SOME INFLUENCES OF A COURSE IN BUSINESS SPEAKING ON CERTAIN PERSONALITY TRAITS OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

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SOME INFLUENCES OF A COURSE IN BUSINESS SPEAKING
ON CERTAIN PERSONALITY TRAITS
OF COLLEGE STUDENTS.

Presented to the Graduate Council of the
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By

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>List of Tables</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>1. INTRODUCTION</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Purposes of the Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hypotheses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Background and Significance of the Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Limitations of the Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Procedures for Collecting the Data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Treatment of the Data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter Bibliography</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nature and Significance of the Self-Concept</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nature of the Self</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Stability of the Self-Concept</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Speech Proficiency and Personality Variables</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Early Studies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Later Studies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter Bibliography</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection and Description of the Subjects</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Description of Instruments</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Procedure for Collecting the Data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Variables of the Study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistical Treatment of the Data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chapter Bibliography</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>IV. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter</td>
<td>Page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Findings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX A: PERSONAL BACKGROUND DATA</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX B: SYLLABUS FOR SPEECH 110 BUSINESS SPEAKING</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDIX C: COURSE OUTLINE - PSYCHOLOGY 163</td>
<td>93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BIBLIOGRAPHY</td>
<td>95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>Significance of Mean Differences Between Groups Using the Tennessee Self Concept Scale</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>Mean Differences Among Groups Using the Tennessee Self Concept Scale</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>Significance of Mean Differences Between Groups Using the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>Mean Differences Among Groups Using the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Description of Scales, GZTS</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Description of Categories, TSCS</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The central importance of the concept of self to the study of human personality has long been recognized by psychologists, sociologists, medical practitioners, and others whose pursuits focus on the development of appropriate behavior. Murphy observes,

"Whatever the self is, it becomes a center, an anchorage point, a standard of comparison, an ultimate real. Inevitably it takes its place as a supreme value. To those few for whom it does not, apathy and self-destruction offer ready invitations (15, p. 498)."

Recognition of the vital role of the perceived self in the integration of personality leads to a second observation of comparable importance. The self-concept must be healthy and acceptable if the person is to be reasonably well adjusted to his environment. In this regard Eisenberg states:

"Self-concept, the individual's inner view of himself vis-a-vis the world of others, is a large and inclusive domain. I shall limit my comments to one area: the sense of potency--the extent to which the individual thinks he is capable of attaining success through his own efforts. The man we take to be well-integrated has a conviction of competence in managing his affairs, unless there are extra-ordinary circumstances (6, p. 10)."

Closely related to the self-concept in nature and importance is the attribute of self-confidence. Samuel Johnson observed that "Self confidence is the first requisite to great
undertakings." The question, then, of how a positive self-regard can be furthered should make legitimate and justifiable claims on the attention of educational administrators and counselors. It is at this point that the possible contributions of training in speech become pertinent. The close relationship between speech and personality has been noted by speech educators, classroom teachers, and others for many years. As early as 1939 Elwood Murray pointed out: "The speech attitude is the main indicator of the degree of integration" (16, p. 68). Other writers have noted the interest among scholars in studying the way in which the presence or absence of certain speaking skills not only represents personality, but also has an influence in shaping personality (24, p. 11).

If speech can be considered to be a valid manifestation of personality, as it is here postulated to be, there follows the assumption that training in speech skills may be an effective tool in the development of positive self-concepts. Psychologists and sociologists are in general agreement that the self-concept is subject to change by experience. It was the intent of the present study to continue and extend the existing body of research that is concerned with investigating the experience of speech training as a possible agent of self-concept change. The thirty years that have elapsed since initial studies were begun have been relatively unproductive both as to volume and conclusiveness of research on
the subject. This study attempted to add clarity to areas of indefiniteness. For example, only two reported studies involved psychology students. One of these found no significant difference in self-concept between psychology students and non-psychology students (5). The other study found no significant difference between speech students and psychology students, taken as whole groups (13). However, both groups showed changes in self-concept, but in different aspects.

The present study compared three groups at one time, namely, speech, psychology, and physical education students, in an attempt to develop data that would help to clarify the areas of information which have remained nebulous. Newer instruments of research have become available in recent years, and have given considerable promise of success. These should prove helpful in providing fresh dimensions of understanding in the area of the self-concept.

Another aspect of the reported body of research is the fact that although a few studies have been concerned with such areas of speech training as debate, oral reading, and dramatics, most of the investigation has centered on the beginning speech course. The present study added still a new approach to the type of speech training to be studied, since it utilized a specially-designed course of speech training tailored specifically for business majors, and required as a part of their standard curriculum. The pertinence of this point becomes increasingly apparent in view of the lack of
studies relating to the possible effect of speech training on business majors. At the same time, administrators of both speech and business schools are in definite need of valid data in this realm. This study sought to gather information which would add further light to this somewhat obscure area of inquiry. The results should prove of possible value to administrators, guidance personnel, and teacher training faculties, as well as to practitioners of speech and business education.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to investigate the influence of a course in business speaking on certain aspects of self-concept and self-confidence of college students. Measurement was done by fifteen categories and the Total Positive Score of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale, and three scales of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (7, 9).

purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study were as follows:

1. To determine whether students enrolled in a college-level business speaking course in the spring semester of 1968 at North Texas State University would make significantly greater changes in self-concept during that semester than would two groups of non-speech students enrolled in a beginning psychology course and in a physical education course, as measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale categories.
2. To determine whether students enrolled in a college-level business speaking course in the spring semester of 1958 at North Texas State University would make significantly greater changes in self-confidence during that semester than would two groups of non-speech students enrolled in a beginning psychology course and in a physical education course, as measured by three scales of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey.

Hypotheses

Consistent with the above purposes the following hypotheses were formulated for statistical treatment.

1. Students who have taken a business speaking course will make significantly greater gains than students not taking a business speaking course in the mean scores of fifteen categories and the Total Positive Score of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale.

(a) Physical identity  (i) Family acceptance
(b) Moral-ethical identity  (j) Social acceptance
(c) Personal identity  (k) Physical behavior
(d) Family identity  (l) Moral-ethical behavior
(e) Social identity  (m) Personal behavior
(f) Physical acceptance  (n) Family behavior
(g) Moral-ethical acceptance  (o) Social behavior
(h) Personal acceptance  (p) Total Positive Score

2. Students who have taken a business speaking course will make significantly greater gains in the mean scores of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey scales of (a) Ascendence, (b) Sociability, and (c) Emotional stability than will students not taking the business speaking course.
Background and Significance of the Study

An early experimental study by Glenn E. Moore established a relationship between enrollment in a course of speech training on the one hand and personality change on the other. This study was quite likely the stimulating influence for a number of related studies during the ensuing decade and a half (14). Although a few of the studies were focused on subjects at the high school level, the majority of them involved college students. Hunter reported that speech and personality behaviors do not appear as differentiated and clearly definable among high school students as is true of more mature groups (10, p. 53). Unfortunately, the research studies dealing with the relationships between speech instruction and personality variables appear to have been uncoordinated and spasmodic. The studies thus resulted in some interesting but inconclusive data concerning a potentially important area of investigation.

Studies involving adolescent subjects are important because the entire adolescent time span is currently subject to additional pressures which a few years ago were unprecedented. Although adolescence has for centuries been recognized as a period of storm and stress, current pressures imposed by school, parents, and modern social transition have posed additional problems for the adolescent, and have aggravated those which have been his common heritage. Adolescence is truly a vulnerable period (21, p. 369).
Breckenridge and Vincent point out that personality is based on two basic factors: natural endowment and experience (1, p. 355). Since endowment is relatively static, personality remains to be developed and strengthened through channels of experience. The building of confidence in an individual can be done by developing skills that will enhance his image among his all-important age-mates (1, p. 349). Speech proficiency, constituting as it does the basis of communication, learning, and social interaction, represents a confidence-building skill by which to develop and enhance the highly significant self-picture.

Experimental subjects for the present study were students enrolled in a course in business speaking. This course is listed in the Bulletin of North Texas State University as Speech 110, Business Speaking (2). The syllabus for the course notes two closely-related objectives, as follows:

To develop—to the limits of an introductory course—the student's ability to discharge his responsibility as an educated citizen in a democracy and to understand the place of oral communication in business and industry. To learn through practice those fundamental rhetorical principles which enable the competent person to participate, both effectively and ethically, in a variety of social situations. (See Appendix B.)

A justifiable interpretation of the meaning of these two-fold objectives would seem to be the development of competent, responsible participants of a society. By what means is this to be accomplished? It is the assumption of speech educators that increased proficiency in speaking skills will make a
major contribution to the course objectives. While this assumption is probably an acceptable one, it does not point out the next step which needs to follow in the progression of thought at this point. This is the step which ascribes to speech proficiency the ability to assist in building the acceptable self-concept so necessary to the competent citizen. It is this latter step with which the present study purports to deal. Evaluation of the success of course objectives is highly difficult, due to the fact that by the time the subjects themselves have taken their places in their society and have arrived at a point at which the extent of effectiveness as a citizen might be assessed, they are no longer easily available to the logical assessing agency, namely, their alma mater. Even if they were, the criteria for assessment would be difficult to establish. If, therefore, some means of assessing the effects of speech training upon the vital self-concept could be made while the subjects were still available, the cause of education might be furthered through the use of the resulting data.

Definitions of Terms

In order to facilitate understanding of terms used in this study, the following definitions are offered. The definitions for the first three terms listed below are taken from the Manual of Instructions and Interpretations of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (9).
1. Ascendance. A quality of personality characterized by positive leadership habits, self-defense, speaking with individuals, speaking in public, persuading others, and being conspicuous.

2. Emotional stability. A quality of personality characterized by evenness of moods, optimism, composure, and feelings of good health.

3. Sociability. A quality of personality evidenced by entering into conversations, liking social activities, seeking social contacts, having many friends and acquaintances, and being willing to occupy the limelight.


5. P score. The positive score for each category of self-concept measured by the Tennessee Self Concept Scale.

6. Total P Score. The sum of the individual P scores on the Tennessee Self Concept Scale for each subject.

7. Self-confidence. "Self-confidence" refers to a positive self-concept as measured by the scores of three selected scales of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey.

8. Self-concept. Self-perception as measured by the fifteen categories and total positive score of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale.

Limitations of the Study

The following limiting factors should be kept in mind in considering the results of this study:
1. Findings of the study will necessarily be applicable only to the conditions under which the investigation was conducted.

2. Data accumulated will be qualified by the degree of efficiency of the measuring instruments.

3. The time span during which the study was conducted encompassed only one semester.

4. The participating subjects were students enrolled in classes of business speaking, psychology, and physical education only. No control over the possible effects of other types of study courses was attempted.

5. The number of participating subjects, while considered to be sufficient for the scope of this study, was not large enough to justify definitive generalizations.

Procedures for Collecting the Data

1. Eight hundred and twelve students enrolled at North Texas State University were selected as subjects. Of this total, 260 students enrolled in eleven sections of Speech 110 (henceforth referred to as speech) comprised the experimental group. Two hundred and ninety students were enrolled in eight sections of Psychology 163, a beginning course in psychology; and 262 students were enrolled in five sections of men and women's physical education courses. The psychology and physical education students comprised two control groups. All classes were randomly selected.
2. At the beginning of the spring semester, 1968, the students in all three groups were administered the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the first half of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey.

3. Prior to the administration of the pre-test, meetings were held with the instructors of the three groups involved in the study. The purposes and procedures of the study were discussed and agreed upon. The departmental administration of the Department of Speech and Drama, which conducted the course Speech 110, had structured the presentation of the course content in such a way that procedure in all classes was highly uniform. The syllabus (see Appendix B) was strictly adhered to by each instructor, with an unvarying time schedule observed for each course activity. Weekly meetings of all instructors of the course were held at a regular time, in order to insure as much uniformity of content presentation and student assignments as possible. The course outline for the psychology classes (see Appendix C) was also followed by each instructor. The speech classes and psychology classes alike were carefully supervised by senior members of the departmental faculties.

4. At the first administration of the two instruments all subjects were asked to complete a personal data sheet (see Appendix A) which included information concerning any speech courses taken prior to the one in which they were currently enrolled. In order to avoid the possible
confounding effect of prior speech training, all students who indicated having had previous courses in speech, whether in high school or by private courses, were excluded from the data tabulations.

5. The post-test, consisting of the readministration of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey, was presented to the same subjects during the fourteenth week of the semester.

Treatment of the Data

The data obtained from the administration of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (hereafter called the TSCS) and the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (hereafter called GZTS) were processed by the computer center at North Texas State University. The .05 level of significance was designated as the point of rejection of the statistical null hypothesis.

All hypotheses were tested by analysis of variance. If significance was found, Fisher's t was used to locate the specific area or areas of significance.

Summary

The perceived self, and the acceptance or rejection of that self, are of primary importance to the integration of personality. The positive self-concept that is so necessary to the satisfactory adjustment of the individual to his environment must be developed through experiences of success in the eyes of "important others". Such experiences can
often result from the acquisition of skills which command admiration, such as skill in speaking ability. Thus, the relationship between speech and personality development becomes pertinent, lending significance to effective training in speech.

This study investigated the influence of a course in business speaking on the self-concept and self-confidence of randomly selected students in three groups, namely, subjects enrolled in business speaking, in beginning psychology, and in beginning physical education. Comparisons were made of the scores obtained from the TSCS and the CZTS at the beginning and at the end of one semester. It was hypothesized that the post-test scores on these instruments would show significant improvement of the subjects' self-concepts and self-confidence.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A study of the relationship of speech training to certain aspects of personality must necessarily recognize the place of central importance which the self-concept occupies in personality organization and structure. For this reason, the first division of the chapter concerns representative writings related to the nature and importance of the self-concept as it provides the reference point by which orientation is made to the individual's physical and social environment. The second division of the chapter presents a review of pertinent studies of the relationship between differing aspects of speech proficiency and personality variables. A summary of each division follows immediately the review of literature pertaining to it.

The research cited in this chapter incorporates a large majority of the studies appearing in the literature. The inclusion of the studies was intended to serve as a review of those studies which appeared representative of the problem here being investigated. It is not intended to be a comprehensive review of all that has been done in these areas.
Nature and Significance of the Self-Concept

One of the most useful and productive concepts thus far introduced into the fields of psychology and sociology is that of the self. Although a subject which claimed attention as long ago as the time of the early Greeks, and perhaps earlier, the self-concept did not become a significant focus of scholarly thought before the present century. Even then, the first forty years of the nineteen hundreds passed before the concept of self found its way into the mainstream of psychology and sociology (37).

Nature of the Self

In the years immediately prior to the turn of the century William James offered some observations on the self (23, p. 371). He analyzed the self in terms of its constituent parts, which he believed included such elements as body, traits, characteristics, abilities, aspirations, and even such socially affiliated items as family, work, possessions, and friends. James went so far as to develop a formula which purported to represent the maintenance of self-esteem, namely, Self-esteem = Success/Pretensions (37). Charles H. Cooley, a sociologist, postulated the self as being experience involving "self-feeling". He stated that "the emotion or feeling of self may be regarded as instinctive, and was doubtless evolved in connection with its important function in stimulating and unifying the special activities of individuals" (9, pp. 170-171).
Cooley, together with another sociologist, George H. Mead, later elaborated the development of the self as occurring through social interaction, a concept which later met with wide acceptance (39, 1). Such "personalistic" psychologists as Mary W. Calkins and Wilhelm Stern insisted that self-reference is an important element of all psychological activity. In general, however, the mainstream of psychology before 1940 was characterized mainly by an experimental orientation dominated by the models of Wundt and Titchener and by the behaviorism of Watson. Integrative concepts, such as those of the self, were not to become acceptable until later; and the growing interest in a self-concept appears to be reflected in the search for integrative concepts.

The scope of the concept of self and its relationships to other integrative concepts have thus far successfully eluded not only a general agreement among academicians, but also a precise crystallization of definition. One of the notable bases of divergence in this respect is centered on the question of whether self and ego are to be differentiated or whether they are terms which can be used interchangeably. Among those who distinguish between the two terms are Ausubel, Chein, Hilgard, Murphy, and Symonds. A pertinent example of such distinction comes from Murphy, who defined self as "the individual as known to the individual" (31, p. 996). "Ego", according to Murphy, although related closely to "Self", is not to be equated with it: "Ego: Group of
activities concerned with enhancement and defense of the self" (31, p. 984). Thus, "Self", as Murphy conceives it, is an entity or object, while "Ego" is a set of processes or activities.

Allport, Snygg and Combs, Sherif and Cantril, on the other hand, made no distinction in their use of the words self and ego. Such entanglements of terminology have led Allport to propose that the two labels be discarded in favor of newer ones which are free of historical encumbrances. There is reason to believe, however, that contemporary social psychologists have found ways to deal with their conceptualizations without crippling confusion over the differentiation of these two terms (37).

The early work of Koffka led him to consider the self as an isolated, independent element which could conceivably exist by itself: "In the first place it gives us a real basis for the scientific understanding of the development of a personality. For in all changes of the behavioral field the Ego remains as a segregated part" (24, p. 331). If the self were an entity in its own right, then it could be observed from an objective, external point of view. The work of Adler, Mead, Hilgard, Angyal, Allport, Snygg and Combs, however, brought them into some conflict with Koffka's approach to the nature of the self. These latter psychologists recognized that "self-concept" was more nearly a representation of all that the individual thinks of as "I"
or "me", and must, therefore, be conceived within a personal frame of reference (19). Through modern research the self-concept has tended to emerge not as a mere sum of isolated concepts of self, but instead, an integrated synthesis of these components. Such elements become the basis for self-reference in relation to the individual's expectations of his rights, responsibilities, and capacities, of his position and commitments on matters of moral judgment, and of his actions and reactions in a given set of circumstances. It is his view of these elements which gives him a unique self-identity.

Surveys of theoretical and empirical literature suggest that the self is not innate. Combs expressed it as follows:

The self-concept is not something you are born with. It is something each of us learns as a consequence of his experience with those who surround him in the process of his growing up. We learn that we are men or women, able or unable, acceptable or unacceptable, liked or unliked, depending upon the kinds of experiences we have had in the process of growing up (8, p. 14).

One of the most prominent conclusions of investigators since the beginning of the present century is the premise that the self is developmental in nature, evolving through interaction with the physical and social environment. Beginning with the infant's gradual differentiation between its own body and the surrounding environment, the concept of self slowly encompasses a more complex scope of experience within an ever-increasing perimeter. Such expansion of the self-limits incorporates variables in time, space, kinds of other persons.
to be included or excluded, and geographical range (37). The maturity of the self-concept may be assessed in terms of the extent to which such development has occurred in a given individual. Although "important other" adults exert a marked effect on the development of the self-concept, it is his own age-mates whose influence on the child's self-concept is most strongly felt. The development of interaction with age-mates by which such influence is transmitted may be seen in the patterns of play among young children. Such patterns proceed from the isolated parallel forms, in which children, although side by side, engage in separate play activities, to the more cooperative forms in which children pool their efforts and resources to accomplish common goals.

In regard to the development of the self-concept and the influence of age-mates, referred to above, Ghiselli studied the relationship of the maturity of self-perception to managerial success (14). He defined maturity in relative terms as the extent to which the individual is more nearly like those older than he rather than like those younger than he. Ghiselli concluded that the more nearly an individual's self-image is like that of the average person of his age, the more likely he is to be successful in managerial positions. In this respect, at least, the appropriateness of the maturity of the self-concept would seem to outweigh the extent of such maturity in importance.
Another aspect of self-concept and self-appraisal pertains to the reference groups to which the individual relates. Sherif referred to studies by Bugental and Zelen, and by Kuhn and McPartland which indicated that a person's usual answer to the question, "Who am I?" is his name and social classifications. Sherif considered this finding to suggest that "each social category carries a complex of characteristics and positions within it that etch the specifics of a self image whether the individual actually belongs to that category or not" (37, p. 156). The implication of this observation which was of pertinence to the present discussion lies in the fact that the self-concept is greatly shaped by the social characteristics of the groups in which the individual places himself. The physical and social environments in which sets of people live give rise to varying systems of customs and values which are more or less complex, and which serve to mold the individual's self-concept in individualistic ways. It is the person's self-classification with respect to these groups which yields great influence upon the self-concept. Individuals who live and function in complex modern societies frequently belong to multiple groups, some of which may hold conflicting values in specified areas. Such instances are likely to create situations demanding a choice. If the choices prove to be difficult, painful psychological confusion may result (37, p. 157). This phenomenon of the relationship between the self and the reference group may be
a major consideration in effecting the relative stability of
the self-concept which has been observed by researchers in
recent years.

Stability of the Self-Concept

The stability of the self-concept is dependent upon the
relative stability of the elements which compose it. Dis-
ruption of the moorings which secure the equilibrium of the
self-concept poses an immediate threat to the integrity of
the personality. Disturbance of self-attitudes is likely to
be uncomfortable and even painful. The individual thus
defends the self-concept by resisting any forces which are
perceived as potential agents of change. The amount of
resistance varies with the extent of personal involvement.
On matters of relatively minor importance, resistance will
be less than on matters of strong discrepant commitment.
Sherif quotes James's apt description of this point as fol-
lows:

I, who for the time have staked my all on
being a psychologist, am mortified if others know
much more psychology than I. But I am contented
to wallow in the grossest ignorance of Greek . . . .
Had I "Pretensions" to be a linguist, it would
have been just the reverse (37, p. 157).

Stability and change of the self-concept are also
affected by the factors of age and experience. These two are
mentioned together, since the one often accompanies the
other. Concerning the effect of age upon a changing of the
self-concept, Sherif writes:
... all known cultures present periods or stages in human development requiring alteration of the self concept as it is formed at the time. The years of transition from childhood to adulthood and the years of old age are two such periods. These particular transitions are marked by bodily changes that impel a change in self (37, p. 155).

Hurlock noted that the physique of the adolescent, particularly with reference to size, sex appropriateness, and personal attractiveness, tends to affect the reactions of others toward him (21). Since "The self is learned from the looking-glass held up for us by others," as Combs expressed it (8, p. 77), the reactions of other persons directly influence the adolescent's attitude toward himself. Deviations from culturally accepted norms, such as size, or weight, or unusually prominent features such as nose or ears, all have an unfavorable effect on the self-image. If such physical deviations are so severe as to become actual defects, the effect is likely to be particularly damaging, and may result in neurotic tendencies, general negativeness, lack of self-confidence, and impaired mental health (21).

Change of the self-concept may be brought about as a result of perceiving an event in a new perspective. When an individual cannot change a distressing event, he may adjust to it by restructuring his way of regarding it. Similarly, a change of perspective may be applied to other individuals as well as to events and objects.

Another factor which can serve as an agent of change is the direct provision of a specified experience. An example
of this factor, suggested by Combs (8), is the carefully planned and executed course of training, such as a speech course, upon selected subjects.

Interaction with other persons provides the landmarks by which the self-concept is developed. It is by means of such interactions that the child begins to acquire spoken language, beginning at a slow rate and rapidly accelerating.

"The acquisition of language is the single event most responsible for producing the consistency in behavior that requires postulation of a self system" (37, p. 154).

Summary

In summary, the self-concept, which may be thought of as an integrated synthesis of all the elements which the individual includes as constituting himself, is central to the organization of personality. The self-concept serves as a reference point by which the person may assess his own thoughts, feelings, and activities, as well as those of others about him. Far from being innate, the self-concept is developmental in nature through interaction with the social and physical environment. Because of its extreme value to the individual, the self-concept is zealously defended against injury, and strategems are developed for its enhancement. Nevertheless, changes of self-concept are forced upon the individual from time to time by various sources, and may cause psychological strains which can develop into marked problems.
of personality in the absence of acceptable stabilizing influences. The acquisition of language is of paramount importance in the formative process of the self-concept.

Speech Proficiency and Personality Variables

The second major division of this chapter, as previously stated in the introduction, is concerned with research studies investigating the relationships between different types of speech education and certain personality variables as represented by the sub-scales of available personality inventories.

The studies are organized in chronological sequence according to types of instruments used. With few exceptions, the first group of studies, beginning with Hunter in 1935 and extending to Gillis in 1947, were characterized by their use of a common instrument, namely, *The Personality Inventory*, by Bernreuter. These studies attempted to relate speaking proficiency to the sub-scales of this instrument. The second group of studies began with Paulson's project in 1951 and extended to the present. These later experimenters broke away from the experimental stereotype of their predecessors and struck out on their own search for other criteria measures of personality change. Individually developed Q-sorts, the Edwards *Personal Preference Schedule*, Gilkinson's *Personal Report on Confidence as a Speaker*, the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey *Study of Values*, and *The Adjustment Inventory*, by Bell, all were representatives...
Early Studies

An early study of the relationship between quality of speech performance and certain aspects of personality was conducted by Hunter (20). Two hundred high school students were given the Bernreuter Personality Inventory. Twenty-seven of the highly introverted were compared with twenty-eight highly extroverted individuals in a comprehensive survey of their speech behavior, as measured by the Sara Stinchfield Spontaneous Speech Response Test. Hunter's data showed that opposite personality types underlay similar speech behavior among his subjects. Thus, both the introverts and the extroverts were either extremely good or extremely poor speakers. He also concluded that speech-personality behavior does not appear as differentiated and clearly definable among high school students as among more mature groups. Although Hunter's work was somewhat limited in scope and applicability, it was of some value in stimulating interest in related research on the part of others.

Glenn Moore made a study of sixty-one speech students in the college-level beginning speech course and fifty-five non-speech students. Moore assessed the effect of the speech training in the areas of emotional stability, self-sufficiency, introversion-extroversion, and dominance-submission, as measured by The Personality Inventory (29). Although there were no significant changes among the control group, there
were significant positive changes in the four specified areas among subjects in the experimental group.

The relationship between speech training and experience on the one hand and personality traits on the other was conducted by Tracy (41). In this case a comparison was made between two different aspects of speech activity, namely, public speaking and dramatic art. Thirty-six mature public speakers of both sexes were compared with thirty-six mature actors and actresses on eleven traits using the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability, the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, and the Allport-Vernon Study of Values test.

The subjects who made up the public speaking group had had no dramatic training or experience. They included influential citizens of reputation as effective speakers, such as United States attorneys, judges, local and state political leaders, and business and professional men and women who were prominent in their respective communities in and around Denver. The actors and actresses were professionals in their field, or were persons who considered the stage as their chief avocation. In all but one sub-test, that of economic interest, there was a statistically significant difference in the scores of the two groups. The public speakers were less neurotic, more extrovertive, more self-sufficient, more dominant, having less aesthetic interest, but having more theoretical, social, political, and religious interest than the professional actors. Tracy's study appeared to add
credence to the theory that there is a close relationship between certain personality variables and successful public speaking ability.

Murray studied the twenty-five superior and twenty-five inferior speakers from a group of 125 students of college speech courses, using the Bernreuter Personality Inventory to seek a possible relationship between personality variables and speech proficiency. Murray reported that the better speakers were extraordinarily high in self-sufficiency and dominance, and tended toward extroversion. The poor speakers showed opposite characteristics of personality, scoring low in self-sufficiency. They were markedly introverted, sometimes to a point indicative of pronounced neuroticism. In addition, they tended to be very submissive. Murray's study did not attempt to assess the effects of speech courses, as such, on personality. Rather, he noted the strong correlation between those who were rated by their instructors as good speech students and positive scores on the Bernreuter inventory. There was a correspondingly strong correlation between poor speakers and negative scores on the Bernreuter instrument (32, p. 99). Murray stated that the differences between the two groups were all statistically significant.

A study by Chenoweth included 877 freshman students enrolled in a beginning speech course. Subjects were classified as to extent of being well-adjusted or poorly adjusted
speakers, using the Process of Adjustment to the Speaking Situation as a classifying instrument. An investigation of the introversion-extroversion and dominance-submission traits of 100 well-adjusted speakers and 100 poorly-adjusted speakers was made through the administration of the Bernreuter Personality Inventory. Although no statistical results were reported, more well-adjusted than maladjusted speakers exhibited a bias toward dominance, and the reverse was true regarding submission. The two groups showed a similar bias toward introversion and extroversion. Chenoweth concluded that the chief systematic difference between the two groups was that the well adjusted group had a continuous and varied record of speaking experience and speech training from early childhood through high school (7, pp. 585-588).

Eckert and Keys reported some interesting and, perhaps, unexpected data regarding the correlation between student characteristics as speakers, as rated by a team of speech instructors, and scores on the Bernreuter Personality Inventory and the Bell Adjustment Inventory. One hundred fifty-six college students were rated, of whom approximately one-half were freshmen, with girls slightly outnumbering boys. Each subject spoke briefly on two occasions and on different topics, and were rated on seven elements of speaking quality by qualified speech instructors. The study by Eckert and Keys indicated that relationships between the speaking qualities considered and personality traits measured by the
instruments used are "extremely small"; that an individual's speaking ability is much more closely associated with abstract intelligence than with neuroticism, self-confidence, sociability, or social and emotional adjustment; and that those subjects who made comparatively unfavorable showings on the personality inventories were, on the average, the better speakers (12, p. 153). These findings were contrary to those by other investigators as summarized by Dow (11, pp. 111-112).

Five years after Glenn Moore's study, Rose conducted a similar project designed to ascertain whether the personality traits of speech students, as measured by the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, differ from those traits among non-speech students. He also wanted to determine whether beginning speech courses at the college level can have any effect on such traits in one semester. His data indicated no statistically significant initial difference between speech students and non-speech students regarding neurotic tendency and dominance-submission. Although the speech groups consistently surpassed the non-speech groups in score gains, the mean differences in gains for the two groups were not statistically significant, and Rose reported that his results were inconclusive (35, pp. 194-195).

Gilkinson's approach to an assessment of the effect of speech training on personality factors was to compare two groups of speech students receiving different amounts of
formal speech training within a given period of time (15). He attempted to determine whether the rise in test scores would be proportional to the amount of time spent in training. Gilkinson made use of two different sequences of speech instruction offered at the University of Minnesota. In one sequence the students attended class three hours per week, while the other sequence offered five hours of instruction per week. Both sequences continued through the same two quarters. He departed from the use of the Bernreuter inventory by administering the Knower Speech Attitude Scale and the Minnesota Inventory of Social Behavior as pre- and post-tests to the students in both instructional sequences. Subjects were matched for college of registration and sex. The findings indicated that not only was there improvement in scores between the initial and the final tests, but the improvement was proportional to the amount of formal instruction received by the subjects. Gilkinson concluded that his findings indicated a functional relationship between test score changes and speech training. The investigator, however, did not describe the content of the courses of training.

Wilbur E. Moore made a study of improvers and non-improvers in the college-level beginning speech course. Moore utilized the Speech Attitude Scale and the Bernreuter Personality Inventory and administered these tests only one month apart (30). No significant differences between
improvers and non-improvers was found. No attempt was made to control the initial position of the two groups (38, p. 201).

Henrikson was also interested in the effects of speech training on self-confidence in speaking situations. A self-rating questionnaire was administered to 205 students in a college-level beginning speech course and fifty non-speech students in the same institution at both the beginning and the end of a quarter-term. The scale, which attempted to measure the extent of stage fright, provided a ten-point scale on seven types of speaking situations. Henrikson's findings indicated that speech training generally promotes confidence in speaking situations (17, p. 491).

Mehlhouse surveyed ninety speech students and 213 non-speech students at the high school level in an attempt to discover if there were significant differences in self-confidence between the two groups as applied to formal and informal speaking situations. Using a fourteen-item questionnaire which she devised for the purpose, Mehlhouse concluded that results based on student opinion indicated high school speech students developed greater self-confidence as a result of their training. No statistical applications were employed, however (26, pp. 78-80).

More than a decade after Murray's study, Gillis conducted a similar investigation of difference in certain personality traits between "superior" and "inferior" speech
students, again using the Bernreuter Personality Inventory (16). Gillis recognized the possibility that the superior group was simply manifesting traits characteristic of all superior college students, with a similar possibility that the same would be true at the opposite end of the continuum for the inferior students. Gillis used four non-speech control groups. These groups were composed of honor graduates in each of the four fields of social science, natural science, art, and music. Gillis found a correlation between speech superiority and a high degree of self-sufficiency, dominance, and self-confidence. No relationship was found between speech superiority and neuroticism, nor between speech superiority and introversion. Dow in an earlier study concluded that there was a relationship between ability in public speaking and personality (11, pp. 111-112).

Later Studies

The second group of speech studies began with Paulson's work in 1951. Paulson noted that some students in the college-level beginning speech course improve very little in speaking ability, while others show marked improvement. The Gilkinson Personal Report on Confidence as a Speaker was used to assess the extent of improvement in confidence. In order to equate initial scores as nearly as possible, the distribution of such scores was divided into five equal segments of fifteen scale points each. The twenty-five percent who
improved most in confidence were compared with the twenty-five percent who improved least, within each segment. The Bell Adjustment Inventory mean scores of the two groups were then compared. The comparison showed 1) significant increases in confidence during a ten-week period, 2) a greater gain in social adjustment scores among confidence improvers than among non-improvers, and 3) confidence remained unaffected by a change in audience type (34, p. 265).

Paulson's study was repeated four years later by Sikkink, who used an additional measuring instrument, the Minnesota T-S-E Inventory, for assessing introversion-extroversion. Subjects included 229 college students in the beginning speech course, with a pre-post administration of test instruments. Like Paulson, Sikkink found significant increases in confidence among his subjects. Findings showed that improvers in confidence made higher scores on social extroversion-introversion (38, p. 205).

A survey of literature revealed certain studies that have been concerned with the relationship between speech training and the self-concept of the speech student. Studies involving the change of self-concept among psychology students, however, appeared with much less frequency. Of the two referent studies cited here, one investigation by Corey compared experimental groups of college-level beginning psychology students with control groups of non-psychology
students as to their self-concept of speaking ability (10). The other study, conducted by Miyamoto, Crowell, and Katcher, investigated the effect of participation in a certain speech course on self-concepts of communicative skill, using students in a beginning psychology course as controls (28). It was the latter study—the only one of its particular design that was found—which holds special interest at this point, due primarily to its close similarity to the present study.

The purpose of the study by Miyamoto, Crowell, and Katcher was to assess the influence of a basic speech course on student concepts of speaking and listening abilities. The hypothesis was that the speech students would show greater increases in their self-concept scores than would psychology students. No significant differences were noted in the amount of change between the two groups, however. There were certain implications of the findings for the present study. Both groups increased their self-concept scores between testing times, but on different items, as indicated in the report of the study:

Speech students increased their scores particularly on items referring to confidence in speaking before others, ability to persuade others, and ability to express themselves in a clear and well-organized manner. On the other hand, psychology students reflected an increase of self-confidence with regard to the clarity of their ideas. . . (28, p. 73).

A study by Shepherd and Scheidel focused on the effects on personality of still another area of speech training and
proficiency, namely, that of oral reading (36). Using seventy-two undergraduate students in the beginning oral reading course at the University of Washington, the investigators sought to test three hypotheses regarding personality differences between 1) effective and ineffective oral readers, 2) between effective oral readers and normative college populations, and 3) between ineffective oral readers and normative college populations. Subjects were divided into relatively effective and relatively ineffective groups. The Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, and Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, and an Oral Reading Rating Scale developed by the experimenters were the instruments used. The standard technique for independent groups was applied to the data collected.

The findings supported the first hypothesis on all items except one, namely, the Aesthetic scale of the Study of Values, as based on the student-selected groups. On this scale the effective readers scored significantly higher than the ineffective readers. The comparisons for the second hypothesis showed five statistically significant differences. The effective readers were higher on the Aesthetic and lower on the Social scale than was the normative population. The effective group was also higher on Autonomy and lower on Abasement and Nurturance. The third hypothesis was supported in all but one category, namely, the Social scale. Shepherd and Scheidel were of the opinion, however, that this
significance represented a "Type One" statistical error, and determined that the third hypothesis was supported, and the ineffective oral readers did not differ significantly from the normal college population.

The conclusions drawn from the study showed that effective oral readers differ significantly from ineffective readers and from normative college populations on social, aesthetic, and practical aspects of life. They are inclined to the aesthetic, are strongly motivated, and are relatively self-centered and ego-involved.

The postulate that speech training and ability are significantly related to certain personality variables would seem to justify the assumption that students can be differentiated as to public speaking ability on the basis of their scores on a personality inventory. Hetlinger and Hildreth used the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule to determine whether such an instrument could be used for this purpose (18). The instrument was administered to twenty-one male high school debaters, twenty-eight male college debaters, and twenty-three female college debaters, all of whom were considered "successful" by having won at least one interscholastic tournament. The t-test of significant differences in the scores of the debaters and a like number of non-debaters identified certain personality characteristics on which such differences emerged.
The successful male college debaters showed greater than average need for Achievement, Dominance, and Aggression, and less than average need for Affiliation with others, Abasement, and Change. Successful female college debaters were similar to their male counterparts in greater needs for Achievement, Dominance, and Aggression, and in fewer needs for Abasement. Male high school debaters showed a significantly greater need for Dominance, and less need for Abasement and Order. Hetlinger and Hildreth concluded that successful debaters have unique personality characteristics. No causal relationship was established or attempted.

Ferullo attempted to assess the congruence of self-concept relationships and personality trait areas between better and poorer college speakers, none of whom were speech majors. In his study, no training in speech was given. Two groups of thirty non-speech majors served as subjects, having been selected on the basis of their high or low scores on the Bryan-Wilke Speech Scale. The two groups were given a Q-sort instrument of 100 self-referent statements intended to assess extent of self-acceptance, independence, emotional control, and withdrawal. Ferullo found that the better speakers had higher scores in each of these traits except for withdrawal. The scores on the latter item were understandably lower than was true of the poorer speaker group (13).
The concept of self-confidence as a function of the self-image was explored by Bormann and Shapiro (2). Their study was based on the observation noted earlier in this chapter that the individual's self-concept is to a large degree developed as a mirror of the reactions of others toward himself. Bormann and Shapiro hypothesized that if this were, indeed, true of the generalized self-concept, it should likewise be true of more specific functions in which the self-concept is basically involved, such as a speaking situation. Thus, the self-image of a person as speaker should be based on the set of expectations he has developed regarding his speaking adequacy, as structured by the reactions of others. Such reactions might take the form of facial expressions, the nodding of heads, and comments from those who were in his audiences.

In order to test the hypothesis the experimenters selected as subjects the students in three sections of a course in fundamentals of speech at the University of Minnesota. By the use of Gilkinson's Personal Report of Confidence as a Speaker as a reliable test of cognitively-experienced stage fright, seventeen matched pairs of subjects were established by using the instrument with a public speaking assignment. One member of each pair was assigned to the experimental group, while the other member was assigned to the control group. After the pre-test the subjects were asked to select the "three most confident" and the "three
least confident" speakers. The experimental subjects were then interviewed individually and were told that they were rated as one of the "most confident" speakers by a large group of their classmates. They were asked to discuss the techniques which they had used to project such confidence to their audience. During the interview emphasis was placed on the rating of "most confident speaker" given to them by their classmates.

The following week they completed another speech assignment in which test scores were again taken. Analysis of variance showed a gain in mean difference which was significant at the .05 level of confidence in favor of the experimental group. Bormann and Shapiro concluded that the study supported the hypothesis that a person's self-concept is developed largely through his reactions to the way in which others regard him. They felt that this conclusion had helpful implications for the speech teacher in combating stage fright among speech students.

An interesting relationship appeared to exist between the study by Tracy and a study conducted several years later by Irwin (22). Tracy's study assessed certain personality variables among two groups of mature speech practitioners, one of which was composed of professional actors and actresses. Irwin studied the effect of training in dramatics on the personalities of children at the third grade level. Using the California Test of Personality, she compared an
experimental group of 149 children with a 163-member control group. A pre-test of the instrument administered to both groups revealed no significant differences in resulting scores. The experimental group participated in a fifteen-week program of creative dramatics once a week for forty minutes. The control group did not engage in such activities. Data from a post-administration of a different form of the same instrument indicated the following t-test results: a difference in personal adjustment at the .05 level of confidence, and a difference in social adjustment and total adjustment significant at the .01 level of confidence, with all differences favoring the experimental group. Irwin concluded that creative dramatics can produce measurable changes in specified aspects of personality.

Self-perception is, in general, widely influenced by the variable of age. Ghiselli became interested in the relationship between maturity of self-concept and managerial success (14). A sixty-four-item forced-choice adjective check list was administered to 846 men ranging in age from eighteen to sixty-seven, all of whom had completed at least one year of college. The results were correlated according to age groups, and a significant relationship on twenty-seven items was found. Thus, certain adjectives emerged as being characteristic of younger men, while a different group of adjectives were perceived by older men as characterizing themselves. Ghiselli found that a prominent characteristic
of an older person appears to be carefulness. They considered themselves as being thorough, meticulous, persevering, reticent in their relations with others, but fairminded, tolerant, and humble.

Younger persons seemed to place emphasis on three major aspects of self-concepts. First, they regarded themselves as being outgoing, warm, and understanding with respect to other persons. Secondly, they believed themselves to be intellectually keen, alert, and well-organized. Finally, they conceived of themselves as being serene, well-adjusted, and mature. Contrary to usual expectation, maturity of self-concept was not positively correlated with managerial success. Instead, a greater likelihood for such success lies with the person whose self-concept is most nearly similar to that for others of his own age. Difference in deviations from the mean between successful and unsuccessful managers was significant at the .01 level. Thus, the self-image does change with age, and appropriateness of the self-image appeared to be an important and desirable characteristic of personality (14).

Using 230 junior college students who were divided into an experimental group enrolled in the beginning psychology course and a non-psychology control group, Corey attempted to determine the effect of the psychology course on self-concept, self-acceptance, ideal self-concept, self-adjustment, and other attitudes. The instrument used was the Index.
of Adjustment and Values (10). Corey found no significant change in these variables as a result of the psychology course. The investigator concluded that the course itself did not seem to be of major significance in influencing students' attitudes (10).

Among other studies of the effects of the beginning speech course at the college level was that of Patton, using as an experimental group the students enrolled in the Fundamentals of Speech course at the University of Kansas (33). Four variables were studied, two of which were the attitude of the students toward the speaking situation, and degree of openmindedness. Significance of score differences between experimental and control groups was tested by the t technique. No significant difference was found to exist at the .05 level of confidence for either of the two variables mentioned above. Significant differences at the .05 level were not found on scores of openmindedness and organizational ability between students with high school speech training and those students without such training. In fact, students with high school speech training were last in all categories tested, suggesting that the high school course may have different goals and objectives than the college course, according to the conclusions of the investigator.

In studying the effect of speech training and participation on the self-concept, Butterfield varied the basis of her investigation so as to shift the emphasis from individual
speech activity to group speech activity (5). She formed three experimental groups and two control groups, each composed of three tenth grade boys, three tenth grade girls, two eleventh grade boys and two eleventh grade girls. The three experimental groups carried on group discussions during the course of one semester. One of these groups included discussion with stimuli, one group conducted discussions without stimuli, and one group conducted discussions with its own appointed leader. The two control groups were used for the purpose of controlling for the Hawthorne effect and for normal growth.

The TSCS used also in the present study was the instrument used to obtain measures of self reports, focusing on the discrepancy scores between the real self and the ideal self reports. Although the experimenter expected significant difference in the change of the real self report, and in the amount of discrepancy between the real self and ideal self reports as a result of the three types of group speech activities, no significant differences in these changes were found.

Butterfield concluded that the amount of change in self report as a result of group speech activities employed in her study is too small to warrant the use of group procedures. This finding further pointed up the importance of individual responsibility and of individual attention from instructor and fellow students in improving speech proficiency.
A study by Brandes was designed to measure stage fright on the basis of differential semantic reaction to the words *concern* and *stage fright*. Three hundred sixty-four students who were enrolled in the beginning speech course at Ohio University were divided into two groups. One group was given a test of five questions, each of which had five possible answers. One of the answers in each case involved a situation which could likely result in stage fright. Subjects were told to rank each answer from one to five in the order in which the answers gave them *concern* (covert form). The other group was given the same test, except that the word *concern* had been changed to *stage fright* (overt form). The findings showed that subjects who took the covert form retained more concern for the item involving stage fright than did the subjects who took the overt form. Although an interesting sidelight, these findings were of secondary interest to the present study. Of greater interest was the fact that at the end of the speech course both groups in the Brandes study showed reduced anxiety toward situations where stage fright was involved. This would indicate the effect of the course on student self-concept (3, pp. 142-146).

McCroskey surveyed 823 college students who were taking the basic speech course. A six-item semantic differential was administered for the concept of "My Speaking Ability" at the beginning and end of a semester. Two of the findings are pertinent here. First, a shift of attitude toward self-as-
speaker was discovered which showed improvement beyond the .001 level of significance and was attributed to the effects of the speech training. Secondly, there were no significant differences of attitude found between students taught by senior staff members and those taught by instructors and graduate assistants (25, p. 117).

Brooks and Platz used a random sample of seventy-one first-semester freshman students (thirty-seven in an experimental group and thirty-four in a control group) as subjects for a study of self-concept as communicator, and for ideal communicator concepts. The instrument utilized was a Q-sort developed for the purpose by the investigators, and administered to both groups at the beginning and end of the fall semester. One purpose of the project was to examine the question, Does the basic speech course at the University of Kansas elicit changes in self-concept as a communicator? Experimental subjects were enrolled in the beginning speech course, while control group subjects were not.

The findings indicated that three-fourths of the experimental group showed a significant improvement in self-concept as a communicator, while the remaining one-fourth of the same group showed a deterioration of self-concept. The control group also suffered a significant deterioration of self-concept as a communicator. Brooks and Platz concluded that the basic speech course affected different students in different ways, since it had beneficial effects on most of the
students, but for some it seemed to have detrimental effects. It was felt that this observation might possibly offer a partial explanation of the contradictory findings in other studies (4, pp. 44-49).

Williams and Cole note that theorists such as Lundholm, Snygg and Combs, Rogers, and Sarbin have all viewed the self-concept as central to man's behavior. The self-concept formulation has received increasing emphasis in the study of educational theory and practice. Williams and Cole conducted a study using the TSCS as a measure of self-esteem, together with the California Test of Personality, the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity, the Reading and Arithmetic sections of the California Achievement Test Battery, and an unpublished social esteem scale. The correlational study attempted to relate self-concept to certain dimensions of pupil experience deemed to be fundamental to effective academic adjustment. Statistically significant correlations were reported between scores on the TSCS and school concepts, social esteem, emotional adjustment, mental ability, reading achievement, and mathematical achievement. In discussing the findings Williams and Cole observed, "Few factors are more fundamental to a child's success and happiness than his evaluation and acceptance of himself." They further stated that it should be the business of the school to identify children with derogatory self-esteem, and to make concerted effort toward the effective enhancement of the self-concept (42, p. 30).
Summary

In summary, experimental studies of the relationship between speech training and personality variables have appeared since the middle 1930's. In this brief historical period, the amount of research reported has been relatively limited, sporadic, and somewhat inconclusive. This may be due in part to the fact that researchers were necessarily limited by the capabilities of the research instruments available to them, thus posing real difficulties in assembling and assessing valid data pertaining to a field as complex in nature as the human personality.

The research has been centered largely on subjects at the college level, although high school students were included as subjects in a very few of the studies. This practice was probably due to such practical factors as a greater interest in research on the part of college-level instructors, and the relatively greater availability of college students for utilization as subjects in research projects. The college campus setting doubtless lends itself more readily to such studies. However, the predominant use of college students may be supported on a theoretical basis, as well. The self-concept of the representative mid-teenager has not stabilized sufficiently to allow of valid research of the type with which this study is concerned. One of the earliest experimenters in the field noted that speech-personality behavior does not
appear as clearly definable among high school students as among more mature groups (20).

Studies conducted during the 1930's and 1940's relied heavily on the Bernreuter Personality Inventory, suggesting that this instrument was the most popular of its type during that period. Results were necessarily reported in terms of the areas included in the Bernreuter instrument, and varied from study to study as to the specific areas which seemed to be affected by speech training.

The time span of reported studies ranged from one month to three months, with a number of projects extending for ten to eleven weeks. One month seemed too short a time for personality variables to change sufficiently to become apparent in the scores of measuring instruments. All other periods of time reported included indications of change. Some of the later studies focused investigation on the concept of self as a speaker, rather than on a more generalized self-concept.

The emergence of interest in the relationship of speech training to the self-concept did not become apparent until the 1950's, and even then it was primarily limited to the individual's self-confidence as a speaker. It was not until 1961 that a researcher noted the usefulness of self-concept theory as a framework for this type of research (13).
Studies by Chenoweth (7), Murray (32), and Paulson (34) noted that not all speech students showed improvement in personality variables, and that inherent and environmental influences were probably closely related to the individual's degree of speech proficiency.
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CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methods and procedures employed in the execution of the study. The discussion includes selection and description of the subjects, description of the instruments used to collect the data, procedures for collecting the data, variables of the study, and statistical treatment of the data.

Selection and Description of the Subjects

The subjects who initially participated in this study were 812 students enrolled in the departments of education and psychology, physical education, and speech and drama at North Texas State University during the spring semester, 1968. The students enrolled in each of the three departments comprised three separate groups for the purpose of the study. All three groups included subjects of both sexes. In analyzing the data no distinction on the basis of sex was attempted.

Subjects who designated on the personal data form that they had previously received formal training in speech at either the high school or the college level, regardless of the nature of the speech course, were excluded from the study.
Also excluded were subjects enrolled in more than one of the three groups used, as well as those who completed only one of the tests administered. These exclusions reduced the total number of subjects statistically treated in the study to 392. Of this number 108 subjects were in Group I, 137 were in Group II, and 147 were in Group III.

The classes from each of the three groups were selected at random. Thirteen sections of Psychology 163, Introduction to Psychology, were offered by the University during the spring semester. Of these, eight sections were designated as Group I. Three of the seven courses in physical education were selected for the study, as follows: Two of the forty-five sections in P. E. 116, Physical Education Activities; one of the twenty-six sections in P. E. 104, The Dance; and both of the two sections of P. E. 132, Folk Dance. Subjects included in Group III (experimental) were members of eleven of the eighteen sections offered in Speech 110, Business Speaking.

The course in beginning psychology, Psychology 163, Introduction to Psychology, (Group I) is described in the University bulletin as follows:

163. Introduction to Psychology. A study of the basic principles in psychology, bearing on the functioning of the nervous system, growth, motivation, learning, thinking, drives, emotions, intelligence, and individual differences (1, p. 244).

The instructors were teaching fellows who were supervised by a senior member of the education and psychology
faculty. Each instructor had taught the course at least one
time prior to the course in which the data were gathered.
The outline of the course appears in Appendix C.

Three courses in physical education (Group II) were
utilized in the study. They are described in the University
bulletin as follows:

104. Dance. Folk, modern, square, and tap. The
student selects one of the forms for enrollment
in dance for a given semester. Credit: one
semester hour (1, p. 249).

116. Physical Education Activities. Badminton,
basketball, conditioning activities, gymnastics,
softball, speedball, swimming, (summer only,
$3.60 fee), tennis, touch football, track and
field, volleyball, weight training, and wrestling.
Credit: one semester hour (1, p. 248).

132. Folk Dance. Selected folk dances requiring
the development of progressive skills. Credit:
one semester hour (1, p. 251).

The course, Speech 110, Business Speaking, was designed
through the cooperative effort of the School of Business
Administration and the Department of Speech and Drama.
Although not limited to any particular categories of students,
it was formulated for the benefit of majors in business
administration, for whom it was a requirement. The course
description appearing in the University bulletin is as
follows:

Speech 110. Business Speaking. Basic principles
of communication. Practice in public speaking,
discussion methods, conference techniques, and
chairmanship; the preparation and organization of
material for public presentation. Required for
business majors. Not open to those who have had
Speech 125 (1, p. 197).
Instructors for the majority of the several classes comprising Group III, and for all sections included in the study except one, were teaching fellows in the Department of Speech and Drama. All classes were carefully supervised by a senior staff member to assure that teaching procedures were consistent with the syllabus. (See Appendix B.) Weekly meetings, to which the experimenter was invited, were regularly held for the purpose of guiding the instructors in uniformly following the outline. Each instructor had taught the course on campus at least one time prior to the semester in which the data were collected.

Description of Instruments

Two instruments were selected to provide criterion measurements for the study, namely, the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (GZTS) and the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS). In addition, a personal data sheet was prepared for the purpose of acquiring data pertaining to the amount and type of speech training among the subjects. (See Appendix A.)

The GZTS, which appeared in 1949, is a revision and condensation of separate inventories previously developed by Guilford and others. The test consists of 300 statements, thirty for each of ten traits. The examinee marks each statement as yes, no, or undecided (7, p. 10). Reliability coefficients range from .75 to .87, with those of the three scales used in the present study, namely, Ascendancy,
Sociability, Emotional stability, being .82, .87, and .84, respectively, as reported by the Manual of Instructions and Interpretations (7, p. 5).

The instrument provides scores for ten traits which were identified by means of factor analysis. The traits are as follows: general activity (G), restraint (R), ascendance (A), sociability (S), emotional stability (E), objectivity (O), friendliness (F), thoughtfulness (T), personal relations (P), and masculinity (M). It was the intent of the present study to utilize the GZTS for data that was most closely related to self-confidence. For this purpose it was the recommendation of a qualified professional psychologist that the three scales of Ascendance (A), Sociability (S), and Emotional stability (E) be selected for the yielding of pertinent scores. A description of the three traits for which data were collected, as it appears in the Manual, is illustrated in Figure 1, showing both positive and negative qualities for each trait (7, p. 2).

One hundred seventy-three recent studies in which the GZTS was used are listed in The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook. These studies bear out the observation by Saunders that personality research is the most common application of the GZTS, "... if one may judge by the large number of master's and doctoral studies in which it has been used" (4, p. 134).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Qualities</th>
<th>Negative Qualities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A—Ascendence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self defense</td>
<td>Submissiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership habits</td>
<td>Habits of following</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking with individuals</td>
<td>Hesitation to speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking in public</td>
<td>Hesitation to speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuading others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being conspicuous</td>
<td>Avoiding conspicuousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bluffing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S—Sociability (formerly called &quot;social extraversion,&quot; opposite &quot;social introversion&quot; or shyness)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having many friends and acquaintances</td>
<td>Few friends and acquaintances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Entering into conversations</td>
<td>Refraining from conversations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liking social activities</td>
<td>Disliking social activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeking social contacts</td>
<td>Avoiding social contacts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shyness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Avoiding limelight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E—Emotional stability (opposite to a combination of the former traits of C, cycloid disposition, and D, depressive tendencies)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evenness of moods</td>
<td>Fluctuation of moods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>interests, energy, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Optimism; cheerfulness</td>
<td>Pessimism; gloominess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perseveration of ideas and moods</td>
<td>Daydreaming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Excitability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling in good health</td>
<td>Feeling in ill health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feelings of guilt, loneliness or worry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 1—Description of scales, GZTS
The Tennessee Self Concept Scale (TSCS) was developed in 1955 to meet the need for an instrument that was simple for the subject to use, widely applicable, well standardized, and multi-dimensional in its description of the self-concept (6, p. 1). It was designed to provide an objective assessment of a person's concept of himself. The instrument has been successfully used for a variety of purposes, including counseling, clinical assessment and diagnosis, research in behavioral science, and personnel selection.

The instrument consists of 100 statements which the subject uses to describe how he feels about himself. It is applicable to a wide range of psychological adjustments, from well adjusted persons to psychotic patients. The most important single score on the instrument is the Total Positive Score which reflects the overall level of self-esteem. It is made up of the arithmetic sum of the individual Positive scores. Persons with high Total Positive scores tend to have confidence in themselves, like themselves, and feel and act as if they are persons of worth. Those with low scores lack confidence in themselves, and feel inadequate, anxious, depressed, and unhappy. A description of the two dimensions (rows and columns) which comprise the fifteen variables, as it appears in the Manual, is reproduced as Figure 2.

Reliability coefficients for the Positive scores were based on test-retest with college students over a two-week
Row 1 P Score - Identity. These are the "what I am" items. Here the individual is describing his basic identity - what he is as he sees himself.
Row 2 P Score - Self Satisfaction. This score comes from those items where the individual describes how he feels about the self he perceives. In general this score reflects the level of self satisfaction or self acceptance. An individual may have very high scores on Row 1 and Row 3 yet still score low on Row 2 because of very high standards and expectations for himself. Or vice versa, he may have a low opinion of himself as indicated by the Row 1 and Row 3 Scores yet still have a high Self Satisfaction Score on Row 2. The sub-scores are therefore best interpreted in comparison with each other and with the Total P Score.
Row 3 P Score - Behavior. This score comes from those that say "this is what I do, or this is the way I act." Thus this score measures the individual's perception of his own behavior or the way he functions.
Column A - Physical Self. Here the individual is presenting his view of his body, his state of health, his physical appearance, skills and sexuality.
Column B - Moral-Ethical Self. This score describes the self from a moral-ethical frame of reference - moral worth, relationship to God, feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person, and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it.
Column C - Personal Self. This score reflects the individual's sense of personal worth, his feeling of adequacy as a person and his evaluation of his personality apart from his body or his relationships to others.
Column D - Family Self. This score reflects one's feelings of adequacy, worth and value as a family member. It refers to the individual's perception of self in reference to his closest and most immediate circle of associates.
Column E - Social Self. This is another "self as perceived in relation to others" category but pertaining to "others" in a more general way. It reflects the person's sense of adequacy and worth in his social interaction with other people in general (6, pp. 2-3).

Fig. 2—Description of categories, TSCS
period (6, p. 14). They range from .80 to .92. Other evidence of reliability cited by the author is the similarity of profile patterns when the measures are repeated for the same individuals over long periods of time.

Validity procedures included those of content, discrimination between groups, correlation with other personality measures, and personality changes under particular conditions. Differences appeared which were significant at the .001 level. A number of studies have been conducted which were based on personality changes under particular conditions and which, therefore, are closely related to the present study. Gidden used the TSCS to determine personality change in army paratroop trainees following a stressful training experience. The instrument successfully discriminated between trait measurements before and after the experience (6, p. 24). Ashcraft and Fitts used the TSCS to determine changes following psychotherapy (6, p. 24). A modified form of the TSCS was used in a study by Butterfield to determine the extent and type of change in self-concept produced by three types of group activities for high school students of the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades (5).

Procedure for Collecting the Data

In preparation for the collection of the data, and prior to the semester in which collection was made, separate orientation meetings involving the instructors of each of the
three groups were held. The purpose of the study and the proposed procedures for collecting the data were discussed in detail, and unanimous expressions of cooperation were secured from the instructors.

During the first and second weeks of the spring semester the Tennessee Self Concept Scale and the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey were administered to the initial population of 812 students enrolled in the psychology, physical education, and speech courses selected for participation in the study. At the same time, the subjects completed personal data sheets, the chief purpose of which was to ascertain whether formal speech courses had been taken by the subjects prior to the current semester, either in high school or in college. Three hundred twenty-three indicated that they had received formal speech training, so were excluded from the analysis of data.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth weeks of the semester the TSCS and the GZTS were again administered to all students of the same classes who had remained in the courses and who were present during the period of test administration. Tabulation was made to determine the subjects who had taken both administrations of the tests, with the result that ninety-seven additional students were dropped from the data analysis. There were 392 subjects who had complete data.
Variables of the Study

The independent variable in this study was the closely organized and supervised course of training in business speaking. The dependent variable was the self-concept of the college students participating in the speech course. The study was designed to test the influence of the speech course upon the following attributes of personality among college students:

1. Self-confidence
2. Self-identity
3. Self-satisfaction
4. Self-behavior

Statistical Treatment of the Data

Data for the study were processed by the Computer Center at North Texas State University, using simple analysis of variance to determine if statistical significance existed between the means of the three groups on the basis of each of the nineteen variables. In the instances which revealed such significance, Fisher's t technique was applied to determine the location of the significance.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The study under report was concerned with the effects of a speech course entitled business speaking on the self-concept and other personality variables among college students. The purpose of the study was to determine the influence of speech training by comparing changes in certain aspects of the self-concept and changes in specified personality traits. The subjects used were 147 speech students, 137 physical education students, and 108 psychology students.

The criterion measures for determining change in self concept were pre-test and post-test scores of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale. This instrument yields fifteen category scores called Positive Scores, and one Total Positive Score. The fifteen categories represent different aspects of self concept as identified by the author. These aspects of the self-concept may be classified according to three subscales, namely, 1) identity, 2) acceptance, and 3) behavior. Each of these subscales may be regarded as an internal frame of reference. The external frame of reference is five factors that can be applied to each of the three subscales. They are as follows: 1) physical, 2) moral-ethical, 3) personal,
4) family, and 5) social. This 3 x 6 structure (subscales x factors) produces the fifteen categories of self-concept, as follows: 1) physical identify, 2) moral-ethical identity, 3) personal identity, 4) family identity, 5) social identity, 6) physical acceptance, 7) moral-ethical acceptance, 8) personal acceptance, 9) family acceptance, 10) social acceptance, 11) physical behavior, 12) moral-ethical behavior, 13) personal behavior, 14) family behavior, and 15) social behavior. The Total Positive Score of the TSCS, which is the total of the fifteen Positive scores, is an important index of overall self-concept. The fifteen categories and the Total Positive Score were used in this study as measures of change in self-concept.

In addition to the effects of the course in business speaking on self-concept, this study was concerned with the effects of the course on self-confidence. On recommendation of a recognized professional psychologist, the three scales of Ascendance, Sociability, and Emotional stability, which are a part of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey were selected as criterion measures for determining change in self-confidence of college students.

Statistical Analysis of the Data

The basic statistical technique used in the treatment of data was analysis of variance. When a significant F-ratio was obtained, Fisher's t technique was used to determine the
location and level of the difference values. The data were punched on cards and all statistical analyses were computed at the North Texas State University Computer Center. The .05 level of significance was designated as the point of rejection for the statistical null hypothesis.

Three groups of students participated in the study. The students in psychology classes were designated as Group 1. The students in physical education classes were designated as Group 2. Groups 1 and 2 served as control groups. The students in the business speaking class were designated as Group 3, and served as the experimental group. Data on significance of differences were computed for each of three groupings, which were formed by all possible pairings of the three groups of subjects, as follows: Groups 1 and 2, Groups 1 and 3, and Groups 2 and 3.

Hypothesis 1 stated that college students who received the speech training provided by the course in business speaking would make significantly greater gains than non-speech students in the fifteen self-concept categories of the TSCS and in the Total Positive Score. Data relative to this hypothesis are presented in Tables I and II. The application of analysis of variance to the data yielded significant F-ratios for eight of the fifteen categories, and for the Total Positive Score. The eight categories include Item 3, personal identity; Item 4, family identity; Item 5, social identity; Item 8, personal acceptance; Item 9, family
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>F</th>
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<th>Group 1 and Group 3</th>
<th>Group 2 and Group 3</th>
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<td>9.91</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>2.43</td>
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</table>

NS Not Significant

*Group 1, Psychology; Group 2, Physical education; Group 3, Business speaking

**Items 1 - 15 categories of TSCE

***Total Positive Score
acceptance; Item 12, moral-ethical behavior; Item 13, personal behavior; and Item 15, social behavior. Item 16, the Total Positive Score, although not a category in the same sense as the others, also yielded significant mean differences.

In order to find the location and extent of the statistical significance, Fisher's t technique was applied to the data for the eight categories and the Total Positive Score, which had been identified by analysis of variance. Application of the one-tailed test of significance required a minimum Fisher's t ratio of 1.65 to indicate the .05 level. Data relating to Hypothesis 1 are presented in Table I. All eight of the categories, plus the Total Positive Score, that had been identified by the F-ratio as significant were likewise significant when the t technique was applied to a comparison of Groups 2 and 3, physical education and speech. Three categories (Items 3, 4, and 5) in which significant differences occurred between the physical education and speech groups were in the subscale of identity. These data indicated marked differences in ways in which the members of the two groups described themselves as persons (Item 3). They differed as groups in their perceptions of what they were as individuals. Group differences also existed at a high level of significance in the ways in which the subjects viewed themselves within the context of family (Item 4). The role which the individual perceived himself as occupying in
family relationships was substantially different between the two groups. Differences likewise existed between the groups in regard to perceptions of individuals concerning the position they occupy in relationships with others (Item 5). The speech group made the greatest positive changes.

A second subscale within which physical education and speech groups differed in their concepts of self was that of acceptance. Items 8 and 9 differentiated between two areas of self-acceptance. The first of these pertains to the way in which the individual, having established his perception of himself as a person, accepts that self-perception (Item 8). The second of the two areas of self-acceptance which are characterized by group differences is acceptance of the individual's perceived role in the family (Item 9). Here again, the difference between physical education and speech groups is large enough to be highly significant, with the greatest positive change appearing among the speech group.

A third subscale in which the data identified significant group differences between physical education and speech groups was behavior. Items 12, 13, and 15 indicated three areas in which the differences were perceived. Item 12 described the ways in which the individual perceived his actions from a moral-ethical frame of reference. The ways in which the individual acts in connection with his relationship to God, satisfaction or lack of satisfaction with religion, and feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person were
perception of his own personal acts and the way in which he functioned. Item 15 provided a description of how the individual behaves as a member of society. This category reflected the person's sense of adequacy and worth in his social interactions with other persons in general. The greatest change for each item was made by the speech group.

The Total Positive Score is another measure which revealed highly significant group differences between the two groups under discussion. This score was obtained by the addition of all the fifteen categories, and is considered by the author of the TSCS to be the most important single score yielded by the instrument. The Total Positive Score reflects the overall level of self-esteem. Persons with high scores tend to look favorably on themselves and to go about their activities with confidence. Persons with low scores tend to be doubtful about their own worth. They often feel anxious, depressed, and unhappy, and are likely to have limited confidence in their abilities. The speech group made a greater positive change than either of the other two groups.

A wider variance existed between physical education and speech groups than between psychology and speech groups, as was indicated by Table 1. The number of categories in which significant differences appeared for the latter two groups dropped to four. These were the categories of personal identity, moral-ethical behavior, personal behavior, and social behavior, together with the Total Positive Score.
These five items coincided with five of the items in which differences appeared between the physical education and speech groups. However, the differences between groups in each category were smaller for the psychology-speech pairing than for the physical education-speech pairing.

Data reflecting comparable differences between psychology and physical education groups are included in Table I as an adjunct of the data pertaining to the other two group pairings. The relationships between the psychology and physical education groups were not a part of this study, however, and are not discussed.

Mean scores for the pre-test and post-test administrations of the Tennessee Self Concept Scale appear in Table II. Data shown in the table are for the sixteen TSCS categories, and are for each of the three groups participating in the study. A comparison of the two means for each item within a group indicates the extent of gain or loss. In only two instances did the data show no change. These instances appeared in the psychology group and applied to Item 2, moral-ethical identity, and to Item 12, moral-ethical behavior. Shift toward higher mean scores was apparent in the psychology group for all other categories. In the physical education group there was gain in eight categories and in the Total Positive Score. Loss appeared in the remaining seven categories. Data for the speech group showed an increase in all categories except one, which was physical identity.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean Scores, Group 1</th>
<th>Mean Scores, Group 2</th>
<th>Mean Scores, Group 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Post-test</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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*Group 1, Psychology; Group 2, Physical education; Group 3, Business speaking

**Items 1 - 15 are categories of TSCS

***Total Positive Score
Analysis of the data presented in Tables I and II for Hypothesis 1 indicated that the statistical null hypothesis must be accepted, due to a lack of significant difference between the psychology-speech and the physical education-speech pairings in categories 1) physical identity, 2) moral-ethical identity, 6) physical acceptance, 7) moral-ethical acceptance, 10) social acceptance, 11) physical behavior, and 14) family behavior. However, the research hypothesis was partially accepted in view of significant findings for categories 3) personal identity, 12) moral-ethical acceptance, 13) personal behavior, and 15) social behavior, and for the Total Positive Score, Item 16).

Hypothesis 2 of this study stated that students who had taken a course in business speaking would make significantly greater gains in the mean score of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey scales of Ascendance, Sociability, and Emotional stability than would non-speech students. Data relating to this hypothesis are presented in Table III.

Analysis of variance indicated a significant difference in mean change for only one of the three items included in Hypothesis 2, namely, Sociability. The t values for Sociability indicated significant differences for this item among both group pairings—psychology-speech, and physical education-speech. Like the data recorded for Hypothesis 1, data for Hypothesis 2 revealed the greatest mean gain between:
the physical education group and the speech group, followed
in descending order by psychology-speech and psychology-
physical education pairings. No significant inter-group
differences appeared for the items of Ascendance and Emotional
stability.

**TABLE III**

**SIGNIFICANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN
GROUPS, GUILFORD-ZIMMERMAN
TEMPERAMENT SURVEY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
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<th>Group 1 and Group 2</th>
<th>Group 1 and Group 3</th>
<th>Group 2 and Group 3</th>
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<td>17**</td>
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<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
<td>..</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>6.84</td>
<td>-1.68</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>1.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>..</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

*Group 1, Psychology; Group 2, Physical education; Group 3, Business speaking
**Item 17, Ascendance; Item 18, Sociability; Item 19, Emotional stability

Comparative mean changes in the psychology, physical
education, and speech groups relate directly to Hypothesis
2. Table IV discloses these changes by indicating the pre-
test and post-test mean scores on the GZTS for each group.


**TABLE IV**

**MEAN SCORES FOR PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST, GUILFORD-ZIMMERMANN TEMPERAMENT SURVEY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Mean Scores, Group 1</th>
<th>Mean Scores, Group 2</th>
<th>Mean Scores, Group 3</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17**</td>
<td>13.68</td>
<td>14.30</td>
<td>13.81</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>18.01</td>
<td>18.50</td>
<td>18.33</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>14.48</td>
<td>14.63</td>
<td>15.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Group 1, Psychology; Group 2, Physical education; Group 3, Business speaking
**Item 17, Ascendance; Item 18, Sociability; Item 19, Emotional stability

Inspection of the data reveals a positive shift in all three scales of Ascendance, Sociability, and Emotional stability in the psychology and speech groups. The physical education group made a gain in Ascendance only, and showed a loss in the scales of Sociability and Emotional stability. The data indicated that psychology and speech students showed a trend toward such positive qualities as self-defense, leadership habits, speaking with individuals and speaking in public, persuading others, and being conspicuous—all of which are part of the GZTS scale of Ascendance. A similar trend among these two groups for Sociability included such qualities as entering into conversations, liking social
activities, seeking social contacts, seeking the limelight, and having many friends and acquaintances. The greatest gain on this scale was made by the speech group, while the physical education group lost ground. Psychology and speech groups also made gains in optimism and cheerfulness, composure, feelings of good health, and evenness of moods, interests, and energy. The physical education groups made a negative shift in these qualities. The psychology group gained on all three scales, but not as much as did the speech group. The largest gains in Ascendance, Sociability, and Emotional stability were made by the speech group. The statistical null hypothesis was accepted for Hypothesis 2. However, the research hypothesis was also partially accepted in view of the significant differences in the gains made by the speech group over the other two groups.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was an experiment to determine the influences of a course in Business Speaking on certain aspects of self-concept and personality of college students. The purpose of the study was to determine whether the training in the theory and practice of oral public presentations which comprise a specific speech course could significantly affect the self-concepts and personality traits of college students.

The subjects were 392 students enrolled in beginning courses in business speaking, psychology, and physical education at a southwestern university during the spring semester of 1968. For statistical purposes the subjects were selected from three departmental groups. The experimental group was composed of students enrolled in business speaking, while the two control groups were students enrolled in introductory psychology and physical education courses. Members of the three groups were mutually exclusive. In order to control for variability of speech training, no student was included in the study who had received prior formal training in speech activities.
The independent variable was the training in business speaking which was represented by the course activities. The dependent variables were the self-concept categories and the personality traits measured by the TSCS and the GZTS test instruments. Analysis of variance was applied to the statistical data of the study. Fisher's t technique was used to determine the level of significance of the differences of mean gains among the three groups.

Findings

The following findings have been formulated from an analysis of the data collected in the study:

1. The post-test scores for eight of fifteen categories of the self-concept revealed a significant difference in the mean change between the speech group and the physical education group, with the greater difference appearing among the speech group in all eight categories, as follows: 3) personal identity, 4) family identity, 5) social identity, 8) personal acceptance, 9) family acceptance, 12) moral-ethical behavior, 13) personal behavior, and 15) social behavior.

2. The post-test scores for four of fifteen categories of the self-concept revealed a significant difference in the mean change between the speech group and psychology group, with the greater difference appearing among the speech group. The categories were 3) personal identity, 12) moral-ethical behavior, 13) personal behavior, and 15) social behavior.
3. The post-test scores for the Total Positive Score revealed a significant difference in mean change between the speech group and the physical education group, with the greater difference appearing among the speech group.

4. The post-test scores for the Total Positive Score revealed a significant difference in mean change between the speech group and the psychology group, with the greater difference appearing among the speech group.

5. Mean change scores for the speech group indicated a positive shift in all TSCS categories except one, a positive shift for the psychology group in all categories except two, and a positive shift for the physical education group in all categories except seven.

6. The post-test scores for the GZTS scale of Sociability increased significantly more for the speech group than for the physical education group (p < .001).

7. The post-test scores for the GZTS scale of Sociability increased significantly more for the speech group than for the psychology group (p < .05).

8. Mean change scores for the speech group and the psychology group indicated a positive shift in the GZTS scales of Ascendance, Sociability, and Emotional stability. The mean change scores for the physical education group indicated a positive shift in the GZTS scale of Ascendance.
only. The shift on each scale was greater for the speech group than for either of the other two groups.

9. The post-test scores for four of fifteen categories of the self-concept revealed a significantly greater increase for the speech group than for either the psychology or the physical education groups. The four categories are 3) personal identity, 12) moral-ethical behavior, 13) personal behavior, and 15) social behavior.

Conclusions

The data analyzed in this study, as considered on the basis of the conditions and within the limitations of the study, lead to the following conclusions:

1. The course in business speaking can exert important influence on certain aspects of self-concept and self-confidence among college students, as follows: personal identity, family identity, social identity, personal acceptance, family acceptance, moral-ethical behavior, personal behavior, and social behavior.

2. Factors other than training in business speaking can affect self-concept and self-confidence among college students.

3. The classes in the business speaking course were more conducive to a positive shift in self-concept among
students than were the classes in the psychology and the physical education courses.

4. To the extent that the policy requiring business majors to take the course in business speaking aims toward enhancement of student self-concept, the findings of this study seem to lend objective affirmation to the validity of the policy.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made:

1. Since the self-concept can be affected by planned experiences, it is recommended that studies be initiated to explore the specific types of activities which were instrumental in effecting positive change in self-concept and self-confidence.

2. Further research should be conducted to determine whether teaching procedures can be utilized to influence areas of self-concept other than those influenced in this study.

3. The positive effects of the course in business speaking upon aspects of the self-concept of students, as identified by this study, would suggest the feasibility of consideration of speech training among other academic disciplines where enhancement of student self-concept is deemed valuable.
4. Investigations might well explore possible changes in self-concept and self-confidence using other types of control groups than those used in this study, such as history, fine arts, industrial arts, and pre-service education.

5. Similar studies are recommended in which the variables of college classification and sex would be controlled.
APPENDIX A.

PERSONAL BACKGROUND DATA

1. Name ____________________________  2. Sex: M F
                                           (Circle one)

3. Home town and state ____________________________

4. Did you take a speech course in high school?
   Yes  No
   (Circle one)

5. If yes, what course or courses did you take?

6. Did you participate in high school debate?
   Yes  No
   (Circle one)

7. In what subject do you plan to major?

8. Approximately how many times in the past year have you spoken before a public group, other than in a class at school? ______ times

9. Please check (✓) the size of the student enrollment in the high school from which you were graduated. If you are not sure, make a "best estimate."

   250 students or less  ( )  1000 to 1500 students ( )
   250 to 500 students ( )  1500 to 2000 students ( )
   500 to 1000 students ( )  More than 2000 students ( )
APPENDIX B

SYLLABUS FOR SPEECH 110

BUSINESS SPEAKING

North Texas State University

Required Text: Practical Speaking for the Technical Man, by John Dietrich and Keith Brooks

GENERAL OBJECTIVES OF THE COURSE

To develop—to the limits of an introductory course—the student's ability to discharge his responsibility as an educated citizen in a democracy and to understand the place of oral communication in business and industry. To learn through practice those fundamental rhetorical principles which enable the competent person to participate, both effectively and ethically, in a variety of social situations.

YOUR RESPONSIBILITIES IN THE COURSE ARE:

1. To attend regularly and to study speech as a listener when you are not speaking.
2. To prepare assignments, accept your social responsibility, and speak when scheduled.
3. To participate in class discussions of text principles and criticism of your classmates as speakers.
4. To confer with your instructor about progress and problems.

UNIT I - INFORMATIVE SPEAKING

Since most of the public speaking that you will be doing in your career involves the simple communication of information, this unit is designed to develop your ability to explain ideas and concepts in a clear and interesting fashion. You will give two expository speeches, each one representing a different type of supporting material.

Preparation: Read Chapters 2, 5, 6, 7, 9
Activities:

1. **Round 1: The Visual Aid Speech 4-6 minutes**
   - The speeches in this round will be based on the use of visual supporting material. The visual aid, which must be necessary for the speech, manageable, clear, and visible, will be prepared outside of class. The mode of presentation will be extemporaneous--prepared, outlined, but delivered without memorization or scripts. In all of the public speaking assignments you must turn in a comprehensive outline of the speech on the day you are to speak.

2. **Round 2: The Verbal Aid Speech 4-6 minutes**
   - In this speech you are to develop the meaning of some idea, term, or concept through research and invention of verbal aids. Visual aids offer little help in clarifying or amplifying "abstract" ideas. The emphasis will be on finding familiar and concrete distinguishing attributes associated with your idea. You can support a recognizable pattern of main ideas with explanation, definition, examples, and comparisons. Further attention will be given to disposition, particularly the function of introductions and conclusions. This is an explanatory speech and you should be sure your talk is aimed at enlightening us, not at persuading. Recognize the difference between clarifying the meaning of "automation" and convincing us that it is "good" or "bad".

**UNIT II - PERSUASIVE SPEAKING**

Whereas the chief purpose of the Unit I speeches was to inform, the speeches in this unit are designed to directly influence the beliefs and/or actions of an audience. The ability to "persuade" an audience is the product of careful audience analysis coupled with an understanding of the tools of social influence through communication--evidence, reasoning, and motivational appeals.

**Preparation:** Review Chapters 5 & 6. Read Chapters 4, 9, and then the sample speech on pp. 299-306.

**Activities:**

1. **Round 3: Argumentative Speech 5-6 minutes**
   - The purpose of this speech is to cause the audience to believe or hold the same opinion as you do. It will require factual evidence and credible opinion to modify or change our viewpoints. Select a subject about which you genuinely want to persuade others.
2. **Round 4: Motivational Speech 4-6 minutes**

This is also a persuasive speech, but while your argumentative speech was aimed primarily at belief, this one is aimed at obtaining action as well. You will attempt to make your idea so appealing that the audience will want to take the action you recommend. In this assignment you will use basically the same speech you used in Round 3 with two differences. First, you will incorporate into this speech all the suggested improvements that the Instructor and the class have made. This will give you an opportunity to utilize the feedback that you have received. Second, you will shift the emphasis to the "motivation" of the audience. Your Instructor will explain the means whereby this goal may be accomplished.

3. **Round 5: Job Application Interview**

**Preparation:** Read carefully Chapter 13

In this round we try to give you the actual experience of being interviewed for a position. Hand to your Instructor a formal letter of application to any company or organization for which you would like to work; in this letter state specifically the type of job you are seeking. If you wish, you may assume that you are a graduating senior. This letter should be an example of the best form of a letter of application that you can write. In addition to the letter, hand in a "data sheet" which will give the "vital statistics" concerning you, your training, and your experience. Your instructor will show you examples of good letters of application and "data sheets". On your assigned day you will be interviewed in front of the class.

Remember that this, too, is an exercise in effective communication. You are persuading someone that you're the person for the job. Your main assets are your chief assets. Your supporting material includes the facts about you and your knowledge of the type of work.

**UNIT III - GROUP COMMUNICATION AND PROBLEM-SOLVING**

The purpose of this unit is to consider some of the basic aspects of speaking and listening in informal group deliberations. Almost everyone, especially in the field of business, finds it necessary to participate in some form of committee or conference communication. Effective participation in this kind of activity requires an understanding of the interaction of people and ideas within the communicative situation.
Activities:

1. **Round 6: Role-Playing**
   In this assignment you will participate in a small group discussion utilizing the technique of role-playing. Your instructor will explain the nature of role-playing as well as your responsibility in this activity. This round will include a showing of a film entitled "The Dilemma of the New Truck".

2. **Round 7: Problem-Solving Through Discussion**
   In this round you will demonstrate some of the principles of group communication and decision-making in seeking, as a group, to cooperate in the solution of a problem. This assignment will emphasize the reflective-thinking sequence.

**UNIT IV - THE FINAL SPEECH 6-8 minutes**

This speech gives you a final opportunity to show what you have learned about business speaking. The specific content of this assignment is flexible and will be explained to you by your instructor, but it will be some type of symposium (described on page 268 of your text), in which several speakers will discuss different phases or points of view of a common topic.

**SAMPLE SPEECH TOPICS**

<table>
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<tr>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th>Verbal Aids</th>
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<td>pragmatism</td>
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<tr>
<td>prejudice</td>
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**Persuasive Speeches**

18 year olds should be allowed to vote.

Gambling should be legalized.

The U. S. should adopt a policy of free trade.

Red China should be admitted to the UN.

Wire-tapping evidence should be admissable in court.

Denton County should be voted wet.

**Possible conference topics:**

What should be done to improve TV programming?

What should be done (about some domestic or foreign problem?)

What should be done (about some campus program?)

How can high schools better prepare students for college?
APPENDIX C

COURSE OUTLINE - PSYCHOLOGY 163

Textbook: Ruch, Floyd Leon, Psychology and Life

1. What Psychology Is and Does (Chapter 1)
   - The Roots of Psychology
   - The Three Faces of Psychology - Teaching, Application, Research
   - Observation and Description in Psychology
   - Methods of Study

II. Clinical Approaches to Personality (Chapter 4)
   - The Meanings of Personality
   - The Role of Theory in Understanding Personality
   - Body-Type Theories of Personality
   - Expressive Behavior as a Clue to Personality
   - Personality Theory Today
   - Clinical Methods of Studying Personality

III. Psychometric Approaches to Personality (Chapter 5)
   - What Makes a Good Measuring Instrument?
   - Interpreting Scores
   - Approaches to Personality Measurement
   - Quantitative Devices for Personality Assessment
   - Traditional Means of Testing Intelligence
   - Primary Mental Abilities
   - The Determinants of Intelligence
   - Other Abilities
   - Understanding the Whole Person

IV. Thinking and Deciding (Chapter 10)
   - Kinds of Thinking
   - The Mechanics of Thinking
   - Tools in Thinking
   - Solving Problems
   - Creativity
   - Information Theory
V. Reactions to Frustration (Chapter 13)

Kinds of Frustration
The Dynamics of Frustration
Defensive Reactions to Frustration
Neurotic Reactions
Psychotic Reactions
Alcohol, Drugs, and Gambling

VI. Mental Health and Therapy (Chapter 14)

The Mental Health Movement
Major Approaches to Psychotherapy
Physical Methods of Therapy
The Eclectic Approach

VII. The Individual and the Group (Chapter 15)

Composition and Cooperation
Individual vs. Group Action
Factors in Small-Group Functioning
Effective Leadership
Illegal Behavior

VIII. Communication and Persuasion (Chapter 16)

Public Opinion Surveys
Psychological Factors in Advertising
Techniques of Propaganda
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Publications of Learned Organizations


Encyclopedia Articles


Unpublished Materials


