussbaum, 1981).

With distance education becoming more and more prominent in education, several studies have investigated teacher immediacy in this context. Witt and Wheelless (1999) have found that distance students expect less nonverbal immediacy from telecourse instructors than on-site students. Students with previous distance learning experience have had slightly higher expectancies than those with no experience (Witt & Wheelless, 1999). In another study, students do not perceive a significant difference in

instructor verbal immediacy between conventional and distributed learning classrooms, but do perceive a significant difference in instructor nonverbal immediacy (Freitas, Myers, & Avtgis, 1998). Investigating immediacy specifically in the Public Speaking classroom, Messman, Jones-Corley, Mezzacappa, and Crusan (1998) have found that when the instructor is perceived as highly immediate, there is no difference between self-contained and large lecture/break-out sections of the course (Messman et al., 1998).

Overall, immediacy, the relationship between an instructor and student, is very important in education, especially learning outcomes. Immediacy has also been connected to effective classroom instruction and important in student-teacher interaction. Recently, immediacy studies have investigated the distance education classroom and different teaching methods (e.g., the distance education classroom) and instructor interaction. Ultimately, immediacy is attributed to student motivation.

Willingness to Communicate

Willingness to communicate, a predisposition for approaching communication, presumes that people who are highly willing to communicate are very likely to initiate communication under conditions of free choice. “We expect predispositions to be associated with behaviors” (McCroskey, 1992, p. 8). However, he cautions, we should “not expect any given predisposition to be perfectly related to any given behavior. What one chooses to do in a given circumstance may be in conflict with one predisposition while at the same time be consistent with another. Individual behaviors are subject to the influence of many factors, not just single predisposition” (p. 8). Even though situations have a significant effect on an individual’s willingness to communicate, “people exhibit

differential behavioral tendencies to communicate more or less across communication situations” (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987, p. 134). Notably then, willingness to communicate is a trait-like predisposition that can be influenced by contextual factors.

Willingness to communicate has been found to correlate with multiple phenomena. Along with communication competence, it has been positively correlated with self-esteem, sensitivity to humor, and coping with humor (Hackman & Barthel-Hackman, 1993; McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986a, b). Research has also shown a negative correlation with communication apprehension (Hackman & Barthel-Hackman, 1993; McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986a, b; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990), introversion (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986a; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990), alienation (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986a), and anomie (McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986b).

Both sex and immediacy seem to affect how students choose to engage themselves in the learning dialogue (the students' willingness to communicate). How, when, and how much a student chooses to participate, willingness to communicate, in the classroom seems to be related to the sex of the professor, as well as the professor's immediacy behavior (Christensen, Curley, Marquez, & Menzel, 1995). That is, students with immediate male instructors are more willing to communicate in the class. Many communication instructors rate their effectiveness based on the participation of students in classroom discussion. Students' willingness to talk during class discussions has been positively related to instructor immediacy and learning (Cooper, 1995; Menzel & Carrell, 1999). It appears most sources would agree with Dance (1990) that the ability of “speech to clarify thought” makes classroom talk an important outcome for study.

A positive correlation between verbal immediacy behaviors and willingness to communicate exists (Christensen et al., 1995; Menzel & Carrell, 1999). While Menzel and Carrell (1999) have found a stronger relationship between verbal immediacy and willingness to communicate, Christensen, Curley, Marquez, and Menzel (1995) have found both verbal and nonverbal immediacy contribute to willingness to communicate. Similarly, Roach (1999) has found that graduate teaching assistants' willingness to communicate is positively related to perceptions of their nonverbal immediacy. If oral participation is the outcome sought, then verbal immediacy seems to be a good way to achieve that outcome.

Overall, willingness to communicate is motivational, depending on the context. It is correlated with immediacy factors and classroom communication.

Individual Conferences

Although there are no studies investigating class-time use for individual conferences, plenty of research considers the advantages of student-instructor conferences outside the classroom. Student-faculty interactions, which include both formal classroom experiences and informal interactions outside of class, are crucial to the academic continuation and intellectual development of students (Tinto, 1987). Likewise, the frequency and quality of student-faculty interactions significantly predicts freshman academic outcomes, such as college satisfaction and attrition (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1976). Related work has found that students who frequently interact with faculty express greater satisfaction with their total college experience (Wilson, Gaff, Dienst, Wood, & Bavry, 1975) and earn higher first-year, cumulative grade point averages (Pascarella,

Terenzini, & Hibel, 1978). Interactions focusing on intellectual or course-related matters have the strongest association with achievement and those dealing with careers also matter (Pascarella, et al., 1978). Also, faculty who enjoy and seek interaction with students outside of class (e.g., school cafeteria, local store, etc.) demonstrate their accessibility for such interaction, thus supporting their in-class attitudes and teaching styles (Wilson et al., 1975). Another study shows that both in and out of class interactions are positively associated with students' academically-related self concept (Vista, 1999). Taken together, the existing research suggests that student-faculty interactions are important to a student's college experience.

Out-of-class communication (OCC) is, in part, determined by faculty in-class behaviors because students use the in-class teaching behaviors of faculty as cues to accessibility for out of class communication (Wilson, Woods, & Gaff, 1974). Fusani (1994) has found that 23 percent of the students surveyed have never visited or informally chatted with the instructor, and 50 percent have had two or fewer contacts. The length of out of class communication has also received little attention. Early studies include only interactions that were an extended talk, a minimum of 10 to 15 minutes in length (Theophilides & Terenzini, 1981; Wilson et al., 1974). Dallimore (1995) reports that actual time spent with the faculty member is not as important to students as what they accomplish. The research on the content of out of class communication has found it to be predominantly course-related (Fusani, 1994), which appears to have the most impact on student persistence to remain in college (Pascarella & Terenzini, 1981). Also, satisfaction with out of class communication has been positively related to some aspects

of verbal immediacy (Dallimore, 1995; Fusani, 1994), as well as students' perceptions of instructor empathy and credibility (i.e. competence and trust) (Nadler & Nadler, 1995).

Out of class communication has been found to have a relationship to verbal and nonverbal immediacy, trust, and student motivation (Jaasma & Koper, 1999). The frequency of office visits, socializing during informal contact, and frequency of informal contact are positively correlated with verbal immediacy. Socializing during office visits is positively correlated with nonverbal immediacy. Also, the length of the office visits and student satisfaction are correlated to both verbal and nonverbal immediacy.

Investigating the relationship between student motivation and out of class communication, student motivation was positively related to the frequency of office visits, informal contact, the length of office visits, socializing informally, and student satisfaction. Student motivation is negatively correlated to discussing course work during informal contact (Jaasma & Koper, 1999).

In a quantitative study, Jaasma and Koper (2001) offer these six functions, from a student perspective, from out of class communication. First, out of class communication is used to acquire information necessary to complete the course successfully (e.g., assignment clarification, assistance with papers). Second, out of class communication is a function of relational development, the ability to know the instructor and vice versa. Third, out of class communication is designed to acknowledge each other (teacher to student and vice versa) and to fill uncomfortable silences when together (e.g., a period of silence will make the student uncomfortable, filling that silence is beneficial). The fourth function of out of class communication is for the student to seek advice or assistance

from the instructor. The fifth is for intellectual stimulation. This intellectual discussion may or may not relate to the course. The final function of out of class communication from the student's perspective is to secure favors. This works both ways in that a student may need a letter of recommendation from the instructor, or the instructor may need assistance in taking supplies to the class.

Overall, student-instructor conferences are seen as a vital element in student retention. Research has shown this type of interaction not only improved student retention, but also helps strengthen a student's self-esteem and confidence in the classroom.

Information Competency

When one thinks of information, connotations such as product, facts, data, lore, and knowledge may come to mind. The American Library Association (1983, p. 117) (ALA) defines information as “all ideas, facts, and imaginative works of the mind which have been communicated, recorded, published and/or distributed informally in any format.” Two issues are particularly significant in the ALA’s definition. First, the definition refers to all information, as if it were possible for any individual (or institution for that matter) to possess all of it. Second, the definition refers to information only in the past tense, thereby pointing out the essentially static nature of information. ALA’s definition seems to anticipate the assertion that by itself, information is not knowledge. Information is bits (or bytes) of data that we gather by reading, observing, or overhearing. To become knowledge, information must be filtered through our experiences and applied to our lives. Referring to the colloquial fusion of data, information, symbols, and

technology, Toffler (1990) defines “data” as unconnected facts; “information” as data that have been fit into categories, classifications, schemes, or other patterns; and, finally, “knowledge” as information that has been further refined into more general statements.

As Naisbitt (1982, p. 24) stated almost two decades ago, the emphasis in the information society has shifted from supply of information to selection. Selection, in turn, implies knowing what, where, and how to choose, but is itself only an early step. One must then appropriately use the information/data selected out of the torrent available, that is, be information “literate.”

Although the origin of the actual term “information literacy” is unknown (one source notes it being used in a 1977 speech by the director of science information of the National Science Foundation [Breivik & Gee, 1989, p. 24]), the *Final Report* of the American Library Association’s Presidential Committee on Information Literacy has certainly brought the term to the fore. This report defined an information literate person as one who is:

able to recognize when information is needed and having the ability to locate, evaluate and use effectively the needed information. Ultimately, information literate people are those who have learned how to learn. They know how to learn because they know how information is organized, how to find information and how to use information in such a way that others can learn from them. They are people prepared for lifelong learning, because they can always find the information needed for any task or decision at hand (1989, p. 1).

The library profession has spearheaded the development of this concept. In fact, there is some debate in the literature about the differences between library instruction, bibliographic instruction, and information literacy instruction (Breivik, 1989, 1991; Estabrook, 1986; McCrank, 1991; Naito, 1991; Rader, 1991; White, 1992).

Bruce (2000) divides the history of information literacy into four areas. The “precursors” (1980s) focuses on information skills, or bibliographic instruction. This time period is highlighted by Kuhlthau’s (1988) work with students’ experiences of information use in research projects. Her adoption of naturalistic research approaches, which include the use of student diaries for data gathering, lead eventually to constructing a model describing the process of learning from information, and to the description of information literacy as a “way of learning” (Kuhlthau, 1993).

The next time period is described as the “experimental” era (1990-1995). Bruce (2000) points out that the term “information literacy” became prominent in 1989 when researchers began to see themselves as dealing with information literacy. One of the highlights of this area is Doyle’s (1993a) investigation of definitions of information literacy. During this time period several aspects of information literacy are investigated: information-seeking skills desired by employers hiring college graduates (Doyle, 1993b), information literacy curriculum (Bjorner, 1991), students’ conceptions of literature reviews (Bruce, 1994), and literacy skills and student learning (Todd, 1995).

Following the “experimental” era, Bruce (2000) illustrates the “exploratory” era (1995-1999). This period is marked by the identification and exploration of different paradigms for information literacy research (cognitivist, constitutionalist, constructivist,

and critical theory). Researchers working with the educational sector become interested in workplace-based research (Cheuk, 1998). Other research focuses on wider implications such as the use of information technology (Klaus, 1999), information use in the community (Todd, 1999), and information use of organizations (Solomon, 1997a, 1997b, 1997c).

The final era is described as the “evolving” time (2000-). Although merely a conjecture, Bruce (2000) describes a possible development of a community of researchers and research teams, attention to a wider variation of cultural settings, and a firmer, more consolidated, research agenda. However, the concern goes well beyond any vested interest on the part of libraries, librarians, and other information intermediaries. It comprises the goal of education.

The goal of general education is to develop the broad abilities, intellectual and other skills, ideas, and values that shape a student's capacity to address problems across varied academic fields, including the arts and literature, history, the social and natural sciences, and mathematics. Among the important abilities underlying the transfer of knowledge are, for example: the ability to think critically; the ability to develop problem solving strategies; effective writing and oral communication; technological competence, especially with library and other information management resources; familiarity with mathematics and quantitative analysis; and a range of attitudes and dispositions associated with human values and responsible judgment (Commission on Higher Education of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools, 1996).

The analysis of student achievement with respect to general education utilizes different measurement objectives for assessing competencies in four broad areas: cognitive abilities (e.g., critical thinking, problem solving), content literacy (e.g., knowledge of social institutions, science and technology), information management skills and communication, and value awareness (e.g., multicultural understanding, moral and ethical judgment) (Commission on Higher Education of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools, 1996). Information literacy incorporates all four competency areas and exceeds specific disciplines and professional careers. As a subset of critical thinking skills, it consists of individuals' abilities to know when they have an information need and then to access, evaluate (determine usefulness of, summarize, synthesize, and draw conclusions from), and effectively use information for both content literacy in the curriculum and lifelong learning.

So, what is information literacy/competency? "Information literacy is a survival skill in the information age" (Breivik & Gee, 1989, p. 12). It should help keep us from "drowning in the abundance of information" flooding our organizational and personal lives. Some librarians see teaching information literacy as teaching the conceptual foundation and organization of information sources and systems (e.g., education in the awareness of scope and options). Information literacy "includes (the teaching of) an integrated set of skills (research strategy and evaluation) and knowledge of tools and resources" (Breivik & Gee, 1989, p. 24).

Information literacy education benefits both staff and students in higher education. The goal is to ensure that individuals are equipped and encouraged to learn

from the range of information resources surrounding them. In other words, they should acquire, over a course of study or through staff development opportunities, the characteristics of information literate individuals. Attention to the information literacy agenda when designing higher education courses ensures that information literacy is both the object of learning and the medium through which learning takes place. This concept contributes to lifelong learning.

Before discussing the literature concerning what skills or competencies individuals need to become information literate, a distinction needs to be made between information literacy and computer literacy. Computer literacy is more than simply being able to operate a computer. Computer literacy incorporates "using the full range of information technologies-productivity tools, communication capabilities, information resources and systems, hand-held devices, and more" (Eisenberg, 2001, pg. 44). Since computer literacy incorporates the seeking of information, it would be a function of information literacy. But, as will be shown, information literacy requires skills outside of computer use.

There have been many attempts and many programs created to help individuals become more information literate. The ALA (1989), in establishing standards for information literacy, sets three broad standard areas: Information Literacy, Independent Learning, and Social Responsibility. The "Information Literacy" standards require individuals to be able to access information efficiently and effectively, evaluate the information critically and competently, and use the information accurately and creatively. These standards require skills that individuals use to become literate. The first

competency an individual needs is to be able to decide on a topic to research, recognizing the need for information (Glogowski, 1997; WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). In other words, the individual needs to state a research question, problem, or issue to study (Curzon, 1995). In sum, an individual needs to know what to study.

After deciding on a topic, the individual needs to be able to determine the requirements for the assignment, recognizing information is generated for different purposes (informative or persuasive), audiences, levels of comprehension, and credibility (Maryland Library Association, 1997). Knowing this assists the individual in choosing appropriate sources (Glogowski, 1997). Viewing the information critically and competently helps the individual identify and select appropriate information (ALA, 1998; WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998).

This leads to the information competent individual knowing how to search for the specific topic (WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). First, because simple answers are rare, questions need to be defined, clarified, narrowed or broadened to determine what information is needed (Maryland Library Association, 1997). Knowing what one needs to complete an assignment makes it easier to prioritize the plethora of available information, use various information technologies (library catalogs and databases, network search tools, etc.) to locate and retrieve information (Curzon, 1995; Glogowski, 1997; WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). Knowing multiple search strategies (e.g., Boolean logic, truncation, searching by keyword or subject headings) and distinguishing among different types of sources (e.g., popular or scholarly

material; primary or secondary sources; whether the source is current, historical, or retrospective or biographical, statistical, or theoretical) contributes to information literacy (Maryland Library Association, 1997). The systematic arrangement of libraries, information centers, or archives along with understanding library loan procedures, document delivery services, and electronic transmissions are important to the competent individual (Maryland Library Association, 1997). Information competent individuals realize they do not need to be an expert, but rather understand when to seek professional assistance from the reference librarian (WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998).

While the library is one information source, mass media offer a wealth of information. Using information from mass media requires obtaining and using it ethically. An information competent individual should be able to understand the ethical and legal issues surrounding information use (Curzon, 1995; Glogowski, 1997; WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). Competent individuals should also be able to use, evaluate, and treat critically information received from mass media (Curzon, 1995). Brievik points out that the search process must move away from “single-text teaching” and expose students to “real-world information resources and technologies” (Brievik, 1998, p. 26). There is a wealth of information out there among us; we must have the knowledge of how to access it and when to use it.

After gathering the material, one must read, understand, and organize it to meet the specified assignment. The information competent individual should be able to assess the scope, content, and type of information retrieved (Maryland Library Association, 1997). Here, the individual needs to synthesize and organize the information so the

audience can best understand it (Curzon, 1995; Glogowski, 1997; WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). Synthesizing the information highlights important points. Organizing the information will help in preparing the individual to write the report or prepare the presentation and, also, should help the reader or listener to accept this prepared information. An information competent individual should recognize the importance of information to a democratic society, practice ethical behavior regarding information/information technology, and participate in groups to pursue and generate information (ALA, 1998).

The final ALA (1998) component, “Independent Learning,” pursuing information for personal interests, appreciating literature and other creative expressions of information, and striving for excellence in information seeking and knowledge generation. Students need to be given repeated opportunities to work with the “same information resources that will bombard them throughout their lives” (Brievik, 1998, p. 26). These skills should help the individual to appreciate the skills necessary to become a lifelong learner (Curzon, 1995; Glogowski, 1997).

Overall, information literacy examines how information is discovered, assimilated, and organized. Developing the skills necessary to engage in this process constitutes information competency. With today's influx of information, an individual needs these skills to become a lifelong learner. These skills continue to be honed as part of any public speaking course.

This chapter considered the literature related to the study at hand. It addressed the Public Speaking course, how the course is being taught using the Internet and distance

education, and the outcomes of immediacy and willingness to communicate. Individual conferences were considered next. Although student-instructor relationships are not new in educational retention studies and out-of-class communication studies, the literature lacked a discussion of using class time to foster the instructor-student relationship. Finally, the chapter concluded with a discussion of information competency.

CHAPTER III

*Knowledge is of two kinds: We know a subject ourselves,
or we know where we can find information upon it.*

Dr. Samuel Johnson (1709-1784)

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine the similarities and differences between teaching Public Speaking in a face-to-face classroom versus an online-assisted environment. Prior to positing the hypotheses, a variety of methods for teaching the course were considered in an attempt to service more students, to meet the increasing demand for public speaking skills. Options included placing the entire course online or finding a way for students to learn content outside the classroom devoting more class time to individual skill building. Difficulties with an online course included students and faculty possessing the necessary technology skills and equipment/software, audiences to hear student presentations, lack of interaction with peers, and no immediate feedback following a speech. To overcome some of these difficulties and have one-on-one time with the students to develop skills, the online-assisted method was chosen. What follows is a description of the participants, Public Speaking course, instruments, and procedures.

Participants

The participants for this study were the students in 12 sections of the Public Speaking classes taught during the Spring, 2001 semester. For the purpose of the study, the classes were divided into two groups: (a) traditional (8 classes) and (b) online-assisted (4 classes). Consistency among and within the two groups was attempted by

having a common syllabus, book, grading scale, and set of speaking assignments.

Participation in this research project, two percent of their grade, was built into the total grade for the student.

There are approximately 25 students in each of the Public Speaking classes. The number of students that completed all the surveys for Time 1 and Time 2 totaled 232 (traditional = 147, online-assisted = 85). The ages ranged from 18 – 43 (\underline{M} = 20, \underline{SD} = 2.08). There were 16 first-year students, 61 sophomores, 106 juniors, and 49 seniors representing 7 areas of study (Agriculture = 25, Arts and Sciences = 28, Business = 103, Communications = 42, Education = 16, Human Ecology = 10) while 8 were undecided. The GPA of the students ranged from 1.7 to 4.0 (\underline{M} = 3.03, \underline{SD} = .48). There were 98 females and 134 males in the study.

The Public Speaking Course

Participants enrolled in a Public Speaking class without knowing if it would be traditional or online-assisted. While all of the classroom instructors are free to determine how they will teach the content (e.g., what will be included in their lectures, how much discussion will occur, how many and which exercises they will use), they do follow a common syllabus and use the same evaluation forms. The course begins with an introductory speech (two to three minutes in length) to provide an opportunity for students to become familiar with the Public Speaking lab. Over the course of the semester, they cover the following topics: Communication Process, Speech Anxiety, Ethics, Listening, Audience Analysis & Topic Selection, Research, Supporting Material, Organization, Introductions/Conclusions, Outlining, Delivery, Visual Aids, Informative

Speaking, persuasive Speaking, Style/Language, and Special Occasion Speaking.

Additionally, students give three speeches (a 5 to 7 minute informative speech, 8 to 10 minute persuasive speech, and 4 to 6 minute final speech). Finally, they must complete a written critique of someone who gives a public presentation on or off campus. The method of teaching the course varies with each instructor. One may teach the course mostly with lecture. Another may teach the course by using a mixture of lecture classes and have the class do exercises to reinforce the lectures. Others may wish to teach the skills and concepts of the class with mostly exercises. All the instructors in this group followed the same syllabus (Appendix A).

The online-assisted group was taught according to the syllabus (Appendix B) with the class set up using CourseInfo¹. In the beginning, the instructors had an opportunity to explain the procedures of the course and emphasize important material they felt needed to be covered face to face. This generally included the Public Speaking model, listening, research, organization, supporting material, and outlining. While the instructor met the class as a whole, the quizzes were placed online for the students to begin taking. Having

¹ This university has a division called Innovative Technology Center (ITC) that is available to help departments and individual instructors with developing online and online-assisted courses. The software that ITC uses and offers courses on how to use more effectively is called CourseInfo. With CourseInfo the instructor is able to have a class roster, e-mail address of students, keep a grade book online so that students can easily keep up with grades and establish quizzes and other material for students to access and use. For instance, an instructor may have two sections of the same class. He/she may wish to have the students in one section complete a quiz or test that is different from the other section. He/she may also want to send e-mail to the different sections to explain what is occurring. In other words, the sections can be kept separate and communication can be directed toward the different sections that pertain to their specific requirements and needs.

the class together as they start to take the quizzes allowed problems and/or potential problems to be discussed. E-mail became a vehicle for students to communicate quickly with the instructor. Also, individual conferences were arranged with the instructor during the designated class time. Because students were registered for the course, there were no excused absences for conferences. The first conference, 15 minutes long, provided an opportunity for feedback about the informative speech's outline and visual aids. After all the students have met with the instructor, the class meets again as a whole to present and listen to the speeches.

After the speeches, the instructor presents two lessons on aspects of persuasion and the importance of knowing proper language in the presentation. During these class sessions, the students again sign up for conference times with the instructor. The second conference, 10 minutes, involves recording a practice run of the persuasive speech. Recording allows the student to see and hear himself/herself and reflect upon the instructor's constructive comments. Again, this feedback provides an opportunity for revision before a grade is earned and should increase her or his confidence.

The students come together as a class to listen to the presentations again. Following the presentations, the instructor has one day to go over items he/she deems important for the class to know at this point (e.g., course evaluations). Since this is getting close to the end of the semester, the student should have all the knowledge needed to deliver a good presentation, but the instructor may notice some common problems that he/she can emphasize to the class. At this time, the class is divided into two groups. Each group comes to the classroom separately during the next two class periods. When

the groups come to class on their specified day, the instructor has an activity for the students to work on while pulling the students, one at a time, away from the group to have a five-minute conference. After the two conference days, the class meets together for the rest of the semester to present and to listen to the final presentations.

During the course of the semester, the students complete a library, PowerPoint, and informal fallacies assignment to reinforce concepts learned from the text and online quizzes. The students also critique a speech viewed on the class web page. Finally, they write a Personal Reflection paper on their speeches given through the semester to reinforce the progress they have made during the course.

Instruments

This section discusses four instruments, additional questions, and demographic information that comprise the surveys to be completed during the semester. Three of the four instruments, immediacy, willingness to communicate, and communicator style have been tested and validated previously. The last instrument, to measure information competency, has been developed for this study. A correlation matrix, means and standard deviations for each variable are included in Table 3.1 (all students), Table 3.2 (online-assisted students), and Table 3.3 (traditional students).

Immediacy

The immediacy scale (Appendix C) is divided into two areas: nonverbal and verbal. The Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors Instrument assesses students' perceptions of an instructor's physical or psychological closeness by identifying behaviors of approach-avoidance (e.g., eye contact, proximity, gestures, open-body position, and

Table 3.1

Pearson Correlations for All Students

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
1. ICAI T 1 (n=232)	--											179.30	27.00
2. ICAI T 2 (n=232)	.57**	--										196.00	27.00
3. ICAI Chg (n=232)	-.50**	.46**	--									17.00	25.01
4. WTC T 1 (n=232)	.30**	.32**	.04	--								74.00	9.34
5. WTC T 2 (n=232)	.12	.19**	.07	.31**	--							85.02	13.35
6. WTC Chg (n=232)	-.06	-.01	.05	-.27**	.83**	--						159.00	20.00
7. Verb. 1m (n=232)	.05	.21**	.17*	.25**	.08	-.07	--					77.07	14.00
8. Nonver 1m (n=232)	.06	.24**	.19**	.14*	.02	-.10	.51**	--				83.10	23.40
9. Total 1m (n=232)	.06	.25**	.20**	.23**	.06	-.10	.91**	.82**	--			6.03	23.10
10. Satisfied (n=232)	.01	.20**	.18**	.03	.06	.04	.50**	.38**	.49**	--		5.32	1.50
11. Prepared (n=231)	.15*	.32**	.18**	.18**	.10	-.01	.40**	.23**	.35**	.51**	--	5.40	1.21

Note: *p < .05 **p < .01

Table 3.2

Pearson Correlations for Online-Assisted Students

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
1. ICAI T 1 (n=85)	--											179.80	28.00
2. ICAI T 2 (n=85)	.46**	--										201.51	26.00
3. ICAI Chg (n=85)	-.60**	.47**	--									22.00	28.00
4. WTC T 1 (n=85)	.20	.31**	.11	--								76.00	13.32
5. WTC T 2 (n=85)	-.06	-.04	.01	.20	--							87.50	32.42
6. WTC Chg (n=85)	-.13	-.16	-.03	-.20	.93**	--						12.00	32.23
7. Verb Im (n=85)	.09	.34**	.22*	.40**	-.06	-.20	--					87.32	13.00
8. Nonver Im (n=85)	.20	.40**	.20	.30**	-.12	-.23*	.44**	--				76.21	7.40
9. Total Im (n=85)	.14	.41**	.24*	.40**	-.10	-.24*	.93**	.75**	--			163.53	17.55
10. Satisfied (n=85)	-.03	.30**	.30**	.10	-.05	-.10	.42**	.31**	.44**	--		6.00	1.40
11. Prepared (n=85)	.01	.33**	.29**	.23*	-.10	-.20	.40**	.30**	.41**	.40**	--	6.00	1.03

Note: *p < .05

**p < .01

Table 3.3

Pearson Correlations for Traditional Students

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
1. ICAI T 1 (n=147)	--											179.00	27.00
2. ICAI T 2 (n=147)	.64**	--										193.00	26.00
3. ICAI Chg (n=147)	-.42**	.43**	--									14.00	23.00
4. WTC T 1 (n=147)	.40**	.40**	.01	--								78.00	14.30
5. WTC T 2 (n=147)	.40**	.45**	.12	.51**	--							80.55	15.51
6. WTC Chg (n=147)	.02	.11	.11	-.43**	.55**	--						3.00	15.00
7. Verb Im (n=147)	.03	.11	.10	.21*	.20*	.01	--					84.00	13.00
8. Nonver Im (n=147)	.01	.15	.20*	.12	.10	-.01	.53**	--				72.54	10.20
9. Total Im (n=147)	.02	.15	.15	.20*	.20*	.00	.91**	.83**	--			156.22	21.00
10. Satisfied (n=147)	.02	.10	.10	.03	.12	.10	.50**	.31**	.50**	--		5.10	1.52
11. Prepared (n=146)	.21**	.30**	.10	.20*	.30**	.10	.33**	.20*	.30**	.53**	--	5.21	1.30

Note: *p < .05

**p < .01

movement). It is a 14-item, Likert-type scale that measures actual nonverbal behaviors a teacher might use while lecturing in front of the class (Richmond, Gorham, & McCroskey, 1987). Students are asked how frequently the instructor engages in specific behaviors with ranges from never (1) to very often (5). The reliability of the NIB instrument has ranged from .73 to .89 (Christophel, 1990; Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Zakahi, 1990; Richmond et al., 1987). For this study, the survey offers the participant a seven-point Likert scale ranging from never (1) to always (7). Reliability coefficients for this study achieved a Cronbach Alpha of .73.

Perceptions of immediacy are affected not only by a person's nonverbal behaviors but also by an individual's verbal behaviors. As a content-analytic approach, the verbal immediacy behavior scale assesses the student perception of instructor attitudes and the perceived degree of like or dislike the instructor associates with the student. This is a 17-item, Likert-type scale that measures students' perceptions of the instructor's verbal behaviors from never engaging in this behavior (1) to very often (5). The Verbal Immediacy Behavior scale has attained an Alpha range from .82 to .94 (Christophel, 1990; Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Zakahi, 1990; Richmond et al., 1987). Again, for this study the seven-point Likert scale from never (1) to always (7) was used. The Cronbach Alpha for the verbal portion of the instrument was .80. The Alpha for the total (verbal and nonverbal) instrument was .84.

In terms of validity, all 17 verbal immediacy items loaded on the same single factor as did the 14 nonverbal behaviors showing content validity (Gorham, 1988). The VIB has also been shown to correlate positively and significantly with affective (and

behavior commitment) and cognitive learning (Gorham, 1988; Gorham & Zakahi, 1990), student motivation or interest in taking the class (Christophel, 1990), and perceptions of teacher clarity (Powell & Harville, 1990).

Willingness to Communicate

The avoidance of communication has been found to be a personal, social, occupational, and educational handicap (Allen & Shaw, 1990). The student's willingness to communicate was measured by the Willingness to Communicate (WTC) scale (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987; Richmond & McCroskey, 1998). The Willingness to Communicate scale is a 20-item instrument. It contains 12 items that make up the scale with 8 items used as fillers. The 12 items measure subscores related to the communication contexts of public speaking, meetings, small groups, and dyads. It also measures subscores related to willingness to communicate with strangers, acquaintances, and friends. The instrument asks the participants to decide how willing they would be to communicate with different types of people in different contexts.

Research has provided meaningful normative data concerning the Willingness to Communicate scale with respect to Australia (Barracough, Christophel, & McCroskey, 1988), Finland (Sallinen-Kuparinen, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1991), Micronesia (Burroughs & Marie, 1990), Sweden (McCroskey, Burroughs, Daun, & Richmond, 1990), and the United States (McCroskey, 1992; McCroskey & Baer, 1984). Previous studies have reported an overall reliability of .91 or above (McCroskey, 1998). A complete description of the instruments validity testing may be found in McCroskey (1992).

For this study, 6 statements were added to the original 12 items of the Willingness to Communicate (Appendix D). Three of the statements asked how an individual would communicate via the Internet to an individual by e-mail (friend, acquaintance, or stranger). The three remaining statements pertain to a bulletin board the individual replies to regularly (friend), one has posted to at one time or another (acquaintance), or to a new bulletin board for the first time (stranger). The bulletin board is considered communication to a group of individuals.

The subscores can be calculated using three of communication means (mediated, interpersonal, or public) or as McCroskey (1992) had with friend, acquaintance, or stranger. In a pretest of the new items of the Willingness to Communicate scale an Alpha of .88 was obtained ($n=92$). The Alpha for the mediated grouping was .88, the public grouping was .84, and the interpersonal grouping was .74. For this study, the total Cronbach Alphas of the Willingness to Communicate scale were .89 (Time 1, $n = 232$) and .93 (Time 2, $n = 232$).

Communicator Style Measure

One concern in this study was about the similarity of the instructors. The Communicator Style Measure was used to determine if there was a difference in the way different instructors communicated. The Communicator Style Measure (CSM) consists of nine independent variables (Dominant, Dramatic, Contentious, Animated, Impression Leaving, Relaxed, Attentive, Open, and Friendly) and one dependent variable (Communicator Image) (see Appendix E). The independent variables are descriptive of

one's style. The dependent variable is the evaluative consequence of the independent variables.

According to Norton (1978), Dominant describes a tendency to take charge in a social context. Dramatic is communicating in a way that highlights or understates content. Communicating in a negative combative way is Contentious. Impression Leaving occurs when a person manifests a visible or memorable style of communicating. Relaxed is an absence of worry or nervousness. Making sure others are being listened to is described by being Attentive. Open is "being conversational, expansive, affable, convivial, gregarious, unreserved, unsecretive, somewhat frank, possibly outspoken, definitely extroverted, and obviously approachable" (Norton, 1978, p. 101). Friendly is described as ranging from being unhostile to being deeply intimate. Accuracy and correctness comprise Precise. The Communicator Image, which is the dependent variable, describes a good communicator (Graham, 1994).

Norton (1978) reported the following reliabilities for the CSM variables: Friendly, .37; Animated, .56; Attentive, .57; Contentious, .65; Dramatic, .68; Impression Leaving, .69; Open, .69; Relaxed, .71; Communicator Image, .72; and Dominant, .82. Similar results have been reported by others (Duran & Zakahi, 1984, 1987; Hailey, Daly, & Hailey, 1984; Lamude & Daniels, 1984). The total Alpha for this study was .88.

Content validity was provided by Norton (1978) by specifying the domain of the communicator-style construct. Communicator style has been positively associated with communicative behaviors and perceptions such as attractiveness (Brandt, 1979; Norton & Pettegrew, 1979), communication apprehension (Porter, 1982), communication

competence (Eadie & Paulson, 1984), and relationship disengagement strategies (Hailey et al., 1984). All of the instructors participated in answering this instrument. There was no difference in communicator style among them ($df = 1$, $F = .427$, $p = n.s.$). Thus, for analysis purposes, instructor was not used as a covariate.

Information Competency

Breivik, Hancock, and Seen (1998) and Bundy (1999) have called for a means to measure information competency as well as its affect on students' academics and career performance. An instrument would help determine if programs to develop information competency are successful and what other variables are affected by information competency. Bruce (2000) proposes that high quality learning is usually about being able to focus simultaneously on the multiple dimensions relevant to understanding some phenomenon. If we take research to be a form of learning, then we can reach a similar conclusion about various aspects of research.

In developing an instrument to measure information competency, a literature foundation needed to be established. Marshall (2000) developed the Information Competency Assessment Instrument (ICAI) to measure information competency taking the 10 areas that were considered of common importance for an individual to be competent. This self-report survey was made up of 40 statements, 4 covering each of the 10 areas of concern. The participants were asked to rate their feelings concerning each statement along a seven-point, Likert-scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7) (see Appendix F).

The first area addressed an individual needing to identify a topic. Not only does an individual need to state a research question, problem, or issue (Curzon, 1995), but also he/she needs to understand that the type and amount of information selected is determined in part by the parameters of need and information available (WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). Statements for this area, for example, were, “I can take a complex topic and break it down into more useful, simpler items” and “Confused is probably the best term to describe my starting a project.”

The second area determined the topic and source requirements. An individual needs to recognize that information is available in different formats (microform, paper, electronic, oral, etc.), in different sources (primary or secondary), and with different characteristics (subjective/objective, conjectural/factual, popular/scholarly) (Maryland Library Association, 1997; WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). The individual must select types of information resources appropriate for a specific information need (Glogowski, 1997). Examples of statements in this area are “I know the difference between ‘primary’ and ‘secondary’ sources” and “I am sometimes unsure of how much information I need for an assignment.”

Understanding how to conduct searches and use the information technologies is the third area. One must be able to select the search strategy appropriate to the topic and resources (WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). In formulating queries, a knowledge of search techniques and tools (e.g., Boolean operators and symbols, limiters, and truncation) is important to locate relevant citations and further refine the search (Curzon, 1995; Glogowski, 1997; Maryland Library Association, 1997). “I know how to

broaden or narrow a search using Boolean operators (AND, NOT, and OR) and truncation” along with “I’m not sure how to use an index (e.g., catalog, database, etc.)” are examples of statements for this area.

The fourth area involves knowing how to locate and retrieve the needed information. This includes not only knowing the layout of the library, where to find certain material (Maryland Library Association, 1997), but also how to locate resources not owned locally and use the appropriate resource sharing systems, such as interlibrary loan or document delivery, to retrieve the information (WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). Statements in this area consisted of knowing the library (e.g., “I understand the organization of materials in libraries.”) and understanding departments within the library (e.g., “Government documents are confusing to me.”).

Knowing how to evaluate the information is the fifth area of concern. An individual needs to determine the authority, reputation, point of view, and stability of the publication/source (Maryland Library Association, 1997). He/she should be able to assess the relevancy of a source to an information need by examining publication date, purpose, and the intended audience (Curzon, 1995; WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). Examples of statements to investigate this area are “The information I use is complete and reliable” and “The information I find is so confusing that I don’t know if I can use it.”

At this point, it is important to organize and synthesize the information. An individual must be able to summarize the information retrieved, synthesize ideas and concepts, and create a logical argument based on the information retrieved (Curzon,

1995; WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). “A lot of the information I find is irrelevant or unnecessary” and “After collecting my information, it is easy to sort by content that is similar” are statements representing this area.

Students need to know the ethical, legal, and socio-political issues involved with the information, such as appropriately citing sources to avoid plagiarism (WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). Information competent individuals understand intellectual property rights and issues relating to censorship, intellectual freedom, and respect for differing points of views (Curzon, 1995; Glogowski, 1997). Statements to measure this area include “I’m not sure how to record or cite all my sources” and “I know when material is confidential, should not be used.”

Because important information may become available immediately through late-breaking news or through radio reports or pictures available through the mass media (Curzon, 1995), an information competent individual should know how to use this material and cite it appropriately. Sample statements for this area are “I can use many different types of media (print, video, photography, etc.) confidently as information for my topic” and “At times, the producer of the information is not clear.”

Ninth, an information competent individual should recognize the best method for presenting the finished product. Not only should the individual have confidence the material will fit the needs of the intended audience, but also should be able to communicate using a variety of information technologies (Curzon, 1995). “I am confident that my information is clearly and confidently presented” and “I am not sure

which communication medium (transparencies, slides, video, etc.) is appropriate for the delivery of this information” represent this area.

Finally, the information competent individual needs to learn from the project and apply the learning to future projects (Curzon, 1995). He/she should be able to assess the effectiveness of each step in the process and refine the process to make it more effective (WAAL Information Literacy Committee, 1998). Statements to measure perceptions in this area are “I am able to learn what processes would be helpful for finding information in the future” and “Feedback is demoralizing to me.”

In an initial pretest-posttest, the Alphas were .87 and .92 respectively, but the number of participants ($n = 21$) was too low to draw any conclusions. For this study, the Information Competency Assessment Instrument produced a Cronbach Alpha = .88 for the Time 1 and .91 for Time 2 ($n = 232$). Because this instrument has not been previously used, validity is of prime importance. It was distributed to five different classes (not associated with the present study) where students were assigned a major research project or presentation. The research project or presentation was a major part of the student’s final grade. At the semester's end, 106 students completed the Information Competency Assessment Instrument after the research project/presentation was turned in. Total scores for the Information Competency Assessment Instrument were correlated with grade on projects (e.g., A = 4, B+ = 3.5) to assess predictive validity. The result was significant ($\rho = .29$, $p < .01$) showing a correlation with a definite, but small, relationship. Conducting a factor analysis (see Table 3.4), all but six of the items had their highest loading on the first unrotated factor. Removing those six items did not

Table 3.4

Factor Analysis of ICAI

Unrotated Matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10	Factor 11	Factor 12
ICAI 1	.546	-.194	.341	-.177	-8.20E02	-2.909E02	.105	.133	1.054E-02	2.952E-02	-.142	7.169E-02
ICAI 2	.569	-.145	.188	.167	9.027E-02	8.736E-02	-7.658E-02	-.199	9.337E-02	.125	9.907E-02	-.231
ICAI 3	.526	-.283	.273	-8.403E-02	-.185	-.203	-.147	4.253E-02	-7.087E-02	-.223	-3.645E-02	-6.545E-02
ICAI 4	.611	-.318	.248	-2.295E-02	1.959E-02	-.268	4.525E-03	-.207	.149	4.895E-02	.258	.122
ICAI 5	.597	9.276E-02	2.226E-02	3.848E-02	.113	-9.935E-02	-.192	-.110	-.113	-7.841E-02	.190	3.116E-02
ICAI 6	.352	.291	7.936E-02	.298	-.155	.174	-4.814E-02	-8.104E-02	-8.104E-03	.232	2.431E-02	-4.270E-02
ICAI 7	.552	.175	-4.001E-02	.275	.175	-.189	-.234	-.129	-5.226E-02	-.113	-.245	-.103
ICAI 8	.618	5.706E-02	.125	-3.810E-02	-5.667E-02	7.243E-02	-.231	.181	-7.926E-02	-4.916E-02	-9.702E-03	-.167
ICAI 9	.518	8.405E-02	.441	4.417E-02	-.210	7.496E-02	.129	.116	-.107	6.093E-02	-7.553E-02	.127
ICAI 10	.582	.298	6.811E-02	-.241	-3.697E-02	-8.140E-02	7.323E-03	-7.650E-02	-.177	1.359E-02	-.231	3.299E-02
ICAI 11	.446	.300	-.196	-1.310E-02	-.170	.118	.101	-.288	.260	-.247	-5.378E-02	-.185
ICAI 12	.537	5.640E-02	.195	-7.143E-02	-.353	-2.579E-02	5.447E-02	-.100	9.813E-02	4.734E-02	7.065E-02	5.956E-02
ICAI 13	.445	.141	5.206E-02	.421	-.222	-.133	-5.326E-02	-6.465E-02	.192	.191	-.144	8.193E-02
ICAI 14	.451	.206	-3.457E-02	-.168	9.243E-03	-.185	.136	.205	4.658E-02	-7.566E-02	.111	-.244
ICAI 15	.426	-5.960E-02	-.405	-.215	-7.110E-03	9.702E-02	.354	-.122	-.393	.230	-9.326E-02	2.299E-02
*ICAI 16	.198	.205	-4.402E-02	.317	-.357	-5.031E-02	.301	.308	.135	9.735E-02	-3.021E-02	-.155
ICAI 17	.538	.274	7.657E-02	4.584E-02	.140	-.132	-.108	-8.585E-02	3.619E-02	.297	-6.778E-02	6.259E-02
ICAI 18	.433	8.273E-02	7.767E-02	-8.394E-02	-.321	.197	-.137	6.417E-02	-.200	-.178	.119	-1.911E-02
*ICAI 19	.385	.446	.139	-3.284E-02	.181	-3.693E-02	-.124	6.253E-02	-4.623E-02	-.108	.124	.252
ICAI 20	.398	-7.590E-03	-7.976E-02	6.813E-02	.107	-.361	9.128E-02	8.525E-02	6.266E-02	-4.442E-02	5.430E-02	2.550E-02
ICAI 21	.740	9.439E-03	-.140	-.129	.157	-.142	.176	.154	4.695E-03	8.597E-02	-1.245E-02	-8.031E-02
ICAI 22	.426	.240	-.249	-.296	.139	9.159E-03	-3.804E-02	.204	.172	3.131E-02	8.245E-02	-8.237E-02
ICAI 23	.562	1.578E-02	-.380	-.293	-.247	9.887E-02	-.241	-7.819E-02	.174	.129	-.103	.112
ICAI 24	.713	-4.373E-02	-.249	-.205	8.934E-03	-8.619E-03	-.131	-2.990E-02	7.737E-02	-6.944E-02	-.266	.164
*ICAI 25	.357	.282	.244	-.478	4.571E-02	.105	3.663E-02	-.113	-2.926E-03	.243	.262	-7.779E-02
ICAI 26	.646	-5.149E-02	-9.532E-02	-.146	3.462E-02	-.102	2.040E-02	3.739E-02	-.105	-8.201E-02	-4.730E-02	4.418E-02

Table 3.4 (continued)

*ICAI 27	.129	.313	.246	-4.536E-02	.401	.581	6.546E-04	.191	.212	-5.459E-02	-9.748E-02	4.607E-02
ICAI 28	.548	3.511E-02	.177	.143	.139	-.113	.128	.194	-.309	-6.945E-02	-4.679E-02	7.290E-02
ICAI 29	.629	-.283	8.256E-02	.255	.283	6.077E-02	1.667E-02	-.131	2.713E-02	8.036E-02	-.118	-.237
ICAI 30	.564	-.214	-1.581E-02	9.284E-02	-.245	.217	-.229	8.602E-02	5.271E-02	-4.787E-03	.153	-4.555E-02
ICAI 31	.539	-2.709E-02	.175	-2.584E-02	.197	.145	.224	-.211	8.462E-02	-.167	-1.954E-02	-4.321E-02
ICAI 32	.632	-.348	-.156	-9.407E-02	-9.320E-02	.150	-.103	6.073E-02	2.519E-02	-7.120E-02	-7.755E-02	-9.658E-03
ICAI 33	.518	.343	-.287	.255	-8.239E-02	9.300E-02	.135	9.540E-03	-9.270E-02	-.116	.179	9.938E-02
ICAI 34	.479	.163	-.125	.195	.217	-3.305E-02	3.257E-02	-.176	-8.712E-03	-8.636E-02	.103	-1.917E-02
ICAI 35	.378	-.144	5.608E-02	2.608E-02	.190	-.183	8.220E-02	.185	.313	6.995E-02	1.205E-02	.179
*ICAI 36	.249	4.638E-03	-.319	.306	1.137E-02	.145	6.198E-03	-6.804E-02	-.123	-9.660E-03	.132	.270
*ICAI 37	.412	-.482	5.517E-03	.104	.159	.315	-.134	.135	-6.929E-02	.170	1.191E-02	3.191E-02
ICAI 38	.425	-.393	-.264	-.134	3.657E-02	-2.772E-02	.108	-5.882E-02	.107	2.438E-02	.129	1.345E-03
ICAI 39	.527	-.124	-.321	.245	8.027E-02	2.926E-02	-6.158E-02	.325	-8.101E-03	-5.062E-03	.108	-4.545E-02
ICAI 40	.479	-.253	.130	8.099E-02	-6.917E-02	.247	.424	-.120	9.347E-02	-.178	-2.929E-02	.133

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring

* denote highest loading NOT in Factor 1

Table 3.5

Factor Analysis of ICAI

Rotated Matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8	Factor 9	Factor 10	Factor 11	Factor 12
ICAI 1	.554	.216	6.001E-02	.123	6.047E-02	.162	7.269E-02	.289	-.165	9.423E-02	5.497E-02	.127
ICAI 2	.206	.477	.395	-4.013E-02	3.457E-02	.213	.115	-3.921E-03	3.202E-02	.252	-5.065E-02	4.374E-02
ICAI 3	.589	.255	.193	.128	.123	.131	-5.402E-02	.119	-.109	-2.657E-02	-.237	-.120
ICAI 4	.322	.309	.218	7.255E-02	1.404E-02	.278	-2.788E-02	.470	5.533E-02	.323	-.297	-.104
ICAI 5	.269	.184	.421	.124	.190	6.667E-02	-5.177E-02	9.265E-02	.292	.229	-5.708E-02	4.690E-02
ICAI 6	.103	.111	.252	4.899E-02	-4.250E-02	2.505E-02	.470	-.108	.196	.218	.118	1.078E-02
ICAI 7	.151	.101	.718	.159	.130	5.534E-02	.112	5.503E-02	.118	-.111	1.076E-02	-1.043E-02
ICAI 8	.436	.314	.281	.195	.293	-1.935E-02	.113	-4.410E-02	3.453E-02	.103	.109	-4.405E-02
ICAI 9	.622	8.257E-02	.102	-1.801E-02	-2.609E-02	.122	.308	.126	2.973E-02	.166	.143	9.292E-02
ICAI 10	.418	-.115	.375	.305	.177	6.980E-02	6.323E-02	1.860E-02	1.735E-02	.192	8.731E-02	.289
ICAI 11	1.604E-02	-7.958E-02	.247	.397	.265	.500	.229	-.155	.130	7.494E-02	2.321E-02	-4.994E-02
ICAI 12	.423	6.164E-02	6.636E-02	.246	5.219E-02	.227	.290	.102	5.237E-02	.281	-.120	-2.613E-02
ICAI 13	.137	7.243E-02	.351	.165	-9.292E-02	4.850E-02	.564	.206	.129	1.018E-03	-7.312E-02	-7.600E-02
ICAI 14	.198	-2.451E-03	.138	7.809E-02	.577	9.142E-02	.111	.101	-4.698E-03	.130	-1.305E-02	6.783E-02
ICAI 15	5.124E-02	.167	4.143E-02	.219	.154	.138	1.232E-03	-5.825E-02	.191	.107	-.124	.756
ICAI 16	9.589E-02	-3.118E-02	-8.589E-02	-5.415E-02	.266	4.947E-02	.656	3.996E-02	6.411E-02	-.138	-3.060E-02	4.263E-02
ICAI 17	.131	4.889E-02	.479	.178	7.382E-02	-6.229E-02	.225	.239	7.852E-02	.313	.108	.121
ICAI 18	.488	.150	1.362E-02	.200	.149	6.542E-02	7.986E-02	-.251	.213	.119	5.764E-04	-4.829E-02
ICAI 19	.278	-.186	.307	6.645E-02	.172	-5.529E-02	-2.519E-02	.144	.324	.239	.282	-8.700E-02
ICAI 20	.110	3.110E-02	.243	3.398E-02	.289	5.712E-02	5.376E-02	.359	.116	-2.861E-02	-.167	4.395E-02
ICAI 21	.223	.241	.268	.213	.466	.137	9.185E-02	.327	9.039E-02	.114	1.598E-02	.317
ICAI 22	-1.046E-03	5.361E-02	8.827E-02	.351	.509	-2.130E-02	-6.521E-04	.134	8.305E-02	.186	.191	7.596E-02
ICAI 23	.106	.189	7.909E-02	.785	.124	1.566E-02	9.669E-02	4.689E-02	.126	.158	-5.077E-02	.108
ICAI 24	.270	.186	.301	.627	.160	.135	-3.925E-02	.220	.126	-3.941E-02	4.772E-02	.189
ICAI 25	.208	-1.668E-02	3.555E-02	.120	.220	7.581E-02	-3.504E-02	-1.152E-03	-7.691E-02	.704	.162	.119
ICAI 26	.345	.183	.249	.274	.269	.128	-5.034E-02	.184	.145	4.072E-02	-5.516E-02	.212

Table 3.5 (continued)

ICAI 27	1.959E-02	7.185E-02	4.497E-02	-1.142E-02	5.416E-02	.135	-4.354E-03	-9.288E-03	1.320E-02	.112	.851	-7.857E-02
ICAI 28	.471	.140	.318	-.156	.189	2.881E-02	6.258E-02	.196	.202	-4.279E-02	7.624E-02	.229
ICAI 29	9.922E-02	.569	.483	-1.019E-02	6.394E-02	.304	9.767E-02	.182	-3.814E-02	1.619E-04	3.632E-02	.131
ICAI 30	.313	.521	3.898E-02	.283	9.707E-02	8.315E-02	.183	-2.188E-02	.189	7.964E-02	-5.192E-02	-.146
ICAI 31	.219	.172	.264	3.975E-02	.103	.525	-2.993E-02	.138	4.903E-02	.141	.168	9.453E-02
ICAI 32	.299	.504	7.829E-02	.417	.140	.181	-1.598E-02	.101	8.581E-02	-7.197E-02	-4.769E-02	.101
ICAI 33	.112	6.035E-03	.204	.134	.277	.170	.285	-3.105E-02	.596	3.671E-02	4.494E-02	.109
ICAI 34	1.500E-03	.103	.424	4.677E-02	.187	.230	5.246E-02	9.369E-02	.322	9.616E-02	2.610E-02	4.836E-02
ICAI 35	8.901E-02	.162	8.373E-02	9.076E-02	.141	7.613E-02	6.648E-02	.571	1.323E-02	5.705E-03	6.896E-02	-4.233E-02
ICAI 36	-4.990E-02	.161	8.972E-02	9.774E-02	-7.940E-02	4.560E-02	8.774E-02	3.629E-02	.556	-7.128E-02	-1.709E-02	.105
ICAI 37	.150	.714	3.014E-02	7.519E-02	-9.071E-02	6.378E-03	-4.718E-02	.145	8.507E-02	-2.008E-02	.128	.117
ICAI 38	1.963E-03	.388	-3.713E-02	.259	.169	.241	-.106	.258	9.592E-02	4.417E-02	-.220	.157
ICAI 39	6.619E-02	.455	.143	.134	.358	-5.432E-02	.158	.172	.343	-.173	8.527E-03	5.890E-02
ICAI 40	.305	.238	-6.039E-02	3.994E-02	-5.572E-02	.612	.113	.194	.145	-3.929E-02	7.137E-02	.157

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring

Rotation Method: Varimax

result in a higher Cronbach Alpha than the full 40 items ($\text{Alpha} = .92$, $n = 106$). Also, with the rotation (see Table 3.5), the statements did not line up under specific factors (10 loaded in Factor One, 7 under Factor Two, then 3 and 2 with Factors Three through Nine and just one under Factors Ten, Eleven, and Twelve), so the instrument was left unaltered. These analyses demonstrate initial predictive and content validity.

Procedure

This study was conducted during the Spring 2001 semester. The instructors were told of the study's purpose and the time needed for students to complete the instruments. The Willingness to Communicate and Information Competency Assessment Instrument were completed during the first full week of the semester. Along with the instruments was a page for demographic information: Social Security number (for comparison reasons at Time two), age, sex, race, year in school, college (major), and grade point average (GPA) coming into this semester (Appendix G). Informed consent was gained in a cover letter.

The Willingness to Communicate, Information Competency Assessment Instrument, Immediacy Scale, and open-ended questions (Appendix H and I) were distributed during the last month of the semester, between the second and final presentations. Surveys needed to be distributed to the groupings of the classes to determine if the individual conferences made a significant difference. The online-assisted class survey asked for perceptions of classroom instruction, individual conferences, e-mail communication, and the class web page. Finally, they were asked if

they would recommend this type (online-assisted) of class to their friends. Along with the Likert scale of 1 (very poor) to 7 (excellent), the students were allowed an opportunity to extend their thoughts with open-ended questions. The traditional classes received a different survey with a stronger emphasis on classroom instruction. They were also asked if they would be willing to replace some of the traditional lecture with online assignments to have individual conferences with the instructor. The course instructors completed the Communicator Style Measure midway through the semester.

Once all of the data were collected, they were entered into SPSS 9.0. All of the entries that lacked complete surveys (Information Competency Assessment Instrument, immediacy, and/or Willingness to Communicate) were eliminated from the analyses ($n = 88$). The data were reverse coded where appropriate and the Information Competency Assessment Instrument and Willingness to Communicate were totaled for Times 1 and 2. Immediacy scores were totaled along with separate totals for verbal immediacy and nonverbal immediacy. The grade point averages were separated into 5 different categories: 1 = 1.5 - 1.9, 2 = 2.00 - 2.5, 3 = 2.51 - 2.99, 4 = 3.00 - 3.5, and 5 = 3.51 - 4.00. The courses were also separated indicating whether they were traditional or online-assisted classes. Analyses included t -tests to compare mean differences for the hypotheses and a MANOVA to answer the research question.

CHAPTER IV

*Information is only a precondition for equality;
there must also be empowerment.*

James O'Toole

RESULTS & DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to compare the outcomes of the online-assisted and traditional classroom methods of teaching public speaking. Hypotheses related to individual conferences, immediacy, willingness to communicate, and information competency were posited. The results of these tests are reported below followed by the results of the research question. Following the results of each set or group of hypotheses and the research question is a discussion of how this study's findings relate to previous literature. Finally, post hoc analyses are conducted and discussed.

Individual Conferences

H1: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course are more satisfied with the course than those enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

An Independent-Samples t -test revealed support for this hypothesis ($df = 230$, $t = -3.19$, $p < .01$). Students enrolled in the online-assisted class ($M = 5.72$, $SD = 1.40$) were more satisfied than those enrolled in the traditional class ($M = 5.10$, $SD = 1.52$).

H2: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course have a more positive perception of their preparation for

presentations in class than those enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

An Independent-Samples t -test indicated support for this hypothesis ($df = 229$, $t = -2.74$, $p < .01$). Students in the online-assisted class ($M = 5.63$, $SD = 1.03$) felt more prepared than those in the traditional class ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 1.30$).

Public Speaking is a "skills" class. The main purpose of the course is to develop skills the student can use to speak to a group of people. The online-assisted students feeling more prepared for their presentations is also correlated with their satisfaction with the class ($n = 231$, $r = .51$, $p < .01$). This would seem to reinforce the notion of student-faculty interactions supporting intellectual development (Tinto, 1987). If a student perceives himself/herself as being more prepared, then a better outcome is expected. The student may feel more prepared because of the one-on-one interaction with the instructor concerning the presentation. The instructor can specifically point out good qualities and specific flaws to the individual, instead of global items of concern to a group (as in the traditional class). How much is accomplished in the out of class communication (individual conferences) is more critical than how much time the instructor and student spend together (Dalimore, 1995). Because the student conferences are strictly course related, they should have a positive impact on retention (Fusani, 1994), and thus naturally help the student feel more prepared.

Course satisfaction may also be related to the manner in which students participate in the online-assisted version of the course. Students have the ability to choose when and how much material they are going to cover on any given day. Being

able to choose when they want to read and take the online quizzes (within broadly defined limits) creates a sense of control that most students do not feel in their lecture-oriented classes. Also, anecdotally we know that not having to come to class every day leads to greater satisfaction for many students. The one exception to this rule would be the student who views class sessions in terms of how much she or he is paying for each one.

Immediacy

H3: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course perceive a higher rate of instructor immediacy than students enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

An Independent Samples t -test using the total immediacy scores and type of class showed support for this hypothesis ($df = 230$, $t = -2.74$, $p < .01$). Online-assisted students ($M = 163.53$, $SD = 17.56$) perceived the instructor as more immediate than traditional students ($M = 156.22$, $SD = 20.67$).

H3a: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course perceive a higher rate of instructor verbal immediacy than students enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

H3b: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course perceive a higher rate of instructor nonverbal immediacy than the students enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

An Independent Samples t -test assessed these two hypotheses. H3a is supported ($df = 230$, $t = -2.01$, $p < .05$) with the mean of the verbal scores for the online-assisted

class ($\underline{M} = 87.31$, $\underline{SD} = 13.00$) being higher than the traditional class ($\underline{M} = 83.69$, $\underline{SD} = 13.41$). H3b is also supported ($df = 230$, $t = -3.17$, $p < .01$). The mean for the online-assisted class ($\underline{M} = 76.22$, $\underline{SD} = 7.36$) exceeds the traditional class mean ($\underline{M} = 72.54$, $\underline{SD} = 10.16$).

With the increase in distance learning and web-based (either assisted or totally) instruction, the area of teacher immediacy expands. This study showed an increase in the online-assisted students' perceptions of immediacy with the instructor. They perceived a more approaching relationship with the instructor in every area (verbal, nonverbal, and total immediacy). Two possible reasons emerge to help explain these differences. First, these particular instructors may indeed have more immediate teaching styles and students recognize those approaching behaviors. That is, regardless of whether these instructors were teaching in the online-assisted or traditional environments, they would have been perceived as more immediate than the instructors in this study's traditional classes.

Second, and hopefully the more important reason, is that the individual conferences provided an opportunity for the students and instructors to develop stronger relationships. Between individual conferences and e-mail communication, both forms of out of class communication, the online-assisted students had more opportunities to interact with their instructors in a one-on-one situation, either synchronously or asynchronously, and develop more positive perceptions of immediacy (Jaasma & Koper, 1999). These interactions should promote increased knowledge about the other and create a more open environment for sharing. Previous research has discovered that face-to-face interaction is more effective than computer-mediated communication in a small

group communication course (Olaniran, Savage, and Sorenson, 1996). The beauty of teaching the course with online assistance is that the instructor can benefit from both computer-mediated and face-to-face interaction.

Willingness to Communicate

H4: The student's willingness to communicate increases through the course of the semester in the Public Speaking course.

Since this was conducted with the same instrument as a pretest-posttest, the total scores were taken from Time 1 and Time 2 and analyzed in a Paired Samples *t*-test. H4 was supported ($df = 231$, $t = -3.40$, $p < .01$). From Time 1 ($M = 77.07$, $SD = 12.61$) to Time 2 ($M = 83.10$, $SD = 23.36$) scores increased for students ($M = 6.03$, $SD = 23.08$) in both class types.

H5: Students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course experience a greater increase in their willingness to communicate than those in the traditional Public Speaking course.

Comparing how the two groups began the semester preceded this test. An Independent Samples *t*-test was conducted with the Time 1 Willingness to Communicate for the two class methods. There were no significant differences in the starting point of the two classes ($df = 230$, $t = 1.01$, $p = n.s.$). In fact, the mean score for the traditional class ($M = 78.00$) was slightly higher than for the online-assisted class ($M = 76.00$). To test this hypothesis an Independent Samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the Willingness to Communicate change score (T2 minus T1) for the two classes. H5 was supported ($df = 230$, $t = -2.84$, $p < .01$). The mean change score for the online-assisted

class ($\underline{M} = 11.61$, $\underline{SD} = 32.23$) was greater than the traditional class ($\underline{M} = 2.80$, $\underline{SD} = 14.71$).

As was expected, the Willingness to Communicate scores increased through the semester of the Public Speaking course in both methodologies. Previous studies have shown that competence increases through the Public Speaking course (Ellis, 1995; Marshall et al., 2000; & Rubin et al., 1997). Since Willingness to Communicate is highly correlated to competency, it would seem natural to see an increase. Also, Marshall and Violanti (2001) showed a difference in communication competency between the online-assisted and traditional formats. Basically, the students in the course, both methods, are more willing to communicate at the end of the semester than they were at the beginning of the semester. A post hoc Paired-Samples t-test revealed that students overall increased their willingness to communicate in all three areas: interpersonal (the mean increased from 83.00 to 86.00, $df = 231$, $t = -3.26$, $p < .01$); public (the mean increased from 71.00 to 78.00, $df = 231$, $t = -7.00$, $p < .01$); and mediated (the mean increased from 78.00 to 82.00, $df = 231$, $t = -3.02$, $p < .01$) communication.

The online-assisted students reported higher change scores than the traditional students. Why the online-assisted students experienced higher increases in willingness to communicate may be related to the three areas (interpersonal, mediated, and public communication) assessed by this instrument. In the online-assisted class, they had more opportunities to practice their skills in all three areas because of the individual conferences, e-mail communication, and presentations. A post-hoc Independent Samples t-test revealed significant differences between the two class types for public ($df = 230$,

$t = -2.70, p < .01$) and mediated ($df = 230, t = -3.10, p < .01$), but not interpersonal ($df = 230, t = -1.60, p = n.s.$) communication. Generally, people associate lecture with the traditional teaching method, but it may actually turn out that students in all classes have approximately the same opportunity for interpersonal interaction. Or, it may be that because this class does not really focus on interpersonal interaction skills in content or practice, students do not see the connection between their presentation and interpersonal communication. The significant differences for mediated communication clearly relate to online-assisted students using the web for course content/quizzes, discussion board opportunities, and e-mail communication not available to traditional students. Finally, the increase in willingness to communicate in the public area most likely stems from the students feeling more prepared for their speeches. Clear connections between being prepared and feeling confident when giving a speech have been documented (Daly, Vangelisti, Neel, & Cavanaugh, 1989; Menzel & Carrell, 1994; Motley, 1988; Walters, 1993).

Information Competency

H6: The student's self-perceived information competency increases through the course of the semester in the Public Speaking course.

Since this was also conducted with the same instrument as a pretest-posttest, the total scores were taken from Time 1 ($M = 179.28, SD = 27.00$) and Time 2 ($M = 196.00, SD = 27.00$) and entered in a Paired Samples t -test. H6 was supported ($df = 231, t = -3.98, p < .01$).

H7: Self-perceived information competency of students enrolled in the online-assisted Public Speaking course increases more than students enrolled in the traditional Public Speaking course.

Before conducting this test, the starting point of the two groups was compared. An Independent Samples t -test was conducted with the Time 1 Information Competency Assessment Instrument scores compared for the two class methods. There was no significance in the starting point of the two classes ($df = 230$, $t = -.22$, $p = n.s.$). In fact, the mean score for the traditional class ($M = 179.00$) was almost identical to that reported by the online-assisted class ($M = 180.00$). To test this hypothesis an Independent Samples t -test compared the Information Competency Assessment Instrument change ($T2 - T1$) score and the type of class. H7 was supported ($df = 230$, $t = -2.38$, $p < .05$). The online-assisted class ($M = 22.00$, $SD = 28.00$) had a greater mean change score than the traditional class ($M = 14.00$, $SD = 23.00$).

It was expected that a student's information competency skills should increase through the semester of the Public Speaking class. Interestingly, the online-assisted students perceived their skills to grow more than the traditional students did. Because Public Speaking courses teach almost all the main concepts of the instrument, except for detailed help and instruction in the online search areas, students should become more information competent. To develop a presentation a topic must be determined, main points emphasized, research on the topic and main points, assimilation of information on the topics (determining what is relevant and what is not), organization of material for presentation (written or spoken), an understanding of the ethics surrounding the

presentation, and learning from feedback. In addition to helping students develop communication skills, this course reinforces information competency skills necessary to become a lifetime learner.

Perhaps the time online enhances information competence for the online-assisted students. Through the course of the semester, they are spending more time becoming familiar with and confident using computers, necessary skills for information competency. Because students in all classes must use the computer for their presentation and research in the library, the e-mail communication with the instructor and online quizzes appear to be the main difference between the two methods.

Research Question

RQ1: What, if any, is the relationship between demographic data (sex, grade point average, class, and major) and various outcome from this study (Information Competency, Willingness to Communicate, and immediacy)?

To answer RQ1, a MANOVA was conducted with Information Competency Assessment Instrument change score, Willingness to Communicate change score, and total immediacy as the dependent variables and sex, grade point average, class, and college as the independent variables. There were no statistically significant main effects. The only significant interaction effect was class by GPA by sex (Wilks Lambda = 1.98, $p < .05$, eta squared = .095). The Bonferroni post hoc analysis revealed significant differences for neither Willingness to Communicate change nor Information Competency Assessment Instrument change scores; however, there were statistically significant

differences for total immediacy scores based on grade point average with students possessing higher GPAs rating instructors as more immediate.

This finding should not be surprising to see. Those with the lowest grade point average illustrated a lower total immediacy mean than all the other grade point average areas. In other words, those that showed the lowest grade point average (1.5 to 1.99) did not view the instructor as immediate or have as positive a relationship with the instructor as those with higher grade point averages. Might this help to explain the reason for the low grade point average? If one does not develop some type of a positive relationship with the instructor, with learning being positively related to immediacy (Kelly & Gorham, 1988), then one can see why the low grade point average individual will not have a very high immediacy score with the instructor. Of course, there are probably other factors that take part in the low grade point average, but communication with the instructor is among the most important.

Post Hoc Analysis

This section considers what the data show "after" the hypotheses and research question were answered. Since there were no previous differences found between the traditional and online courses (Clark & Jones, 2001) or between the self-contained classes and the large-lecture/break-out sections (Messman, et al., 1998), this study's results require additional investigation. The elements discussed here were either unexpected or related to past research. Also, this section addresses some of the other survey findings: perception of learning the basic course concepts, instruction, and communication with the instructor. Methodological issues associated with the

Information Competency Assessment Instrument are reported. Finally, responses to open-ended survey questions are presented. Table 4.1 contains the correlations between student perceptions (instruction, learning, communication with the instructor, satisfaction, and preparedness) and variables of interest (immediacy, willingness to communicate, and information competency).

Learning, Instruction, and Communication

After conducting the analysis from the surveys to answer the student preparedness and satisfaction hypotheses, a similar analysis was performed on the other three areas asked of all the students: (1) how they perceived their learning in the course, (2) how they would rate the instruction of the class, and (3) how they would rate the communication with their instructor. The outcome was similar to the perception of being prepared and satisfied with the course. There was a significant difference between the two methodologies in all three areas. On learning the basic concepts, the mean for the traditional class ($\underline{M} = 5.25$) was lower than the mean for the online-assisted class ($\underline{M} = 5.70$). Conducting an Independent-Samples t -test produced a significant difference between the two classes ($df = 230$, $t = -3.00$, $p < .01$). Rating the class instruction revealed a higher mean for the online-assisted students ($M = 6.00$) than the traditional students ($\underline{M} = 5.30$). An Independent-Samples t -test showed a significant difference ($df = 230$, $t = -2.51$, $p < .05$). The same result was found in the students' communication with the instructor. The mean for the online-assisted students ($\underline{M} = 6.00$) was greater than the traditional students ($\underline{M} = 5.14$). The Independent Samples t -test showed a

Table 4.1

Post Hoc Correlations
(Instruction, Learning, Communication, Satisfied, & Prepared)

	Instruction n = 232	Learning n = 232	Comm. n = 232	Satisfied n = 232	Prepared n = 231
Instruction	--				
Learning	.76**	--			
Communication	.66**	.63**	--		
Satisfied	.75**	.73**	.71**	--	
Prepared	.50**	.55**	.51**	.51**	--
Verbal Immediacy	.50**	.50**	.53**	.50**	.40**
Nonverbal Immediacy	.40**	.31**	.40**	.31**	.23**
Total Immediacy	.50**	.50**	.54**	.50**	.35**
WTC Time 1	-.02	.10	.10	.10	.20**
WTC Time 2	-.06	.06	.04	.06	.10
WTC Change Score	-.05	.01	-.01	.01	-.10
ICAI Time 1	.02	.04	.07	.04	.15*
ICAI Time 2	.13*	.20**	.20**	.20**	.32**
ICAI Change Score	.12	.15*	.14*	.15*	.20**

Note: *p < .05 **p < .01

significant difference in communication with the instructor between the two classes ($df = 230$, $t = -5.00$, $p < .01$). These findings complement the first two hypotheses and show overall satisfaction with the Public Speaking course taught with online-assistance over the traditional method of teaching the course. The students seemed to prefer the online-assisted course in all of the important areas: instruction, learning, being prepared, communication, and satisfaction with the course.

Regarding the higher satisfaction ratings for communication with the instructor of the online-assisted class, what impact might computer-mediated communication? The students in that class did not meet with the instructor as often as the traditional class. This lack of immediate contact caused a greater use of computer-mediated communication with the instructor. If the online-assisted student needed additional information, the main avenue of communication was through e-mail. This would definitely increase their perception of having better communication with their instructor. This may also play in the increased immediacy factor. Not that the traditional student does not have this opportunity, but he/she has the opportunity to ask questions before, in, or after class with the instructor. Computer-mediated communication is said to remove inhibitions that are caused by face-to-face interaction (Kiesler, Siegel, & McGuire, 1984; Siegel et al., 1986; Sproull & Kiesler, 1986). Perhaps this lack of inhibition worked in the online-assisted student's perception of communicating better with the instructor, immediacy factors, and in their willingness to communicate. A higher perception of communicating seems to help in all areas. As the saying goes, "Communication is the key."

This is supported by findings of student/faculty interaction, in and out of class, being important in student learning (Tinto, 1987). The conferences allowed students to ask questions of concern, about content or performance. Education literature also associates instructor/student conferencing with satisfaction and attrition (Pacarella & Terenzini, 1976). Therefore, there is no surprise of perceived student learning positively correlating with perceived satisfaction with the course.

These findings also support immediacy studies. This study found a positive correlation between immediacy (verbal, nonverbal, and total) and perceptions (instruction, learning, and communication). Kelley and Gorham (1988) also found a positive relationship between immediacy and learning. While Messman et. al, (1998) did not find a significant difference in immediacy factors between a self-contained class and large-lecture/break-out sections of the class, this study did not utilize two different forms of one-to-many instruction. Overall, the additional analyses lend further support to the online-assisted format supporting important student public speaking outcomes.

Information Competency

Whereas information competency is a new area of study, additional analyses revealed a positive correlation between Time 2 total information competency scores and students' perceptions of being prepared for their next presentation ($n = 231$, $r = .32$, $p < .01$). There is also a positive correlation between end of semester information competency scores and the subcategories of the end of the semester Willingness to Communicate: interpersonal ($n = 232$, $r = .36$, $p < .01$), public ($n = 232$, $r = .36$, $p < .01$), and mediated ($n = 232$, $r = .39$, $p < .01$) communication. By this time of the semester, if

a student feels more prepared for the presentation, he or she should have confidence in the information discovered to meet the assignment's requirements.

Other Related Research Findings

Immediacy has been related to a variety of variables in the instructional setting. Past literature has shown a relationship between willingness to communicate and immediacy. Menzell and Carrell (1999) found a positive correlation between verbal immediacy and willingness to communicate. Christinsen et al. (1995) found both verbal and nonverbal immediacy positively correlated with willingness to communicate. In this study, a positive correlation was found with the verbal, nonverbal, and total immediacy scores and willingness to communicate at the beginning of the semester (verbal immediacy: $n = 232$, $r = .25$, $p < .01$; nonverbal immediacy: $n = 232$, $r = .14$, $p < .05$; and total immediacy: $n = 232$, $r = .23$, $p < .01$). A statistically significant correlation was not found between immediacy and willingness to communicate at the end of the semester. In general, if students perceive the instructor as more inviting or approachable, they should also be more willing to communicate with this individual and this was evident at the beginning of the semester. What makes less sense is why the correlations drop off at the end of the semester: their perceptions of the instructor's immediacy have not changed and their overall willingness to communicate score has increased. It is possible that the time one correlations approached statistical non-significance and so even the one or two point drop in correlation at the end of the semester was enough to keep these correlations from being statistically significant. Overall, the results show a very small percentage of the variance in willingness to communicate associated with immediacy and thus the

statistically significant findings may be more of an artifact rather than a behavioral difference.

Benefits

As mentioned previously, the conferences seemed to be the important difference between the two methods of instruction. According to the surveys, online-assisted students were very satisfied with the conferences and did not believe that more classroom instruction was really needed. Slightly over 70 percent said that more instructional time was not really needed. They were also highly satisfied with the course, with over 90 percent saying they would recommend this type of Public Speaking course to their friends.

Traditional students were asked if they would be willing to do work online to have individual conferences with the instructor and if the students would like individual conferences in place of some lectures. Sixty-two percent of the traditional students would be willing to do work online to have conferences, but 60 percent did not want conferences in place of lectures. This seems contradictory; upon closer consideration, the students may not have associated doing work online and having individual conferences as not having to come to class all of the time. Nonetheless, they perceived liking the lectures and gaining from them more than they would with an individual conference with the instructor. Or it may also be that, having lower immediacy factors and not being as satisfied with the course, they would not like to have that one-on-one experience with the instructor.

Overall, online-assisted students were pleased with the instruction, believed they learned more, felt better prepared, reported more satisfying communication with their instructor, and were more satisfied with the course. Open-ended comments support these assessments. Students said, "I think that he did an adequate job giving information and having conferences with him helped a lot"; "The conferences we used helped me with what my speech should include. I felt really prepared afterward"; and "The instructor responds almost immediately when receiving an e-mail and always e-mailed when necessary."

Regarding communication and satisfaction some stated, "Good way to help personal communication skills in an informal and formal atmosphere"; "It is a very effective course. I liked the way that it was laid out for the semester. It was very convenient"; and "[the instructor] did a great job with this class by making us feel comfortable with each other and helping us get to know the other classmates." But, not everyone had "rosy" comments: "While I appreciate the convenience of taking the quizzes at my pace, I never really enjoyed them. It never was comfortable"; and "I thought this was a very good course. The only thing I would suggest would be a few less assignments (web quizzes)."

Of course, with this method of teaching the Public Speaking course, one other item needs to be addressed. This class shifts the major responsibility for learning to the student. The student is responsible for reading and understanding the chapters, taking the quizzes before the deadline, and coming to the conferences prepared and ready to discuss items with the instructor. The following comments sum it up best: "We are all mature

adults who do not need to be babied. The online course info was sufficient enough" and "It gives you some responsibilities of your own which makes you stay on top of things. This class is a good way to give public speaking practice."

This chapter presented and discussed the study's results related to the hypotheses and research question. Student satisfaction and perception of preparedness, willingness to communicate, and information competency were the outcomes of interest. Also, this study assessed instructor immediacy. Additional variables and findings were discussed in a post hoc analysis.

CHAPTER V

The dawn of the information age is behind us. But don't get too excited: it's still morning, and there's a long way to go before lunch.

Steven M. Schneider

CONCLUSION

This study set out to investigate if the online-assisted Public Speaking class achieved the same goals as the traditional Public Speaking class. Overall, students enrolled in the online-assisted class perceived stronger increases in willingness to communicate and information competency. This chapter considers conclusions to this study along with limitations and avenues for further research. Following the limitations and recommendations section is a set of suggestions for those interested in using the online-assisted method to teach the Public Speaking class.

Concluding Thoughts

This study set out to determine if the online-assisted and traditional Public Speaking classes produced similar student skill outcomes. The variables investigated are willingness to communicate, immediacy, and information competency. The primary differences between the two instructional methods are how content was delivered, the instructors involved in teaching the classes, and whether students met individually with the instructor. With these differences in mind, three overarching conclusions emerge from the findings: 1) students enrolled in online-assisted classes believed they increased their skills more and had more positive perceptions of the course than students enrolled in traditional classes; 2) students enrolled in online-assisted classes perceived their

instructors as more immediate and effective than those enrolled in traditional classes; and 3) violating student expectations for how the Public Speaking class should work did not produce negative results.

First, students enrolled in the online-assisted version of the course reported greater willingness to communicate, increased information competency, and greater satisfaction with the course. They also perceived that they learned more, were better prepared for their presentations, and communicated better with the instructor. Changing the teaching methods has enhanced each of the important outcomes associated with a Public Speaking course. Second, online-assisted instructors also achieved higher outcomes in the course. They were rated as more immediate and the students perceived that they learned more in these classes. Taken together, these findings create cause for celebration.

The final conclusion harks back to the study's theoretical foundation, Expectancy Violations Theory. During registration, students are not told which method they are going to use. So, their expectation of the class is violated when the instructor announces that the course will use online assistance. But, as the theory posits, the violation produces a reward factor, which may be perceived as positive or negative. The reward factor in the online-assisted class was that by transferring a part of the lecture to the web course page, the vacated time was used for individual conferences with the instructor. Also, conducting the work online and using class time for conferences meant that the student did not have to come to the classroom every day as the traditional students did. In this situation, a positively evaluated communication behavior produced favorable

communication patterns. In the present study, the theory was supported; however, it is important to be aware of the fact that it could just as easily have failed if students did not perceive the reward factors as positive or any other portion of the model led to negative valence.

Limitations and Future Research

Limitations

As with any study of this magnitude, three concrete limitations (sample, instrumentation, and course instructors) deserve further consideration. First, this sample was almost exclusively European-American, an artifact of the university at which it was taught, and thus race could not even be considered in the study. It would be interesting to see if students from different backgrounds have similar experiences. As always, the ideal situation would have included additional students, possibly over the course of a few semesters and at a variety of types of institutions, so that the number of online-assisted and traditional students as well as diversity were better represented. Variables not considered at the outset were public speaking experience/knowledge of course content, learning styles, computer literacy, and comfort level with technology. Any of these may have made a difference, particularly in the online-assisted classes. If students had more public speaking experience or knowledge prior to beginning the semester, they may have been more likely to thrive in an environment where they simply used the textbook to fill in the gaps rather than having to sit through lectures on material they already knew. Also, some students are very self-motivated and if a preponderance of the students enrolled in the online-assisted class were motivated, self-learners they would have been

more likely to excel in this environment. Technology use is such a large component of the online-assisted class that those who were most familiar with CourseInfo and adept at using computers may have ended up in the online-assisted sections of the course. Finally, the novelty of the online-assisted class may have also led these students to put forth a greater effort in achieving their goals.

A second area of limitations focused on the instruments used in this study. The Information Competency Assessment Instrument was designed and tested in this study. Reliability of the instrument was very good, and the validity remains open to further investigation. In an initial test, the predictive validity was positive, but not very strong, while the face and content validity appear strong. More extensive use and testing of the instrument would strengthen this aspect of the study. Also, most research on the Public Speaking class examines how communication apprehension decreases over the course of the semester rather than how willingness to communicate increases. While the two variables have been highly correlated in previous studies (e.g, Hackman & Barthel-Hackman, 1993; McCroskey & McCroskey, 1986a, b; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990), additional research needs to demonstrate that a Public Speaking class, as opposed to any communication class, makes the difference. Finally, this study assessed preparedness, satisfaction, and learning with single items. In general, a scale for each of these would create more confidence in the findings.

The third area of limitations, instructors teaching the courses, creates the most difficulty. In this particular study, the two online-assisted instructors were graduate teaching assistants and the three traditional instructors were hired adjunct instructors.

Even though the initial communication style of the instructors indicated no differences among them, there may have been other intangible differences not tapped by this instrument. In an ideal study, the same instructor would have taught one section using each method so that method could have been more closely compared and instructor differences could have been minimized as potential moderating variables. For example, it may have been that the graduate teaching assistants were perceived as more immediate because of their close age proximity to the typical undergraduate student. It may also have been that there were “personality conflicts” between students and instructors that no one could have anticipated. Experience with teaching the course may also have impacted the findings; that is, this was a new experience for both of the online-assisted instructors and so the novelty of teaching the course may have influenced the overall findings. Overall, having similar starting points for students enrolled in the two types of classes, highly reliable instruments, and similar communication styles for the instructors strengthens the study’s findings while still pointing to the need for additional research.

Future Research

Based upon the limitations of this study and additional questions that arose during the process, this area seems ripe for additional investigation. First, this study combined with previous research by Marshall and Violanti (2001) shows that the outcomes of the online-assisted Public Speaking class are the same, and sometimes better, than the traditional Public Speaking class. But, the question remains as to WHY there is a difference. Is it the individual conferences, different learning styles, student accountability and responsibility, time spent on the class outside of the classroom,

instructor differences, some combination, or some set of variables not even considered for the present study? The present study also found relationships among satisfaction, learning, communication, preparedness, and instruction perceptions. Yet, this study did not have the means to assess actual learning, instructional effectiveness, student preparation for giving a speech, or communication effectiveness. Each of these potential moderating/mediating, process, and outcome variables warrants additional attention to make the public speaking painting more complete.

For administrators looking at this, the question of cost effectiveness arises. Is the time needed to develop the material and place it on the web equivalent to by traditional preparation? Yes, it does take time in putting the lessons online and to respond to the vast amount of e-mail from students. But, does it take so much time that it will require the instructor to ask for more pay to teach the same course? If it requires that much additional time, then yes. But, once the material is developed, it can be used over and over again, thus requiring less and less instructor time. In fact, the only additional time ultimately required of the instructor is in responding to e-mail sent by students.

Additionally, these time costs need to be examined in relation to student outcomes. Is this teaching method best suited only for skills course? Would teaching history or theory produce the same results? The long-term cost effectiveness needs to be investigated if this is going to be required of those teaching Public Speaking classes with online assistance, and potentially other classes.

Of course, the previous discussion could also be asked of the students: do they spend more time on this course in the traditional setting or with the online-assisted

method? This study did not ask that question. Along with time is the question of motivation and other factors involved in the learning process. Was not having to come to class every day and completing work online a motivational factor for these students? This would also include investigating the student satisfaction with using the Internet for instructional practices.

As for the theory used in this study, it made sense that this different methodology would naturally violate the student's perception of class instruction. But, with more and more instruction in other departments across campus (biology, chemistry, engineering, etc.) using this form of instruction online, maybe it is not as much a violation as originally thought. The student needs to be asked if this was a violation of their expectancy, not just assumed. But what about violations that occur during the semester? We know about violations that occur at the beginning of the semester. But, particularly with the online-assisted class when technical problems may cause violations, does this affect the individual perceptions? Studies need to be designed to assess violations at different times during the semester.

Another ripe area of investigation highlights the relationship between immediacy and willingness to communicate as well as among the various components of each. Past research points out a positive relationship between the immediacy and willingness to communicate (Kelley, & Gorham, 1988; Messman et. al, 1998; Wheelless, 1975). However, in the previous research the instruments were issued only once. In this study, the instruments completed at the beginning of the semester correlated significantly but

not those issued at the end of the semester. What factors change over the course of the semester to lead to these differences between the current study and previous research?

More importantly, what specific classroom behaviors, assignments, exercises, types of interactions significantly impact immediacy and willingness to communicate in actuality? While it is informative to know that willingness to communicate scores increase over the semester, what makes the largest contribution to these differences for students (e.g., number or type of speeches, classroom dynamics, how much information is presented in lectures or how it is presented, activities and exercises)? On the other end of the spectrum, what specific communication behaviors make a difference for instructors (e.g., meeting students individually, using collective pronouns, employing particular discussion-oriented techniques)? None of the past research has made a clear distinction between whether immediacy is something a particular instructor possesses (i.e., something that he or she transports from class to class each semester) or something that develops over the course of the semester between instructors and a specific set of students enrolled in this course (i.e., because a teacher has these 25 students and they interact in these ways, the instructor is seen as more immediate). All of these relationships require further in-depth investigation.

Another area of future research should address whether the demographic variables continue to make a difference in any significant ways. Previous research (Marshall & Violanti, 2001; Marshall, Violanti, & Haas, 2000) has not found significant, meaningful demographic contributions to increased skills and decreased apprehension. In the present study, those with a low grade point average rated the instructors as less immediate. The

reasons behind this perception warrant further investigation. Is the result due to a student's self-concept? What are the characteristics of a student that has a low grade point average that might impact perceptions of immediacy (e.g., does the student miss class too much to be in a good position to evaluate the instructor)? One perception is that the student does not study, or know how to study, and doesn't seem to take an interest in education. If that were the case, then why would the student take an interest in the instructor? But, if the student with a low grade point average had an instructor who took notice of this student, showed an interest, went beyond reasonable expectations to help this student, could this instructor be the turning point for the student?

In regard to course satisfaction, how were the actual speeches? Each instructor grades differently. For instance, in an orientation class where a group of instructors are presented with a speech on video, almost all would give a different grade. And of course, the grade is what is important to the student. It would be interesting to video tape all the presentations and then analyze each presentation to see if the online-assisted methodology and individual conferencing are producing better content and delivery.

Finally, information competency has received increased attention in recent years (see Breivik, 1998; Bruce, 2000). As with any new area of study, the ability to measure it accurately has hindered progress. Additional research should begin to explore the variables that should correlate highly with this form of competency as well as the variables that information competency should predict. Looking at the instrument and the skills required to be information competent, one can see that almost any course requiring research should help in developing these skills. In particular, those classes associated

with learning the research and information gathering processes should help students learn these skills. Thus, additional research in a variety of class types should enhance this instrument's reliability and validity.

But as industry moves more toward the Internet and use of it, information competency skills expand beyond the educational environment and become expected in the workplace. What jobs require an individual to be information competent? Are particular job responsibilities more strongly tied to information competency? If the skills are not enough to meet the specific or changing work environment, employers can now see where additional training is required. Outside of work, where does information competency become important - in our friendships, romantic relationships, and/or families? As with any new area of study, the possibilities for using and testing this instrument are endless.

Recommendations

This section discusses items of interest to those who may wish to use this instructional method for their Public Speaking class. There are preparation issues, course delivery concerns, and problems associated with the course. The majority of time and effort required revolves around preparation issues. An instructor cannot automatically transfer material and information from a lecture-based class to an online-assisted class. Time and practice working with the technology contribute to educational success in this environment.

Before considering this teaching method, the instructor needs to understand what, if any, course software the college or university supports. Becoming familiar with the

options available creates both opportunities and constraints for what you can do in the online-assisted environment. For example, an entire department (Innovative Technology Center) is available to help individuals develop course materials that are educationally sound. If that option is not available, then laying the groundwork for and experimenting with the course will require much more effort. Once having decided on what software or web site you are going to use, the instructor needs to begin developing the content. For example, a syllabus, assignments, and conference schedule that all the students can download will need to be available. The instructor needs to know what kind of software and access to the course site the students are going to have so that a document cannot open or print or one that takes so long to download that the modem connection is lost in the process. All of the quizzes should be developed and stored in hidden files prior to the beginning of the semester so that they can simply be made available to students when taken.

Once content is developed, the instructor will need to transfer it to the course site. Ideally, the instructor would be completely computer literate. Lest you decide this is well beyond your capability before beginning, understand that the bells and whistles associated with technology are just that—the important part of this process is insuring students have what is needed! Not knowing how to use HTML (hypertext markup language) could be a problem. Fortunately, most word processing programs today allow you to save files as HTML so that you do not have to know all of the command characters. Details such as creating everything in a table format ensure that students will be able to read documents and information will line up in the manner you desire.

Knowing more about computer technology and software can make the preparation process easier, but knowing someone (a colleague or department) who can share this process works just as well.

Once all of the pertinent information appears on the course page, the instructor is ready to enroll students in the class. If setting up a personal web site, finding a mechanism for ensuring that only those who should have access to the material is important. At the outset of the course, the instructor will need to build students' confidence with the technology. If he/she are uncertain about the process, the student will also become apprehensive. Not surprisingly, some of the students in this study said, "I hate computers" and "Computers are so unreliable." Anything that can be done to increase the comfort level early in the semester will go a long way as the semester progresses.

During the course, the instructor spends the majority of her/his time responding to email and meeting with students. Unlike the lecture-based class, if the teacher is having a bad day, this more severely impacts the students who have conferences that day; in the traditional course, the playing field remains more constant because the class as a whole hears your "bad" lecture. Time is mostly spent online responding to email messages that range from needing help or clarification with a particular assignment to trouble-shooting technological difficulties. For example, students may lose their modem connection while taking a quiz, and then the instructor has to reset the quiz so it can be taken again. E-mail is the primary avenue of communication between instructor and students. One of the instructors teaching the online-assisted course for this study commented on how much e-

mail communication was associated with this course. Students come to expect an immediate reply so setting up clear expectations (e.g., I check my email every day at X time) becomes critical.

One problem associated with the online-assisted class is the lack of student-student interaction. In the traditional setting students often do group activities, which allow them to get acquainted with each other and know each other better before speaking. This relationship helps reduce speaking anxiety and increase audience analysis. In the online-assisted method, creativity is important to promote cohesiveness among the students. For example, the instructor might have students work in pairs or small groups to help each other prepare their speeches or might utilize the discussion board or chat features if available on the course pages. Encouraging students to email each other with questions or concerns may also facilitate relationship building in the class. Students can e-mail other students about questions and comments concerning the class. While the conferences may partially compensate for the lack of interaction with students, the instructor needs to be clear about expectations. Some students may assume they do not need to come prepared for the conferences; others may assume that if they take the suggestions from the conference, they will automatically earn an A on the speech. The more groundwork laid at the beginning of the semester, the smoother the path through the semester.

Another problem revolves around the use of technology in place of the classroom. Yes, students have difficulty with the technology. Many have problems "enrolling" in the course with CourseInfo. Some of these problems are simple, some more complex.

As with the traditional classroom environment, time investment dictates how well this teaching method works. But, we must always remember that the technology is simply a tool. We must learn to use the tool in the best manner for the expected outcomes.

Finally, instructors must recognize that not all students are interested in or adept at learning in this manner. The online-assisted method of instruction is trying to enhance the individual's learning process. This is accomplished by holding students both responsible and accountable for their actions in the class. This is similar to what Jensen and Harris (1999) describe as "mindfulness," the ability of an individual to be aware of surroundings and respond, not just simply react. Not all students want to be responsible and accountable for their actions. Many would like instructors to simply "tell them the right answer" or where to find it. How many students have said, "I really like this course. I read the book and the test questions come directly from it." Communication in general, and public speaking in particular, rarely has a single effective path (the right answer) to achieve one's goals. Expanding students' horizons concerning the range of possibilities must be an integral part of an online-assisted course.

Conclusion

What began initially as an attempt to service more students who need to take a basic Public Speaking course has blossomed into an entire program of research. This study investigated two mechanisms for teaching Public Speaking. While much research remains to be done, the findings offer hope for those interested in maximizing the skill development possible in a single semester of Public Speaking. This study demonstrated that students increased their willingness to communicate in the interpersonal, public, and

mediated arenas as well as the information competency necessary to develop effective presentations. Also, the higher immediacy perceptions offer instructors another avenue for creating a positive classroom environment conducive to learning. Finally, as administrators experiment with reaching geographically separated and nontraditional students who cannot attend day classes, this study offers an alternative to the purely online format.

The changing nature of society is currently impacting higher education in ways that many never imagined possible. As higher education continues to change with the times, all should hope that Peter Drucker's prediction of "Thirty years from now the big university campuses will be relics. Universities won't survive . . . It's as large a change as when we first got the printed book" (Heeger, 2000) does not come to fruition. Only time will tell if the current focus on technology in higher education will continue for the foreseeable future. However, any strides instructors can make to promote lifelong learning must be considered progress. Once students leave the university, they need to be capable of utilizing the skills they learn in classes like Public Speaking to reach their potential. One online-assisted course student summarized this learning experience, both for me as someone completing a dissertation and lifelong students best: "I like the idea of a ship leading itself. The captain is only there if you steer in the wrong direction."

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A
Traditional Class Syllabus

SPEECH COMMUNICATION 210: PUBLIC SPEAKING

Instructor
Email:
Office Phone:
Office:
Office Hours:

COURSE OVERVIEW

Public Speaking, Speech Communication 210, is designed to increase your understanding of the principles and processes of communicating effectively in public situations. It is also designed to facilitate development of your own effective public communication skills. We plan to do this through a combination of speaking, listening, reading, and writing assignments. These assignments are designed to develop your understanding and skills progressively throughout the semester.

This combination of understanding and development of actual speaking skills is difficult to accomplish within a single semester. Within the term it is possible to begin to develop basic skills, a positive attitude toward speaking/communicating, and confidence in your own speaking skills. When you finish the course, you should have a basic understanding of public speaking, and awareness of your own speaking skills (both strengths and weaknesses) so that you can continue to develop effective skills.

COURSE OBJECTIVES

- \$ To develop a basic understanding of public speaking skills.
- \$ To develop an increased awareness and understanding of factors that facilitate and hinder the communication process.
- \$ To develop an understanding of speaker-audience variables, such as audience analysis, language usage, organization, delivery, and style.
- \$ To develop increased skill and confidence in public speaking.

POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

Speech Communication 210 covers the basic principles of public communication. Topics and exercises include understanding and application of communication theory and formal presentation skills. While different instructors teach different sections of the course, we have all agreed to follow the policies and procedures listed below.

Assignments

Each student is required to complete the following assignments to pass Speech Communication 210 successfully.

- 1) Introductory Speech (introduce yourself, another person, an object, or an event) - This speech, worth five (5) percent (50 points) of your grade, should be two (2) to three (3) minutes in length.
- 2) Informative Speech (provide the audience with new information about a topic of interest) - This speech, worth fifteen (15) percent (150 points) of your grade, should be five (5) to seven (7) minutes in length.
- 3) Persuasive Speech (provide the audience with information that will cause them to think about an alternative viewpoint from or reinforce the one they currently hold) - This speech, worth twenty (20) percent (200 points) of your grade, should be six (6) to eight (8) minutes in length.
- 4) Final Speech (this may be a second informative speech, a second persuasive speech, or a special occasion speech) - This speech, worth fifteen (15) percent (150 points) of your grade, should be four (4) to six (6) minutes in length.
- 5) Content Evaluations - Students will take a combination of quizzes on CourseInfo and complete a set of application exercises that comprise thirty (30) percent (300 points) of their grade.
- 6) Critique/Analysis - Students will complete a critique of a speech, to be viewed in the library, worth fifteen (10) percent (100 points) of their grade. Students will also complete a personal reflection paper worth five (5) percent (50 points) of their grade.

Illegal or Hazardous Articles or Materials (drugs, alcohol, fire arms, or other weapons, live animals, explosives, etc.) and potentially disruptive or dangerous activities (tuning motorcycle engines, extracting snake venom, cleaning fish, etc.) **ARE NOT permissible in the classroom under the guise of visual aids or demonstrations.**

Materials

Lucas, S. E. (2001). *The art of public speaking*. (7th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Attendance

Attendance in this course is based upon both your presence in the classroom. For a Monday/Wednesday/Friday class, you are allowed to miss two (2) classroom days without penalty. For a Tuesday/Thursday class, you are allowed to miss one (1) class day without penalty. Each absence above those specified is a reduction of two (2) percentage or twenty (20) points from your final course grade. If you miss a conference with your instructor or the day on which you are scheduled to give a speech, it is an automatic two-percentage or twenty point reduction from your final course grade. For example, if your final average is a 92 (A) and you miss three (M/W/F) speech days and one conference, your final grade for the course would be an 88 (B+). Make your plans accordingly. There are **NO** provisions for making up missed assignments and speeches must be delivered on the assigned day. We strongly urge you to plan ahead, meet with your professor when you see a conflict arising, and work around that conflict together. Open and honest communication between the student and instructor can avoid most types of problems before they occur.

Grading

Some of us prefer to work on a point system and some of us prefer to work on a percentage system. Either way, we all follow the same grading guidelines. In each case, you will notice that a .6 rounds your grade up to the next half letter grade.

90-100%	896-1000 pts.	A
87-89%	866-895 pts.	B+
80-86%	796-865 pts.	B
77-79%	766-795 pts.	C+
70-76%	696-765 pts.	C
60-69%	596-695 pts.	D
below 60%	0-595 pts.	F

All students are expected to complete their assignments with "no unauthorized assistance." Everyone is expected to follow the University's honor statement with respect to both their written and oral work. It is unethical to use as your own a speech or an outline prepared, in whole or in part, by someone else. To do is grounds for failure in this course and referral to the Dean of Student Conduct. It is also unethical to abstract a speech from a book or a magazine and claim it as your own work. Any sources used extensively should be cited in the speech and bibliography.

Procedures

If you feel these policies are not being followed by your instructor and peers, it is your responsibility to approach the instructor first. If you still feel the policies are being violated, you may then approach Dr. John Haas in 293 Communications UEB. If you approach the Dr. Haas without first talking to the instructor, you will be sent back to talk to her or him.

CRITERIA FOR GRADING PAPERS AND SPEECHES

Just as Speech Communication 210 instructors follow the same guidelines in determining the number and type of assignments for their courses, we follow the same guidelines in grading those assignments. In general, a grade of "C" on a speech means that you have met the minimum requirements for that assignment; a grade of "A" or "B" means that you have exceeded the minimum requirements in a significant way; and a grade of "D" or "F" means that you have failed to meet two or more of the requirements for the assignment. The majority of the students receive grades of C on speeches. More specific information on grading criteria is provided below.

- I. A grade Of C: Average, Satisfactory Work. To be judged as average and satisfactory, your work must:
 - A. Meet all specific requirements (e.g., length, purpose, organization, research, source citation) for the assignment.
 - B. Be delivered on the date assigned.
 - C. Use a communication style that meets acceptable standards of directness and communication competence.
- II. A grade of B: Above Average Work. To be judged as above average, your work must meet the criteria for a C, as well as:
 - A. Exhibit skillful use of internal summaries and/or connectives.
 - B. Demonstrate above average skill in using language, organization, and supporting materials to engage and challenge the audience.
- III. A grade of A: Superior Work. To be judged as superior, your speech must meet the criteria for a B, as well as:
 - A. Constitute a genuinely individual contribution to the audience's thinking.

- B. Demonstrate exceptional skill in using the communication elements to create audience understanding and acceptance of a complex viewpoint or argument.
- IV. A grade of D: Below Average Work. To be judged below average, your work must fail to meet one or two of the criteria for a C, but still be sufficient to meet the most basic requirements of the assignment.
- V. A grade of F: Unacceptable Work. To be judged as unacceptable, your work must fail to meet most of the criteria for a C, and, as a result, be insufficient to meet the most basic requirements of the assignment.

SCHEDULE OF CLASSES AND ASSIGNMENTS

Date	Topic	Assignment
Week 1	Course Introduction, Communication Process Ethics, Listening	Chapter 1 Appendix A Chapters 2, 3
Week 2	Introductory Speeches	
Week 3	Delivery Informative Speaking, Topic Selection	Chapter 12 Chapters 14, 4
Week 4	Audience Analysis Research (Meet in Hodges Library)	Chapter 5 Chapter 6
Week 5	Research Supporting Material	Chapter 7
Week 6	Organization Introductions, Conclusions	Chapter 8 Chapter 9
Week 7	Midterm Outlining	Chapter 10
Week 8	Visual Aids	Chapter 13
Week 9	Informative Speeches	
Week 10	Informative Speeches Persuasive Speaking	Chapter 15

Week 11	Persuasive Arguments Style/Language	Chapter 16 Chapter 11
Week 12	Persuasive Speeches	
Week 13	Persuasive Speeches	
Week 14	Special Occasion Speaking Final Speeches	Chapter 17
Week 15	Final Speeches	
Week 16	Final Exam Period (Date:_____, Time:_____)	

Appendix B

Online-assisted Class Syllabus

SPEECH COMMUNICATION 210: PUBLIC SPEAKING

Name:
Email:
Phone:
Address:
Office Hours:

COURSE OVERVIEW

Public Speaking, Speech Communication 210, is designed to increase your understanding of the principles and processes of communicating effectively in public situations. It is also designed to facilitate development of your own effective public communication skills. We plan to do this through a combination of speaking, listening, reading, and writing assignments. These assignments are designed to develop your understanding and skills progressively throughout the semester.

This combination of understanding and development of actual speaking skills is difficult to accomplish within a single semester. Within the term it is possible to begin to develop basic skills, a positive attitude toward speaking/communicating, and confidence in your own speaking skills. When you finish the course, you should have a basic understanding of public speaking, and awareness of your own speaking skills (both strengths and weaknesses) so that you can continue to develop effective skills.

This course's design is different from most you will take at UT. If you look at the schedule of classes, you will notice that there are three columns for each week. In column one, you will find what will be happening in the classroom during your scheduled class time. In column two, you will find the reading assignments for the week. In column three, you will find the computerized and other assignments that are due at a given time. These assignments will be posted on CourseInfo and you will be responsible for completing them at your own pace so long as they are turned in by the time which they are assigned (more specific dates will accompany each assignment). Finally, this course will ask you to take "quizzes" along the way to demonstrate your understanding of the material covered in the textbook (more on this under course assignments).

COURSE OBJECTIVES

- \$ To develop a basic understanding of public speaking skills.
- \$ To develop an increased awareness and understanding of factors that facilitate and hinder the communication process.
- \$ To develop an understanding of speaker-audience variables, such as audience analysis, language usage, organization, delivery, and style.

\$ To develop increased skill and confidence in public speaking.

POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

Speech Communication 210 covers the basic principles of public communication. Topics and exercises include understanding and application of communication theory and formal presentation skills. While different instructors teach different sections of the course, we have all agreed to follow the policies and procedures listed in below.

Assignments

Each student is required to complete the following assignments to pass Speech Communication 210 successfully.

- 1) Introductory Speech (introduce yourself, another person, an object, or an event) - This speech, worth five (5) percent (50 points) of your grade, should be two (2) to three (3) minutes in length.
- 2) Informative Speech (provide the audience with new information about a topic of interest) - This speech, worth fifteen (15) percent (150 points) of your grade, should be five (5) to seven (7) minutes in length.
- 3) Persuasive Speech (provide the audience with information that will cause them to think about an alternative viewpoint from or reinforce the one they currently hold) - This speech, worth twenty (20) percent (200 points) of your grade, should be six (6) to eight (8) minutes in length.
- 4) Final Speech (this may be a second informative speech, a second persuasive speech, or a special occasion speech) - This speech, worth fifteen (15) percent (150 points) of your grade, should be four (4) to six (6) minutes in length.
- 5) Content Evaluations - Students will take a combination of quizzes on CourseInfo and complete a set of application exercises that comprise thirty (30) percent (300 points) of their grade.
- 6) Critique/Analysis - Students will complete a critique of a speech, to be viewed in the library, worth fifteen (10) percent (100 points) of their grade. Students will also complete a personal reflection paper worth five (5) percent (50 points) of their grade.
- 7) Individual Conferences – Prior to each speech, you are required to attend an individual conference, scheduled during class time, to meet with your instructor. Prior to the informative speech conference, you must have a topic, main points, and transparencies; prior to the persuasive speech conference, you must have a speech prepared so it may be videotaped during your conference; prior to the final speech conference, you must have a concrete goal to discuss with your instructor.

Illegal or Hazardous Articles or Materials (drugs, alcohol, fire arms, or other weapons, live animals, explosives, etc.) and potentially disruptive or dangerous activities (tuning motorcycle engines, extracting snake venom, cleaning fish, etc.) **ARE NOT permissible in the classroom under the guise of visual aids or demonstrations.**

Materials

Lucas, S. E. (2001). *The art of public speaking*. (7th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Blank VHS video tape and 3.5" diskette

Attendance

Attendance in this course is based upon both your presence in the classroom on lecture/discussion and speech days, as well as your presence during the individual conferences for which you sign up. *See the legend at the bottom of the course schedule for the days on which you need to attend class.* For a Monday/Wednesday/Friday class, you are allowed to miss two (2) classroom days without penalty. For a Tuesday/Thursday class, you are allowed to miss one (1) class day without penalty. Each absence above those specified is a reduction of two (2) percentage or twenty (20) points from your final course grade. If you miss a conference with your instructor or the day on which you are scheduled to give a speech, it is an automatic two-percentage or twenty point reduction from your final course grade. For example, if your final average is a 92 (A) and you miss three (M/W/F) speech days and one conference, your final grade for the course would be an 88 (B+). Make your plans accordingly. There are **NO** provisions for making up missed assignments and speeches must be delivered on the assigned day. We strongly urge you to plan ahead, meet with your professor when you see a conflict arising, and work around that conflict together. Open and honest communication between the student and instructor can avoid most types of problems before they occur.

Grading

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80-86%	796-865 pts.	B
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70-76%	696-765 pts.	C
60-69%	596-695 pts.	D
below 60%	0-595 pts.	F

All students are expected to complete their assignments with "no unauthorized assistance." Everyone is expected to follow the University's honor statement with respect

to both their written and oral work. It is unethical to use as your own a speech or an outline prepared, in whole or in part, by someone else. To do is grounds for failure in this course and referral to the Dean of Student Conduct. It is also unethical to abstract a speech from a book or a magazine and claim it as your own work. Any sources used extensively should be cited in the speech and bibliography.

Procedures

If you feel these policies are not being followed by your instructor and peers, it is your responsibility to approach the instructor first. If you still feel the policies are being violated, you may then approach Dr. John Haas in 293 Communications UEB. If you approach the Dr. Haas without first talking to the instructor, you will be sent back to talk to her or him.

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 - B. Be delivered on the date assigned.
 - C. Use a communication style that meets acceptable standards of directness and communication competence.
- II. A grade of B: Above Average Work. To be judged as above average, your work must meet the criteria for a C, as well as:
 - A. Exhibit skillful use of internal summaries and/or connectives.
 - B. Demonstrate above average skill in using language, organization, and supporting materials to engage and challenge the audience.

- III. A grade of A: Superior Work. To be judged as superior, your speech must meet the criteria for a B, as well as:
- A. Constitute a genuinely individual contribution to the audience's thinking.
 - B. Demonstrate exceptional skill in using the communication elements to create audience understanding and acceptance of a complex viewpoint or argument.
- IV. A grade of D: Below Average Work. To be judged below average, your work must fail to meet one or two of the criteria for a C, but still be sufficient to meet the most basic requirements of the assignment.
- V. A grade of F: Unacceptable Work. To be judged as unacceptable, your work must fail to meet most of the criteria for a C, and, as a result, be insufficient to meet the most basic requirements of the assignment.

SCHEDULE OF CLASSES AND ASSIGNMENTS

<i>Date</i>	<i>Class Time</i>	<i>Reading</i>	<i>Computer/ Exercises</i>
* Jan. 11	Course Introduction & Communication Process	Chapter 1	<i>Enroll in CourseInfo</i>
* Jan. 16	Speech Apprehension	Chapters 2, 3	<i>Chps. 1, 2, 3</i>
* Jan. 18	Introductory Speeches		
* Jan. 23	Topic Selection & Outline	Chapters 12, 14, 4	<i>Chps. 12, 14, 4</i>
* Jan. 25	Research	Chapter 6	Library Assignment
* Jan. 30	Ethics & Listening	Chapters 5, 7, 8	<i>Chps. 5, 6, 7, 8</i>
** Feb. 1	Individual Conferences		
** Feb. 6	Individual Conferences	Chapters 9, 10, 13	<i>Chps. 9, 10, 13</i>
** Feb. 8	Individual Conferences		PowerPoint Assignment
** Feb. 13	Individual Conferences		

** Feb. 15	Individual Conferences		
* Feb. 20	Informative Presentations		
* Feb. 22	Informative Presentations		
* Feb. 27	Informative Presentations		
* March 1	Persuasive Speaking	Chapter 15, 16, 11	<i>Chps. 15, 16, 11</i>
* March 6	Persuasive Arguments & Language		
** March 8	Individual Conferences		Informal Fallacies
** March 13	Individual Conferences		
** March 15	Individual Conferences		
** March 20	SPRING BREAK		
** March 22	SPRING BREAK		
** March 27	Individual Conferences		
* March 29	Persuasive Presentations		
* April 3	<i>Persuasive Presentations</i>		
* April 5	Persuasive Presentations		Speech Critique
* April 10	Persuasive Presentations		
* April 12	Recap & Prepare 3 rd Speech		
** April 17	Individual Conferences		
** April 19	Individual Conferences		Personal Reflection Paper
* April 24	Final Presentations		
* April 26	Final Presentations		
* Finals	Final Presentations		

* **You Must Attend Class**

** **You Must Attend Class for Your Scheduled Conference ONLY**

Appendix C
Immediacy Scale

Immediacy Instrument

Instructions: Below is a series of descriptions of things some teachers have been observed doing in some classes. Please respond to the items in terms of the class you are taking now. For each item, please indicate (circle) on the scale from “never” to “always” how often your teacher in this class engages in those behaviors. Use the scale following the statement.

	1 never	2	3	4	5	6	7 always
*1. Sits behind desk or table while teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Gestures while talking to the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*3. Uses monotone/dull voice when talking to the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Looks at the class while talking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Smiles at the class while talking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*6. Has a very tense body position while talking to the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Touches students in the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Moves around the classroom while teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*9. Sits on a desk or in a chair while teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*10. Looks at board or notes while talking to the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*11. Stands behind podium or desk while teaching.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Has a very relaxed body position while talking to the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Smiles at individual students in the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Uses a variety of vocal expressions when talking to the class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Uses personal examples or talks about experiences she/he has had outside of class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Asks question or encourages students to talk.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Gets into discussion based on something a student brings up even when this doesn't seem to be part of his/her lecture plan.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Uses humor in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Addresses students by name.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Addresses me by name.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Gets into conversations with individual students before or after class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Has initiated conversations with me before, after or outside of class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Refers to class as “our” class or what “we” are doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Provides feedback on my individual work through comments on papers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*25. Calls on students to answer questions even if they have not indicated that they have not indicated that they want to talk.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Asks how students feel about an assignment, due date or discussion topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Invites students to telephone or meet with him/her outside of class if they have questions or want to discuss something.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Asks questions that solicit viewpoints or opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Praises students' work, actions or comments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

30. Will have discussions about things unrelated to class with individual student work with the class as a whole.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Is addressed by his/her first name by the students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Numbers 1-14 represent nonverbal statements.

Numbers 15-31 represent verbal statement.

* Invert numbers before totaling.

Appendix D

Willingness to Communicate

Willingness to Communicate Scale

DIRECTIONS: Below are 18 situations in which a person might choose to communicate. Assume you have complete free choice. Using the scale below, please indicate in the space at the right how willing you are to communicate in this way with this person or people. If you do not or have not communicated in the context specified, simply state how willing you would be to do so if the opportunity arrived. For example, if you might be willing, place a 50 on the line to the right of the statement.

EX: *statement* 50

completely **completely**
unwilling = 0.....100 = willing

<i>Statement</i>	<i>Response</i>
E-mail a friend.	
Present a talk to a group of strangers.	
Present a talk to a group of acquaintances.	
Post a message on an Internet bulletin board that I post on regularly.	
Talk with an acquaintance while standing in line.	
E-mail an acquaintance.	
Talk in a large meeting of friends.	
Talk in a small group of friends.	
Post a message on an Internet bulletin board where I've posted before.	
Talk in a small group of strangers.	
Post on an Internet bulletin board for the first time.	
Talk with a friend while standing in line.	
E-mail a person you don't know.	
Talk in a large meeting of acquaintances.	
Talk with a stranger while standing in line.	
Present a talk to a group of friends.	
Talk in a small group of acquaintances.	
Talk in a large meeting of strangers.	

Appendix E
Communicator Style Measure

Communicator Style Measure

Instructions: You have impressions of yourself as a communicator. The impressions include your sense of the way you communicate. This measure focuses upon your sensitivity to the way you communicate, or what is called your communicator style. The questions are not designed to look at *what* is communicated; rather, they explore the way you communicate.

Because there is no such thing as a “correct” style of communication, none of the following items has a right or wrong answer. Please do not spend too much time on the items. Let your first inclination be your guide. Try to answer as honestly as possible. All responses will be strictly confidential.

Some questions will be difficult to answer because you honestly do not know. For these questions, however, please try to determine *which way you are leaning* and answer in the appropriate direction.

The following scale is used for each item:

YES! = strong agreement with the statement
 yes = agreement with the statement
 ? = neither agreement nor disagreement with the statement
 no = disagreement with the statement
 NO! = strong disagreement with the statement

For example, if you agree with the following statement, “I dislike the coldness of winter,” then you would circle the “yes” as indicated: NO! no ? yes YES!

Some of the items will be similarly stated. But each item has a slightly different orientation. Try to answer each question as though it were the only question being asked. Finally, answer each item as it relates to a *general face-to-face* communication situation – namely, the type of communicator you are most often.

Thank you for helping out.

Please tell me which sections of 210 you teach.

1. I am comfortable with all varieties of people.	NO! no ? yes YES!
2. I laugh easily.	NO! no ? yes YES!
3. I readily express admiration for others.	NO! no ? yes YES!
4. <i>What</i> I say <i>usually</i> leaves an impression on people.	NO! no ? yes YES!
5. I leave people with an impression of me which they definitely tend to remember.	NO! no ? yes YES!
6. To be friendly, I habitually acknowledge verbally other's contributions.	NO! no ? yes YES!
7. I am a <i>very</i> good communicator.	NO! no ? yes YES!
*8. I have some nervous mannerisms in my speech.	NO! no ? yes YES!
9. I am a very relaxed communicator.	NO! no ? yes YES!
10. When I disagree with somebody I am very quick to challenge them.	NO! no ? yes YES!
11. I can always repeat back to a person <i>exactly</i> what was meant.	NO! no ? yes YES!
12. The sound of my voice is very <i>easy</i> to recognize.	NO! no ? yes YES!
13. I am a very precise communicator.	NO! no ? yes YES!
14. I leave a <i>definite</i> impression on people.	NO! no ? yes YES!
*15. The rhythm of flow of my speech is sometimes affected by my nervousness.	NO! no ? yes YES!
16. Under pressure I come across as a relaxed speaker.	NO! no ? yes YES!
17. My eyes reflect <i>exactly</i> what I am feeling when I communicate.	NO! no ? yes YES!
18. I dramatize a lot.	NO! no ? yes YES!
19. I always find it <i>very easy</i> to communicate on a one-to-one basis with strangers.	NO! no ? yes YES!
20. Usually, I <i>deliberately react</i> in such a way that people know that I am listening to them.	NO! no ? yes YES!
*21. Usually I do not tell people much about myself until I get to know them well.	NO! no ? yes YES!

22. <i>Regularly</i> I tell jokes, anecdotes and stories when I communicate.	NO! no ? yes YES!
23. I tend to <i>constantly</i> gesture when I communicate.	NO! no ? yes YES!
24. I am an <i>extremely</i> open communicator.	NO! no ? yes YES!
25. I am vocally a loud communicator.	NO! no ? yes YES!
26. In a small group of stranger I am a <i>very good</i> communicator.	NO! no ? yes YES!
27. In arguments I insist upon very precise definitions.	NO! no ? yes YES!
28. In most social situations I generally speak very frequently.	NO! no ? yes YES!
29. I find it extremely easy to maintain a conversation with a member of the opposite sex <i>whom I have just met</i> .	NO! no ? yes YES!
30. I like to be strictly accurate when I communicate.	NO! no ? yes YES!
31. Because I have a loud voice I can easily break into a conversation.	NO! no ? yes YES!
32. <i>Often</i> I physically and vocally act out what I want to communicate.	NO! no ? yes YES!
33. I have an assertive voice.	NO! no ? yes YES!
34. I readily reveal personal things about myself.	NO! no ? yes YES!
35. I am dominant in social situations.	NO! no ? yes YES!
36. I am very argumentative.	NO! no ? yes YES!
37. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion I have a hard time stopping myself.	NO! no ? yes YES!
38. I am always an <i>extremely</i> friendly communicator.	NO! no ? yes YES!
39. I really <i>like</i> to listen <i>very carefully</i> to people.	NO! no ? yes YES!
40. Very often I insist that other people document or present some kind of proof for what they are arguing.	NO! no ? yes YES!
41. I try to take charge of things when I am with people.	NO! no ? yes YES!
42. It bothers me to drop an argument that is not resolved.	NO! no ? yes YES!
43. In most social situations I tend to come on strong.	NO! no ? yes YES!

44. I am very expressive nonverbally in social situations.	NO! no ? yes YES!
45. The <i>way</i> I say something <i>usually</i> leaves an impression on people.	NO! no ? yes YES!
46. Whenever I communicate, I tend to be very encouraging to people.	NO! no ? yes YES!
47. I actively use a <i>lot</i> of facial expressions when I communicate.	NO! no ? yes YES!
48. I very <i>frequently</i> verbally exaggerate to emphasize a point.	NO! no ? yes YES!
49. I am an <i>extremely attentive</i> communicator.	NO! no ? yes YES!
50. As a rule, I openly express my feelings and emotions.	NO! no ? yes YES!

51. Out of a random group of six people, including myself, I would probably have a better communicator style than (circle one choice):

5 of
them

4 of
them

3 of
them

2 of
them

1 of
them

None of
them

* Reverse coding before summing.

Appendix F
Information Competency Assessment Instrument

Information Competency Assessment Instrument

DIRECTIONS: This instrument is composed of 40 statements concerning feelings about finding and disseminating research information. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you by circling the number that best fits your feelings on the statement from whether you (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Using the following scale, please record your first impression.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
strongly disagree			neither agree or disagree			strongly agree

1. I feel confident determining what topic I need to search.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*2. Sometimes I feel lost because the topic I want to research is not very clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. I can take a complex topic and break it down into more useful, simpler items.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*4. "Confused" is probably the best term to describe me when starting a project.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*5. I am sometimes unsure of how much information I need for the assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I know the difference between "primary" and "secondary" sources.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*7. I get confused because of the many different formats (print, electronic, etc.) when searching for information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. I am certain that I can use the information I find.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. I know how to broaden or narrow a search using Boolean operators (AND, NOT and OR) and truncation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. It is easy to interpret the results of a search.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*11. I'm not sure how to use an index (e.g. catalog, database, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. I can confidently get my hands on the material (by printing, e-mailing, interlibrary loan, etc.) I need.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I understand the organization of materials in libraries.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*14. Government documents are confusing to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*15. Web search engines are unreliable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I know the difference between an abstract and an article.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*17. Sometimes I cannot figure out for whom the information is intended.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. I can use many different types of media (print, video, photography, etc.) confidently as information for my topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*19. At times, the producer of the information is not clear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I can confidently spot inaccuracy, errors, etc. in the information from mass media.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. I can use many different types of media (print, video, photography, etc.) confidently as information for my topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*19. At times, the producer of the information is not clear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I can confidently spot inaccuracy, errors, etc. in the information from mass media.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*21. The information I find is so confusing that I don't know if I can use it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*22. I am not confident that the information I get is accurate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. The information I use is complete and reliable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I am sure that the information I have answers my question or addresses my topic.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*25. A lot of the information I find is irrelevant or unnecessary.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. After collecting my information, it is easy to sort by content that is similar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Sometimes my question changes depending on what information I find.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*28. If my topical outline doesn't make sense, I get discouraged.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*29. I am <u>not</u> sure which communication medium (transparencies, slides, video, etc.) is appropriate for the delivery of this information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I know my audience and that the information I present meets their needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*31. I sometimes have doubts as to why I am communicating this information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I am confident that my information is clearly and confidently presented.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*33. I'm not sure how to record or cite all my sources.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*34. I have questions about the privacy of the information I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I can tell when information is biased.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. I know when material is confidential, should not be used.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. While preparing a project, I am certain how it will be received by others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*38. Feedback is demoralizing to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I am able to learn what processes would be helpful for finding information in the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
*40. After the presentation of the information, I'm not sure how it was received.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

* Reverse coding before summing.

Identifying the Topic: 1, 2, 3, 4
Determining the Requirements: 5, 6, 7, 8
Using Information Technologies: 9, 10, 11, 12
Locate & Retrieve Information: 13, 14, 15, 16
Information from Mass Media: 17, 18, 19, 20
Evaluating Information: 21, 22, 23, 24
Organize & Synthesize: 25, 26, 27, 28
Presentation of Information: 29, 30, 31, 32
Ethics & Legality of Information: 33, 34, 35, 36
Evaluating & Learning from Experience: 37, 38, 39, 40

Appendix G
Demographic Information

Some additional information please! ☺

1. Please supply me with the last four digits of your SS#: ____ ____ ____ ____

2. What is your age? ____

3. Please check the appropriate answers:

Sex: ____ female ____ male

Classification: ____ first year ____ sophomore ____ junior ____ senior

____ graduate

Major: (What is your major area of study at this time?) (Please circle)

Ag Arch. & Design Arts & Sciences Business

Communications Education Human Ecology Nursing

Social Work Undecided

4. At this time, what is your grade point average? (ex: 2.6) _____

Thank you for your time!

Appendix H
Online-assisted Survey

Online-Assisted Survey

Please check the correct response to the question and add your comments where asked.

1. How would you rate the instruction in this class?

☐ **very poor** ☐ **poor** ☐ **fair** ☐ **good** ☐ **excellent**

2. How would you rate your learning of the basic course concepts?

☐ **very poor** ☐ **poor** ☐ **fair** ☐ **good** ☐ **excellent**

3. How confident do you feel in being prepared to give your presentations?

☐ **very poor** ☐ **poor** ☐ **fair** ☐ **good** ☐ **excellent**

Comments from #1, #2, & #3:

4. Would you have liked more classroom instruction in this class?

☐ **yes** ☐ **no**

Why or why not? (please write your response in the space below)

5. Would you have liked more conferences with your instructor?

☐ **yes** ☐ **no**

Why or why not? (please write your response in the space below)

6. Please rate the communication with your instructor by e-mail?

☐ **very poor** ☐ **poor** ☐ **fair** ☐ **good** ☐ **excellent**

Comments:

7. Please rate your experience with CourseInfo.

☐ **very poor** ☐ **poor** ☐ **fair** ☐ **good** ☐ **excellent**

Comments:

8. Would you recommend this type of a Public Speaking class to a friend?

___ **yes** ___ **no**

Why or why not?

Appendix I
Traditional Class Survey

Traditional Class Survey

1. How would you rate the instruction in this class?

☐ **very poor** ☐ **poor** ☐ **fair** ☐ **good** ☐ **excellent**

3. How would you rate your learning of the basic course concepts?

☐ **very poor** ☐ **poor** ☐ **fair** ☐ **good** ☐ **excellent**

3. How confident do you feel in being prepared to give your presentations?

☐ **very poor** ☐ **poor** ☐ **fair** ☐ **good** ☐ **excellent**

Comments from #1, #2, & #3:

4. Would you have liked individual conferences with your instructor in place of some of the lectures?

☐ **yes** ☐ **no**

Why or why not? (please write your response in the space below)

5. Would you have been willing to do work online (on the Web) in order to have these conferences?

___ **yes** ___ **no**

Why or why not? (please write your response in the space below)

6. How would you rate the communication with your instructor?

___ **very poor** ___ **poor** ___ **fair** ___ **good** ___ **excellent**

Comments:

7. Would you recommend this type of a Public Speaking class to a friend?

___ **yes** ___ **no**

Why or why not?

VITA

Rodney K. Marshall was born in Olton, Texas on September 11, 1953. He attended elementary schools in Moore, Oklahoma and Denison, Texas. He attended Junior High in Honey Grove, Texas and graduated High School in Dublin, Texas in May, 1971. He graduated from South Plains Junior College in Levelland, Texas in May, 1974. He then attended and graduated from Sunset School of Preaching in Lubbock, Texas in July, 1976. He later attended and graduated from Lubbock Christian University of Lubbock, Texas in December, 1990 with two bachelor's degrees (B. S. Ed. & B. A.). He later received a Master of Education degree in December, 1992 from Texas Tech University in Lubbock, Texas. He later earned a second degree, Master of Arts, from Texas Tech University in August, 1996.

He preached for the church of Christ from 1974 through 1984. He later was General Manager of the Post Dispatch in Post, Texas from 1985 to 1989 when he went back to school to finish his Bachelor's degrees. He taught for two years (1993 - 1995) as a special education instructor for the Lubbock Independent School District. In August, 1996, he entered the doctoral program in Communications at the University of Tennessee. He received the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Communications with a major in Information Sciences and a minor in Speech Communication in August, 2001.

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