INFORMATION TO USERS

8129428

DAUPHINAIS, LOUISE E.

AMERICAN INDIAN AND ANGLO PERCEPTIONS OF SPEAKER, MESSAGE
STRUCTURE AND MESSAGE ORIENTATION

The University of Oklahoma   PH.D. 1981

University
Microfilms
International   300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

AMERICAN INDIAN AND ANGLO

PERCEPTIONS OF SPEAKER, MESSAGE STRUCTURE

AND MESSAGE ORIENTATION

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY

LOUISE DAUPHINAIS

Norman, Oklahoma

1981

AMERICAN INDIAN AND ANGLO

PERCEPTIONS OF SPEAKER, MESSAGE STRUCTURE

AND MESSAGE ORIENTATION

APPROVED BY:

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

ABSTRACT

Eighty educational advisory board members, equally divided by cultural background (American Indian and Anglo), listened to one of four audio tape recordings of a simulated presentation on sharing educational resources. The presentations differed in: structure (circular or linear) and orientation (process or solution) and each speaker was introduced either as an American Indian or as an Anglo. Subjects evaluated the speaker, the message and the potential outcomes by completing a 26 item behavioral differential. A factor analysis yielded four factors: expertise, character credibility, safety and negative feasibility. The results of a multivariate analysis of the factor scores were not significant. Results of exploratory univariate analyses indicated the following:

(1) An expertise factor main effect of a positive evaluation of the process orientation.

(2) An American Indian receiver's positive evaluation for an American Indian speaker presenting in an American Indian message structure and orientation, in terms of the expertise and safety factors.

(3) An Anglo receiver's negative evaluation of an American Indian speaker and message, in terms of the expertise factor.

(4) An Anglo receiver's and an American Indian receiver's neutral evaluation of an Anglo speaker presenting in an Anglo message structure, in terms of the expertise factor.

(5) An Anglo receiver's negative evaluation of an American Indian speaker presenting in an American Indian message structure, in terms of the expertise factor.

(6) An Anglo receiver's positive (in terms of expertise) and negative (in terms of character credibility) evaluation of an Anglo speaker presenting an American Indian message structure.

(7) An American Indian receiver's negative evaluation of an Anglo speaker presenting in an American Indian message structure and orientation, in terms of the safety factor.

Implications of message structure and cultural background variables are examined in the light of social and cognitive psychological theories.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My thanks

To all those who allowed themselves to participate in this study.

To my chairman, Dr. Donald Udell, for the support and latitude he provided.

To committee members Dr. William Graves for his patient assistance in the evolution of the study, Dr. Brooks Hill for his contributions to my understanding of and interest in cross-cultural communication, Dr. George Letchworth for his pragmatic guidance and assistance throughout, and Dr. Jay Smith for furthering my interest in educational and social change.

To my Community Education Colleagues who provided their specialized help, especially Rich Coberg, Clyta Harris, Billie Adcock and Dr. Deke Johnson.

To many friends and associates who assisted in the field administration, especially Winona Simms Schilling, Cora Carter, Dr. Teresa LaFromboise and Dr. Phil Lujan.

To the research by and assistance from Dr. Ralph Cooley of the Communication Department.

To my children Sheila, Michelle, Susan and Louis for their great spirited endurance.

To my husband, Paul, for his love and encouragement at all times.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

LIST OF APPENDIX TABLES

5

LIST OF APPENDIX TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Administration of participatory educational programs
requires the effective communication of proposals to diverse
decision making or advising personnel in a one to many
communication mode. Major concern for the strategies and
techniques for this type of administrative communication
appears throughout the social change literature.[1] The
techniques for introduction of change are also outlined in
such works as Havelock,[2] Rogers,[3] and Zaltman,[4] but the
structure and style of the verbal presentation of these
proposals, the consequent perception of the presenter, the

---

[1]See Armand Lauffer, Social Planning at the Community
Level (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1978), p.
108; Stephen B. Lawton, William H. Lawton, "An Autocatalytic
Model for the Diffusion of Educational Innovations,"
Educational Administration Quarterly, 1979, 15, 1, p. 19;
Donald W. Oliver, Education and Communication (Berkeley, CA:
McCutchan, 1976), pp. 33-37; and Joseph Ringers, Community
Schools and Interagency Programs: A Guide (Midland, MI:
Pendell, 1976), pp. 21-22.

[2]Ronald G. Havelock and A. M. Huberman, Solving
Educational Problems: The Theory and Reality of Innovation
in Developing Countries (Paris: UNESCO, 1977), p. 272.

[3]Everett M. Rogers with F. Floyd Shoemaker,
Communication of Innovations: A Cross-Cultural Approach
(New York: Free Press, 1971), p. 101.

[4]Gerald Zaltman, Strategies for Planned Change (New
York: Wiley, 1976), pp. 60, 90.

message and its topic, and the projected effectiveness of the outcomes of these techniques have received scanty attention in contemporary educational, psychological and communication research.[1] Leadership training materials provide only general references to "persuasive" or other message strategies which may be employed in a presentation of innovation, but the structures and elements that constitute these strategies are nowhere fully delineated nor has the effectiveness of the suggested strategies been determined. The adequacy and appropriateness of these strategies, and the theories which explain them, are even more questionable when communicating with ethnically, culturally or linguistically diverse decision makers.[2] This lack of research poses serious problems for educational advisory boards serving American Indians because it may mean the possibility of continuing a cycle of lack of sensitivity to and therefore lack of response from American Indian populations the board is required to serve.

---

[1]See Michael Burgoon and Erwin P. Bettinghaus, "Persuasive Message Strategies," Persuasion: New Directions in Theory and Research, eds. Michael E. Roloff and Gerald R. Miller (Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1980), p. 141; Alice H. Eagly and Samuel Himmelfarb, "Attitudes an Opinions," Annual Review of Psychology, 1978, 29, 522; and Havelock and Huberman, Solving Educational problems: The Theory and Reality of Innovation in Developing Countries, p. 272.

[2]See Kevin F. Goss, "Consequences of Diffusion of Innovations," Rural Sociology, 1979, 44, 4, 754; and Rogers, Communication, p. 91.

As accountability and responsibility increase the focus on diverse individual and community needs, effective communication with all educational bodies assumes greater importance in the success of the operation of the entire educational system. To insure this success, administrative communication processes and training in appropriate strategies urge more careful research. Specifically a study analyzing the effects of differences of American Indian and Anglo message structures and orientations may point to those culturally appropriate strategies and processes. However the study must be acknowledged to be exploratory in its interdisciplinary search.

Statement of the Problem

To what extent does the identification of the speaker as Anglo or American Indian, the linear or circular structure of the message, the solution and process orientation of the message, and the Anglo or American Indian cultural background of the receiver affect receiver perceptions of the effectiveness of the speaker, the message and the potential outcomes suggested by the message? In asking these questions a set of implicit assumptions are made:

   -a more positive evaluation of a speaker, message and its outcome is an indication of more effective communication.

   -this positive evaluation may be elicited in terms of

receivers' potential actions or behaviors with relation to the speaker, the message and its potential outcomes.

-these elicited evaluations may be viewed in terms of communication acceptability concepts.

-educators in Community Education assume a communicator and change agent role and their initial efforts often entail speaking in a one-to-many mode.

-educators encounter culturally diverse groups in such settings, especially American Indian groups within Oklahoma.

-educators, although seldom formally trained as speakers within their education specialty, receive training in and model after Western rhetorical traditions.

-educators in communication and in speaking are perceived as making inferences about the assignment of responsibility for potential changes advocated.

-persons advising in educational settings receive information with which they evaluate or judge people, ideas and events and make inferences about potential outcomes of that information.

Therefore, educators as change advocates need to know what language and cultural characteristics are important in communicating with diverse receivers.[1]

---

[1]See Digby C. Anderson, "Curriculum Innovation and Local Need," _Journal_ _of_ _Curriculum_ _Studies_, 1979, 11, p.

Indications of the ineffectiveness of Anglo-American Indian intercultural communication appear in a variety of social science literature and provide impressionistic descriptions of interactions that imply causes stemming from: (1) the speaker, in terms of role and personal characteristics, (2) the communication elements in general, (3) orientations of individual and community responsibility, and (4) the role and characteristics of the receivers.[1] Specific communication elements within the English language have been examined and found to differ in systematic studies with American Indians.[2] The degree to which this

117; Donald Howard Anderson, "Communication Linkages Between Indian Communities and School Districts," (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1972); Dorin Cartwright, "Achieving Change in People: Some Applications of Group Dynamics Theory," Human Relations, 1951, 4, p. 381; Everett D. Edington, "Communication of Education Innovations to Native Americans," American Indian Culture and Research Journal, 1974, 1, pp. 2, 11; and Rogers, Communication, p. 58.

[1]See Francis E. Aboud and Frank G. Mitchell, "Ethnic Role Taking: The Effects of Preference and Self-identification," International Journal of Psychology, 1977, 12, 1, p. 17; Barry Corenblum, "Effects of Race and Sex Upon the Attributions of Success and Failure," Social Behavior and Personality, 1977, 5, pp. 2, 199; Sol Worth and John Adair, "Navajo Filmmakers," American Anthropologist, 1970, 72, pp. 9-34; and Louis A. Zurcher, "The Leader and the Lost: A Case of Indigenous Leadership in a Poverty Program Community Action Committee," Genetic Psychology Monographs, 1967, 76, pp. 23-93.

[2]See Gerry Philipsen, "Navajo World View and Culture Patterns of Speech: A Case Study of Ethnorhetoric," Speech

intercultural communication within English may be a problem in educational administration has not been formally assessed. That it is a problem is reflected in educational reporting that repeatedly recommends development of indigenous educational leadership and documents institutional failure to have done so.[1]

Purpose of the Study

This study reports on an exploration of variables that appear to be salient in the above stated intercultural communication process. The cultural backgrounds of the educator, (the speaker) and the educational advisory board members (the receivers) are to be treated as independent

Monographs, 1972, 39, 2, pp. 132-139; Thelma E. Weeks, Discourse, Culture and Instruction (Bethseda, ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 128 144, 1976), p. 25; and Ralph Cooley, "Spokes in a Wheel: A Linguistic and Rhetorical Analysis of Native American Public Discourse," Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistic Society (Berkeley: Berkeley Linguistic Society, 1979), pp. 532-557.

[1]See Lewis Meriam, et al, The Problem of Indian Administration (Baltimore: The John Hopkins Press, 1928; New York: Johnson Reprint, 1971), p. 9; Margaret Szasz, Education and the American Indian: The Road to Self-Determination, 1928-1973 (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1974), Chapters 12-13; Special Subcommittee on Indian Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, U.S. Senate, Indian Education: A National Tragedy--A National Challenge (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, November 1969), pp. 106-7.

classificatory variables.[1] Two variables embodied in the message are proposed as interculturally salient and testable. These are the structure of the message itself[2] and the responsibility orientation of the educational topic.[3] The first is two types of message structures which are tested across all other variables. These two structures are termed linear and circular and the characteristics are outlined in Table 1. The linear structure represents the Western rhetorical tradition and the circular structure represents an American Indian public speaking pattern of structure. Both Structures are further discussed in Chapter 2.

----

[1]Elizabeth D. Brown and Lee Sechrest, "Experiments in Cross-Cultural Research," Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology, Vol. 2, ed. Harry C. Triandis and John W. Berry (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980), p. 300.

[2]See Ralph Cooley and Roger Babich, "The Structure of Native American Public Speeches." Paper presented at the 2nd Annual conference of the Southeastern Native American Bilingual Education conference, Jackson, Mississippi, March 3-7, 1979; Weeks, Discourse, Culture and Instruction, p. 17; and Gerald Zaltman, Processes and Phenomena of Social Change (New York: Free Press, 1973), pp. 4-5.

[3]See Hedley G. Dimock, Social Intervention in the Helping Professions (Montreal: Concordia University Press, 1976), p.40. Jack D. Minzey and Clyde LeTarte, Community Education From Program to Process (Midland, MI: Pendell, 1972), p. 63; Maurice Ferris Seay, Community Education: A Developing Concept (Midland, MI: Pendell, 1974), p. 233; Worth and Adrian, "Navajo," p. 43; and Zurcher, "The Leader," p. 35.

TABLE I

ORIENTATION CHARACTERISTICS

PROCESS	SOLUTION
Reflects a problem solving approach.	Reflects a problem solving approach
General reference to educational responsibility and action.	Specific reference to individuals reporting information and responsible for actions in the educational setting.
Oriented toward consideration of alternatives by group.	Oriented to individuals available to service educational settings.
Advocates group reflection and implies consensus decisions.	Advocates individual action and implies leadership decisions.

LINEAR	CIRCULAR
Aims at drawing listener to the same conclusion as the speaker.	Aims at giving listener several "ideas from which he/she may draw his/her own conclusion.
Treats topic segmentally using: Introduction Body Conclusion	Treats topic in a gestalt or wholistic fashion.
Unifies by appearing to specify transitions and relationships in a standard fashion, such as "first, second . . . most important . . . most obvious, etc."	Unifies only through pronominal referents and other cohesive devices. Lacks identifiable transitional phase.
Contains a clear and unmistakable identification of the central idea (subject sentence, topic sentence, theme statement, etc.)	Contains overlap and repetition in restatements of theme and/or illustration.
Employs summary statements.	Employs no summary, internal or otherwise.
Employs questions as an occasional focusing device.	Employs narrative register questions as a modeling devise.

---

[1]Extracted from class discussion and research in COMM 6970, Case Studies in Communication, Fall, 1979, Dr. Ralph Cooley instructor and prime investigator in this study of Native American public speaking styles.

The second message variable is topical orientation and its two levels are termed solution and process, and the characteristics of each are outlined in Table 1. In general the orientation of the message implies the degree of responsibility assigned to the listener or to others for actions and outcomes suggested by the message. The solution orientation is operationalized by clearly assigned roles and by task orientation. This orientation appears within Anglo group behavior research to be preferred by less mature groups. The process orientation is operationalized by referring only generally to responsibility and by implying consensus decisions. This process orientation appears to be a presentation and decision making style preferred by American Indian groups. The orientation variables are further discussed in Chapter 2. Testing for main effects and interactions of these sets of variables will be done through data generated by asking receivers to assess their own perceptions. Receiver perceptions will be recorded as individual responses to behaviorally based evaluative scales of the effectiveness of the speaker himself, the message itself, and the potential behaviors toward the ideas proposed in the message. These scales will then be submitted to factor analysis and the mean group factor score differences will provide the basis for comparisons of these evaluations.

The Research Questions

The research questions to be explored in this study are: Do Anglo and American Indian members of educational advisory boards evaluate a speaker, structure and orientation differently when they are receivers of:

(1) messages from speakers identified as culturally different.

(2) messages differing in characteristics of structure.

(3) messages differing in responsibility assignment in topical orientation.

Research Hypotheses

Based on the preliminary evidence of language and cultural differences, the following general hypothesis is proposed: Anglo and American Indian receivers differentially evaluate the effectiveness of the speaker, the message, and the potential outcomes of message ideas in relation to variables of Anglo and American Indian speakers, message structure, and message orientation. Three specific hypotheses are of primary interest.

(1) Within the conditions of cultural backgrounds of the receiver and speaker, a receiver more positively evaluates a speaker of the same cultural background and less positively evaluates a speaker of the other cultural background. Specific comparisons test the following predictions:

1.1 A speaker identified as American Indian is more positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver and less positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver.

1.2 A speaker identified as Anglo is more positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver and less positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver.

(2) Within the conditions of message structure and receiver cultural background, a receiver more positively evaluates a culturally familiar message structure and less positively evaluates a less culturally familiar message structure. Specific comparisons test the following predictions:

2.1 A circularly structured message is more positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver and less positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver.

2.2 A linearly structured message is more positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver and less positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver.

(3) Within the conditions of message orientation and receiver cultural background, a receiver more positively evaluates a culturally familiar message orientation. Specific comparisons test the following predictions:

3.1 A process orientation message is more positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver and less positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver.

3.2 A solution orientation message is more positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver and less positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver.

There is a lack of a firm theoretical and empirical research base from which to make specific predictions about patterns of evaluation that will occur when culturally differing message and person conditions are crossed. Despite this lack the following general research questions are explored: Do the person and message elements have effects such that the greater the number of culturally familiar speaker, structure and orientation elements, the more positive is the evaluation by the receiver? Does the greater number of less culturally familiar speaker, structure and orientation elements produce a less positive evaluation by the receiver?

The Significance of the Study

Research investigating message structure and orientation variables across cultures would have significance in a number of educational facets. Since message construction is a potentially modifiable phenomenon, the possibility of adapting it and providing instruction for differential use is great. In addition, this research will allow educators serving culturally diverse groups to more accurately predict outcomes of specific message structure and orientation in relation to characteristics of members'

cultures. Also, the initiation of empirical research in this area with this cross cultural set of variables may be the most significant of all. This initiation may then serve as a basis for more directly testing inference and attribution theory models.

The Limitations of the Study

One basic limitation of the study lies in the major assumption that any sample of an American Indian population can be representative of that group.[1] Given the tremendous intertribal as well as intratribal differences which exist in Oklahoma alone and given the lack of general direction from empirical research on this group (particularly in this domain of study), only the most tenuous of conclusions may be made about the degree of external validity of this study. Regarding theory research in cross cultural contexts, however, Brown and Sechrest [2] point out that because most theories are not (and strive not to be) specific to people, events and certain settings, there need be less concern regarding external validity and generalizability of effects.

---

[1] Janice C. Hepworth, "Some Pre-Empirical Considerations for Cross-Cultural Attitude Measurements and Persuasive Communications," Intercultural and International Communication, ed. Fred L. Casmir (Washington, S.D.: University Press of America, 1978), p. 42.

[2] Brown and Sechrest, "Experiment," pp. 314-315

A second set of limitations lies in the speculative nature of the assertion that the concepts represented by these variables are cross-culturally equivalent and salient. A related concern is for the cross-cultural equivalence of concepts used to measure the perceptions of effectiveness dependent variable.[1]

A third set of limitations emerges as a threat to internal validity and presents itself particularly in a field experiment setting. Campbell and Cook[2] list thirteen threats to internal validity which this study makes an effort to rule out through its design.

Another major limitation is reflected in the evidence that suggests that although a manifestation of positive perceptions may be present, translating this into actual, overt behavior response may be much more difficult.[3] The direction is first to identify and test interlocking

---

[1]Harry C. Triandis, Analysis of Subjective Culture (New York: Wiley, 1972), pp. 36-37.

[2]Donald T. Campbell and Thomas D. Cook, Quasi-Experimentation: Design and Analysis for Field Settings (New York: Rand, 1979), pp. 51-55.

[3]Burgoon, "Persuasion," p. 141.

characteristics of person, culture, language and assess their influence on the receiver. This direction points emphatically to the exploratory nature of the study.

In summary, this study will explore the pattern of interaction of speakers' cultural background (Anglo and American Indian), message structure (linear and circular), message orientation (process and solution) and their effects, if any, on perceptions of receivers of culturally varying backgrounds (Anglo and American Indian). This chapter has presented an overview of the range of contemporary literature both justifying and limiting the study. Chapter II presents a review of the theoretic origins for the study, the specific expectations of the study, and the current empirical research on the study variables. Chapter III provides a discussion of the design, sample, materials and methods of data analysis. After the field study is completed, Chapter IV will present the results, Chapter V will deliver a discussion of the results, and Chapter VI will focus on implications for future study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This review first focuses on the historical background
of the structuralist tradition and the precedent in language
research that it represents. Second, the review focuses on
formulations from attribution and inference making theory
which have provided the basis for examining research in the
areas presented in the following diagram.

SOCIAL CHANGE EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

Social Psychology

Attribution

Person
Perception

Cognitive Psychology

Social
Inference

Cultural
Ethnography

Culturally
Differing
Person and
Language
Variables

Social
Cognition

Language
Analysis

Structures

Attitudes
and Opinions

Impression
Formation

Processes

Persuasive Communication
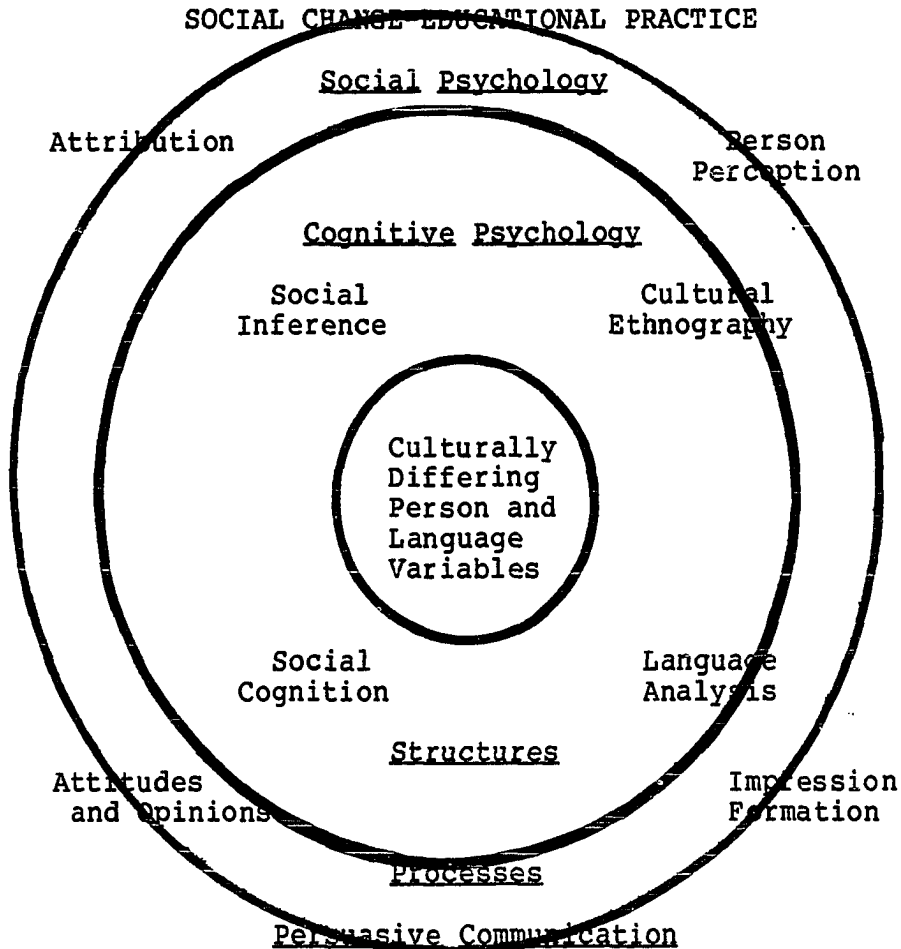
Third, this review focuses on current research as it addresses speaker characteristics, and receiver characteristics. Within this current research and theory survey, four considerations were of primary interest:

(1) Does the theory or research directly address or accommodate language or message variables? (A justification for the selection of this variable level is presented after the consideration of more enveloping constructs.)

(2) Is there evidence of cross-cultural tests of the formulation?

(3) What research, if any, has been completed with an American Indian population?

(4) Are there other constructs represented in the research which might have an impact on the person and message variables represented in this study? The historical background will begin with a statement of assumptions about culture and the patterns and structuring it represents.

Historical Background

Basic observation as well as diverse research indicates the human propensity for discerning patterns that identify and make predictable behavior. That discernment of patterns and consequent expectations for or inference from certain behaviors may generate a scheme of categorization for individual persons and their behaviors that is to some extent shared by a broad group of people. Recognition of

and performance within the bounds of these behavior categories have constituted culture membership criteria.

The patterns of characteristics of informational events, including person characteristics, in instances of their introduction within or across culture membership bounds have given rise to divergent but parallel fields of thought and research method historically. Diverse and particular description has yielded a plethora of variant factors, most notably explored in an anthropological vein. A search for invariant factors, commonalities and universals has been pursued under the broad rubric of psychology. The major convergence of these searches within this century are

the descriptions, explanations and assessments of the effects of performance within behavioral and interactive factors that may be most broadly termed "structural". Some of the contributions, directions and overlap of structuralism in anthropology, psychology and linguistics are noted here.

The role and structure of language in the expectations and interpretations of behavior has been acknowledged in Western linguistic thought for some time. In 1848 Wilhelm von Humboldt asserted that "man lives with the world about him principally, indeed . . . exclusively, as language presents."[1] There were subsequent formulations of Franz Boas, Whorf and Sapir who maintained in 1929 that:

> the "real world" is to a large extent
> unconsciously built up on the language habits of
> the group . . . . We (as individuals) see and
> hear and otherwise experience very largely as we
> do because the language habits of our community
> predispose certain choices of interpretation.[2]

This concept of linguistic relativity extended to structural, lexical and other characteristics which were

---

[1]Wilhelm von Humboldt, Linguistic Variability and Intellectual Development, trans. G. C. Buck and F. A. Raven (Coral Gables, Florida: University of Miami Press, 1971), as cited in George Trager, "The Systematization of the Whorf Hypothesis," Anthropological Linguistics, 1959, 1, pp. 1-2, 31.

[2]Edward Sapir, "The Status of Linguistics as a Science," Language, 1929, 5, p. 207.

later expanded by Noam Chomsky and others.[1]

In anthropology the semiotics of Levi-Strauss and his intellectual descendants exemplify the Saussurian, and thus linguistic, extension of ordered and ruled relations of language, culture and social interaction. While systematic description and interpretation of semiotics were produced in a variety of cultures, questions of whether empirical substantiation within social contexts can be undertaken still emerge in literature that disagrees over the proper questions, approaches and units for investigation.[2]

Similarly within the province of psychology, Piagetian research generated and tested descriptions of patterns denoting underlying structures of the mind as well as pointing to the promise of its unexplored relationships with language.[3]

Psychology and social psychology also produced theories and models of social perception as pioneered in Brunswik's

---

[1]Trager, "The Systematization," p. 35; Joshua A. Fishman, "A Systematization of the Whorfian Hypothesis," (1960) in Culture and Cognition: Readings in Cross-Cultural Psychology, eds. John W. Berry and P. R. Dasen (London: Methuen and Co., 1974), pp. 61-84; and Jack Bilmes and Stephen T. Boggs, "Language and Communication: The Foundations of Culture," Perspectives on Cross-Cultural Psychology, eds. Anthony J. Marsella, Roland G. Tharp, Thomas J. Ciborowki (New York: Academic Press, 1979).

[2]Triandis, Analysis, p. 32.

[3]See Jean Piaget, "Necessite et Signification des Recherches Comparativess en Psychologie Genetique," International Journal of Psychology, 1966, 1, p. 4.

Lens Model[1] with its arrays of stimulus, mediation and response in a "probabilistic functionalism" conceptualization. Brunswik and later Heider[2] portrayed perception of elemental forms, as well as complexity of a higher order (such as characteristics of a person), as elementally similar processes. But the role, structure and function of language and cultural differences in such a model have not, with a few contemporary exceptions which will be discussed later, been incorporated in this research.

The explicit study of language during this period is represented by Noam Chomsky's delineations of mind and language interrelationships.[3] In this research stance complexities may be universally accounted for through a "deep structure." But even this explicitly language oriented investigation leaves open questions of differential competence, performance and perception within supposed monolingual societies.

---

[1] Egon Brunswik, Perception and the Representative Design of Psychological Experiments. (Berkeley: University of California, 1956) p. 40.

[2] See Fritz Heider, The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations (New York: Wiley, 1958), p. 10.

[3] See Noam Chomsky, Language and Mind (New York: Harcourt, 1968), p. 59.

Do such structures or patterns affect the process and outcomes of educational decision making? The degree to which these patterns, categories and expectations vary with language and person elements that must be present in every educational decision making setting remain open questions in today's research in general.[1] But in particular basic knowledge that may clarify the effects of differences of person and message elements has been a research recently neglected within and across cultures.[2] Although little research exists that directly addresses these elements, a number of auxiliary bodies of theory emerge as helpful in examining perceptions of effectiveness of speaker and message elements in intercultural settings.

---

[1]See Joseph R. Dewhirst, "Social Judgments of Spurious and Causal Relations Between Attributes and Outcomes," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1978, 14, pp. 313-325; Harold H. Kelley and John L. Michela, "Attribution Theory and Research," Annual Review of Psychology, 1980, 31, p. 457; Ellen J. Langer, "Rethinking the Role of Thought in Social Interaction," in New Directions in Attribution Research, Vol. 2, eds. John J. Harvey, William Ickes and Robert F. Kidd (Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1978), p. 35; Richard M. Perloff and Timothy C. Brock, "And Thinking Makes It So: Cognitive Responses to Persuasion," Persuasion: New Directions in Theory and Research, eds. Michael E. Roloff and Gerald R. Miller (Beverley Hills: Sage, 1980), pp. 67-68; and Shelley E. Taylor and Susan T. Fiske, "Salience, Attention and Attribution: Top of the Head Phenomena," Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, V. II, ed. Leonard Berkowitz (New York: Academic Press, 1978), p. 252.

[2]See Richard W. Brislin, "Introduction to Social Psychology," Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology: Social Psychology, Vol. 5, eds. Harry C. Triandis and Richard W. Brislin (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980), p. 7; Burgoon, "Persuasive," p. 141.

A Theoretical Framework

In educational decision making and information evaluation, what elements have demonstrable effects? Within innovation and change efforts in general a variety of techniques have been employed. Zaltman presents a typology of 17 change strategies which connote a variety of possible communication designed to generate compliance.[1] Cross culturally Rogers and Shoemaker sketch a paradigm of the innovation-decision process that identifies: (1) the antecedents that are specifically receiver variables, (2) the process, as communication source variables interacting with a sequence of cognitive type stages through which potential adopters progress, and (3) the consequences, not of the innovation and its adoption, but of the process itself.[2] This model appears to offer parameters for viewing the components involved in educational decision making, however, the characteristics and effects reported by Rogers and Shoemaker as supporting their generalizations lack specificity of language variables interacting with person variables in ways that may affect information availability and information processing. To investigate these elements,

---

[1]See Gerald Zaltman, Strategies for Planned Change, (New York: Wiley, 1976), p. 60.

[2]See Everett M. Rogers and Floyd Shoemaker, Communication of Innovations: A Cross-Cultural Approach, New York: Free Press, 1971), p. 103.

a number of concepts and approaches from some rapidly developing social and cognitive psychology theories will be considered. The common goal of this body of literature is to explore the basic elements and processes by which individuals make judgments, evaluations or decisions about people, events, contemplated actions and potential outcomes regarding them. These areas of study acknowledge a common debt to Heider's attribution formulation.

Attribution Theory

The following assumptions were established by Heider's work: "(1) People perceive behavior as being caused. (2) The causal locus lies either in the person or in the environment. (3) An action outcome is perceived to be an additive function of the environmental force and the effective person force. (4) The person force is in turn a multiplicative function of the other's power or ability and the effort he exerts."[1]

Subsequent research by Jones and Davis[2] has reinforced the person focus of the theoretical orientation and

---

[1]See Gary Cronkhite and Jo R. Liska, "The Judgment of Communicant Acceptability," Persuasion: New Directions in Theory and Research, eds. Michael E. Roloff and Gerald R. Miller (Beverly Hills: Sage, 1980), pp. 116-117; Heider, The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations, p. 23; and Schneider, Person Perception, p. 62.

[2]Edward E. Jones and Keith E. Davis, "From Acts to Dispositions: The Attribution Process in Person

developed the concept of the distinctive or "noncommon" effect. Their approach reasons that when a person's behavior is "normal" and socially desirable, it is basically uninformative. When behaviors depart from what is commonly expected, observers infer causality of the speaker's behavior on the basis of a range of what they perceive to be possible alternatives. This perception and inference process is dependent then on category-based expectancies or deviations from them. Also the degree to which information provides fewer distinctive reasons a speaker has for an action and the less these reasons are widely shared in a community, the more salient that action becomes in identifying dispositions of the speaker.

The Jones and Davis model is designed for settings in which an individual perceives only one instance of speaker's behavior. Another model which accounts for behavior in single instances is Kelley's Causal Schemata Model.[1]

Perception," Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, ed. Leonard Berkowitz (NY: Academic Press, 1965), p. 219.

[1]See Harold H. Kelley, "Causal Schemata and the Attribution Process," Attribution: Perceiving the Causes of Behavior, eds. Edward E. Jones, et al. (Morristown, NJ: General Learning Process, 1972); and Kelley, "Attribution," p. 458; Dayton J. Pruitt and Chester A. Insko, "Extension of the Kelley Attribution Model: The Role of Comparison-Object Consensus, Target-Object Consensus, Distinctiveness, and Consistency," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1980, 39, pp. 39-58.

Acknowledging the causal schemata form as a significant subset of cognitive schemata delineated in Piaget's research, Kelley asserts: "Causal schemata reflect the individual's basic notions of reality and his assumptions about the existence of a stable external world. . . ."[1] The schema framework provides a matrix type patterning of available information, regarding what could have ostensibly been the causes of behavior, to arrive at inferences about them. These schema are activated and manifest in a wide variety of learning, judgment and expectational circumstances. According to Kelley's colleague Kanouse,[2] even when an observer lacks information to complete the framework, the blank data matrix cells are filled in with reasonable guesses, or behaviors of greatest likelihood, or normative expectancies. The effect of language variation with these expectancies and the types of generalizing inferences produced is a modest area of ongoing research[3] which will be examined later in message research.

---

[1]Kelley, "Causal," p. 153.

[2]David E. Kanouse, "Language, Labeling, and Attribution," Attribution: Perceiving the Causes of Behavior, eds. Edward E. Jones, et al. (Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press, 1972), p. 121.

[3]See David E. Kanouse, Language, p. 122; Saul M. Kassin, "Consensus Information, Prediction, and Causal Attribution: A Review of the Literature and Issues," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, p. 1966; I. Markova and J. Farmer, "On Problems of Context and

These attributive models have had scant empirical testing outside of Western contexts and the methodological and sampling problems of these studies appear to preclude their generalizability.[1] Attribution research with American Indian groups has been limited as well. Corenblum[2] failed to find the distinctiveness effect expected with manipulation of race effects. Aboud and Mitchell[3] found young Indians (6-9 years) were more accurate in attributing ethnicity preferences than were their Anglo peers.

With this paucity of theory based cross-cultural research, a search of collateral literature must be undertaken to examine theory important to person and

---

and Attribution in Verbal Reasoning." European Journal of Social Psychology, 1978, 8, p. 21; Leslie McArthur, "The How and What of Why: Some Determinants and Consequences of Causal Attribution," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1972, 22, p. 171; Klaus Fiedler, "Causal and Generalizing Inferences from Simple Sentences," Zeitschrift fur Sozialpsychologie, 1978, 9, p. 37; and John B. Pryor and Mitchell Kriss, "The Cognitive Dynamics of Salience in the Attribution Process," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1977, 35, p. 49.

[1]See Elliott McGinnies and Charles D. Ward, "Persuasibility as a Function of Source Credibility and Locus of Control: Five Cross Cultural Experiments," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1974, 42, p. 360; and Ramadhar Singh, Meenakshi Gupta, Ajit K. Dalal, "Cultural Difference in Attribution of Performance: An Integration-Theoretical Analysis," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, p. 1342.

[2]Corenblum, "Effects," p. 199.

[3]Aboud and Mitchell, "Ethnic," p. 17.

language characteristics and to assess their possible import
for this study.

Script Processing and Social Inference

Explorations of complex information processing and
social and cognitive functions in inference making have
taken form in several related areas including Abelson's
Script-Processing Theory and studies of attitude, attitude
formation and attitude-behavior relationships.[1] Defining a
script as a "coherent sequence of events expected by the
individual, involving him either as participant or
observer,"[2] Abelson extends implicational molecule theory in
an episodic or vignette conceptualization that parallels the
proposals of Tulving's episodic and semantic memory.[3]
Although the theory does acknowledge verbal and non-verbal
representation in complex interrelationships, there is a

-----

[1]See Robert B. Cialdini, Richard E. Petty and John T.
Cacioppo, "Attitude and Attitude Change," Annual Review of
Psychology, 1981, 32, p. 358.

[2]Robert S. Wyer and Donal E. Carlson, Social Cognition,
Inference and Attribution (Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum,
1979), p. 30.

[3]Endel Tulving, "Episodic and Semantic Memory,"
Organization of Memory, eds. Endel Tulving and Wayne
Donaldson (New York: \cademic, 1972), pp. 381-403.

lack of precision that would permit clear hypotheses and empirical tests of the various elements and their representations. In particular questions remain about the representations of information in a schemata focused on specific persons and events and the relation those schemata have to more general classes of stimuli.[1] In general script-processing, like research in person perception, salience effects and persuasive messages, does not explain many instances of evaluative complexity in which inferential processes display higher orders of integration. The previously mentioned general limitation of equivalence of concepts and their representations in any cross-cultural test of these ideas is a concern here.

In their 1979 work, Wyer and Carlston explore a frame for such complexity. Proposing to approach the representation of social stimuli in memory and the effect this representation has on judgment, Wyer has formulated a set of postulates related to earlier network models of memory. Wyer constructs these three interconnecting network or structures for the organization of information about persons:

> 1) a superstructure, consisting of schemata about individual persons or categories of persons and the relations among them;
> 2) a set of schema substructures, each pertaining to a particular schema in the superstructure, and consisting

---

[1]See Wyer and Carlston, Social Cognition, p. 67.

of concepts about attributes and behaviors that are
associated with this schema;
3) a semantic structure, consisting of attributes and
behaviors that, while used to characterize persons, are
associated on the basis of their semantic similarity,
independently of any particular person or group they
may describe.[1]

Within semantic structure Wyer and Carlston discuss the
possibility that judges or evaluators may have patterns of
"implicit 'theories' about what behaviors go together"[2] and
that these patterns may be of a semantic nature. Wyer and
Carlston continue by examining interrelationships of the
structure, types of inference and the general processes of
memory search and inference making. Although they address
verbal communication and acknowledge Kanouse's work in his
formulation, at this stage of development it is
insufficiently specific in accounting for the effects of
structural language variables and cultural variables that
may be directly tested.

Another area of related theoretic concepts is valuable
in assessing important cross-cultural elements. Indeed Wyer
and Carlston acknowledge that their use of concept
identification processes, information encoding, associative
processes and human memory come from what is fundamentally

---

[1]Wyer and Carlston, Social Cognition, p. 73.

[2]See Wyer and Carlston, Social Cognition, p. 76; Harry
C. Triandis, ed., Variations in Black and White Perceptions
of the Social Environment (Urbana: University of Illinois,
1976), p. 87.

theory and research in cognitive psychology. From an overview of current research it appears that only at this level can questions of how the effect of language structure, person and cultural differences be asked and elementally accounted for. Questions of the effects that culture membership have on individual or group evaluations of available information in general, and educational decision making in specific, have only begun to be examined.[1] In formulating those questions and identifying salient variables that account for differences in perception of social stimuli across cultures, several thorny problems appear. The problem of conceptual equivalents, which has been noted previously, is still of major concern here. But an even greater concern is for the appropriateness of the level at which these elements may be studied. These elements and their interrelationships which constitute the differences in cultural sets appear too complex and minute for analysis and testing at a macro-construct level. But do they disintegrate and become unidentifiable at a micro-construct level of study? What elements explored at this level are basic to the person and culture as entities? In

----

[1]M. Foshi, "Introduction," Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 1980, 11, 3, p. 260.

research investigating interactions of and response to
varying informational situations, explorations of cognitive
response emerge.[1] Finding theoretical direction for these
explorations cross-culturally is an exercise in
insufficiency.   A search for a current empirical base is
equally bleak.

General implications of these culture and language
differences at this level have been noted by Piagetian
research, but as stated previously, little subsequent
research has been undertaken. Socialization theories
including Witkin's and Berry's psychological differentiation
theory and research are of such scope that they obscure much
complexity (including language and speech) in favor of
delineating broader behavioral spheres within cultural and
physical environments.[2]

To focus on language and speech, and persons and events
in a cross-cultural context, is to rely on a verytenuous
theoretical synthesis of research in social and cognitive
psychology and linguistic relativity. This focus is an
attempt to relate what is known within this culture about
how individuals form impressions and make judgments and to

---

[1]See Perloff and Brock, "Thinking Makes It So," p. 67;
Langer, "Rethinking," p. 41; Cialdini et al., "Attitude," p.
359.

[2]Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition, "What's
Cultural About Cross-Cultural Cognitive Psychology?" Annual
Review of Psychology, 1979, 30, p. 157.

compare that process to one in another culture. It asserts that those who use language differently are both perceived differently and directed by their language to different types of observations and evaluations. It requires that the elements in such an interaction and process be questioned.

Current Research in Speaker Elements

Characteristics pertinent to the speakers and their roles may be approached from the artificial divisions of those characteristics that are observable through verbal, non-verbal and visual means and those characteristics requiring cognitive mediation such as reputational aspects or those attributed to the actor by self or others.

An extensive literature is emerging regarding those more salient, field engulfing sender stimuli that are primarily visual in nature and which appear to interact strongly with other speaker characteristics. General appearance characteristics such as degree of illumination, complexity novelty in actor dress, solo status,[1] racial differences,[2] and gender[3] have been found to affect

---

[1]Leslie McArthur, Dennis L. Post, "Figural Emphasis and Person Perception," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1977, 13, p. 520.

[2]D. Thomas Porter, "An Experimental Investigation of the Effect of Racial Prejudice and Racial Perception Upon Communication Effectiveness," Speech Monographs, 1974, 41, p. 179.

[3]McArthur and Post, "Figural Emphasis," p. 520.

perceptions in ways that generate what Taylor and Fiske[1]
term the "top of the head phenomena." Moving toward more
mediated concepts, the positive effects of physical
attractiveness on persuasive power is substantiated by
Norman[2] and Jones.[3] Other more or less cognitively
mediated,[4] ruled governed visual symbols systems of
kinesics[5] have been researched in varying degrees and across
a variety of cultures.[6] These studies indicate a need to
control for these visual stimuli in experimental design.

---

[1]Taylor and Fiske, "Salience," p. 253.

[2]Ross Norman, "When What is Said Is Important: A
Comparison of Expert and Attractive Sources," Journal of
Experimental Psychology, 1976, 12, p. 294.

[3]Russell A. Jones and Jack W. Brehm, "Attitudinal
Effects of Communicator Attractiveness When One Chooses To
Listen," Readings in Attitude Change, eds. Samuel Himmelfarb
and Alice H. Eagly (New York: Wiley, 1974).

[4]Langer, "Rethinking," p. 56.

[5]Ray L. Birdwhistell, Introduction to Kinesics
(Louisville: University of Louisville Press, 1952); Ray L.
Birdwhistell, Kinesics and Context: Essays on Body Motion
Communication (New York: Ballantine, 1970); Paul Ekman and
Wallace V. Friesen, "The Repertoire of Non-verbal Behavior:
Categories Origins, Usage, and Coding," Semiotica, 1969, 1,
p. 49; and Paul Ekman and Wallace V. Friesen, "Relative
Importance of Face, Body, and Speech in Judgments of
Personality and Affect," Journal of Personality and Social
Psychology, 1980, 38, p. 270.

[6]Alan Lomax, "Culture-Style Factors in Face-to-Face
Interaction," Organization of Behavior in Face-to-Face
Interaction, ed. Adam Kendon (Chicago: Mouton, 1975), p.
471.

Speaker related paralinguistic characteristics have been studied as contributors to message effects and personal attributions. Gender related speech acoustical characteristics such as rising intonations found in tag questioning[1] and effects of pitch and speech rate have shown significant impact on how the speaker is perceived.[2]

Distinctly verbal characteristics attributable to the speaker that have been studied in relation to reputation or

---

[1]See Robin T. Lakoff, "Language and Sexual Identity," _Semiotica_, 1977, 19, p. 119; and Nora Newcombe and Diane B. Arnkoff, "Effects of Speech Style and Sex of Speaker on Person Perception," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology_, 1979, 37, p. 1293.

[2]See William Apple, Lynn A. Streeter and Robert M. Karuss, "Effects of Pitch and Speech Rate on Personal Attributions," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology_, 1979, 37, p. 715. Bruce L. Smith, Bruce L. Brown, William J. Strong, and Alvin C. Rencher, "Effects of Pitch and Speech Rate on Personality Perception," _Language and Speech_, 1975, 18, p. 145; Norman Miller, Geoffrey Maruyama, Rex Julian Beaber, and Keith Valone, "Speed of Speech and Persuasion," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology_, 1976, 34, p. 615.

character include listenability and vocabulary diversity,[1]
gender appropriate intensity of language,[2] and latitude of
language choice in relation to source gender and
credibility.[3] In general males and sources attributed high
credibility are less restricted in language choices that
maintain high persuasiveness.[4]

It is quickly evident that the largest body of research
on speaker characteristics is in the area of reputation or
what has been generally termed source of credibility.[5]

---

[1]See Tamara Carbone, "Stylistic Variables as Related to
Source Credibility: A Content Analysis Approach," Speech
Monographs, 1975, 42, p. 99; and James J. Bradac, Catherine
W. Konsky, Robert A. Davies, "Two Studies of the Effects of
Linguistic Diversity Upon Judgments of Communicator
Attributes and Message Effectiveness," Communication
Monographs, 1976, 43, p. 70.

[2]Michael Burgoon and D. Stewart, "Empirical
Investigations of Language: I. The Effects of Sex of
Source, Receiver, and Language Intensity on Attitude
Change," Human Communication Research, 1975, 1, p. 244.

[3]Michael Burgoon, "Empirical Investigations of Language
Intensity: III. The Effects of Source Credibility and
Language Intensity of Attitude Change and Person
Perception," Human Communication Research, 1975, 1, p. 251.

[4]Burgoon and Bettinghaus, "Persuasive," p. 152.

[5]Samuel Himmelfarb and Alice H. Eagly, "Current Trends
in Attitude Theory and Research," Readings in Attitude
Change (New York: Wiley, 1974), pp. 594-643; Robert
Cialdini, "Attitude," pp. 389-92.

Studies of physical attractiveness and expertness,[1] information on role and occupation,[2] expectations about actors such as likelihood of success, probable opinion, luckiness, and probability of liking[3] indicate support for the idea that speaker effects are related to receiver judgments in terms of past consistency.[4]

Overall the research on the interaction of source credibility with message and receiver variables has produced a mixed set of results. In cognitive response

---

[1]See Norman, "When What," p. 294; Jo An Horai, Nichaolas Nacceri and Elliot Fatoullah, "The Effects of Expertise and Physical Attractiveness Upon Opinion Agreement and Liking," Sociometry, 1974, 37, p. 601.

[2]See Bobby J. Calder, "Informational Cues and Attributions Based on Role Behavior," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1974, 10, p. 121; David M. Messick, and Glenn D. Reeder, "Roles, Occupations, Behaviors and Attributions," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1974, 10, p. 126; and Arthur G. Miller, "Constraint and Target Effects in the Attribution of Attitudes," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1976, 12, p. 325.

[3]See Miron Zuckerman, "Attribution of Success and Failure Revisted, or: The Motivational Bias is Alive and Well in Attribution Theory," Journal of Personality, 1979, 47, p. 245; Dennis T. Regan, Ellen Straus, Russell Fazio, "Liking and the Attribution Process," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1974, 10, p. 385; and Icek Ajzen, Carol Ann Dalto and Daniel P. Blyth, "Consistency and Bias in the Attribution of Attitudes," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, 10, p. 1871.

[4]Kelley and Michela, "Attribution," pp. 468-469.

research McGinnies[1] found a high credibility speaker was deemed more persuasive than a low credibility speaker with receivers initially opposing the advocated position; but there were no credibility effects when the receiver was less opposed to advocacy at the outset. Bock and Saine[2] reported a low credibility source persuasive when subjects favored the advocated position initially. Sternthal[3] found that a source of moderate credibility produced greater agreement than did a high credibility source if receivers were initially for the advocated position.

Cronkhite provides a synopsis that incorporates the recurring dimensions of safety, qualification and

[1]Elliott McGinnies, "Initial Attitude, Source Credibility and Involvement as Factors in Persuasion," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1973, 9, p. 285.

[2]Douglas G. Bock and Thomas J. Saine, "The Impact of Source Credibility, Attitude Valence and Task Sensitization on Trait Errors in Speech Evaluation," Speech Monographs, 1975, 37, p. 342.

[3]Brian Sternthal, Ruby Dkolakia, and Clark Leavitt, "The Persuasive Effect of Source Credibility: Tests of Cognitive Response," Journal of Consumer Research, 1978, 4, p. 252.

dynamism in perceptions of speakers.[1] Outlining observable characteristics that function to generate attributed characteristics, Cronkhite features a cyclical process of matching expectations and observations that produce an evaluation of the degree of acceptability of another individual. This process of perception is acknowledged to parallel a number of theories, attribution models in particular.

As much as these source credibility concepts have been examined and tested in various areas, there is continuing concern for the adequacy with which such constructs account for all that is important in perceptions of the speaker.[2] Besides artificially limiting the array of factors considered in accounting for source contributions, there are major reservations about whether even the multidimensioned construct is valid across situations "because they depend on the identity of the communicator and

---

[1]See Kim Griffin, "The Contributions of Studies of Source Credibility to a Theory of Interpersonal Trust in the Communication Process," Psychological Bulletin, 1967, 68, p. 112; and James C. McCrosky, "Scales for the Measurement of Ethos," Speech Monographs, 1966, 33, p. 71.

[2]See Gary Cronkhite and Jo Liska, "A Critique of Factor Analytic Approaches to the Study of Credibility," Communication Monographs, 1976, 43, p. 91; David K. Berlo, James B. Lemert and Robert J. Mertz, "Dimensions of Evaluating the Acceptability of Message Sources," Public Opinion Quarterly, 1969, 33, p. 563.

the role a communication is expected to perform."[1] Despite

these limitations of the source credibility concepts, a body

of research exists which looks at the interrelationships of

differing characteristics of the speaker and the possibility

of differing processes and degree of mediation these

characteristics may call forth in receivers.   Some

researchers propose a mathematical model of the effect of

credibility on message acceptance.[2]   A limited number of

studies have examined the extension of these models and

concepts of speaker characteristics across cultures.   These

studies have methodological and sampling problems   which

have been referred to previously.[3]

<div align="center">

Current Research in Message and

Language Characteristics

</div>

In the Western or occidental rhetorical tradition, much

communication specifically designed to persuade or bring

---

[1]Alice H. Eagly and Samuel Himmelfarb, "Attitudes and Opinions," _Annual Review of Psychology_, 1978, _29_, p. 522.

[2]See Norman H. Anderson, "Integration Theory and Attitude Change," _Psychological Review_, 1971, _78_, p. 171; Michael H. Birnbaum, Rebecca Wong, Leighton K. Wong, "Combining Information from Sources that Vary in Credibility," _Memory and Cognition_, 1976, _4_, p. 330; J. McKillip and J. D. Edwards, "Source Characteristics and Attitude Change," _Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin_, 1975, _1_, p. 135. Cialdini, "Attitudes," pp. 384-386.

[3]See McGinnies and Ward, "Persuasibilty," pp. 360; Singh, Guptal and Dalal, "Cultural Difference," p. 1342.

about change has been subsumed in either rational/logical or emotive/affective categories. There is, however, a dearth of contemporary research in either of these areas.[1]

Aspects of message transmitted in a one to many setting may be analyzed, for the purpose of this study, from four overlapping vantage points: (1) a look overall at the recognized strategies; (2) the idea of message content or topic; (3) message style including language and word choices; (4) message structure or organization. In the broader scope of change strategy and applied message aspects, it is possible to locate what seem to be diverse approaches.

Zaltman,[2] as presented earlier, notes 17 change strategies which connote a variety of possible communication techniques designed to generate compliance. Little research has been completed across cultures that sheds light on these strategies and the advisability of their use. Only very general observations are available. For example, Brislin[3]

---

[1]Burgoon and Bettinghaus, _Persuasive_, p. 143.

[2]Zaltman, _Processes_, pp. 4-5.

[3]Richard W. Brislin, "Introduction to Social Psychology," _Handbook of Cross-cultural Psychology_, Vol. 5, eds. Harry C. Triandis and Richard W. Brislin (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980), p. 7.

notes that the preoccupation with content in person to person communication, which is characteristic of much of North American attitude change literature, has tended to obscure the form of the communication, which researchers from other cultures find to be much more important.

Since most message characteristic research is tied to speaker variables as well, the limited exceptions that occur in the previously mentioned research on language and attribution[1] warrant mention again here. This research attempts to account for attributional consequences primarily on the basis of language antecedents and is thus related to the language or message variables of this proposed study. However, this research appears to be limited by the single simple sentence stimulus form used. Subjects in each of these studies were asked to respond with probable cause choices to limited informational sets that varied in language (usually verb categories) and information types (distinctiveness, consistency and consensus). Another limitation of these studies that may be especially questionable for cross-cultural extrapolation is the assumption that each researcher makes that, as McArthur[2]

---

[1]Kanouse, "Language," p. 122.

[2]McArthur, "The How," p. 174.

states:

> Although both the event description and the information
> presentation are symbolic and brief rather than live
> and lengthy, this state of affairs is not uncommon in
> everyday life. Someone will often tell you what so and
> so did, and he will feel quite justified in asking you
> why you think he did it. And, you would probably be
> quite willing to give your 'causal opinion' with even
> the scantiest information.

Such behavior may be class[1] and/or culture related.[2] The

research does point to relationships between language,

"reasoning" and attribution.[3] Manipulation of less directly

language related and more issue evaluative message variables

has received some attention. Research on social influence

in the form of effectiveness of direct and indirect

---

[1]Basil Bernstein, "Elaborated and Restricted Codes: Their Social Origins and Some Consequences," American Anthropologist Special Publication, 1964, 66, 2, p. 55.

[2]See Edward T. Hall, The Silent Language (Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1959), p. 10; Edward T. Hall, Beyond Culture (Garden City, NY: Anchor Books, 1976), p. 49; and W. P. Robinson, "Dialogue of Deficit and Difference in Language Proficiency," Linguistics, 1975, 151, p. 27.

[3]See I. Markova and J. Farmer, "On Problems of Context and Attribution in Verbal Reasoning," European Journal of Social Psychology, 1978, 8, p. 21; J. B. Pryor and M. Kriss, "The Cognitive Dynamics of Salience in the Attribution Process," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1977, 35, p. 49; and Eliot R. Smith and Fredrick D. Miller, "Salience and the Cognitive Mediation of Attribution," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, 12, p. 2240.

persuasion has been interpreted to support the idea that subjects seek consistency with expectation.[1]

Further complicating research in this area, Burgoon asserts "no studies have investigated what kinds of structures are useful in particular situations."[2] A 1963 study of written English by Darnell[3] indicates that the primary variable in efficacy of organizational pattern is familiarity which parallels attribution research concern for expectation. Zuckerman[4] and Ruble and Feldman[5] found presentation order to affect relationships of consensus, consistency and distinctiveness information. In both studies, consensus was reported to be the only information affected by order. But as Kelley[6] points out there is a

---

[1]Herbert D. Saltzstein and Louis Sandberg, "The Relative Effectiveness of Direct and Indirect Persuasion, *Journal of Psychology*, 1975, *91*, p. 35; Eagly and Himmelfarb, "Attitudes," pp. 523, 527.

[2]Burgoon, "Persuasive," p. 148.

[3]Donald K. Darnell, "The Relation Between Sentence Order and the Comprehension of Written English," *Speech Monographs*, 1963, *30*, p. 97.

[4]Miron Zuckerman, "Actions and Occurrences in Kelley's Cube," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1978, *36*, p. 647.

[5]Diane N. Ruble and Nina S. Feldman, "Order of Consensus, Distinctiveness, and Consistency Information and Causal Attributions," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1976, *34*, p. 930.

[6]Kelley, "Attribution," p. 463.

possibility that each type of information is treated uniquely.

Considerably more research addresses message content as Brislin stated. But not only does the message content or topic variable have limited applicability across cultures, it is also the most difficult to control.[1] Topic interaction with other message aspects (i.e., organization, length, language intensity) speaker aspects (credibility, expertness, salience) and receiver aspects of ego or issue involvement[2] affect the study. In addition to the cognitively and culturally mediated ramifications of topic and content, there needs to be concern for the interplay and overlap of this essentially semantic aspect with aspects of style (including word choices, and therefore, intensity, patterning or structure choice and sequencing of syntactic and topical units).[3]

Message elements research is also embodied in contemporary studies of language and society.

---

[1]Burgoon, "Persuasion," p. 142.

[2]Robert E. Petty and John T. Cacioppo, "Issue Involvement Can Increase or Decrease Persuasion by Enhancing Message-Relevant Cognitive Responses," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, pp. 1915-1926.

[3]See Burgoon and Bettinghaus, "Persuasive," p. 152; Michael Burgoon and Lyle B. King, "The Mediation of Resistance to Persuasion Strategies by Language Variables and Active-Passive Participation," Human Communication Research, 1974, 1, pp. 30-41; Burgoon and Stewart, "Empirical," pp. 244-248.

Sociolinguistic research has begun to focus on the idea that speech, like language, is structured, but it sets aside the assumption of homogeneous knowledge and use of language even within mono-lingual communities.[1] Hymes views communication functions in which a particular language is but one component, "together with other varieties of language, and modes of communication, within a system of scenes, participants, channels, and acts and genres of speech."[2]

The possibility of having two or more "speech communities" within what is assumed to be a predominantly monolingual Anglo and American Indian community has been suggested by Dinges, et al.[3] and Cooley,[4] Cooley and Lujan,[5]

---

[1]See Dell Hymes, Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1974); Harold Garfinkel, Studies in Ethnomethodology (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1967); and Jack N. Mitchell, Social Exchange, Dramaturgy, and Ethnomethodology: Toward a Paradigmatic Synthesis (NY: Elsevier, 1978).

[2]Dell Hymes, "Linguistic Method in Ethnography: Its Development in the U.S.," Method and Theory in Linguistics, ed. Paul L. Garvin (The Hague: Mouton, 1970), p. 256.

[3]Norman G. Dinges, Joseph E. Trimble, Spero M. Manson, Frank G. Pasquale, "The Social Ecology of Counseling and Psychotherapy with American Indians," Cross-Cultural Counseling and Psychotherapy: Foundation and Evaluation of Cultural Considerations, eds. Anthony J. Marsella and Paul Pederson (NY: Pergamon, 1980), pp. 30-31.

[4]Cooley, "Spokes," n.p.

[5]Ralph Cooley and Philip Lujan, "A Structural-Cultural Analysis of Native American Students' Speeches and Its

and Cooley and Babich.[1] These studies present a careful

description of prestigious American Indian males' public and American Indian students' classroom speeches. Their analyses point to structural and organizational patterns that differ from those of Western rhetorical tradition. Specifically these studies identify interrelated elements of American Indian public speaking. Within the broad category of message topic emerge characteristics of subtopic sequencing, transitions and within topic cohesion. Cooley et al found that American Indian speeches treat topics in a way analogous to patterns in the spokes of a wheel. Subtopics are like the spokes of a wheel which converge in a central point or theme but which are not explicitly or directly related to or made to touch the other spokes in the wheel. The wheel metaphor is further employed to represent the speaker moving about the rim of the wheel reporting on the topic from a perspective which allows a focus on the source of the information rather than on the information itself. This focus in turn implies the individual listeners may draw their own conclusions. Besides this set of overall topic structures and perspectives which may be termed

Implications for the Teacher," Speaking, Singing and Teaching: A Multidisciplinary Approach to Language Variation, Anthropological Research Paper 20, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ, December, 1979, p. 4.

[1]Cooley and Babich, "Structures," pp. 67.

wholistic, the within subtopic structural cohesion was found to be primarily embodied in coreferential pronouns. Cooley identified complex patterns of sub-topic (or spoke) initiations that were then sustained and interrelated through pronominal referents throughout that sub-topic. Transitions between sub-topic (or perhaps because of the lack of an overt transition, topic change point is the descriptor used by Cooley et al) are rarely marked by anything other than the initiation of a new nominal referent. Again the relationship of this new nominal referent with the previous ones is not explicated but may be implied by its adjacency. In Chapter One these characteristics were summarized and contrasted with Western rhetorical elements as circular and linear structure characteristics.

Another aspect of message elements, that of message orientation, relates directly to these differences of structure and topic handling. However again there is little empirical evidence to direct its investigation. If a nominal referent within a message embodies a differing orientation or assignment of responsibility for action or outcome, how might this orientation affect receiver perceptions and evaluations of the message and speaker? Kanouse's attributionally based language research on agentry in sentence subject or object position and relationship and

the parameters of normative expectancies that they represent is the most directly related effort in this area.[1] Of further concern is the possibility that normative expectancies for the assignment of responsibility in educational settings of decision making might be different between cultures. Of specific interest to this study is the implications of research and observation on task or goal orientations versus less explicit role and responsibility assignments. There is some evidence and intuitive basis for questioning the appropriateness of a message clearly assigning responsibilities and tasks in an American Indian public speaking setting.[2]

Cronkhite and Liska[3] who assert that there is a principle that people choose to become involved in the process of persuasion in events and with other people who represent the greatest likelihood of being able to satisfy the needs and goals which are most evident and important at the time the choice is made. The adequacy of a number of concepts that have been utilized to develop explanations of

---

[1]Kanouse, "Perceiving,"p. 122; see also Markova and Farmer, "Problems," p. 23; Fiedler, "Generalizing," p. 40.

[2]See Loretta Fowler, "Wind River Political Process: An Analysis of the Symbols of Consensus," American Ethnologist, 1978, p. 749; Morris A. Forslund and Betty L. Wells, "Political Learning Among Members of a Racial-Ethnic Minority," American Indian Culture and Research Journal, 1979, 3, p. 18; Michael E. Melody, "Lakota Myth and Government: The Cosmos as the State," American Indian Culture and Research Journal, 1980, 4, p. 2.

[3]Cronkhite, "Persuasive," p. 103.

message elements in the perception of greatest likelihood communication process is implicitly questioned in this statement. As well it questions much of the present research which seeks to account carefully for outcomes of this process. Characteristics of the speakers themselves, salient aspects of the message itself, and qualities of the recipients may all interact to produce perceptions that are particular even to given situations.

Current Research in Receiver Characteristics

Aspects of receiver variables have been viewed as individual qualities, interactive processes and induced predispositions.[1] A general review of individual willingness to change, and so forth, will clarify the later discussion of a variety of hypothesized processes. Research has been conducted on gender differences. Contrary to popular opinion, Eagly[2] found females no more easily influenced than males, excepting situations of high social conformity expectation. In terms of willingness to support

---

[1]See Eagly and Himmelfarb, "Attitude," p. 252; and Kelley, "Attribution," p. 458.

[2]Alice H. Eagly, "Sex Differences in Influenceability," Psychological Bulletin, cited as in press in "Attitudes and Opinions," Annual Review of Psychology, 1978, 29, pp. 527-546.

social change, a significant difference reported[1] between male and female American Indians with women being more supportive of social change. Fowler[2] lends descriptive affirmation to this difference. Other individual qualities investigated include intelligence,[3] ability to fantasize,[4] education and social status.[5] Each of these qualities is closely related to process effects reported in a wide variety of research.

Degrees of receiver involvement in the message issue and/or its presentation are reflected in a number of areas. Burgoon andBettinghaus[6] summarizethe language intensity research findings that effects hold only when receivers are passive. Neutrality of the receiver is a condition in which

---

[1] Leonard G. Ritt, "Some Social and Political Views of American Indians," Ethnicity, 1979, 6, p. 45.

[2] Fowler, "Wind River", p. 748.

[3] Alice H. Eagly and R. Warren, "Intelligence, Comprehension, and Opinion Change," Journal of Personality, 1976, 44, p. 226.

[4] Dimico A. Infante, "Richness of Fantasy and Beliefs About Attempts to Refute a Proposal as Determinants of Attitude," Speech Monographs, 1975, 42, p. 75.

[5] See Rogers, "Communication," p. 185; and Jack Rothman, Planning and Organizing for Social Change, (NY: Columbia University Press, 1974), p. 45.

[6] Burgoon and Bettinghaus, "Persuasion," p. 152,

opinionated rejection language functions more effectively to persuade.[1] Egotism[2] and self-serving biases,[3] knowledge and reporting biases[4] and expectations[5] are constructs that have been demonstrated as receiver variables affecting perceptions.

Recently, there has been a surge of interest in receiver thought and language processes. How individuals "persuade themselves" is a question being scrutinized as

---

[1]Robert S. Mehrley and James C. McCroskey, "Opinionated Statements and Attitude Intensity as Predictors of Attitude Change and Source Credibility," Speech Monographs, 1970, 37, p. 47.

[2]Melvin L. Snyder, "Egotism and Attribution," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1976, 33, pp. 435-441.

[3]Gifford Weary Bradley, "Self-serving Biases in the Attribution Process: A Re-examination of the Fact or Fiction Question," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1978, 36, pp. 56-71.

[4]Wendy Wood, Alice H. Eagly, Shelly Chaiken, "Causal Inferences About Communication and Their Effect on Opinion Change," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1978, 36, pp. 424-435.

[5]See Saltzstein, "Relative," p. 39; Claude M. Steele, Thomas M. Ostrom, "Perspective-mediated Attitude Change: When Is Indirect Persuasion More Effective Than Direct Persuasion?" Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1974, 29, pp. 737-741; Linda G. Bell, Robert A. Wicklund, Gary Manko, Chris Larkin, "When Unexpected Behavior Is Attributed to the Environment," Journal of Research in Personality, 1976, 10, pp. 316-327; Regan, "Liking," p. 385; Kay Deaux, "Sex: A Perspective on the Attribution Process," New Directions in Attribution Research, Vol. 1, eds. John H. Harvey, William Ickes, Robert F. Kidd (Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1976), p. 335; M. J. Rodin, "Liking Disliking: Sketch of an Alternative View," Personality and Social Psychology, 1978, 4, pp. 473-478.

representing a set of intervening variables that explain the diversity of independent variables observed to affect communication behavior.[1]

Receiver response to the effects of language and reasoning have been of recurring interest,[2] but the studies focus on the intrapersonal cognitive reorganization rather than antecedent language variables. The attribution model appearsto look most directly at antecedent language,[3] but research stemming from this area has tended to look primarily at enveloping constructs of consistency,

---

[1]See Perloff and Brock, "Thinking," p. 67; Richard E. Petty and John T. Cacippo, "Issue Involvement Can Increase or Decrease Persuasion by Enhancing Message-Relevant Cognitive Responses," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, pp. 1915-1926; John T. Capioppo and Richard E. Petty, "Effects of Message Repetition and Position on Cognitive Responses, Recall and Persuasion," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, pp. 97-109; Chester A. Insko, E. Allan Lind, Stephen LaTour, "Persuasion, Recall, and Thoughts," Representative Research in Social Psychology, 1976, 7, pp. 66-78.

[2]See Guido Peeters, "Language, Meaning and Cognition: A Social-Psychological Approach," Communication and Cognition, 1977, 10, 3/4 pp. 63-88; Robert S. Wyer, Jr., Cognitive Organization and Change: An Information Processing Approach, (Potomac, MD: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1974); Robert S. Wyer, "Some Implications of the 'Socratic Effect' for Alternative Models of Cognitive Consistency," Journal of Personality, 1974, 42, pp. 399-419; and Marilyn Henninger, Robert S. Wyer, "The Recognition and Elimination of Inconsistencies Among Syllogistically Related Beliefs: Some New Light on the 'Socratic Effect,'" Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1976, 34, pp. 680-693.

[3]See Kanouse, "Language," p. 161; and McArthur, "The How," p. 174.

distinctiveness and consensus rather than at the language variables themselves.[1]

In summary, there appear to be three current thrusts of investigation that cross elements of the speaker, the message and the receiver: 1) examinations of variables other than those that are cognitively mediated (i.e., salience) that directly question the role of thought and therefore, language, in social interaction,[2] and 2) studies attempting to clarify the effects of roles and other external influences on generalizations about human behavior,[3] 3) explorations of processes and cognitively mediated responses that indicate that the "information" that people generate themselves is more important in evaluative judgment than is the "information" provided by others.[4] The research and conceptual ambiguity represented in this review indicate the present lack of theoretical synthesis that might account for such variability cross-culturally. If

---

[1]See Ruble and Feldman, "Order of Consensus," p. 34; Gary L. Wells and John H. Harvey, "Do People Use Consensus Information in Making Causal Attributions?" _Journal_ _of_ _Personality_ _and_ _Social_ _Psychology_, 1977, _35_, pp. 279-293.

[2]Cialdini, et al., "Attitudes," p. 359.

[3]See Robert L. Munroe and Ruth H. Munroe, "Perspectives Suggested by Anthropological Data," _Handbook_ _of_ _Cross-_ _Cultural_ _Psychology_, Vol. 1 (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980), p. 294.

[4]See Langer, "Rethinking," p. 40; Taylor and Fisher, "Salience," p. 256; and Smith and Muller, "Salience," p. 2252.

direction and focus in the third research thrust were toward viewing culture as a set of symbols that can be cognitively and linguistically represented, which symbolic elements are most important and detectable? If the information that a cultural individual generates is more important than that provided, what characterizes and affects most elementally that individual generation? Embodied in both the individual and other informational elements are cultural and linguistic kernels.   General cross-cultural research points to their inclusion in research.[1] Embodied in human interactions are salient personal characteristics and expectations of individual involvement and responsibility which current research indicates affect perception and evaluation. Do cultural differences in these characteristics account for variability in these elements? This study has proposed to test these potential differences of person and language across cultures by employing these salient variables which would commonly be a part of an educational decision making setting.

The variability that these elements of speaker, message and receiver may account for in either of these thrusts has yet to be adequately investigated.

---

[1]Perloff, "Thinking," p. 67.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The Study Sample

Anglo and American Indian board members who serve in advisory capacities in rural and urban educational settings in Oklahoma and Kansas constituted the population of this study. Educational programs with advisory board units include Community Education strategy groups, Title IV Indian Education Act parent committees, Johnson-O'Malley parent committees, and Head Start parent involvement components. In Oklahoma there are 59 active Community Education programs serving a variety of rural and urban communities.[1] Title IV Indian Education Act grantees number 287 in Oklahoma and six in Kansas.[2] Three types of Johnson-O'Malley programs operate in Oklahoma: 29 public school programs, 14 independently incorporated bodies, and 32 tribal programs.[3] Twenty-seven Head Start programs specifically serve American

---

[1]Community Education Office, State Department of Education, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

[2]I.E.A. Research and Evaluation Center V, Native American Research Institute, Norman, Oklahoma.

[3]American Indian Institute, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma.

Indian populations.[1] Each of these educational programs is required by guidelines to have functioning advisory bodies. The Indian education programs serve members of 37 federally recognized tribes and more than 60 anthropologically and linguistically identifiable tribes.[2]

The study sample consisted of 40 Anglo and 40 American Indian male and female subjects incidentally sampled from this population. Sample size calculations indicated a sample of 80 subjects to be appropriate to detect a difference of magnitude .5 standard deviation in the first order interaction at the .90 level of power[3] with alpha at the .05 level. The demographic questionnaire profiled the sample as the following table presents.

		American Indian	Anglo
Age Range	Mean	30-39 yrs.	30-39 yrs.
	Mode	30-39 yrs.	40-49 yrs.
Sex			
Male		20	16
Female		20	22

---

[1]Oklahoma Indian Education Association, Norman, Oklahoma.

[2]Oklahoma Indian Affairs Commission, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

[3]See Campbell and Cook, Quasi-Experimentation, p. 40; and Roger E. Kirk, Experimental Design: Procedures for the Behavioral Sciences (Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole, 1968), p. 4.

		American Indian	Anglo
Years of Education	Mean	15.425	16.600
	Median	15.611	17.389
	Mode	16.000	18.000
School Type			
	Public	87.5%	90.0%
Years of Advisory Board Service			
	Mean	1.050	1.100
	Median	0.167	0.241
	Mode	Less than 1 yr	Less than 1 yr

Twenty-five different tribal affiliations were reported by American Indian subjects.[1]

Research Design

How does the race of the speaker, the message organization, and the message orientation affect receiver perceptions of effectiveness? To address these questions, a field analog was proposed. To elicit data, messages which vary organization and orientation were presented on audiotape as if by male Anglo and American Indian speakers.

---

[1]See Appendix G.

The message variables fall into two categories:

1) message structure characterizable as either linear or circular.

2) message orientation characterizable as either process or solution.

Messages varying these aspects were randomly assigned to Anglo and American Indian receivers. The preceding diagram presents the system of variables and sources of variance.

This research design may also be represented by a standard schematic of multiple experimental variation groups with after only observation:

____	X_1	A	____	X_5	A
____	X_2	A	____	X_6	A
____	X_3	A	____	X_7	A
____	X_4	A	____	X_8	A

Instruments

A set of 26 seven-point bipolar behavior scales based on Triandis' behavioral differential[1] were developed and tested for construct validity against the original

---

[1]See Harry C. Triandis, "Exploratory Factor Analyses of the Behavioral Component of Social Attitudes," _Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology_, 1964, 4, pp. 420-430; Harry C. Triandis, Vasso Vassiliou and Maria Nassiakou, "Three Cross-Cultural Studies of Subjective Culture," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology Monograph Supplement_, 1968, 8, 4, pt. 2, pp. 1-42; and Cronkhite and Liska, "Communicant," p. 103; Harry C. Triandis, _Variations in Black and White Perceptions of the Social Environment_ (Urbana, IL: University of Illinois, 1976), p. 86.

McCroskey[1] dimensions of authoritativeness and character
for each of the two dependent variables of perception of the
communicator and perception of the message. Triandis'
behavioral components of social attitudes and role
performance were selected for two reasons. First, these
behaviorally based responses effectively sample three
domains of: 1) the stimulus person, message or outcome, 2)
the social behaviors, and 3) the intensity of responses made
by subjects. Second, using these behavior clusters with
which subjects have been found to give highly reliable
responses (.78 with range from .7 to .95),[2] behaviors can
be described which parallel characteristics explored in the
source credibility, communicant acceptability, and
interpersonal trust literature.[3]

---

[1]McCroskey, "Scales," pp. 71-72; see Appendix B.

[2]See Triandis, Vassilious and Nassiakou, "Three," p. 3;
and E. E. Davis, "The Issue Differential: A
Multidimensional Technique for Measuring Components of
Attitudes Towards Social Issues," Economic and Social
Review, 1977, 8, p. 118; Harry C. Triandis, Personal
Communication, March 2, 1981.

[3]See Cronkhite and Liska, "Communicant," p. 102;
Griffin, "Contribution," p. 104; Carl Iver Hovland, Irving
L. Janis, and Harold H. Kelley, Communication and
Persuasion: Pschology Studies of Opinion Change (New Haven:
Yale University Press, 1953), p. 19; and Sternthal, Dholakia
and Leavitt, "Persuasive," p. 255.

DIAGRAM OF VARIABLES AND SOURCE OF VARIANCE

INDIAN SPEAKER (A_1)			ANGLO SPEAKER (A_2)			RECEIVERS (D)
	Process (C_1)	Solution (C_2)		Process (C_1)	Solution (C_2)	Anglo (D_2)
Linear (B_2) Circular (B_1)			Linear (B_2) Circular (B_1)			
	Process (C_1)	Solution (C_2)		Process (C_1)	Solution (C_2)	American Indian (D_1)
Linear (B_2) Circular (B_1)			Linear (B_2) Circular (B_1)			

A Speaker Variable
   1 American Indian Introduction
   2 Anglo Introduction
B Message Organization
   1 Circular
   2 Linear
C Message Orientation
   1 Process
   2 Solution
D Receiver Variable
   1 American Indian
   2 Anglo

The potential outcome effectiveness scales were developed utilizing major affective domain categories[1] of receiving, responding and valuing. Behavioral differentials were constructed with terms appropriate to each of these levels of receiver receptivity including discussing, inviting, joining, and reporting. See Appendix A for the reliability and validity study report.

A post evaluative questionnaire was used to obtain demographic data. The questionnaire is designed to roughly parallel Berry's[2] indices that provide minimal descriptions of factors that are: 1) ecological (i.e., mean size of the community), 2) cultural (political roles, social roles, jurisdictional hierarchy), 3) ecocultural (combination of the previous two factors, and 4) acculturational (Western education, degree of urbanization, employment, etc.). Readability of the instruments and their accompanying directions was computed using the Fry graph[3] and found to

---

[1]David R. Krathwohl, Benjamin S. Bloom and Bertram B. Masic, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook II, Affective Domain (New York: David McKay Company, 1964), p. XX.

[2]John W. Berry, "A Cultural Ecology of Social Behavior," Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, ed. Leonard Berkowitz (New York: Academic, 1979), p. 184.

[3]See Edward B. Fry, Reading Instruction for Classroom and Clinic (New York: McGraw, 1972), pp. 230-234; Edwin H. Smith and Richard C. Culyer, "Preparing and Evaluating Adult Literacy Materials," Teaching Reading to Adults (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1975), p. 95.

be approximately at the 4.5 grade level. The introductory statement was found to be at the 8.5 level. The instruments and instructions were independently presented to three advisory board members or educators, two American Indians and one Anglo, for assessment of readability and appropriateness. The basic purpose of the study was explained and each person was asked to make comments on the instruments. If comments were not made, specific questions were asked: Did the items seem appropriate? Were they understandable? What might be changed to make it a better instrument? Suggestions focused on the questionnaire item of establishing tribal affiliation. A revised form was presented to two more American Indian board members individually and both said they understood and would answer the items and thought most board members they knew would also.

To provide more information about cognitive responses of individual subjects to the stimulus tapes, the speaker introduction and the outcomes represented in each treatment, a debriefing interview questionnaire[1] was devised to be presented following the demographic questionnaire. It was preliminarily tested by presentation to two American Indians and two Anglos.

---

[1]See Appendix C.

<u>Stimulus</u> <u>Tapes</u>

A set of four stimulus tapes was developed that characterized the message structure and orientation variables. Using the previously cited research on language organization and social planning, criteria were specified for each message style. Three communication researchers were presented with these lists of criteria and concurred that these message characteristics typified these divergent message elements.[1] Interrater agreement was 83.3%; one researcher judged the circular process and circular solution messages as not distinctly different.

Four scripts were written in message organization by message orientation styles on the general topic of sharing educational resources. These messages were validated in a multi-step process. First the researchers assisting in developing the initial set of criteria read the scripts and independently agreed that the scripts each met the particular combination of criteria. Two community educators reviewed the written scripts and independently agreed that the scripts fairly and equitably represented the concepts of sharing resources.[2] Four American Indian educators were then asked to read and rank each script by the degree of probability that it would be presented by a prestigious male

[1]See Appendix D.

[2]See Appendix E.

American Indian educator to an American Indian advisory
board audience.   The circular process message was
consistently the first choice of each educator; the circular
solution message was the second choice of each. The
messages were then tape recorded as they were orally
presented by a fifth American Indian educator. The
presentor was debriefed and asked to comment on his
preference of scripts. Again the circular process script
was preferred over the circular solution script. The reason
the presentor gave for his preference was that the circular
process seemed easier to read, more natural to speak. After
reading the circular solution script a second time, he
decided that it was not truly difficult to read but that
there was still something that was not quite right. An Elf
index[1] was computed on the two circular scripts and was
found to differ minimally (.4). The Elf index is basically
a sentence and syllable ratio used to indicate a general
difficulty level. The message was then audio tape recorded
using an actor with communication media standard male voice.

Procedure

The field procedure was standardized for training for
field researchers. The training consisted of six hours of

---

[1]Carbone, "Stylistic," p. 102.

material and procedure overview, role playing and scenario development. Three female researchers were trained, one each American Indian, Anglo and Black. The Black and American Indian collected 20% of the Anglo and American Indian data respectively. The remaining 80% of each sample was collected by the Anglo researcher.

In the field administration portion of the study, data were collected in a number of settings. Sixty percent of the American Indian subjects participated during the National Indian Education Association national convention held in Dallas, Texas on October 17-19, 1980. At a University of Oklahoma information and recruitment booth in the exhibitors hall, two researchers identified subjects by observing name tags, which provided information of tribal affiliation, and by briefly discussing their role and interest in education. The remaining 40% of the American Indian subjects were contacts who agreed to participate in their home communities.

The Anglo subjects participated in the study during two Oklahoma statewide Community Education workshops held at Fountainhead and Oklahoma City in December, 1980. Persons in attendance at these workshops were approached individually and asked to participate. Ninety-two and a half percent of the Anglo sample participated during this time. The remaining 7.5%, three individuals, were results

of contacts at these workshops and their participation was completed within the same month.

One individual participated at a time. Each participant was asked to formally agree to participate in the study by reading and signing the informed consent form. Directions for the evaluation sheets were then presented orally and in print. Each subject was then asked if they preferred earphones or not. They were told they would be listening to a tape of a two and one half minute talk by an educator who was Indian or non-Indian. The educator would be talking about sharing educational resources, the subject was informed. The individual subject then listened to one of four tapes which, along with the speaker introduction, had been randomly assigned. After hearing the tape, the subject completed the evaluation sheets, the demographic questionnaire and the debriefing interview. At the conclusion of the procedure, each subject was given a summary of information about the study[1] signed by the researcher.

---

[1]See Appendix C.

Analysis

Data from two subjects, one male American Indian and one female Anglo, were discarded because the individuals indicated during the debriefing interview that they felt distracted while listening to the tape and completing the evaluation. Two other subjects replaced these participants. Raw evaluation instrument data from all 80 observations were submitted to varimax rotated factor analysis. The initial structure emerged with a seven factor pattern.[1] On the basis of previous research and the pilot study which was interpreted in four factors,[2] this seven factor structure was forced into a four factor structure and determined interpretable.[3] Factor loadings of .46 or greater were clustered and identified as shown in Tables 3, 4, 5, 6, as expertise, character credibility, safety and negative feasibility factors.

---

[1]See Appendix H.

[2]See Appendix A.

[3]See Appendix I.

TABLE 3

FOUR FACTOR VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX[1]

FACTOR 1

EXPERTISE

Scale items with .46 or greater factor loadings	Factor Loadings
I admire this talk.	0.6636
I believe this talk was informative.	0.59338
I think these ideas were skillfully presented.	0.67197
I had difficulty understanding this talk.	-0.61650
I think this talk was not organized.	-0.61743
I think that these ideas would be good to try.	0.58123
I would discuss these ideas with other board members.	0.46340
I would discuss these ideas with other people from my community.	0.56901
I would vote for looking into these ideas.	0.72226
I would report on these ideas to another education board like ours.	0.64130
I would invite members of my community to hear this speaker at our school.	0.70500
I would join a group to work for these ideas.	0.46320

[1]For entire matrix, see Appendix I.

TABLE 4

FOUR FACTOR VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

FACTOR 2

CHARACTER CREDIBILITY

I admire the character of this person	0.67354
I would enjoy meeting this person.	0.61681
I would cooperate in a political campaign with this person.	0.49011
I would learn with the help of this person.	0.61264
I would go out for lunch with this person.	0.50754
I admire this talk.	0.60863
I believe this talk was informative.	0.52127

TABLE 5

FOUR FACTOR VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

FACTOR 3

SAFETY

I would help this person.	0.71329
I would disregard the opinion of this person.	-0.49202
I can depend on the ideas presented in this talk.	0.55091
I think the facts used in this talk are correct.	0.72756
I think that these ideas would be good ideas to try.	0.54815

TABLE 6

FOUR FACTOR VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

FACTOR 4

NEGATIVE FEASIBILITY

I dislike the ideas presented in this talk.	0.52597
I think these ideas would be controversial.	0.46215
I think these ideas would be hard to work for.	0.62064

The factor scores were then submitted to a four way (2 x 2 x 2 x 2) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) on the four dimensions of expertise, character credibility, safety and negative feasibility among and between these variables: speaker (American Indian or Anglo), structure (linear or circular), orientation (solution or process), and receiver (American Indian or Anglo). Significance was set at the .05 alpha level.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

There were no significant differences in tests for
overall effects reported here in terms of Wilks' criterion
in Table 7. However, in a univariate analysis of each of
the four factors, each source of variance was found to
contribute to differences that were significant within the
expertise and safety factors and neared significance in the
character credibility and negative feasibility factors.
First the results, none of which were significant, of
hypothesized relationships will be presented.

Hypotheses Tests

The first hypothesis states that a speaker identified
as American Indian is more positively evaluated by an
American Indian receiver and less positively evaluated by an
Anglo receiver. Table 8 presents a summary of the results
of analyses of these sources of variance. Nonsignificant
mean difference directions were as hypothesized for the
American Indian speaker in terms of character credibility
factor. An American Indian receiver evaluated more
positively ($\bar{x}=+.31$) and an Anglo receiver ($\bar{x}=+.07$) evaluated
less positively. Mean differences on the other three
factors were not in directions hypothesized. (The negative

TABLE 7

MANOVA

WILK'S LAMBDA CRITERION F VALUES

Source of Variance	df	F	Prob≤F
SPEAKER (A)	4,16	1.27	0.29
STRUCTURE (B)	4,16	0.74	0.56
ORIENTATION (C)	4,16	1.66	0.17
RECEIVER (D)	4,16	1.37	0.25
SPEAKER X STRUCTURE (AB)	4,16	1.22	0.31
SPEAKER X ORIENTATION (AC)	4,16	0.39	0.81
SPEAKER X RECEIVER (AD)	4,16	0.51	0.72
STRUCTURE X ORIENTATION (BC)	4,16	0.63	0.63
STRUCTURE X RECEIVER (BD)	4,16	1.35	0.26
ORIENTATION X RECEIVER (CD)	4,16	0.74	0.56
SPEAKER X STRUCTURE X ORIENTATION (ABC)	4,16	1.45	0.22
SPEAKER X STRUCTURE X RECEIVER (ABD)	4,16	1.92	0.11
SPEAKER X ORIENTATION X RECEIVER (ACD)	4,16	1.63	0.17
STRUCTURE X ORIENTATION X RECEIVER (BCD)	4,16	0.55	0.70
SPEAKER X STRUCTURE X ORIENTATION X RECEIVER (ABCD)	4,16	1.12	0.35

feasibility factor appeared to be in the hypothesized
direction; however, an American Indian receiver mean of +.17
indicated greater negative feasibility while the Anglo mean
of -.08 indicated less negative feasibility.) The tests of
both the multivariate and univariate analyses of variance
indicate none of the mean differences was significant. The
first hypothesis is not supported in significant mean
differences overall or within factors.

Hypothesis 1.2 states that a speaker identified as
Anglo is more positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver and
less positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver.
Table 8 presents a summary of the results. Nonsignificant
mean differences were as hypothesized for the Anglo speaker
in terms of the expertise and safety factors. An Anglo
receiver evaluated an Anglo speakermore positively ($\bar{x}$=+.20)
and an American Indian receiver evaluated an Anglo speaker
less positively ($\bar{x}$=-.28) in terms of the safety factor.
However the tests of both the multivariate and univariate
analyses of variance were not significant. The second
hypothesis is not supported in significant mean differences
overall or within factors.

Hypothesis 2.1 states that a circularly structured
message is more positively evaluated by an American Indian
receiver and less positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver.
Table 9 presents a summary of the results of analyses of

TABLE 8

SOURCE OF VARIANCE AND MEAN DIFFERENCES

SUMMARY

SPEAKER BY RECEIVER

MANOVA TEST $F (4, 16) = 0.51, < p 0.73$

Univariate Tests

	Expertise	Character Credibility	Safety	Negative Feasibility
	$F(1,64)0.01,$ $p<0.94$	$F=0.12,$ $p<0.73$	$F=0.56,$ $p<0.45$	$F=1.44,$ $p<0.23$
Hypothesis 1.1				
American Indian Speaker (A_1D_1) and Receiver	-.22	.31	.01	.17
Anglo Receiver (A_1D_2)	.09	.07	.14	-.08
Hypothesis 1.2				
Anglo Speaker and Anglo Receiver (A_2D_2)	.20	-.24	.13	.06
American Indian Receiver (A_2D_1)	-.07	-.14	-.28	-.14

TABLE 9

SOURCE OF VARIANCE AND MEAN DIFFERENCES

SUMMARY

MESSAGE STRUCTURE BY RECEIVER

MANOVA TEST $F(4,16) = 1.35, < p\ 0.26$

Univariate Tests

	Expertise	Character Credibility	Safety	Negative Feasibility
	$F=1.16$, $p<.29$	$F=2.60$, $p<.11$	$F=.30$, $p<.58$	$F=.79$, $p<.38$

Hypothesis 2.1

Circular Structure

American Indian Receiver (B_1D_1)	-.06	-.09	-.24	-.15
Anglo Receiver (B_1D_2)	.02	.06	-.07	-.00

Hypothesis 2.2

Linear Structure

Anglo Receiver (B_2D_2)	.27	-.22	.35	-.02
American Indian Receiver (B_2D_1)	-.24	.25	-.04	.17

these sources of variance. Nonsignificant mean difference directions were as hypothesized in only the negative feasibility factor with an American Indian receiver evaluating circular structure as less negatively feasible ($\bar{x}$=-.15) and an Anglo receiver evaluating circular structure in the direction of neutral negative feasibility ($\bar{x}$=.00). Mean differences on the other three factors were not in the directions hypothesized. Both the multivariate and univariate analyses of variance F tests indicate none of the mean differences was significant. Hypothesis 2.1 is not supported in significance of mean differences overall or within factors.

Hypothesis 2.2 of this study states that a linearly structured message is more positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver and less positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver. Table 9 summarizes the results of analyses of these sources of variance. Nonsignificant mean difference directions were as hypothesized in terms of three factors. Linear structure was more positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver ($\bar{x}$=.27) and less positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver ($\bar{x}$=-.24) in terms of the expertise factor. Nonsignificant safety factor means were in the direction of an Anglo receiver more positively evaluating linearly structured messages ($\bar{x}$=.35) compared to an American Indian receiver ($\bar{x}$=-.04). An Anglo receiver evaluates a linearly structured message in terms of neutral negative

feasibility ($\bar{x}=-.02$) while an American Indian receiver evaluated the same message structure in terms of greater negative feasibility ($\bar{x}=+.17$). Both the multivariate and univariate analyses of variance F tests indicate that none of the mean differences was significant. Hypothesis 2.2 is not supported in terms of significant overall or with factor differences.

Hypothesis 3.1 states that a process orientation message is more positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver and less positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver. Table 10 presents a summary of the results of analyses of these sources of variance. None of the mean differences were in directions hypothesized. Both the multivariate and univariate analyses of variance indicate that none of the mean differences was significant. Hypothesis 3.1 is not supported in terms of significant overall or within factor mean differences.

The last hypothesis of this study, 3.2, states that a solution orientation message is more positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver and less positively evaluated by an American Indian receiver. Table 10 presents a summary of the results of analyses of these sources of variance. Nonsignificant mean difference directions were as hypothesized in terms of two factors. A solution orientation message was more positively (less negatively

TABLE 10

SOURCE OF VARIANCE AND MEAN DIFFERENCES

SUMMARY

MESSAGE ORIENTATION BY RECEIVER

MANOVA TEST $F_{(4,16)} = 0.74, < p\ .57$

Univariate Tests

	Expertise	Character Credibility	Safety	Negative Feasibility
	$F=0.61,$ $p<.44$	$F=0.21,$ $p<.59$	$F=0.63,$ $p<.43$	$F=1.84,$ $p<.18$

Hypothesis 3.1

Process Orientation

American Indian Receiver $(C_1 D_1)$	.01	.00	-.27	.08
Anglo Receiver $(C_1 D_2)$	.46	-.06	.16	-.20

Hypothesis 3.2

Solution Orientation

Anglo Receiver $(C_2 D_2)$	-.17	-.09	.11	.18
American Indian Receiver $(C_2 D_1)$	-.31	.17	.00	-.06

evaluated) by an Anglo receiver ($\bar{x}$=-.17) than by an American Indian receiver ($\bar{x}$=-.31) in terms of the expertise factor. Also in terms of the safety factor the solution orientation message was more positively evaluated by an Anglo receiver ($\bar{x}$=+.11) than an American Indian receiver ($\bar{x}$=.00). Both the multivariate and univariate analyses of variance indicate that none of the mean differences was significant. Hypothesis 3.2 is not supported by significant mean differences overall or within factors.

Exploratory Analyses with Univariate Tests

Expertise Factor

There was a significant main effect difference [$F(1,64)$=5.69, $p<0.02$][1] between the orientation levels with a higher mean for process ($\bar{x}$=+.19) compared to solution ($\bar{x}$=-.19). The second order interaction of speaker, structure and receiver was significant [$F(1,64)$=7.20, $p<0.01$].[2] Simple interaction effects[3] were calculated and are presented in Table 11.

---

[1]See Appendix J.

[2]See Appendix J.

[3]See B. J. Winer, Statistical Principles in Experimental Design, 2nd ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971), pp. 347-59, 455-63.

Cell means[1] for this interaction were graphed to investigate patterns represented in these differences (Figures 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17). These graphs show differences in directions indicated in the exploratory hypotheses. Same culture levels of speaker, structure and receiver showed parallel, positive results with American Indian ($\bar{x}$=+.15) and Anglo($\bar{x}$=+.07) mean perceptions of expertise.

However when each of the other culture levels of independent variable was introduced, a significant interaction occurs. An American Indian speaker giving an American Indian receiver a linearly (Anglo) structured message was perceived as having little expertise ($\bar{x}$=-.59), while the same speaker and message presented to Anglo receivers was perceived as high in expertise ($\bar{x}$=+.49). Also when an Anglo speaker gives a circularly (American Indian) structured message to an Anglo receiver, perceived expertise was high ($\bar{x}$=+.34), while the same message structure delivered by the same speaker to an American Indian receiver was perceived as less expert ($\bar{x}$=-.27). Yet an American Indian speaker was perceived as less expert when delivering a circularly structured message to Anglo receivers (x=-.29) and more expert when presenting to American Indian receivers ($\bar{x}$=+.15).

---

[1]See Appendix K.

82

TABLE 11

SIMPLE INTERACTION EFFECTS OF

EXPERTISE FACTOR

SPEAKER (A) BY STRUCTURE (B) BY RECEIVER(D)

	F
AB for American Indian Receiver (D_1)	7.7693*
AB for Anglo Receiver (D_2)	9.1994*
AD for Circular Structure (B_1)	8.1552*
AD for Linear Structure (B_2)	5.2689*
BD for American Indian Speaker (A_1)	15.4616*
BD for Anglo Speaker (A_2)	5.1739*

*p<.05

Safety Factor

There was a significant third order interaction of speaker, structure, orientation and receiver on the safety factor [F (1,64)=4.20, p<0.04].[1] Simple, simple interaction effects were calculated and are presented in Table 18.

FIGURE 12

EXPERTISE FACTOR MEANS
STRUCTURE BY RECEIVER (BD)

FOR ANGLO SPEAKER (A_2)

Linear Structure   Circular Structure

■   American Indian Receiver

▲   Anglo Receiver
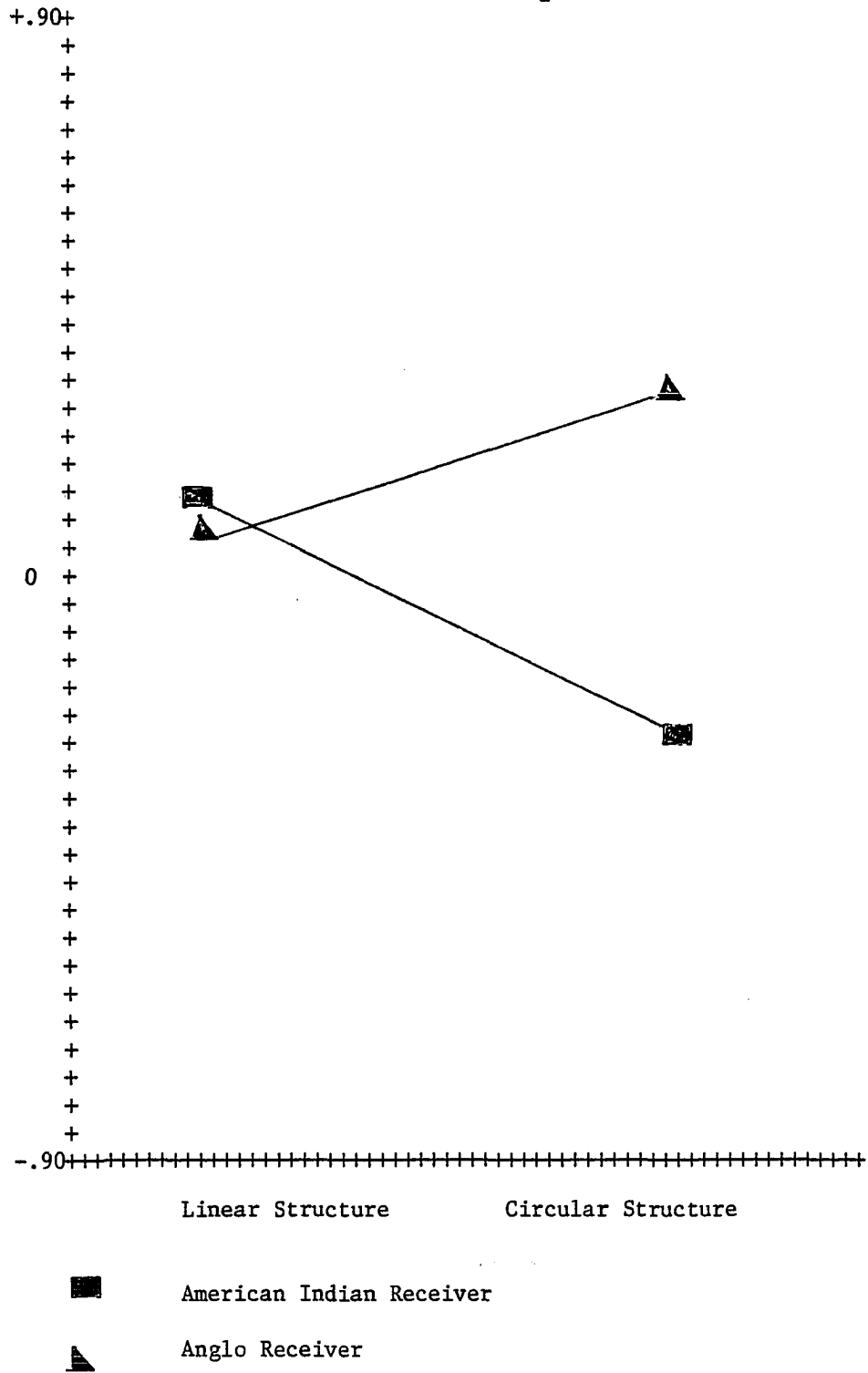
FIGURE 13

EXPERTISE FACTOR MEANS
STRUCTURE BY RECEIVER (BD)
FOR AMERICAN INDIAN SPEAKER (A_1)

Linear Structure   Circular Structure

■   American Indian Receiver

▲   Anglo Receiver

84
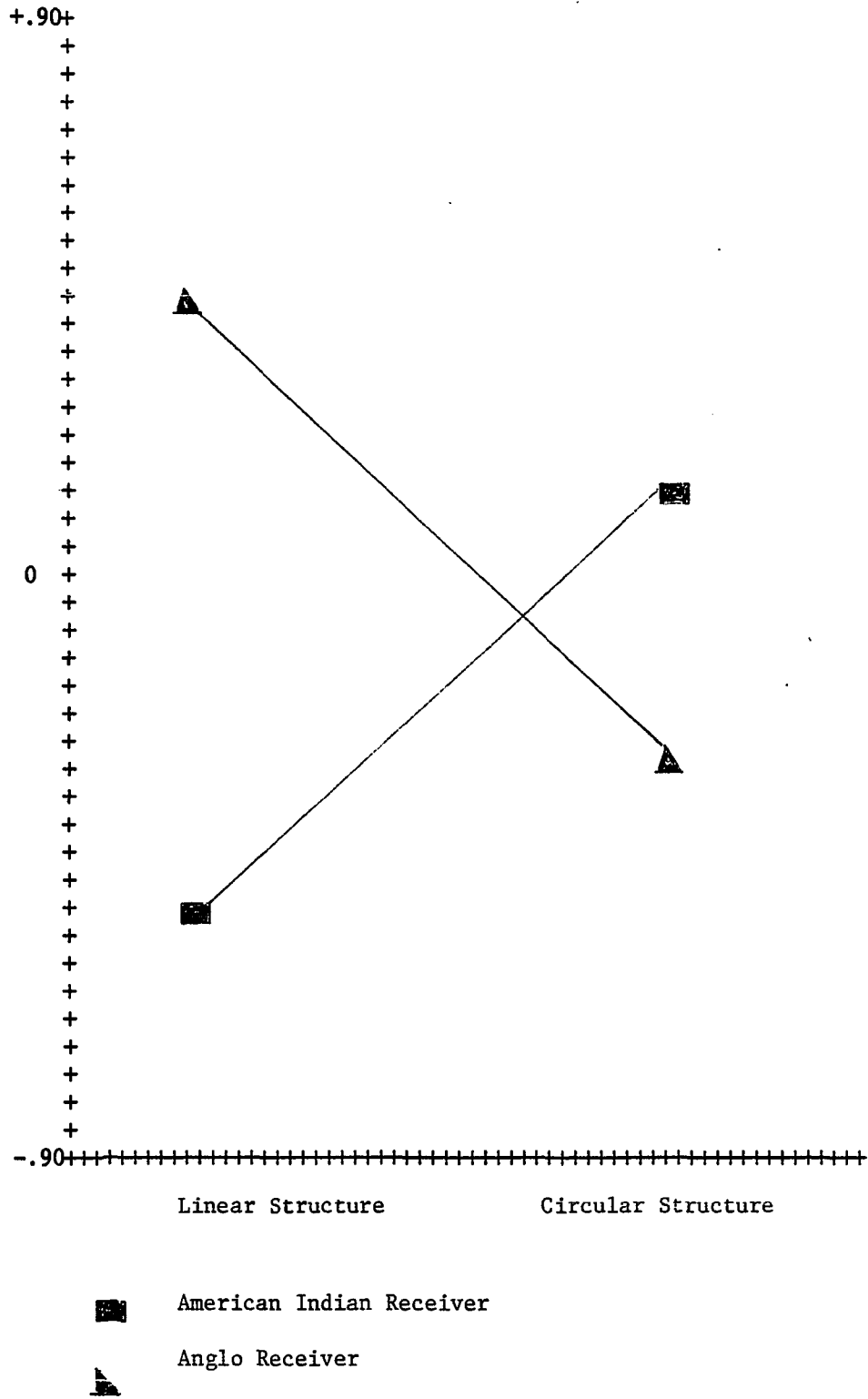
FIGURE 14

EXPERTISE FACTOR MEANS
SPEAKER BY RECEIVER (AD)

FOR LINEAR STRUCTURE (B_2)

Anglo Receiver   American Indian Receiver

☐   American Indian Speaker

△   Anglo Speaker
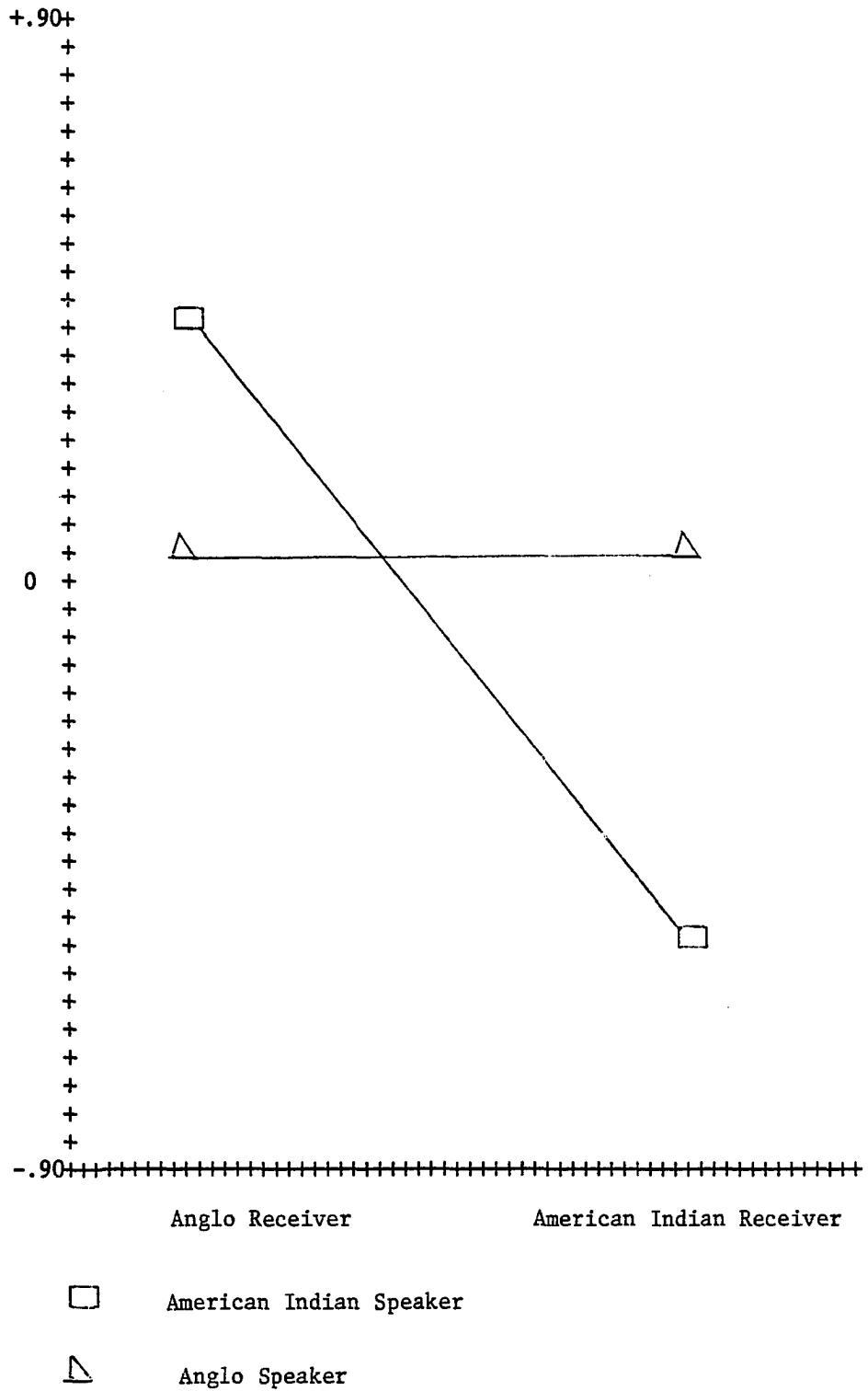
FIGURE 15

EXPERTISE FACTOR MEANS
SPEAKER BY RECEIVER (AD)
FOR CIRCULAR MESSAGE STRUCTURE (B_1)
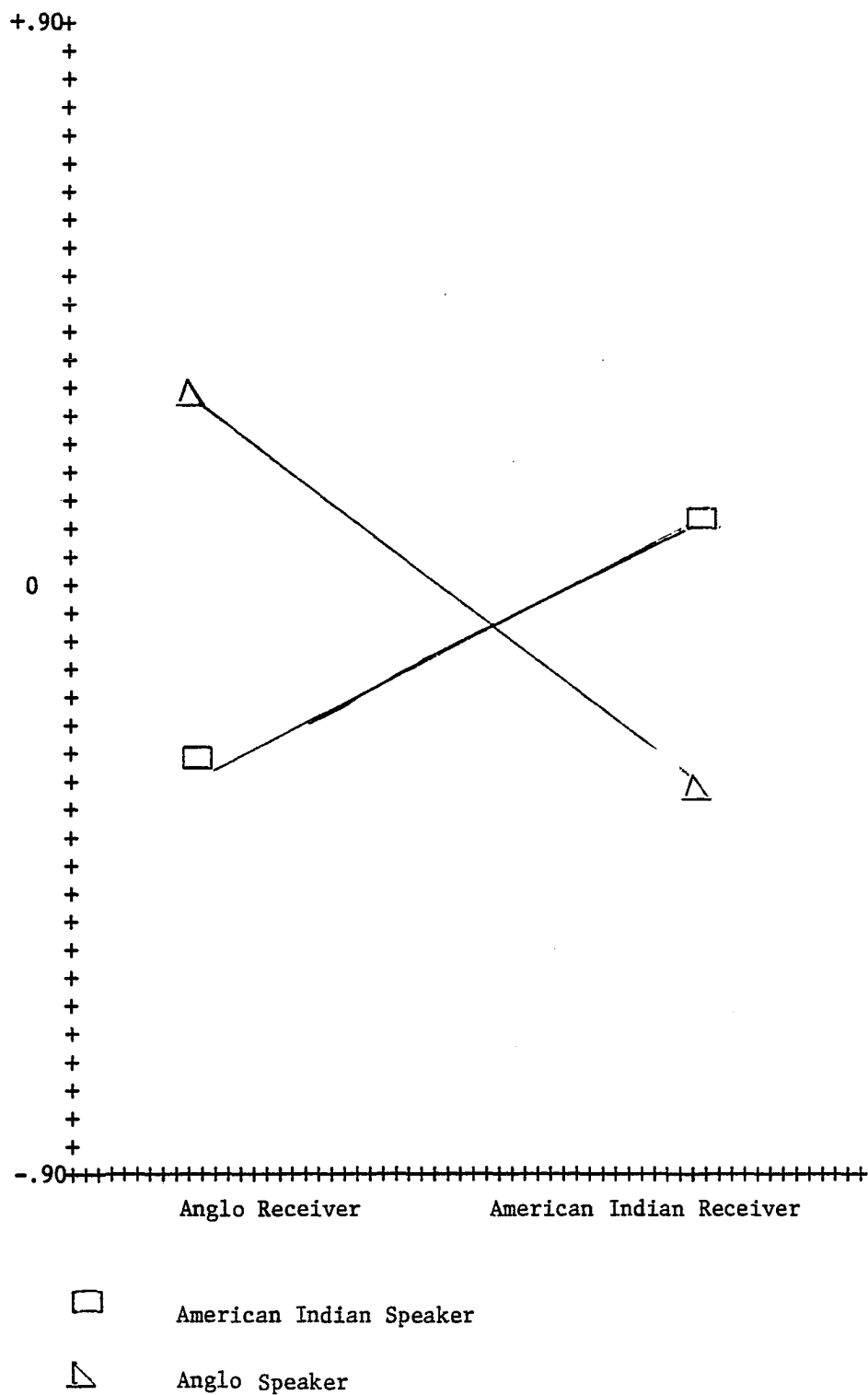
FIGURE 16

EXPERTISE FACTOR MEANS
SPEAKER BY STRUCTURE (AB)

FOR AMERICAN INDIAN RECEIVER (D_1)

Linear Structure   Circular Structure

☐   American Indian Speaker
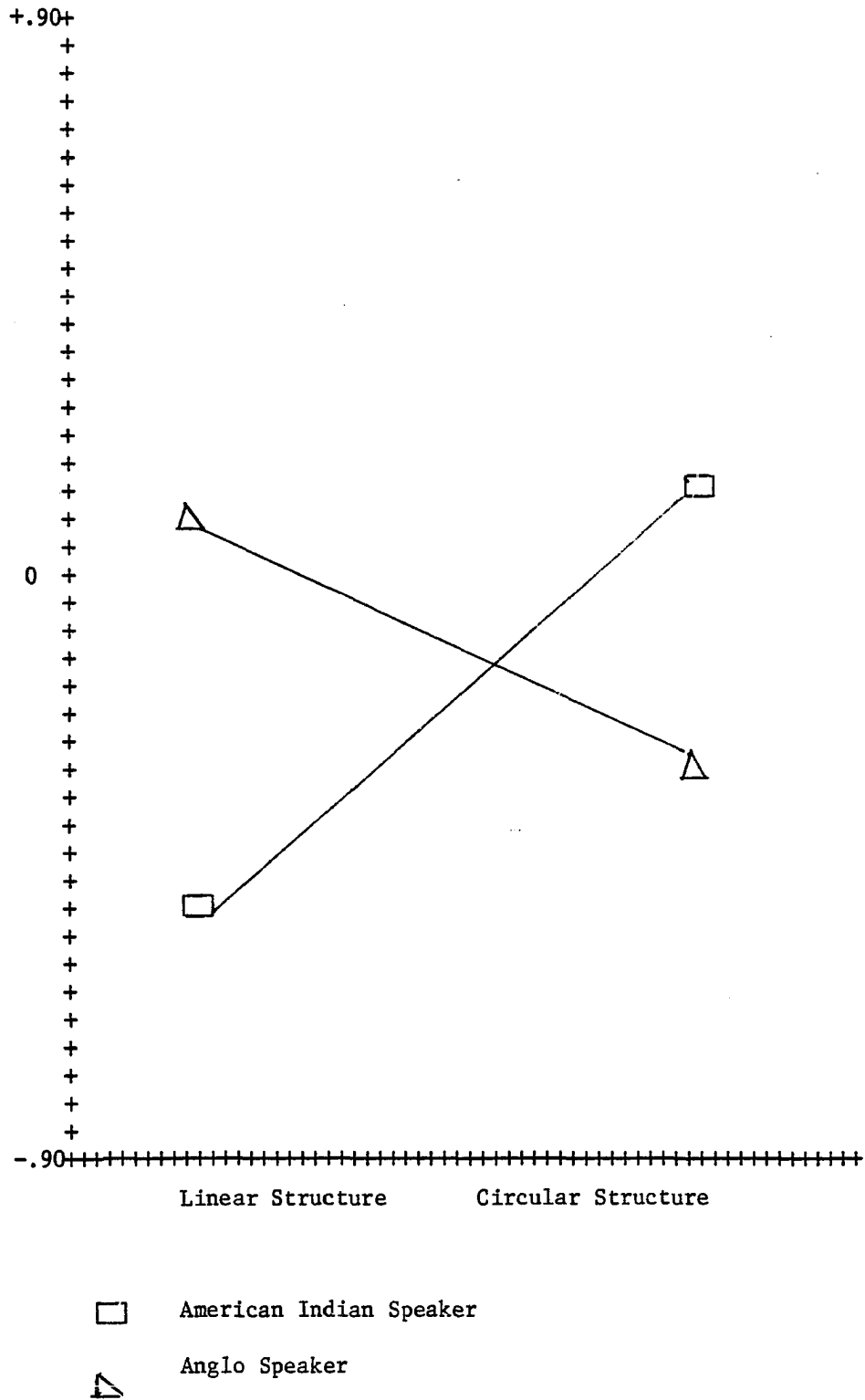
△   Anglo Speaker

FIGURE 17

EXPERTISE FACTOR MEANS
SPEAKER BY STRUCTURE (AB)

FOR ANGLO RECEIVER (D_2)

+.90

0

-.90

Linear Structure   Circular Structure

☐   American Indian Speaker
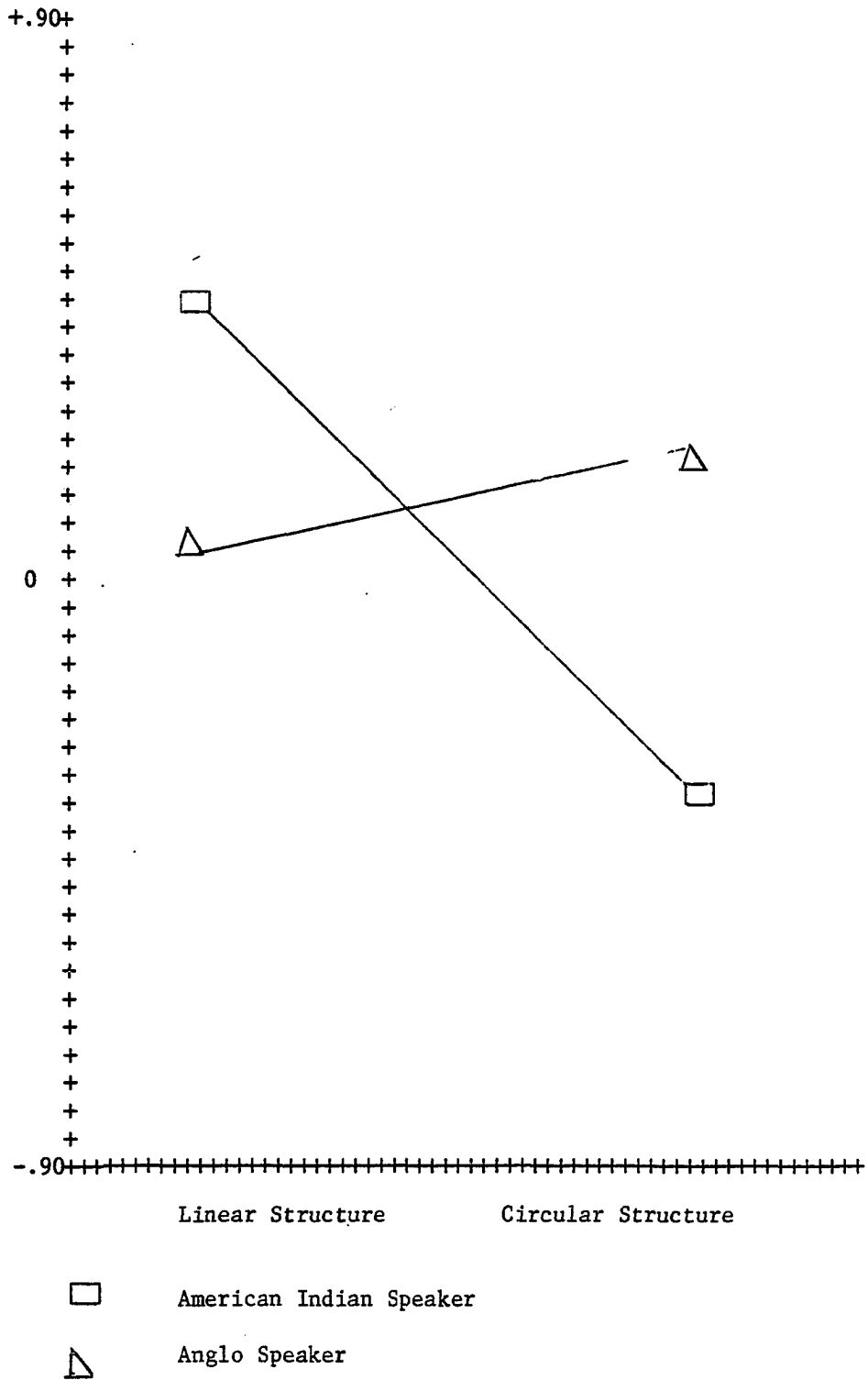
△   Anglo Speaker

TABLE 18

SIMPLE, SIMPLE INTERACTION EFFECTS OF

SAFETY FACTOR

SPEAKER (A) BY STRUCTURE (B) BY ORIENTATION (C)

BY RECEIVER (D)

	F
ABC for American Indian receiver (D_1)	3.9942
ABC for Anglo Receiver (D_2)	1.3592
ACD for Circular Structure (B_1)	4.6066*
ACD for Linear Structure (B_2)	2.2798
ABD for Process Orientation (C_1)	9.4154*
ABD for Solution Orientation (C_2)	0.1324
BCD for American Indian Speaker (A_1)	2.7474
BCD for Anglo Speaker (A_2)	2.8977

*$p < .05$

Cell means[1] for this third order interaction were graphed to investigate patterns represented in these differences, and these are presented in Figures 19, 20. Within the safety factor, same culture person elements interacted with message elements. The process orientation factor (significant as a

_____

[1]See Appendix J.

FIGURE 19
SAFETY FACTOR MEANS
SPEAKER BY STRUCTURE BY RECEIVER (ABD)

FOR PROCESS ORIENTATION (C_1)

American Indian Speaker   Anglo Speaker
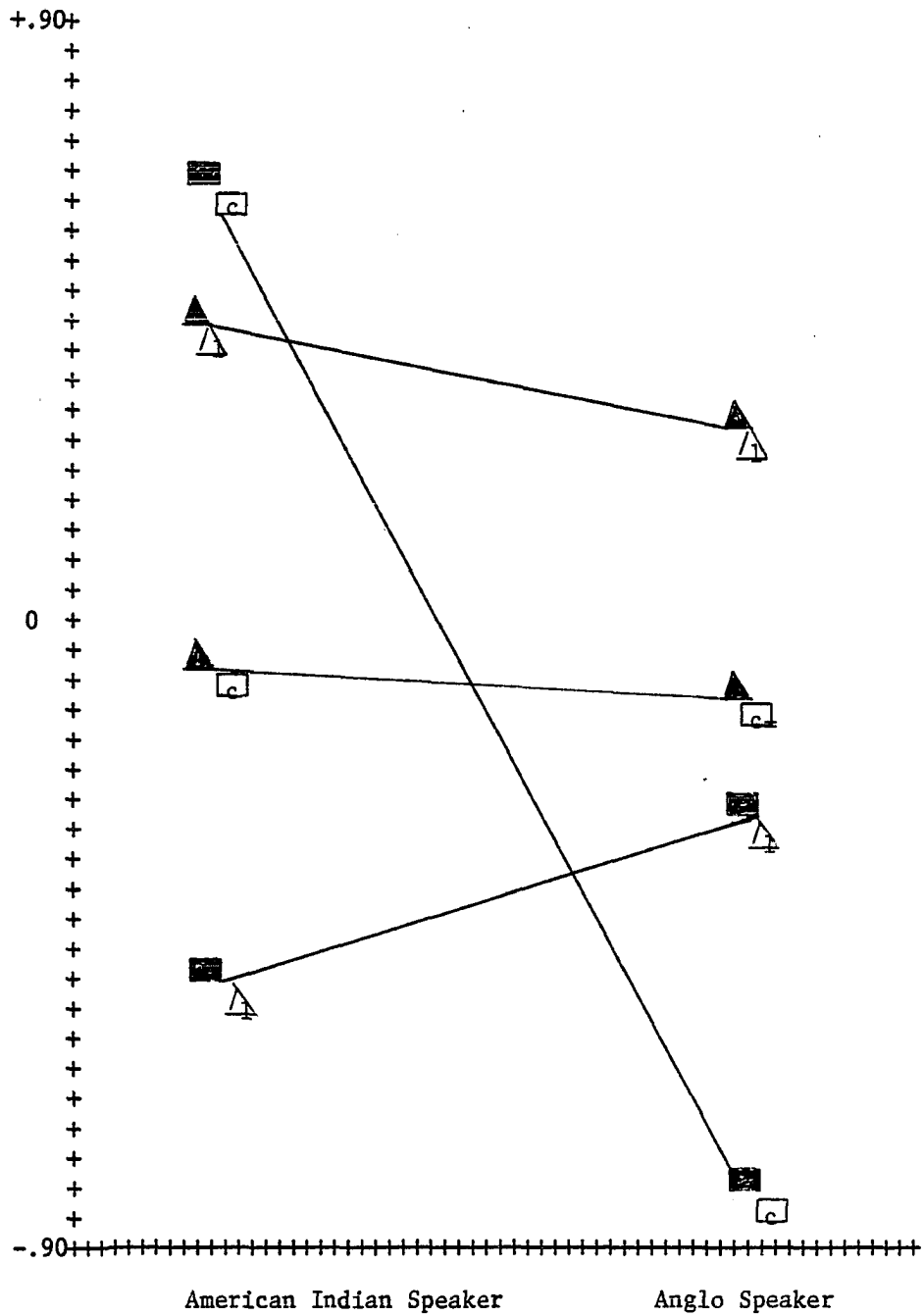
American Indian Receiver with
   Circular Message Structure

Anglo Receiver with
   Linear Message Structure

90

FIGURE 20

SAFETY FACTOR MEANS

SPEAKER BY ORIENTATION BY RECEIVER (ACD)

FOR CIRCULAR MESSAGE STRUCTURE (B_1)

American Indian Speaker   Anglo Speaker

American Indian Receiver with
  Process Orientation
Anglo Receiver with
  Solution Orientation

91
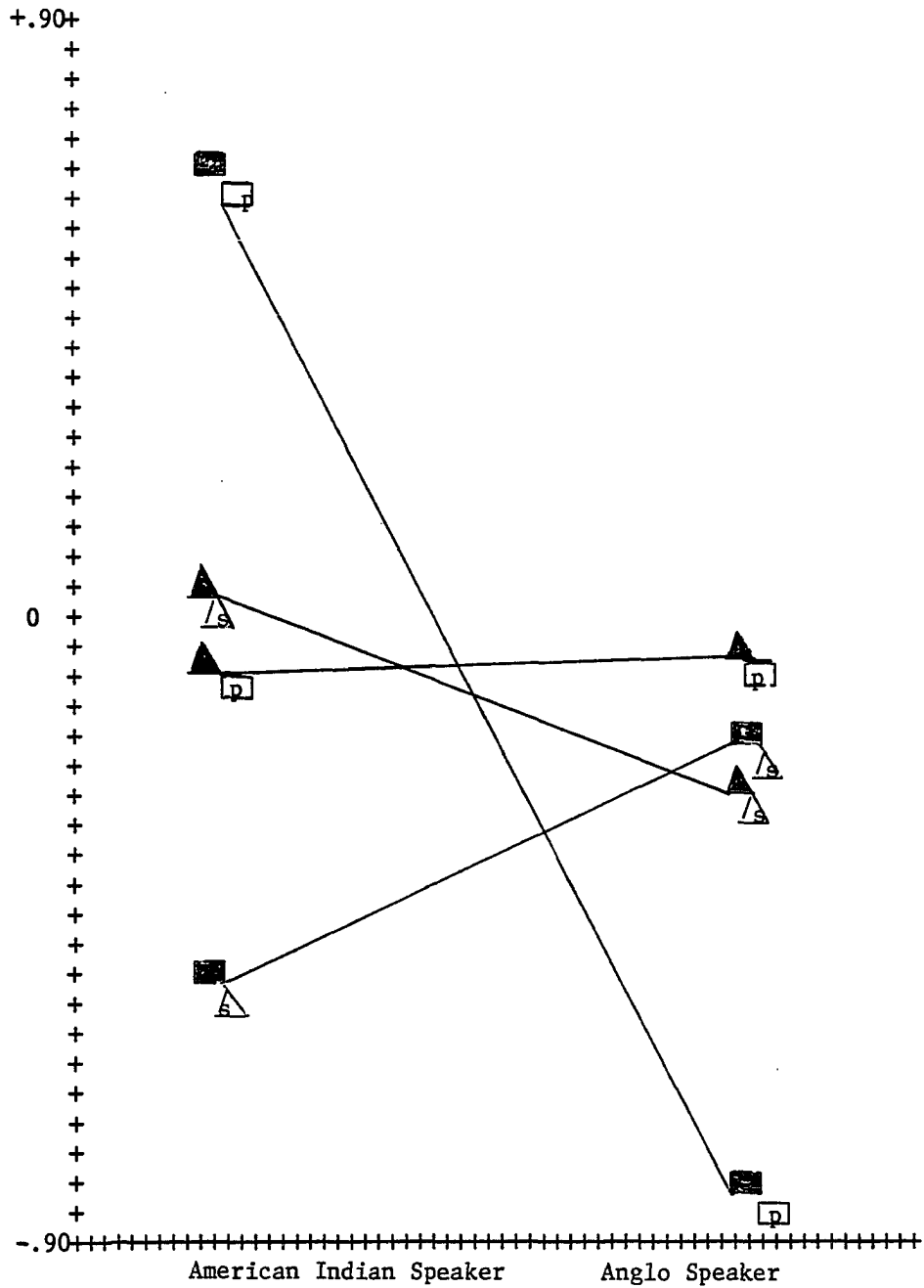
positively perceived expertise factor main effect) interacts when person elements and message structure were crossed. An American Indian speaking to an American Indian receiver in a culturally appropriate circularly structured message was positively perceived ($\bar{x}$=+.66)for the process orientation variable of the safety factor. Likewise an Anglo speaking to an Anglo receiver in a culturally appropriate linearly structured message was also positively perceived ($\bar{x}$=+.39).

But when an American Indian receiver hears an Anglo speaker giving the linearly structured message, it was perceived more negatively in terms of the safety ($\bar{x}$=-.27). Also when an Anglo receiver heard an American Indian speaker giving the circularly structured message, it was perceived less positively ($\bar{x}$=-.07) in terms of the safety factor.

Within the circular message structure variable, a similar pattern occurred as shown in Figure 20. When person and orientation variables were of the same culture, the more positive perception occured for American Indian ($\bar{x}$=+.66) and Anglo ($\bar{x}$=-.19) compared to cross cultural elements of an American Indian speaking to an Anglo receiver ($\bar{x}$=+.04) and an Anglo speaking to an American Indian receiver ($\bar{x}$=-0.93) which were assessed more negatively in terms of the safety factor.

Character Factor

A second order interaction of speaker, orientation and

receiver approached significance in the character factor $[F(1,64)=3.52, \ p<0.06]$[1]. Simple interaction effects were calculated and are presented in Table 21.

TABLE 21

SIMPLE INTERACTION EFFECTS OF

CHARACTER FACTOR

SPEAKER (A) BY ORIENTATION (C) BY RECEIVER (D)

	F
CD for American Indian Speaker (A_1)	5.9041*
CD for Anglo Speaker (A_2)	3.8538
AC for American Indian Receiver (D_1)	5.8964*
AC for Anglo Receiver (D_2)	6.5995*
AD for Process Orientation (C_1)	4.5240*
AD for Solution Orientation (C_2)	4.4730*

*$p<.05$

An American Indian speaker presenting a process oriented message to an American Indian receiver was neutrally perceived in terms of the character factor ($\bar{x}=+.07$). The

---

[1]See Appendix J.

[2]See Appendix J.

FIGURE 22

CHARACTER CREDIBILITY FACTOR MEANS
SPEAKER BY RECEIVER (AD)

FOR PROCESS ORIENTATION (C_i)

American Indian Receiver   Anglo Receiver

☐   American Indian Speaker

△   Anglo Speaker

94
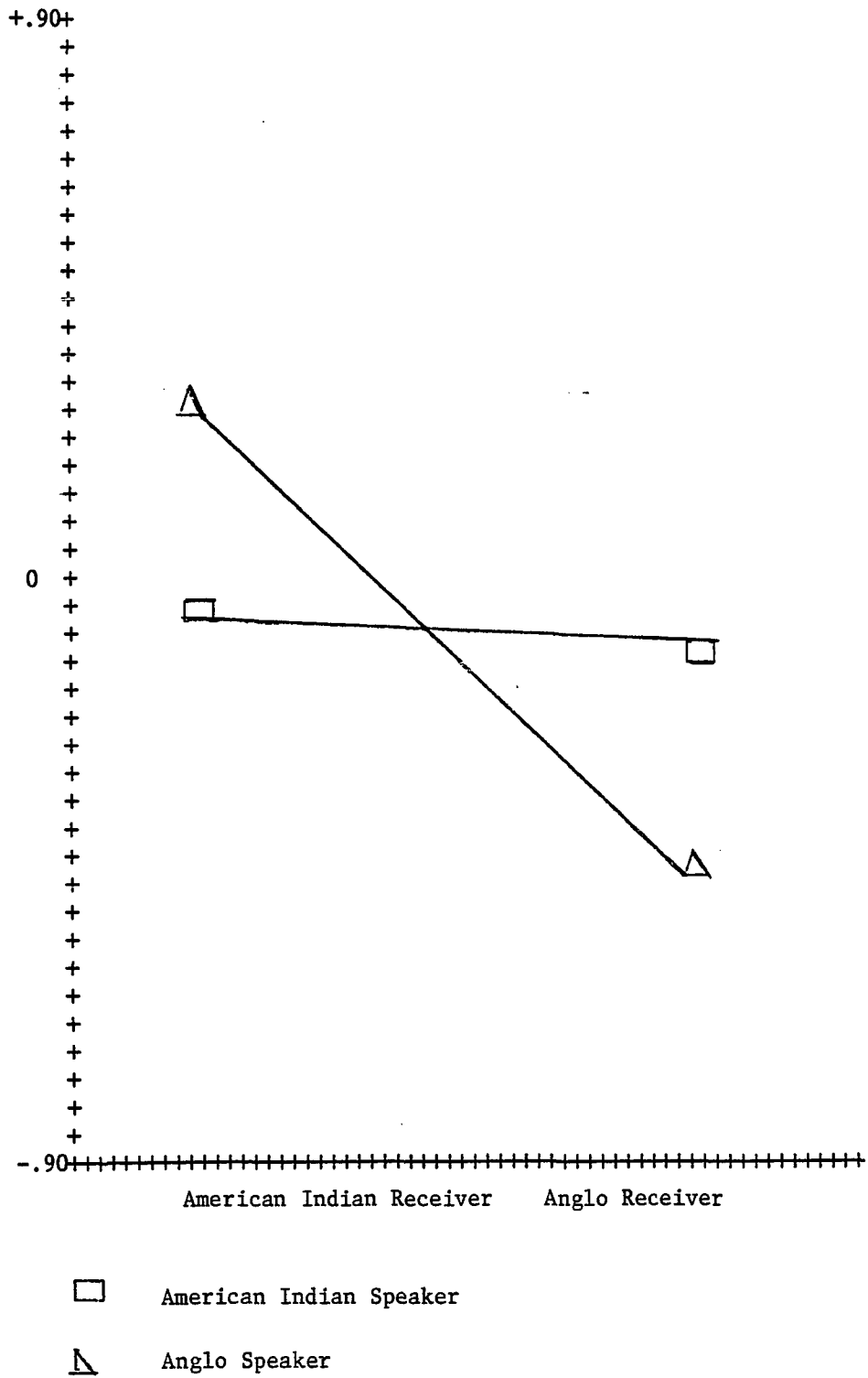
FIGURE 23

CHARACTER CREDIBILITY FACTOR MEANS
SPEAKER BY RECEIVER (AD)

FOR SOLUTION ORIENTATION (C_2)
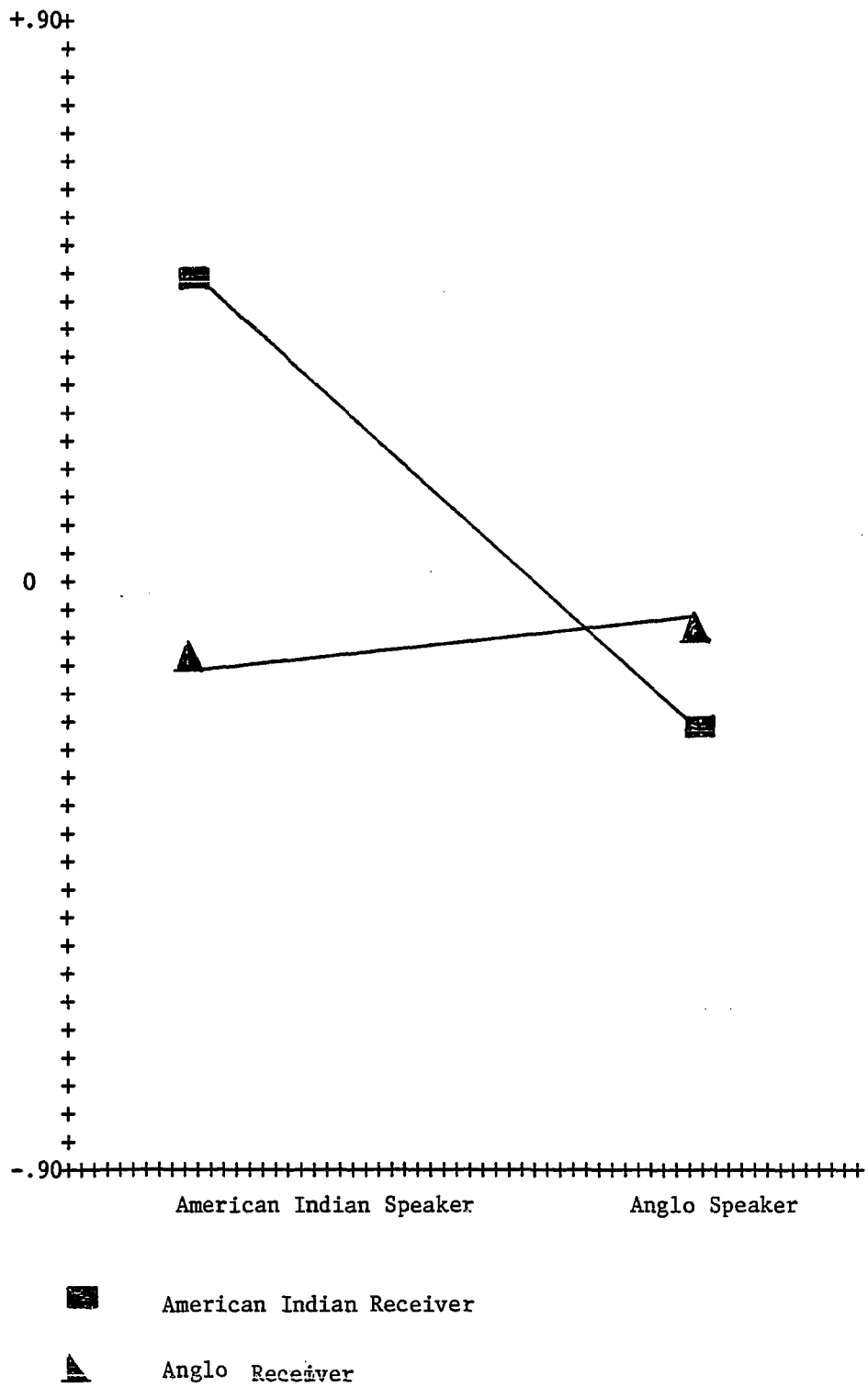
FIGURE 24

CHARACTER FACTOR MEANS
SPEAKER BY ORIENTATION (AC)

FOR AMERICAN INDIAN RECEIVER (D_1)
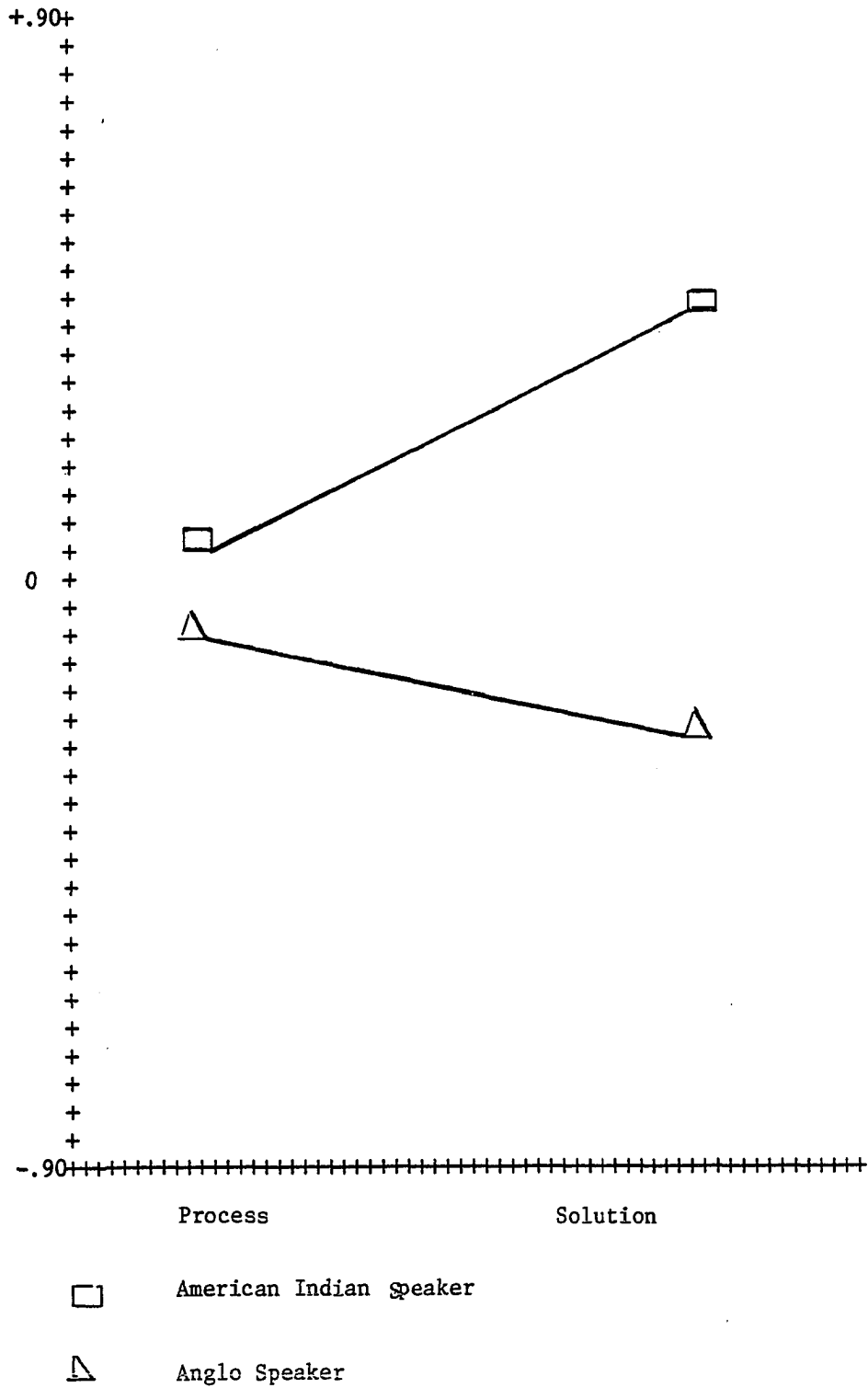
FIGURE 25

CHARACTER FACTOR MEANS
SPEAKER BY ORIENTATION (AC)

FOR ANGLO RECEIVER (D_2)

Process   Solution

☐   American Indian Speaker

△   Anglo Speaker

97
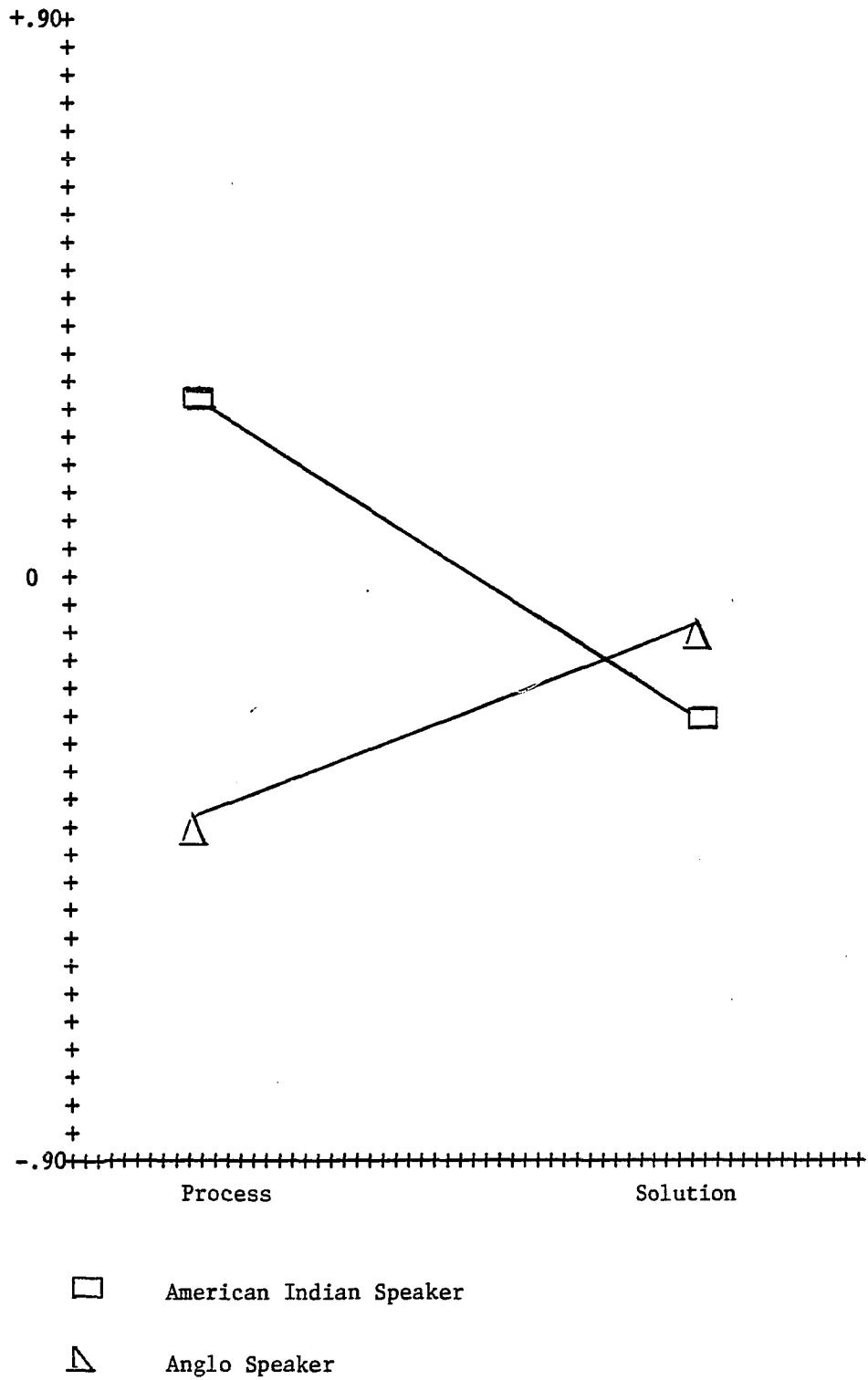
FIGURE 26

CHARACTER CREDIBILITY FACTOR MEANS

ORIENTATION BY RECEIVER (CD)
FOR AMERICAN INDIAN SPEAKER (A_1)

American Indian Receiver
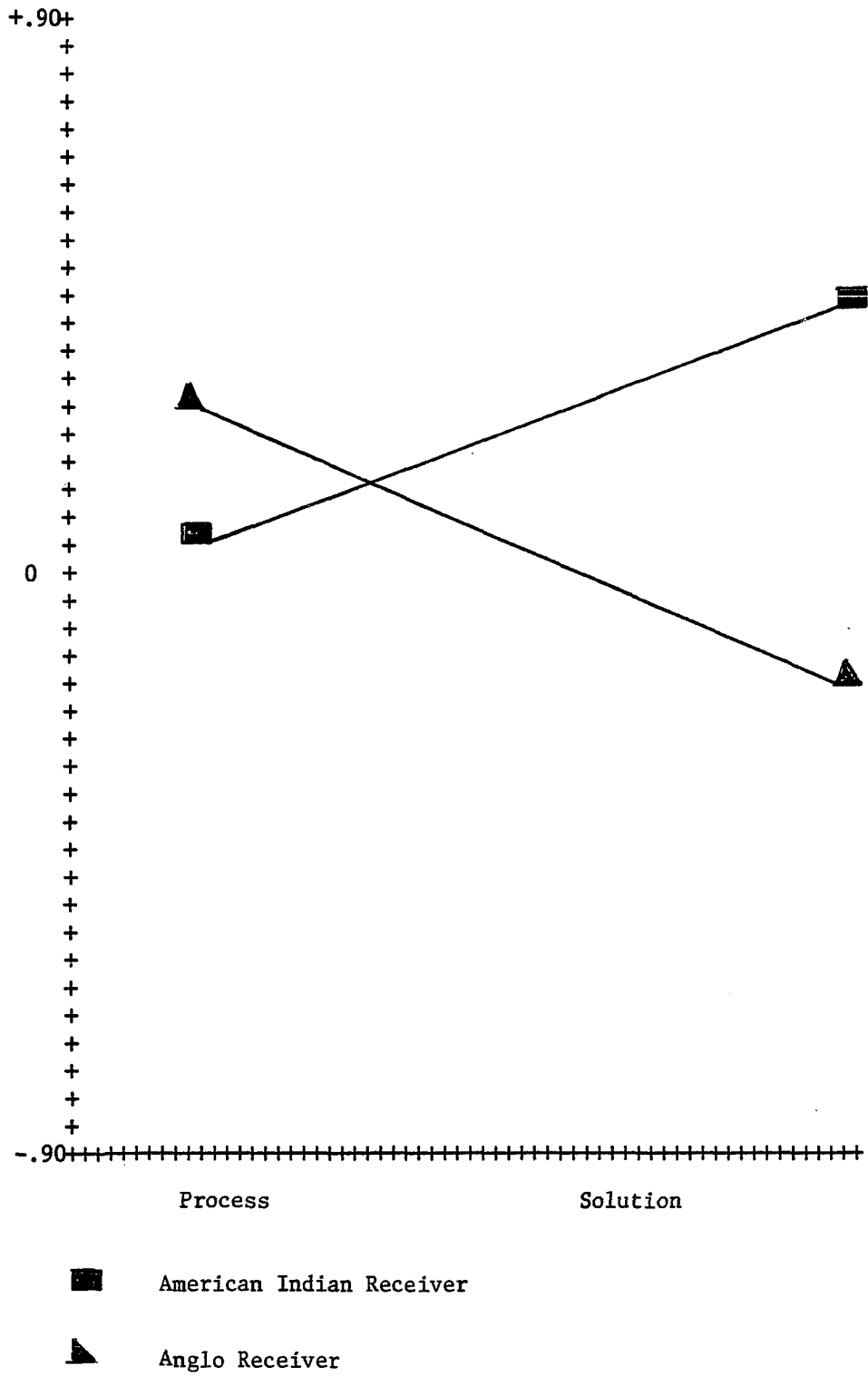
Anglo Receiver

same speaker presenting to an Anglo receiver was evenmore positively perceived ($\bar{x}=+.32$). However an Anglo speaker giving the same message orientation to an Anglo receiver was negatively perceived ($\bar{x}=-.45$) while an Anglo speaker giving the same message orientation to an American Indian receiver was less negatively perceived ($\bar{x}-0.09$).

In the solution orientation message element with person elements (Figure 23), an opposite interaction occurs. An American Indian speaker presenting this message orientation to an American Indian receiver was perceived as most credible ($\bar{x}=+.55$), while the same speaker presenting this message orientation to an Anglo receiver was less credible ($\bar{x}=-.16$). An Anglo speaker employing this solution orientation was perceived less negatively by an Anglo receiver ($\bar{x}=-.03$) and more negatively by an American Indian receiver ($\bar{x}=-.20$).

Negative Feasibility Factor

A first order interaction of speaker and message structure approached significance in the negative feasibility factor [F 1,64)=3.95, p<0.05].[1] Simple main effects were calculated and are presented in Table 27.

TABLE 27

SIMPLE MAIN EFFECTS OF

NEGATIVE FEASIBILITY FACTOR

SPEAKER (A) BY STRUCTURE (B)

	F
A for Circular Message Structure	1.2642
A for Linear Message Structure	3.7013
B for American Indian Speaker	2.8551
B for Anglo Speaker	1.7279

Although none of the simple main effects was significant, cell means were graphed to check for inconsistencies with the cross-cultural patterns that had emerged on the other factors (Figure 28). Consistency appeared in same culture speaker and structure elements indicating perceptions of less negative feasibility while cross culture speakerand structure elements appeared to indicate greater negative feasibility.

---

[1]Appendix J.

FIGURE 28

NEGATIVE FEASIBILITY FACTOR MEANS:
SPEAKER BY STRUCTURE (AB)

American Indian Speaker   Anglo Speaker

☐   Circular Message Structure

△   Linear Message Structure

101
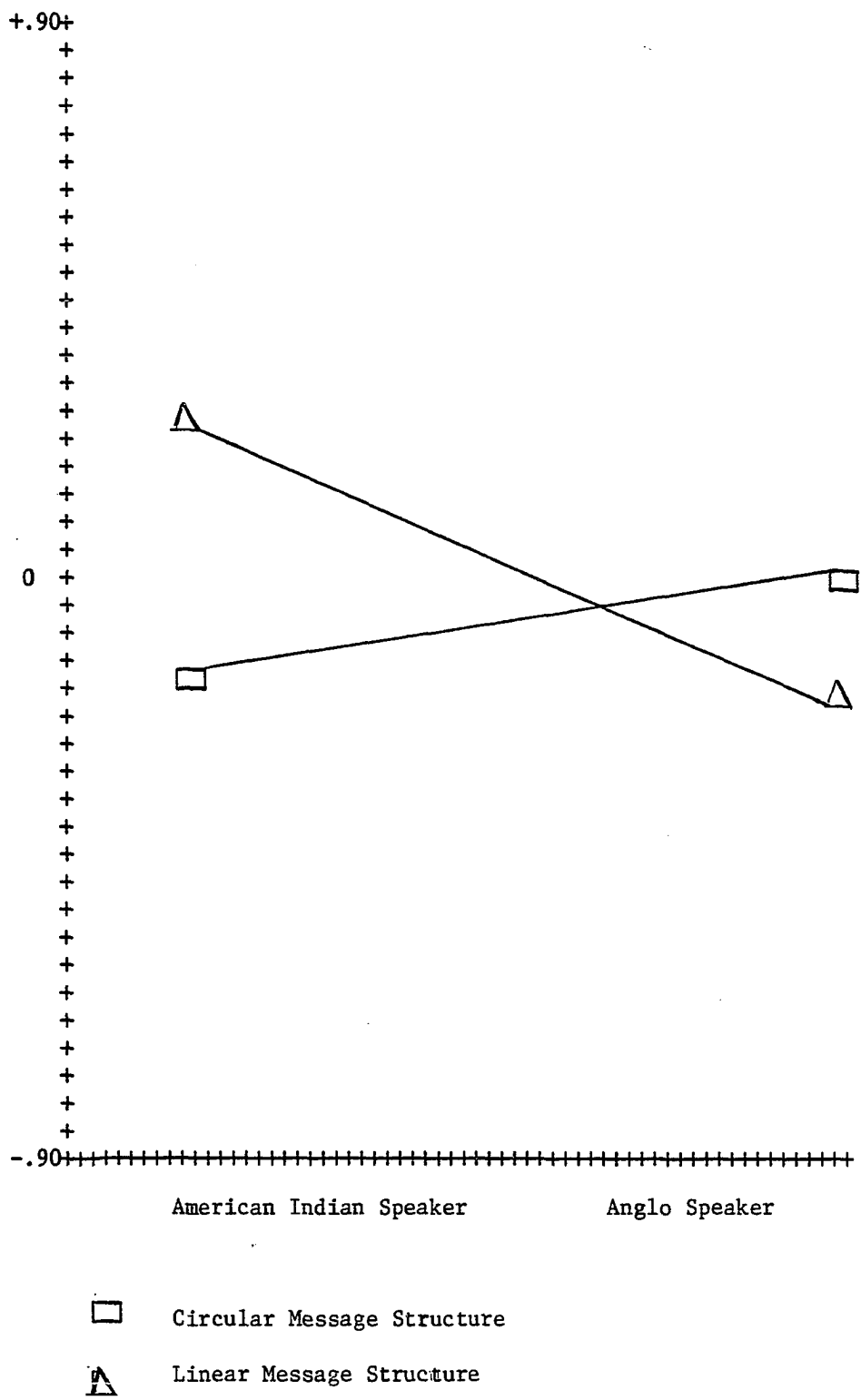
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION ·

The purpose of this study was to investigate the
effects of American Indian and Anglo speakers presenting
culturally appropriate message structures and message
orientations to Anglo and American Indian receivers.
Circular and linear message structures, and process and
solution message orientations were employed across person
elements of American Indian and Anglo speakers and
receivers.

The results of this exploratory effort appear to
indicate that American Indian and Anglo subjects do
differentially evaluate person and message elements of
their own and the other culture resulting in statistically
significant interactions in terms of perceived expertise,
safety and character credibility factors.

Major findings of the study include evidence of the
following patterns that emerge across factors. In general,
cultural background of the receiver and speaker by itself
did not adequately account for variance, as indicated by the
lack of support for the speaker-receiver levels of
hypothesis. Only when message elements and their cultural
appropriateness or expectedness (which will be discussed

later) were considered could these patterns of response be accounted for. Message variables as well as person variables appear to be implicated in mediation of perceptions. Further, these findings suggest that the different factors (expertise, character credibility and safety) were differentially evaluated. In specific, the safety factor appeared most salient for American Indian receivers. Cell means that are summarized in Table 29 indicate stronger perceptions of American Indian receivers across the expertise, safety and character credibility factors. The two most positive evaluation means emerged as American Indian receivers evaluating American Indian speakers. The four most negative evaluations were from American Indian receivers evaluating a condition including a singular culturally discrepant element. For example, the safety factor mean of $-.93$ evaluated an Anglo speaker presenting a circular process message to an American Indian receiver $(A_2B_1C_1D_1)$. The next three most negative evaluation means represent a similar pattern of an American Indian receiver evaluation of a singular, culturally discrepant message element: $A_1B_1C_2D_1$, $A_1B_2D_1$, $A_1B_1C_2D_1$.

Another major finding relates to the previously mentioned perceptions of message elements and their cultural appropriateness or expectedness. There appeared to be some

TABLE 29

SUMMARY OF CELL MEANS OF SIGNIFICANT

SIMPLE EFFECTS

Positive* Evaluations		Neutral Evaluations		Negative* Evaluations	
Factor		Factor		Factor	
Safety: .66	Am.Ind. speaker Circular/proc. Am.Ind. rec.	Exp. :	Anglo speaker Linear Am.Ind. rec.	Safety: -.93	Anglo speaker Circular/proc. Am.Ind. rec.
Cred. : .54	Am.Ind. speaker Solution Am.Ind. rec.	Exp. :	Anglo Speaker Linear Anglo rec.	Safety: -.59	Am.Ind. speaker Circular/sol. Am.Ind. rec.
Exp. : .48	Am.Ind. speaker Linear Anglo rec.	Cred. :	Am.Ind. speaker Circular Am.Ind. rec.	Exp. : -.59	Am.Ind. speaker Linear Am.Ind. rec.
Safety: .39	Am.Ind. speaker Linear/proc. Anglo rec.	Cred. :	Anglo speaker Circular Am.Ind. rec.	Safety: -.55	Am.Ind. speaker Linear/proc Am.Ind. rec.
Exp. : .33	Anglo speaker Circular Anglo rec.	Cred. :	Anglo speaker Linear Anglo rec.	Cred. : -.45	Anglo speaker Circular Anglo rec.
Cred. : .32	Am.Ind. speaker Circular Anglo rec.	Safety:	Am.Ind. speaker Circular/proc. Anglo rec.	Safety: -.39	Anglo speaker Linear/proc. Anglo rec.
Exp. : .19	Process Orient.	Safety:	Am.Ind. speaker Circular/sol. Anglo rec.	Ex. : -.29	Am.Ind. speaker Circular Anglo rec.
Exp. : .15	Am.Ind. speaker Circular Am.Ind. rec.	Safety:	Anglo speaker Circular/proc. Anglo rec.	Exp. : -.27	Anglo speaker Circular Am.Ind. rec.
		Safety:	Anglo speaker Circular/sol. Am.Ind. rec.	Safety: -.27	Anglo speaker Linear/proc. Am.Ind. rec.
				Cred. : -.20	Anglo speaker Linear Am.Ind. rec.

*magnitudes of .15 or greater

104

culturally specific patterns that cross the factors of expertise, character credibility and safety. What appeared to be most expected and deemed appropriate by American Indian receivers were:

(1) an American Indian speaker presenting a circular (and most optimally, circular process) message; the speaker was evaluated expert and safe.

(2) an Anglo speaker presenting a linear message; the speaker was evaluated neutrally.

What appeared to be least expected or deemed inappropriate, especially in terms of the safety factor, by American Indian receivers were:

(1) an Anglo speaker presenting a circular process message; the speaker was evaluated nengatively in terms of the safety and expertise factors.

(2) an American Indian speaker presenting a circular solution message: the speaker was evaluated negatively in terms of the safety factor.

(3) an American Indian speaker presenting a linear process message: the speaker was evaluated negatively in terms of safety and expertise.

A considerably different pattern of expectations emerged for Anglo receivers. They appeared to expect:

(1) an Anglo speaker presenting a linear message; the speaker was neutrally evaluated.

(2) an American Indian speaker presenting a linear

process message; the speaker was positively evaluated in terms of the expertise and safety factors.

(3) an Anglo speaker presenting a circular message; the speaker was positively evaluated in terms of expertise. The debriefing interview responses indicated Anglo subjects considered an Anglo speaker presenting in circular structure to be making an emotional appeal; this was also perhaps reflected in the differing means for factors of expertise (.33) and character credibility (-.45).

What appeared to be less expected or appropriate by an Anglo receiver was:

(1) an American Indian speaker presenting a circular message; the speaker was negatively evaluated in terms of expertise.

(2) an Anglo speaker presenting a circular message; the speaker was negatively evaluated in terms of character credibility.

(3) an Anglo speaker presenting a linear process message; the speaker was negatively evaluated in terms of the safety factor.

The study produced some unexpected results in the significant expertise factor main effect difference between the message orientation variables of process (x=+.1944) and solution This main effect difference may be accounted for in

terms of the operationalization of that variable within the
message scripts as well as the specific training the
Community Education advisory board members receive. The
solution orientation variable was message operationalized by
specific references to the role of the school leadership in
sharing educational resources, and responses may reflect
attitudes toward school leadership more than effects of the
assignment of roles and tasks in general. Also, most
Community Education advisory board members are presented
very early in their involvement and training with: (1)
concepts of process and decision making and(2) Community
Education models other than those that are school and school
leadership based. Wide familiarity of Anglo subjects with
such models as the Tulsa parks and recreation model and
other models represented in Oklahoma may be reflected in
this expertise perception main effect preference for the
process orientation. It should be noted that this set of
orientation variables emerges in the hypothesized direction
within a significant simple effects interaction with speaker
and receiver in terms of the character credibility factor
(Figures 9, 10) and within a significant third order
interaction in terms of the safety factor. These sets
incorporating orientation variable differences and
similarities may reflect the school leadership
operationalization and training effects.

Based on a synthesis of theoretical viewpoints from language study and social psychological investigations of attribution and inference, it was expected that there would be culture related differences in receivers' perceptions of effectiveness of the speaker and message elements. Results of this study appear to support this expectation. Further, these results have implications at many levels within this theoretical synthesis. At the most elemental level represented in this study, that of language and person variables within and across cultures, there is evidence of stgructural elements as proper and fruitful with which to further investigate even monolingual group differences. At the cognitive research level there appears to be evidence that this set of language and person variables do activate cognitive schema that are reflected in differential evaluations. This evidence of patterning in turn has implications for attribution formulations in that it appears to substantiate research in terms of concepts of consistency and distinctiveness. Social inference constructs of substructures of schema and their sematic relationships also appear to be supported. Potentially even the macro-levels of social change stratgegies and cross-cultural program administration and educational practices could assess more fully the impact of language variables within theories and research seeking to account for the dynamics of those processes and practices.

However, generalizations from the transformations and statistical tests employed here to theoretical statements about the effects of the cultural differences addressed in this study is at best limited. Although the evidence warrants further investigation, questions of completeness and reliability of the concepts and measures restrict practical use.

Lack of overall significance of the MANOVA may be a consequence of excessive error variance. Contributions to the error variance included: heterogeneity of the subjects[1], questionable reliability of the instrument,[2] field setting treatment implementation irregularities,[3] and random irrelevancies in the experimental setting.[4] The fact that many subjects were in contact with one another in most field settings, and the fact that they could and did choose whether to participate or not also introduced internal validity threats of diffusion or imitation of treatments and selection differences. These threats were intended to be at least in part controlled by random assignment to treatments.

---

[1]See Chapter III, The Study Sample.

[2]See Appendix A.

[3]See field data collection procedure.

[4]See Cook and Campbell, _Quasi_, p. 44.

Given the basis of descriptive and empirical research that implicates culture and the language differences it embodies, and given the directions of person and message variables provided by this study, it is recommended that future research pursue the following: (1) more geographically specific samples,[1] (2) more definitely urban and rural samples[2] (3) visual as well as audio stimuli, and (4) variables that represent levels of credibility of sponsorship or association.

In specific descriptions of the differences embodied in the stimulus messages are needed, and specific hypotheses should be proposed to test these differences. Further development of the instrument is needed, especially its testing on a ten observations per variable basis to check reliability, validity and factor structure stability. Finally, relating this study and the elements it represents

---

[1]Dinges, Social Ecology, pp. 30-31.

[2]Berry, Cultural Ecology, p. 177.

to established frames of ongoing study such as persuasion
research,[1] inference making,[2] heuristic versus systematic
information processing[3] may also be most valuable because
they focus on findings that message cues as well as person
stimuli affect information processing.

---

[1]See Michael E. Roloff, "Self-awareness and the
Persuasion Process: Do We Really Know What We're Doing?"
Persuasion: New Directions in Theory and Research.
(Beverly Hills: Sage, 1980), pp. 29-66.

[2]Donal E. Carlston, "The Recall and Use of Traits and
Events in Social Inference Processes," Journal of
Experimental Social Psychology, 1980, 16, p. 303.

[3]Shelly Chaiken, "Heuristic Versus Systematic
Information Processing and the Use of Source Versus Message
Cues in Persuasion," Journal of Personality and Social
Psychology, 1980, 39, p. 752.

APPENDIX A

RELIABILITY AND CONSTRUCT VALIDITY OF

THE BEHAVIORAL DIFFERENTIAL

INSTRUMENT

RELIABILITY AND CONSTRUCT VALIDITY OF THE

BEHAVIORAL DIFFERENTIAL INSTRUMENT

The dependent measure tested here consists of a set of scales based on Triandis' behavioral differential approach. These scales were developed to evaluate the effectiveness of both the speaker and message elements represented by the independent variables. Scales were needed that could be used cross-culturally.[1] Triandis' behavioral components of social attitudes and role performance were selected for two reasons. First, these behaviorally based responses sample three domains of 1) the stimulus person, message or perceived outcome; 2) the social behaviors and 3) the intensity of subjects' responses.[2] Second, using these behavior clusters (with which subjects have been found to give highly reliable responses,) behaviors can be incorporated that parallel characteristics explored in the source credibility, communicant acceptability, and interpersonal trust research.[3] The concepts and characteristics tested in this research provided measures with which the behavioral differential scale can be juxtaposed to assess construct validity. In specific

---

[1]Triandis, _Variations_, p. 35; Walter J. Lonner, "The Search for Psychological Universals," _Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology_, 1980, 1, pp. 189-90.

[2]Triandis, _Three_, p. 3.

[3]See Griffin, p. 104; Cronkhite and Liska, p. 107.

113

McCroskey's authoritativeness and character scales (which have been found to be highly correlated with the semantic differential used in similar research) were used as a construct validity measure.[1]

To construct individual scale items, the following considerations were employed. Triandis' factor of respect embodies characteristics of formal social acceptance with subordination found in concepts of expertness and trustworthiness,[2] competence, reliability, safety, qualification and dynamism that are used in this research.[3] Lemert identifies the greatest variability of public message sources (62.4%) to be accounted for by three factors: qualification (31.98%); safety (21.43%) and dynamism (8.98%).[4] Therefore the Triandis phrases that appear to elicit behaviors loading on associative and respect factors were chosen for dependent measure scales of perceptions of effectiveness of the speaker and message.

The respect factor has high loadings on admire character, enjoy working for, cooperate in political campaign, and other items developed in the scales. This

---

[1]McCroskey, pp. 71-72.

[2]Hovland, p. 11; Sternthal, Dholakia and Leavitt, p. 253.

[3]Berlo, Lemert and Mertz, p. 564; Griffin, p. 104; Cronkhite and Liska, pp. 102-3.

[4]See Lemert cited in Griffin, p. 112.

factor of respect accounted for from 21% to 26% of the total variance in Triandis' American studies. When encompassed in the broader factor of associative behaviors involving positive affect which he found to be culture-common, it accounted for up to 40% of the total variance. Six of eight scale items for each the speaker and the message evaluation scales were developed using behaviors with high loadings on this factor. The other behaviors were selected from factors of hostility (11% to 13.5% of total variance) and friendship (7% to 11.3%).

The potential outcome effectiveness scales[1] (number 17-26) were developed utilizing major behaviors representing the major affective domain categories of receiving, responding and valuing that were outlined by Krathwol, Bloom and Masic.

Analysis of both the reliability and construct validity instruments was planned according to the following criteria: first, it needed to be compatible and therefore comparable with previous analyses of the concepts and their components; and second, as an exploratory instrument, it needed to identify items which did not contribute to subsequent

---

[1]See Appendix B.

analysis. Pearson correlation coefficients on test-retest behavioral differential data were employed for the reliability study. Factor analysis of the behavioral differential and each of McCroskey's scales was completed.[1] The factor scores were then to be used to compute canonical correlations to give an indication of the maximum amount of relationship between the behavioral differential and each of McCroskey's scales.[2]

Reliability and construct validity were first tested in college classroom settings. The major limitations of these tests and the statistical results drawn from them include: 1) small numbers of subjects in relation to the number of variables; 2) test-retest mortality; 3) history of other testing situations within the classes. The reliability and construct validity were first tested on a sample of an undergraduate architecture class. This underground and solar architecture class was chosen for two reasons. First, it seemed to present less of a possible maturation threat than would an educational or social science class during the one week period of compressed instruction. Second, with the statewide interest in underground and solar alternatives, a more community representative group that would be more comparable to the study population was anticipated. The

---

[1]See Addendum V.

[2]See Addenda III & IV.

latter assumption proved to be spurious since less than 20% of the class enrollment came from the community and 80% were architecture students using the course to fulfill a design requirement for their study program.

The classroom of students was asked to participate and 26 individuals signed the consent to participate, listened to a stimulus tape and completed the eight-page reliability and construct validity instrument. One and one-half weeks later, 13 students listened to the same tape and completed a three-page retest instrument. Pearson r correlation coefficients on the test-retest data (N=13) ranged from -.1811 (depend) to +.7856 (skill). The Pearson r for each scale item is presented in Addendum II.

To assess construct validity, canonical correlations were computed on factor scores for the relationships between 1) the behavioral differential and McCroskey's authoritativeness scale and 2) the behavioral differential and McCroskey's character scale. These canonical correlations and the coefficients of determination are presented in Addendum I.

Small sample size calls into question the factor structure, stability and subsequent analysis of the factor scores[1]. The small sample size particularly indicates the

---

[1]See Addendum V.

canonical correlation, and therefore, the coefficient of determination, must be considered to be an overestimate of the relationships.

Subsequently a larger sample was again employed in a test-retest reliability study. Seventy-six students in two classes of a minority studies program at a mid-Western university participated by listening to the circular process audiotape introduced as an American Indian educator speaking, and they then completed the three-page evaluation. No demographic data is available on the composition of these classes. One and one-half weeks after the first session, 61 students listened to the same tape recording and completed the three-page retest. An objective and subjective testing situation conducted by a male American Indian educator occurred in the intervening class time. Pearson correlation coefficients on this test-retest data (N=61) ranged from +.24 (join) to +.71 (enjoy). The Pearson r for each scale item and the varimax rotated factor matrix is presented in Addenda II and VI.

ADDENDUM I

CANONICAL CORRELATION ANALYSES

AUTHORITATIVENESS WITH BEHAVIORAL DIFFERENTIAL

Canonical Variable	Canonical Correlation	Coefficient of Determination	Asymptotic Chi-sq	df	Prob< Chi-sq
1	0.8216	0.6750	26.5753	16	0.0465

CHARACTER WITH BEHAVIORAL DIFFERENTIAL

1	0.7810	0.6099	36.9655	16	0.0021

N = 26

ADDENDUM II

BEHAVIORAL DIFFERENTIAL SCALE ITEM RELIABILITY

TEST-RETEST

PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

Scale Item	N=13 r	N=61 r	Scale Item	N=13 r	N=61 r
1. cadmire	+.43	+.60	14. correct	-.08	+.58
2. enjoy	+.73	+.71	15. dislike	+.05	+.52
3. politic	+.35	+.58	16. not organ-ized	+.44	+.43
4. learn	+.67	+.55	17. try	+.49	+.64
5. lunch	+.73	+.69	18. controver-sial	+.42	+.30
6. help	+.37	+.53	19. discuss with board	+.26	+.54
7. argue	+.13	+.43	20. discuss with comm.	+.76	+.59
8. disregard	+.17	+.28	21. expense	+0.00	+.47
9. tadmire	+.26	+.65	22. vote	+.44	+.68
10. depend	-.18	+.60	23. report	+.29	+.56
11. inform	+.69	+.59	24. hardwork	+.50	+.52
12. skill	+.78	+.66	25. invite	+.58	+.65
13. understand	+.49	+.49	26. join	+.42	+.24

ADDENDUM III

CANONICAL ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIORAL

DIFFERENTIAL VS AUTHORITATIVENESS

	R	.82

1

Behavioral Differential

Expertise	.497
Character Credibility	.283
Safety	.706
Negative Feasibility	.417

Authoritativeness Factors

1	-.399
2	.407
3	-.638
4	-.518

ADDENDUM IV

CANONICAL ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIORAL

DIFFERENTIAL VS CHARACTER

R	.78	.71

BEHAVIORAL DIFFERENTIAL

Expertise	.006	.554
Charact. Credib.	.998	-.554
Safety	.057	.495
Negativ. Feasib.	.029	-.669

CHARACTER

1	-.097	-.516
2	.853	.243
3	-.283	-.263
4	.427	-.778

RELIABILITY SAMPLE FACTOR ANALYSIS

VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

	Expertise	Character Credibility	Safety	Negatives Feasibility
Cadmire	0.60	0.40	0.20	-0.06
Enjoy	0.69	0.19	-0.01	0.07
Politic	0.68	0.08	-0.27	0.10
Learn	0.75	0.35	0.04	0.12
Lunch	0.77	0.17	0.08	-0.11
Help	0.47	0.49	-0.26	0.09
Argue	-0.20	-0.42	0.28	0.38
Disregard	-0.37	-0.42	0.27	0.13
Tadmire	0.73	0.38	0.01	0.05
Depend	0.52	0.58	0.23	-0.18
Inform	0.46	0.40	0.29	-0.07
Skill	0.57	o.51	0.12	-0.19
Understand	-0.32	-0.55	-0.18	-0.07
Correct	0.42	0.55	0.06	-0.01
Dislike	-0.30	-0.77	0.05	0.02
Not Organized	-0.26	-0.66	-0.01	0.10
Try	0.51	0.72	-0.09	-0.02
Controversial	-0.12	0.01	0.72	0.10
Discuss/Brd	0.08	0.66	-0.01	0.70
Discuss/Commun	0.12	0.64	0.15	0.28
Expense	0.15	0.08	0.39	0.11
Vote	0.35	0.68	0.07	0.00
Report	0.58	0.34	0.21	0.19
Hardwork	0.05	-0.05	0.12	0.39
Invite	0.72	0.43	0.00	0.02
Join	0.60	0.35	-0.07	-0.00

N = 61

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF RELIABILITY INSTRUMENT

VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

	Expertise	Character Credibility	Safety	Negative Feasibility
Cadmire	0.07	0.78	0.16	0.06
Enjoy	0.00	0.76	0.14	-0.08
Politic	0.09	0.34	0.06	0.28
Learn	0.20	0.52	0.45	0.36
Lunch	0.06	0.23	0.62	-0.15
Help	-0.03	-0.09	0.02	0.61
Argue	0.11	0.34	-0.28	-0.06
Disregard	-0.82	-0.12	-0.28	0.13
Tadmire	0.21	0.71	-0.04	-0.15
Depend	0.42	0.12	0.54	-0.07
Inform	0.01	0.58	0.49	-0.07
Skill	0.05	0.32	0.51	0.50
Understand	-0.27	-0.13	-0.27	-0.48
Correct	0.16	0.38	0.36	-0.11
Dislike	-0.64	0.00	0.04	-0.13
Not Organized	-0.46	0.20	-0.77	-0.36
Try	0.60	0.18	0.24	0.22
Controversial	0.26	-0.13	-0.41	0.03
Discuss/Brd	0.68	0.18	-0.08	-0.02
Discuss/Commun	0.74	0.05	0.13	-0.16
Expense	0.11	0.15	0.06	-0.61
Vote	0.66	0.07	0.21	0.22
Report	0.65	0.43	-0.06	0.28
Hardwork	-0.34	0.02	-0.57	-0.16
Invite	0.33	0.75	0.13	0.20
Join	0.26	0.11	-0.14	0.74

N = 13

APPENDIX B

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

INSTRUMENTS

Instructions: Please mark your answer to the following items in the way shown on the previous pages of directions.

I admire the character of this person.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

I would enjoy meeting this person.

Would not: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Would

I would cooperate in a political campaign with this person.

Would: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Would not

I would learn with the help of this person.

Would not: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Would

I would go out for lunch with this person.

Would: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Would not

I would help this person.

Would not: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Would

I would argue with this person.

Would: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Would not

I would disregard the opinion of this person.

Would not: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Would

126

I admire this talk.

Agree: _7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1_ :Disagree

I can depend on the ideas presented in this talk.

Disagree: _1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7_ :Agree

I believe this talk was informative.

Agree: _7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1_ :Disagree

I think these ideas were skillfully presented.

Disagree: _1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7_ :Agree

I had difficulty understanding this talk.

Agree: _7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1_ :Disagree

I think the facts used in this talk are correct.

Disagree: _1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7_ :Agree

I dislike the ideas presented in this talk.

Agree: _7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1_ :Disagree

I think this talk was not organized.

Disagree: _1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7_ :Agree

I think that these ideas would be good ideas to try.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

I think these ideas would be controversial.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

I would discuss these ideas with other board members.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

I would discuss these ideas with other people from my community.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

I think these ideas would be expensive.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

I would vote for looking into these ideas.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

I would report on these ideas to another education board like ours.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

I think these ideas would be hard to work for.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

I would invite members of my community to hear this speaker talk at our school.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

I would join a group that wanted to work for these ideas.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

EDUCATIONAL IDEAS SCALE

Instructions: Please indicate your responses to the following items in the way you have on the previous pages.

I respect this speaker's opinion on the topic.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

This speaker is not of very high intelligence.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

This speaker is a reliable source of information on the topic.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

I have confidence in this speaker.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

This speaker lacks information on the subject.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

This speaker has high status in American society.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

I would consider this speaker to be an expert on this topic.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

This speaker's opinion on the topic is of little value.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

I believe that this speaker is quite intelligent.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

The speaker is an unreliable source of information on the topic.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

I have little confidence in this speaker.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

The speaker is well-informed on this subject.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

The speaker has low status in American society.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

I would not consider this speaker to be an expert on this topic.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

This speaker is an authority on this topic.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

This speaker has had very little experience with this subject.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

This speaker has considerable knowledge of the factors involved with this subject.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

Few people are as qualified to speak on this topic as this speaker.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

This speaker is not an authority on this topic.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

This speaker has very little knowledge of this subject.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

This speaker has had substantial experience with this subject.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

Many people are much more qualified to speak on this topic than this speaker.

Disagree: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Agree

I deplore this speaker's background.

Agree: ___7___ : __6__ : __5__ : __4__ : __3__ : __2__ : __1__ :Disagree

This speaker is basically honest.

Disagree: __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ :Agree

I would consider it desireable to be like this speaker.

Agree: __7__ : __6__ : __5__ : __4__ : __3__ : __2__ : __1__ :Disagree

This speaker is not an honorable person.

Disagree: __1__ : __2__ : __3__ .: __4__ : _5__ : __6__ : __7__ :Agree

This speaker is a reputable person.

Agree: __7__ : __6__ : __5__ : __4__ : __3__ : __2__ : __1__ :Disagree

This speaker is not concerned with my well-being.

Disagree: __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ :Agree

I trust this speaker to tell the truth about the topic.

Agree: __7__ : __6__ : __5__ : __4__ : __3__ : __2__ : __1__ :Disagree

This speaker is a scoundrel.

Disagree: __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ :Agree

I would prefer to have nothing at all to do with this speaker.

Agree: __7__ : __6__ : __5__ : __4__ : __3__ : __2__ : __1__ :Disagree

Under most circumstances I would be likely to believe wha this speaker
says about the topic.

Disagree: __1__ : __2__ : __3__ : __4__ : __5__ : __6__ : __7__ :Agree

I admire the speakers background.

Agree: __7__ : __6__ : __5__ : __4__ : __3__ : __2__ : __1__ :Disagree

This speaker is basically dishonest.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Agree

The reputation of this speaker is low.

Agree: __7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1__ :Disagree

I believe this speaker is concerned with my well-being.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Agree

The speaker is an honorable person.

Agree: __7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1__ :Disagree

I would prefer not to be like this person.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Agree

I do not trust the speaker to tell the truth on this topic.

Agree: __7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1__ :Disagree

Under most circumstances I would not be likely to believe what this speaker says about the topic.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Disagree

I would like to have this speaker as a personal friend.

Agree: __7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1__ :Disagree

The character of this speaker is good.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Agree

EDUCATIONAL SPEECHES QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: These questions help describe the types of people who
have helped with this study. Please check or fill in each question.

What is your age group?

> () 20 or less
>
> () 20-29
>
> () 30-39
>
> () 40-49
>
> () 50-59
>
> () 60-69
>
> () 70 or older

() Male   ()Female

How many years of school have you completed?_____

What is your occupation?_____

What is the language you first learned to speak?_____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE

APPENDIX C

STUDY EVALUATION, QUESTIONNAIRE

AND INTERVIEW MATERIALS
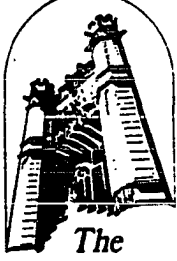
College of Education

An Agreement to Participate

We are asking a variety of educational advisory board members' to help us in a study which hopes to make clearer what kinds of speaking styles are seen as most helpful to members of educational advisory boards. If you choose to take part in this study, you will listen to a tape recording of a speaker talking about sharing educational resources. Then you will be asked to give your evaluation of the talk by marking an evaluation form and answering a questionnaire. Some board members will listen to different kinds of talks, and we hope to learn more about what kind of talks that present educational ideas are seen as better by comparing the evaluations of those who listen to these tape recordings.

In exchange for your time (about 10 minutes), you may benefit by finding out some of the ideas involved in community education and how they might be accomplished. Your evaluation would be confidential, since we do not ask for your name on the evaluation sheet or questionnaire.

If you have any other questions, we would be glad to answer them. However, please understand that taking part in this study is entirely up to you, and we respect your right to not participate. You may refuse to answer any question and you may discontinue participation in the study at any time without prejudice.

Louise Dauphinais
Center for Lifelong Learning   _____
College of Education   Subject Signature
University of Oklahoma
Norman, OK 73019   _____
                                                      Date

135

DIRECTIONS FOR EVALUATION SHEETS

You are about to complete three forms. These forms ask you to evaluate different ideas about what you have heard. You will be evaluating them by making a check mark on a number of scale lines. Please check what you think you would do. Some scales ask whether you would agree or disagree. Other scales ask if you would do something or not. Here is how you are to check these scales.

If you think the idea is something you would do for sure, put a check like this at 7:

I would ask this person for advice.

Would: ✓ : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Would not

If you think you would not do this for sure, put a check like this at 1:

I would ask this person for advice.

Would: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : ✓ :Would not .

If you think you might not do this, put a check like this at 2:

I would ask this person for advice.

Would not: 1 : ✓ : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Would

If you think you might do this, put a check like this at 6:

I would ask this person for advice.

Would not: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : ✓ : 7 :Would

If you are not sure but think you might, put a check like this at 5:

I would ask this person for advice.

Would: 7 : 6 : ✓ : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Would not

If you are not sure but think you might not, put a check like this at 3:

I would ask this person for advice.

Would: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : ✓ : 2 : 1 :Would not

If you feel you do not know which you would do, check the middle of the line like this at 4:

I would ask this person for advice.

Would: 7 : 6 : 5 : ✓ : 3 : 2 : 1 :Would not

136

Notice that the number from one (1) to seven (7) begin and end the
lines at different times. Also the would and would not switch places
on the lines. Sometimes the scale asks whether you agree or disagree
with something like this:

I would ask this person for advice.

Agree: <u>7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 </u> :Disagree

Mark these in the same way the would and would not scales are marked on
the previous page.

The evaluations that you give will be completely confidential. I will use
the scales only in a number form, so please express yourself freely in your
answers.

Instructions: Please mark your answer to the following items in the way shown on the previous pages of directions.

I admire the character of this person.

Agree: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Disagree

I would enjoy meeting this person.

Would not: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Would

I would cooperate in a political campaign with this person.

Would: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Would not

I would learn with the help of this person.

Would not: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Would

I would go out for lunch with this person.

Would: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Would not

I would help this person.

Would not: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Would

I would argue with this person.

Would: 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :Would not

I would disregard the opinion of this person.

Would not: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 :Would

I admire this talk.

Agree: <u> 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 </u> :Disagree

I can depend on the ideas presented in this talk.

Disagree: <u> 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 </u> :Agree

I believe this talk was informative.

Agree: <u> 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 </u> :Disagree

I think these ideas were skillfully presented.

Disagree: <u> 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 </u> :Agree

I had difficulty understanding this talk.

Agree: <u> 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 </u> :Disagree

I think the facts used in this talk are correct.

Disagree: <u> 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 </u> :Agree

I dislike the ideas presented in this talk.

Agree: <u> 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 </u> :Disagree

I think this talk was not organized.

Disagree: <u> 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 </u> :Agree

I think that these ideas would be good ideas to try.

Agree: __7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1__ :Disagree

I think these ideas would be controversial.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Agree

I would discuss these ideas with other board members.

Agree: __7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1__ :Disagree

I would discuss these ideas with other people from my community.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Agree

I think these ideas would be expensive.

Agree: __7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1__ :Disagree

I would vote for looking into these ideas.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Agree

I would report on these ideas to another education board like ours.

Agree: __7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1__ :Disagree

I think these ideas would be hard to work for.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Agree

I would invite members of my community to hear this speaker talk at our school.

Agree: __7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1__ :Disagree

I would join a group that wanted to work for these ideas.

Disagree: __1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7__ :Agree

EDUCATIONAL SPEECHES QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: These questions ask for information that help the study know more about the types of people who sit on advisory boards. Please check or fill in each question.

What is your age group?

        () 20 or less
        () 20-29
        () 30-39
        () 40-49
        () 50-59
        () 60-69
        () 70 or older

() Male   () Female

How many years of school have you completed?_____

Where did you go to school for most of that time?

        () Public school

        () Boarding school

        () Private school

How long have you been on this advisory board?_____
                                   Months and/or Years

What is your occupation?_____

Before hearing this talk, I thought Community Education was a:

    Good idea   Did Not Know   Poor idea
    : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :

Tribal Affiliation:_____   Not applicable:_____

How do you come to be sitting on this board?

        () Elected by parents or community

        () Appointed by the school

        () Appointed by the tribe

        () Other

STUDY INTERVIEW

I want to give you more information about the study but first I would like to ask
you some questions about what you were thinking when you answered the evaluation sheet.

1. Would you describe the person speaking?   1st mention   2nd mention   other mention
      Interviewer notes: (1) community ed.   (1)   (1)
                                            (2)   Indian   (2)   (2)
                                            (3) non-Indian   (3)   (3)
                                            (4) male   (4)   (4)
                                            (5) other   (5)   (5)

(2)   NOTE: If not mention is made of the speaker being Indian or non-Indian, ask:
                "Was the speaker an Indian or non-Indian?"
            (1) correctly identified as Indian
            (2) incorrectly identified as Indian
            (3) correctly identified as non-Indian
            (4) incorrectly identified as non-Indian
            (5) does not know

3. Do you remember thinking about the person being Indian(or non-Indian)as you
        listened to them talking?   (1) Yes (2) No (3) Doesn't know

4. Do you remember thinking about the person being Indian or non-Indian as you
answered the questionnaire?   (1) Yes (2) No (3) Doesn't know

5. Does it make a difference to you if the speaker was an Indian or non-Indian?
            (1) Yes   (2) No (3) Doesn't know

6. Did you notice anything unusual about the way the talk was organized or put together?
            (1) Yes (2) No (3) Doesn't know

7. (if yes to question 6, ask: "Can you recall what it was that seemed unusual?")

8. Do you think the talk presented ideas in a logical, one-after-the-other way?
            (1) Yes (2) No (3) Doesn't know

9. What did you like best about the talk you heard?

10. What did you like least about the talk?

11. Do you think the talk presented a large picture of the way Community Education
works in a community? (1) Yes (2) No (3) Doesn't know

12. Do you think this talk will influence other people in your community?
            (1) Yes (2) No (3) Doesn't know

13. (if yes to question 12, ask: On a scale of one to ten, with one being the least
influence and 10 being a great deal of influence, how much do think it will influence them?
            1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

14. On the same scale from 1 to 10, how much will this talk influence you?

None   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 A great deal

15. What do you think could be done to improve the talk?

16. Do you think the talk tried to emphasize giving you and the school leadership an answer or did it give you ideas to work with?
        (1) Answer (2) Ideas (3) Both (4) Doesn't know

17. I am going to give you a card. Please look at the names or positions of the people or groups on this card. Who do you think should follow through on ideas presented in a talk like this? Please give the number beside the person or group.
        1) I, myself
        2) Community Education advisory board members
        3) School coordinator
        4) School board
        5) Superintendent
        6) Principal
        7) Interested community people
        8) Tribal education office
        9) Title IV office
      10) Other

18. If you could pick just three of these, who do you think should follow through?
        1) I, myself
        2) Community Education advisory board members
        3) School coordinator
        4) School board
        5) Superintendent
        6) Principal
        7) Interested community people
        8) Tribal education office
        9) Title IV office
      10) Other

19. If there were just one person or group who should follow through, which would that be?
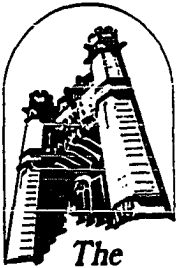
For the Participant: Information about the Study

Thank you for having participated in this study. You have listened to
one of four tape recorded talks about the Community Education idea of
sharing educational resources. You are welcome to listen to the other
three talks if you would like to at this time. At any time in the
future you may also listen to this talk or the others by contacting
the Center for Lifelong Learning at the address or phone number listed
below. The talks are different in the way the ideas are put together
or organized. They are also different in their emphasis on the Community
Education ideas of stimulating processes in educational decision making.
We will statistically analyze the numbers on the evaluations of all those
who listened to the tape recordings. By comparing the way advisory
members evaluate these different talks, we hope to more clearly identify
what kinds of speaking styles are seen as most helpful to members of
educational advisory boards. This may in turn assist in better training
students in education for work in Community Education.
Again, thank you for your help. If you have questions at any time,
please contact us at the following address or phone number.

Louise Dauphinais

Louise Dauphinais

Center for Lifelong Learning
College of Education
University of Oklahoma
Norman, OK 73019
(405) 325-4202

APPENDIX D

STIMULUS MESSAGES

Message in Linear Process

In each and every community across America there exists a wealth of untapped educational resources. I am proposing a plan, a process, a way in which these educational resources may be discovered and used more fully. This way is known as the Community Education concept.

First, I will show the way in which Community Education sees the community and the schools within the community. Then I will sketch for you the way in which the Community Education concept can work within that community.

Every American community has three types of resources. First and most important are the resources provided by the people of every age and every walk of life who live there. The experience and interests of each of these people represent a wealth that can profit all in that community. The second type of resource exists in the community buildings, facilities and equipment that, whether they are presently adequate or inadequate in their number and quality, represent things that are a community investment and that the community may rightfully expect to come together in.

The third important resource is represented in the school in that community. Although schools have taken much criticism throughout the course of their task, they still represent a common ground of cooperatively meeting the

greatest number of community needs.

So it is that the Community Education concept sees the pieces of the puzzle of meeting the community's needs. The organization of the school, the existing buildings and resources and a way of getting people involved that can make the most of all of it. That's the Community Education concept.

Then the question must be asked: "What is this way of getting people involved in this process?" Through a series of steps at a pace set by the community itself, community members come together and:

1. Determine their own immediate and longer range needs,

2. Assess their own community resources, and

3. Design a program of recreation, education and ongoing community participation and decision making.

I urge you as an educational advisor in your community to take these steps to begin a community education process that shares that wealth of resources, shares the doing, the action, and shares the education.

Message in Linear Solution

In each and every community across America there exists a wealth of untapped educational resources. Also in each and every community there is an answer, a program of tapping these educational resources and utilizing them fully. This program can be provided by the effective leadership of Community Education.

Community Education provides two focal points from which educational leadership can work: First, a way of looking at the community and its schools and second, a plan to tap those resources that each have.

In looking at any American community, three types of resources can be identified and tapped by effective leadership. First, and most important are the resources provided by the people of every age and every walk of life who live there. The experiences and interests of each of these people represent a wealth that can profit all in that community. The second type of resource exists in the community buildings, facilities and equipment that, whether they are presently adequate or inadequate in their number and quality, represent things that are a community investment and the community may rightfully expect to come together in.

The third important resource is represented in the school in that community. Although schools have taken much

criticism throughout the course of their task, they still represent a common ground of cooperatively meeting the greatest number of community needs.

A program of effective leadership in Community Education views these resources as pieces of the puzzle of meeting the community's needs. Leadership that (1) develops the organization of the school, (2) utilizes effectively the existing buildings and resources and (3) gets people involved in making the maximum use of all of the resources-- this is the goal of the Community Education program.

Then the question must be asked: "How can this effective leadership in Community Education be developed?" Through a series of steps existing community leadership initiates, at a pace they set, a program to:

1. Determine their own immediate and longer range needs,

2. Assess their own community resources, and

3. Design a program of recreation, education and ongoing community participation and decision making.

I urge you as an educational advisor in your community to assist your educational leadership in developing a program that shares that wealth of resources, shares the doing and the action, shares the education.

Message in Circular Solution

In communities all across America I have seen a wealth of untapped resources for education. I have been asked to share with you some things we as educators have seen in some of these communities and what we have heard from the people and the leaders in these communities. In one place we heard the school leaders talking about the way they had to make sure that their traditions were important and were taught in their communities. They told us about how the women meet to share quilting and that men, women, and children speak together the language of their parents and grandparents. The leaders know it is a special and important part of their lives. We saw these community and school leaders bring together people who were asking "Isn't this a teaching and learning that is important? Can't we find a place to come together for more of these times?"

In another place there were school leaders who said that the old people talked about education as it had been when they were children. They said "many of the old people tell us that when they were young the learning had been at the side of grandparents and parents, in the fields or at home, in a storeroom or in a barn, during the day and in the evening time they watched, listened, worked and learned. Now, the learning is seen by the teachers, it is done in the school. Now the people see little of the learning and know

little of what is done in the schools. They say: "What is it that happens in these schools that makes it so different from the way we learned?" And we heard the leaders in the school saying, "What is it that we can do to see more people, more parents, more elderly come and use our schools? Has it been good in their lives and in the lives of their children? Has it been important? Do they know we are willing to have them talk with us, that we want them to be a part?" In another place we visited we talked with school leaders who told us that people of all ages, of all walks of life were sharing ideas with teachers in their schools. They said people from the community were teaching others their special skills. The school leaders said there was learning in the daytime and learning in the evening time. They even come together in planning for this to happen. The leaders say they have heard the older people say "We have wanted to know how to do this for years. Now we can learn this." They hear the younger people saying "Look at this! My parents and my grandparents are coming to school to learn! They really do think it is important!" And so we have heard school leaders saying these things about their schools and communities.

Message in Circular Process

In communities all across America we can discover a wealth of untapped resources for education. I have been asked to share with you some things we as educators have heard and seen when we travel to some of these communities. In one place the old people talked about the education as it had been when they were children. Many of the old people have told us that when they were young, the learning had been at the side of grandparents, in the fields or at home, in the storeroom or in a barn, during the day and the evening--they watched, listened and learned. Now the learning is done in the school, seen by the teachers. Now the community sees little of the learning and knows little of what is done in the schools. They say, "What is it that happens in the schools that makes the children different from the way we learned? Has it been good in our lives and our children's lives? Has it been important in our lives and our children's lives?" And we heard the people in the school saying, "What is it that we can do to see more people, more parents, more elderly come and use our schools? Do they know we are willing to have them talk with us, that we want them to be a part of the community and of education?"

In another place we heard the people talking of the way they had to make sure that their traditions were important

and taught in their communities. We saw women meeting to share quilting. We heard men and women and children speaking together the language of their parents and grandparents, as a special part of their lives. We saw communities meet and ask "Isn't this a teaching and learning that is important?" "Isn't this an education?" "Can we find a place to come together for more of these times?"

In another place we visited we saw people of all ages, of all walks of life sharing ideas with teachers in their school. We saw people from the community teaching others their special skills. We saw them learning in the daytime and learning in the evening time. We saw them come together and plan for this to happen. We heard older people say "I have wanted to know how to do this for a long time. Now I can learn this." We heard the younger people saying, "Look at this! My parents and grandparents are coming to school to learn! They really think it is important!" And so we have seen and heard people in these communities saying these things about their schools. We have seen them doing these things at their schools.

APPENDIX E

TRIBAL AFFILIATIONS

OF AMERICAN INDIAN SUBJECTS

TRIBAL AFFILIATIONS OF

AMERICAN INDIAN SUBJECTS

Arapahoe	Flandreau Sioux	Oglala Sioux
Caddo	Kaw	Osage
Cherokee	Kickapoo	Otoe
Cheyenne	Kiowa	Papago
Choctaw	Klamath	Pawnee
Comanche	Lumbee	Quapaw
Creek	Missouri	Seminole
Delaware	Mohawk	Wichita
		Yankton Sioux

APPENDIX F

FACTOR VARIMAX ROTATED MATRIX

OF SEVEN FACTOR

STRUCTURE

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF

BEHAVIORAL DIFFERENTIAL

SEVEN FACTOR

VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Cadmire	0.29	0.14	0.62	0.22	0.00	0.06	-0.07
Enjoy	0.13	0.22	0.57	0.21	-0.04	0.10	-0.35
Politic	0.42	0.14	0.40	0.07	-0.21	0.09	0.02
Learn	0.14	0.39	0.65	0.11	-0.09	-0.10	-0.12
Lunch	0.16	0.15	0.61	0.05	-0.05	-0.25	0.12
Help	0.07	0.61	0.35	0.14	0.10	0.13	-0.23
Argue	-0.09	-0.15	0.03	-0.16	-0.00	0.08	-0.51
Disregard	-0.12	-0.50	-0.15	-0.27	0.15	0.12	0.04
Tadmire	0.70	0.01	0.46	0.26	-0.23	0.00	0.05
Depend	0.35	0.54	0.24	0.05	0.05	-0.13	-0.29
Inform	0.50	0.10	0.49	0.28	-0.06	-0.22	0.07
Skill	0.76	0.25	0.26	0.00	0.00	-0.35	-0.02
Under	-0.41	-0.22	-0.13	-0.25	0.44	0.33	0.09
Correct	0.14	0.80	0.23	0.19	-0.12	-0.25	-0.08
Dislike	0.07	-0.24	-0.03	-0.39	0.35	0.44	0.19
Not Organized	-0.43	-0.10	-0.07	-0.18	0.15	0.72	0.10
Try	0.47	0.66	0.08	0.26	-0.11	-0.00	0.07
Controversial	0.09	-0.01	-0.10	0.06	0.13	0.01	0.62
Discuss/Brd	0.25	0.16	0.15	0.68	-0.02	-0.08	-0.13
Discuss/Commun	0.27	0.26	0.28	0.70	-0.05	-0.17	0.01
Expense	-0.07	0.01	-0.15	-0.00	0.57	0.06	-0.03
Vote	0.54	0.31	0.12	0.49	-0.27	-0.07	-0.03
Report	0.56	0.32	0.16	0.39	-0.01	-0.10	-0.05
Hardwork	-0.16	-0.10	0.16	-0.14	0.60	0.06	0.33
Invite	0.66	0.20	0.18	0.34	-0.16	-0.12	-0.09
Join	0.24	0.30	0.31	0.48	-0.30	-0.05	-0.07

APPENDIX G

VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX FOR

NFACTOR FOUR

FACTOR ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIORAL DIFFERENTIAL

VARIMAX ROTATED FACTOR MATRIX

FOR NFACTOR FOUR

	Expertise	Character Credibility	Safety	Negatives Feasibility
Cadmire	0.23	0.67	0.22	-0.00
Enjoy	0.03	0.61	0.36	-0.23
Politic	0.35	0.49	0.07	-0.04
Learn	0.18	0.61	0.41	-0.13
Lunch	0.26	0.50	0.13	0.01
Help	0.02	0.35	0.71	-0.02
Argue	-0.05	-0.02	-0.28	0.33
Disregard	-0.32	-0.11	-0.49	0.17
Tadmire	0.66	0.60	-0.03	-0.04
Depend	0.29	0.28	0.55	-0.11
Inform	0.59	0.52	0.10	-0.00
Skill	0.67	0.34	0.18	0.01
Understand	-0.61	-0.16	-0.14	0.40
Correct	0.36	0.17	0.72	-0.18
Dislike	-0.30	0.04	-0.26	0.55
Not Organized	-0.61	-0.07	-0.09	0.28
Try	0.58	0.15	0.54	0.01
Controversial	0.22	-0.13	-0.13	-0.46
Discuss/Brd	0.46	0.18	0.31	-0.19
Discuss/Commun	0.56	0.27	0.36	-0.15
Expense	-0.19	-0.16	0.13	0.34
Vote	0.72	0.20	0.29	-0.21
Report	0.64	0.24	0.34	-0.03
Hardwork	-0.25	0.06	-0.03	0.62
Invite	0.70	0.30	0.19	-0.14
Join	0.46	0.33	0.32	-0.29

APPENDIX H

RESULTS OF UNIVARIATE

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE

OF FACTOR SCORES

TABLE 3

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE EFFECTS OF

SPEAKER, MESSAGE STRUCTURE, MESSAGE ORIENTATION

AND RECEIVER ON THE EXPERTISE FACTOR

SOURCE	df	MS	F
A Speaker	1	0.29	0.37
B Message Structure	1	0.03	0.04
C Message Orientation	1	4.59	5.69*
D Receiver	1	1.81	2.24
A*B	1	1.01	0.01
A*C	1	0.09	0.12
A*D	1	0.00	0.01
B*C	1	1.13	1.40
C*D	1	0.49	0.61
B*D	1	0.93	1.16
A*B*C	1	0.57	0.70
A*B*D	1	5.81	7.20**
A*C*D	1	0.84	1.05
B*C*D	1	0.10	0.13
A*B*C*D	1	0.02	0.02
Within	64	0.81	

*p .01
**p .05

TABLE 4

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE EFFECTS OF

SPEAKER, MESSAGE STRUCTURE, MESSAGE ORIENTATION

AND RECEIVER ON THE CHARACTER CREDIBILITY FACTOR

SOURCE	df	MS	F
A Speaker	1	3.02	3.85
B Message Structure	1	0.01	0.01
C Message Orientation	1	0.11	0.14
D Receiver	1	0.53	0.68
A*B	1	0.39	0.49
A*C	1	0.13	0.16
A*D	1	0.10	0.12
B*C	1	0.18	0.23
C*D	1	0.23	0.29
B*D	1	2.04	2.60
A*B*C	1	1.72	2.19
A*B*D	1	1.35	1.72
A*C*D	1	2.76	3.52
B*C*D	1	0.21	0.26
A*B*C*D	1	0.47	0.60
Within	64	0.78	

TABLE 5

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE EFFECTS OF

SPEAKER, MESSAGE STRUCTURE, MESSAGE ORIENTATION

AND RECEIVER ON THE SAFETY FACTOR

SOURCE	df	MS	F
A Speaker	1	0.44	0.56
B Message Structure	1	1.84	2.32
C Message Orientation	1	0.25	0.31
D Receiver	1	1.55	1.96
A*B	1	0.61	0.77
A*C	1	0.62	0.79
A*D	1	0.45	0.56
B*C	1	0.91	1.15
C*D	1	0.50	0.63
B*D	1	0.24	0.30
A*B*C	1	1.67	2.10
A*B*D	1	0.08	0.10
A*C*D	1	0.70	0.88
B*C*D	1	1.28	1.62
A*B*C*D	1	3.33	4.20*
Within	64	0.79	

*p .05

TABLE 6

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE EFFECTS OF

SPEAKER, MESSAGE STRUCTURE, MESSAGE ORIENTATION

AND RECEIVER ON THE NEGATIVE FEASIBILITY FACTOR

SOURCE	df	MS	F
A Speaker	1	0.14	0.19
B Message Structure	1	0.47	0.64
C Message Orientation	1	0.27	0.36
D Receiver	1	0.01	0.01
A*B	1	2.91	3.95
A*C	1	0.51	0.70
A*D	1	1.06	1.44
B*C	1	0.01	0.01
C*D	1	1.36	1.84
B*D	1	0.58	0.79
A*B*C	1	0.01	0.01
A*B*D	1	0.11	0.15
A*C*D	1	0.03	0.04
B*C*D	1	0.26	0.35
A*B*C*D	1	0.13	0.17
Within	64	0.74	

APPENDIX I

UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS

CELL MEANS

TABLE 7

CHARACTER CREDIBILITY FACTOR

CELL MEANS OF INTERACTION OF

SPEAKER (A) BY ORIENTATION (C) BY RECEIVER (D)

A	C	D	Means
1	1	1	0.0740
1	1	2	0.3187
1	2	1	0.5479
1	2	2	-0.1630
2	1	1	-0.0919
2	1	2	-0.4514
2	2	1	-0.2031
2	2	2	-0.0313

TABLE 8

SAFETY FACTOR

CELL MEANS OF INTERACTION

SEAKER (A) BY STRUCTURE (B) BY ORIENTATION (C)

BY RECEIVER (D)

A	B	C	D	Means
1	1	1	1	0.66
1	1	1	2	-0.07
1	1	2	1	-0.59
1	1	2	2	0.05
1	2	1	1	-0.55
1	2	1	2	0.39
1	2	2	1	0.52
1	2	2	2	0.19
2	1	1	1	-0.93
2	1	1	2	-0.05
2	1	2	1	-0.07
2	1	2	2	-0.19
2	2	1	1	-0.27
2	2	1	2	-0.39
2	2	2	1	0.13
2	2	2	2	0.41

TABLE 9

EXPERTISE FACTOR

CELL MEANS OF INTERACTION OF

SPEAKER (A) BY STRUCTURE (B) BY RECEIVER (D)

A	B	D	Means
1	1	1	0.15
1	1	2	-0.29
1	2	1	-0.59
1	2	2	0.48
2	1	1	-0.27
2	1	2	0.33
2	2	1	0.11
2	2	2	0.07

APPENDIX J

RAW DATA

RAW DATA BY EFFECT AND SUBJECT

FOR THE 26 BEHAVIORAL DIFFERENTIAL VARIABLES

A	B	C	D	Sub ject No.	Behavioral Differential
1	1	1	1	39	55557711375117177577373177
1	1	1	1	33	76777753777617117677177277
1	1	1	1	32	45433642644454157566376263
1	1	1	1	13	77777751667717117277377276
1	1	1	1	10	46472711666617117177177176
1	1	2	1	25	45253564515234366577164535
1	1	2	1	17	56566751577647426147171266
1	1	2	1	14	47447144636211111177371177
1	1	2	1	02	77777711666717115177177167
1	1	2	1	19	66466626666666626666666655
1	2	1	1	37	76367611774417116477777564
1	2	1	1	27	77545744534144474447447544
1	2	1	1	06	55555543556655455556655456
1	2	1	1	08	53431372544534466261455353
1	2	1	1	16	55522336536654223266366363
1	2	2	1	04	45566612466617116246266256
1	2	2	1	07	77676761767766677677667776
1	2	2	1	12	76156735645434374343455454
1	2	2	1	20	67171611151167155177533413
1	2	2	1	22	46467633555525525363256255
2	1	1	1	15	67557711754716116677177177
2	1	1	1	11	54643335433634525352453332
2	1	1	1	05	32222227221172252162522212
2	1	1	1	34	77777711556616137277277674
2	1	1	1	23	33223264433353343533333344
2	1	2	1	35	44232545343245454355354434
2	1	2	1	40	66655626656626116666166366
2	1	2	1	26	43346444335424444233442422
2	1	2	1	21	25211521255516116477777167
2	1	2	1	31	77766611777617117177177177
2	2	1	1	38	72534371626625315666165355
2	2	1	1	24	57467562555525325334344544
2	2	1	1	03	67454743666626136167177177
2	2	1	1	18	76676632667726227477366365
2	2	1	1	28	46476411566717117177177164
2	2	2	1	36	54565532566526237266465246
2	2	2	1	01	77777721777617116177177177
2	2	2	1	09	35367621467655213263245753
2	2	2	1	29	67565611677616117177177177
2	2	2	1	30	45234652445346244644154123

A	B	C	D	Sub ject No.	Behavioral Differential
1	1	1	2	22	7757772176761611717737277
1	1	1	2	20	5646364163761512457727245
1	1	1	2	14	6645664155645526536516534 6
1	1	1	2	09	5645462144562711666726526 6
1	1	1	2	05	4414451444231414524425444 4
1	1	2	2	40	5764471142633435556447451 6
1	1	2	2	35	7745771177661711747717715 7
1	1	2	2	32	5755575155534715525515533 6
1	1	2	2	10	4646664256552535335636633 6
1	1	2	2	26	4555444344342444544425544 4
1	2	1	2	21	7777444474771611657717754 7
1	2	1	2	39	3744474156761711637737735 6
1	2	1	2	37	7767765277771711717717717 7
1	2	1	2	19	7756571177771711717747717 7
1	2	1	2	23	5646672155753521647757666 7
1	2	2	2	18	6632271165551452527717727 7
1	2	2	2	16	4444644156761611767717766 6
1	2	2	2	02	4434566224234511563434253 4
1	2	2	2	07	5516766546461611557736752 4
2	1	1	2	11	7547464165551711727717716 7
2	1	1	2	34	5545455153756611517764554 5
2	1	1	2	17	5121763256772521565747667 3
2	1	1	2	04	4566665276543624526617625 5
2	1	1	2	06	7267761161661712617737726 7
2	1	2	2	12	5645655365561612656626626 5
2	1	2	2	13	4444757433426424536645524 5
2	1	2	2	36	6445645265753443677745545 4
2	1	2	2	31	7767771177771711717717717 7
2	1	2	2	15	5556544454355256266176755
2	2	1	2	38	1364174236145634635367535 4
2	2	1	2	01	6756577165761611766626617 7
2	2	1	2	08	3135625162541711777717716 7
2	2	1	2	28	5646453355562612626627716 2
2	2	1	2	27	66 77126776171172777771 77
2	2	2	2	30	5515665212326626226324251 5
2	2	2	2	33	7766776157761711627757767 7
2	2	2	2	03	4545533366653512655526635 5
2	2	2	2	29	4412161326334524515444422 5
2	2	2	2	24	7767772177771711757747747 7

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Aboud, Frances E. and Mitchell, Frank G. "Ethnic Role Taking: The Effects of Preference and Self-identification," _International Journal of Psychology_, 1977, 12, 1, 1-17.

Ajzen, Icek; Dalto, Carol Ann; and Blyth, Daniel P. "Consistency and Bias in the Attribution of Attitudes," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology_, 1979, 11, 117-23.

Anderson, Digby C. "Curriculum Innovation and Local Need," _Journal of Curriculum Studies_, 1979, 11, 117-23.

Anderson, Donald H. _Communication Linkages Between Indian Communities and School Districts_. Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1972.

Anderson, Norman H. "Integration Theory and Attitude Change," _Psychological Review_, 1971, 78, 171-206.

Apple, William; Streeter, Lynn; and Krauss, Robert M. "Effects of Pitch and Speech Rate on Personal Attributions," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology_, 1979, 37, 715-27.

Bell, Linda G.; Wicklund, Robert A.; Manko, Gary; and Larkin, Chris; "When Unexpected Behavior Is Attributed to the Environment," _Journal of Research in Personality_, 1976, 10, 316-27.

Berlo, David K.; Lemert, James B.; and Mertz, Robert J. "Dimensions of Evaluating the Acceptability of Message Sources," _Public Opinion Quarterly_, 1969, 33, 563-76.

Bernstein, Basil. "Elaborated and Restricted Codes: Their Social Origins and Some Consequences," _American Anthropologist Special Publication_, 1964, 66, 55-69.

Berry, John W. "The Cultural Ecology of Social Behavior." In _Advances in Experimental Social Psychology_. Vol. 12, pp. 177-206. Edited by Leonard Berkowitz. New York: Academic, 1979.

Bilmes, Jack and Boggs, Stephen T. "Language and Communication: The Foundations of Culture." In

Perspectives on Cross Cultural Psychology. Edited by Anthony J. Marsella, Roland G. Tharp, Thomas J. Ciborowski. New York: Academic, 1979.

Birdwhistell, Ray L. Introduction to Kinesics. Louisville: University of Louisville Press, 1952.

Birdwhistell, Ray L. Kinesics and Context: Essays on Body Motion Communication. New York: Ballantine, 1970.

Birnbaum, Michael H.; Wong, Rebecca; Wong, Leighton; "Combining Information from Sources that Vary in Credibility," Memory and Cognition, 1976, 4, 330-36.

Bock, Douglas G. and Saine, Thomas J. "The Impact of Source Credibility, Attitude Valence and Task Sensitization on Trait Errors in Speech Evaluation," Speech Monographs, 1975, 42, 229-236.

Bradac, James J.; Konsky, Catherine W.; Davies, Robert A. "Two Studies of the Effects of Linguistic Diversity Upon Judgments of Communication Attributes and Message Effectiveness," Communication Monographs, 1976, 43, 70-79.

Bradley, Gifford Weary. "Self-Serving Biases in the Attribution Process: A Re-examination of the Fact of Fiction Question," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1978, 36, 56-71.

Brislin, Richard W. "Introduction to Social Psychology." In Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology. Vol. 5. Edited by Harry C. Triandis and Richard W. Brislin. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980.

Brown, Elizabeth D. and Sechrest, Lee. "Experiments in Cross Cultural Research.: Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology. Vol. 2. Edited by Harry C. Triandis and John W. Berry. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980.

Brunswik, Egon. Perception and the Representative Design of Psychological Experiments. Berkeley: University of California, 1956.

Bullowar, M. "When Infant and Adult Communicate How Do They Synchronize their Behaviors?" In The Organization of Behavior in Face-to-Face Interaction. Edited by Adam

Kendon, Richard M. Harris, Mary Ritchie Key. The Hague: Mouton, 1975.

Burgoon, Michael, "Empirical Investigations of Language Intensity: III. The Effects of Source Credibility and Language Intensity of Attitude Change and Person Perception," Human Communication Research, 1975, 1, 251-64..

Burgoon, Michael and Bettinghaus, Erwin P. "Persuasive Message Strategies." In Persuasion: New Directions in Theory and Research. Edited by Michael E. Roloff and Gerald R. Miller. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1980.

Burgoon, Michael and King, Lyle B. "The Mediation of Resistance to Persuasion Strategies by Language Variable and Active Passive Participation," Human Communication Research, 1974, 1, 249-50.

Burgoon, Michael and Stewart, D. "Empirical Investigations of Language. I. The Effects of Sex of Source, Receiver, and Language Intensity on Attitude Change," Human Communication Research, 1975, 1, 244-48.

Buss, Allan R. and Royce, Joseph R. "Detecting Cross-Cultural Commonalities and Differences: Intergroup Factor Analysis," Psychological Bulletin, 1977, 82, 128-36.

Cacioppo, John T. and Petty, Richard E. "Effects of Message Repetition and Position on Cognitive Responses, Rec all and persuasion," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, 97-109.

Calder, Bobby J. "Informational Cues and Attributions Based on Role Behavior," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1974, 10, 121-25

Canton, Nancy and Mischel, Walter, "Prototypes in Person Perception." In Advances in Experimental Social Psychology. Edited by Leonard Berkowitz. New York: Academic, 1979.

Carbone, Tamara, "Stylistic Variables as Related to Source Credibility: A Content Analysis Approach," Speech Monographs, 1975, 42, 99-108.

Carlston, Donal E. "The Recall and use of Traits and Events in Social Inference Processes," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1980, 16, 303-28.

Cartwright, Dorin, "Achieving Change in People: Some Applications of Group Dynamics Theory," Human Relations, 1951, 4, 381-93.

Chaikeu, Shelly. "Heuristic Versus Systematic Information Processing and the Use of Source Versus Message Cues in Persuasion," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1980, 39, 752-66.

Chomsky, Noam. Language and Mind. New York: Harcourt, 1968.

Cialdini, Robert B.; Petty, Richard E.; Cacioppo, John T. "Attitude and Attitude Change," Annual Review of Psychology, 1981, 32, 357-404.

Cooley, Ralph, "Spokes in a Wheel: A Linguistic and Rhetorical Analysis of Native American Public Discourse." Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the Berkeley Linguistics Society. Berkeley: Berkeley Linguistics Society, 1979.

Cooley, Ralph and Babich, Roger, "The Structure of Native American Public Speeches." Paper presented at the 2nd Annual Conference of the Southeastern Native American Bilingual Education Conference, Jackson, Mississippi, March 3-7, 1979.

Cooley, Ralph and Lujan, Philip, "A Structural-Cultural Analysis of Native American Students' Speeches and Its Implications for the Teacher," Speaking, Singing and Teaching: A Multidisciplinary Approach to Language Variation, Anthropological Research Paper 20, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ, December, 1979.

Corenblum, Barry. "Effects of Race and Sex Upon the Attributions of Success and Failure." Social Behavior and Personality, 1977, 5, 199-207.

Cronkhite, Gary and Liska, Jo R. "A Critique of Factor Analytic Approaches to the Study of Credibility," Communication Monographs 1976, 43, 91-107.

Cronkhite, Gary and Liska, Jo R. "The Judgment of Communicant Acceptability." In Persuasion: New Directions in Theory and Research. Edited by Michael E. Roloff and Gerald R. Miller. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1980.

Darnell, Donald K. "The Relation Between Sentence Order and the Comprehension of Written English," Speech

Monographs, 1963, _30_, 97-100.

Davidson, Andrew R. and Thomson, Elizabeth, "Cross-cultural Studies of Attitudes and Beliefs." In _Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology_. Vol. 5. Edited by harry C. Triandis and Richard Brislin. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980.

Davis, E. E. "The Issue Differential: A Multidimensional Technique for Measuring Components of Attitudes Toward Social Issues," _Economic and Social Review_, 1977, _8_, 118-126.

Deaux, Kay. "Sex: A Perspective on the Attribution Process." In _New Directions in Attribution Research_. Vol. 1. Edited by John H. Harvey, William Ickes, Robert F. Kidd. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1976.

Dewhirst, Joseph R. "Social Judgments of Spurious and Causal Relations Between Attributes and Outcomes," _Journal of Experimental Social Psychology_, 1978, _14_, 313-25.

Dimock, Hedley G. _Social Intervention in the Helping Professions_. Montreal: Concordia University Press, 1976.

Dinges, Norman G.; Trimble, Joseph E.; Manson, Spero M.; and Pasquales, Frank G. "The Social Ecology of Counseling and Psychotherapy with American Indians." In _Cross Cultural Counseling and Psychotherapy: Foundation and Evaluation of Cultural Considerations_. Edited by Anthony J. Marsella and Paul Pedersen. New York: Pergamon, 1980.

Eagly, Alice H. "Sex Differences in Influenceability," _Psychological Bulletin_, cited as in Press in "Attitudes and Opinions," _Annual Review of Psychology_, 1978, _29_, 527-546.

Eagly, Alice H. and Himmelfarb, Samuel, "Attitudes and Opinions," _Annual Review of Psychololgy_, 1978, _29_, 517-54.

Eagly, Alice H., and Warren, R. "Intelligence, Comprehension, and Opinion Change," _Journal of Personality_, 1976, _44_, 226-42.

Edington, Everett D. "Communication of Education Innovations to Native Americans," _American Indian Culture and Research Journal_, 1974, _1_, 11-13.

Ekman, Paul and Friesen, Wallace V. "The Repertoire of Non-verbal Behavior: Categories, Origins, Usage, and Coding," Semiotica, 1969, 1, 49-98.

Ekman, Paul and Friesen, Wallace V. "Relative Importance of Face, Body, and Speech in Judgments of Personality and Affect," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1980, 38, 270-77.

Fiedler, Klaus, "Causal and Generalizing Inferences from Simple Sentences," Zeitschrift fur Sozialpsychologie, 1978, 9, 39-49.

Fishman, Joshua A. "A Systematization of the Whorf Hypothesis," (1960). In Culture and Cognition: Readings in Cross-Cultural Psychology. Edited by John W. Berry and P. R. Dasen. London: Methuen, 1974.

Foschi, M. "Introduction," Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 1980, 11, 3, pp. 260-262.

Forslund, Morris A. and Wells, Betty L. "Political Learning Among Members of a Racial-Ethnic Minority," American Indian Culture and Research Journal, 1979, 3, 1-10.

Fowler, Loretta, "Wind River Reservation Political Process: An Analysis of the Symbols of Consensus," American Ethnologist, 1978, 748-69.

Fry, Edward B. Reading Instruction for the Classroom and Clinic, New York: McGraw, 1972.

Garfinkel, Harold, Studies in Ethnomethodology. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice, 1967.

Griffin, Kim, "The Contributions of Studies of Source Credibility to a Theory of Interpersonal Trust in the Communication Process," Psychological Bulletin, 1967, 68, 104-20.

Goss, Kevin F. "Consequences of Diffusion of Innovations," Rural Sociology, 1979, 44, 754.

Hall, Edward T. Beyond Culture. Garden City, NY: Anchor, 1976.

Hall, Edward T. The Silent Language. Garden City, NY: Doubleday, 1959.

Havelock, Ronald G. and Huberman, A.M. Solving Educational

Problems: The Theory and Reality of Innovation in Developing Countries. Paris: UNESCO, 1977.

Heider, Fritz. The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations. New York: Wiley, 1958.

Henninger, Marilyn and Wyer, Robert S. "The Recognition and Elimination of Inconsistencies Among Syllogistically Related Beliefs: Some New Light on the 'Socratic Effect,'" Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1976, 34, 680-93.

Hepworth, Janice C. "Some Pre-Empirical Considerations for Cross Cultural Attitude Measurements and Persuasive Communications." In Intercultural and International Communication. Edited by Fred L. Casmire. Washington, D. C.: University of America Press, 1978.

Himmelfarb, Samuel, "Integration and Attribution Theories in Personality Impression Formation," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1972, 23, 309-13.

Himmelfarb, Samuel and Eagly, Alice H. Readings in Attitude Change. New York: Wiley, 1974.

Horai, JoAnn; Nacceri, Nicholas; and Fatoullah, Elliot; "The Effects of Expertise and Physical Attractiveness Upon Opinion Agreement and Liking," Sociometry, 1974, 37, 601-6.

Hovland, Carl Iver; Janis, Irving L.; and Kelley, Harold H.; Communication and Persuasion: Psychological Studies of Opinion Change. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1953.

Humboldt, Wilhelm von. Linguistic Variability and Intellectual Development. Translated by G. C. Buck and F. A. Raven. Coral Gables: University of Miami Press, 1971.

Hymes, Dell, "Linguistic Method in Ethnography: Its Development in the U.S.," In Method and Theory in Linguistics. Edited by Paul L. Garvin. The Hague: Mouton, 1970.

Hymes, Dell. Foundations in Sociolinguistics: An Ethnographic Approach. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1974.

Infante, Dimico A. "Richness of Fantasy and Beliefs about Attempts to Refute a Proposal as Determinants of

Attitude," Speech Monographs 1975, 42, 75-78.

Insko, Chester A.; Lind, E. Allan; and LaTour, Stephen;
"Persuasion, Recall, and Thoughts," Representative
Research in Social Psychology, 1976, 7, 66-78.

Jones, Edward E. and Davis, Keith E. "From Acts to
Dispositions: The Attribution Process in Person
Perception." In Advances in Experimental Social
Psychology. Edited by Leonard Berkowitz. New York:
Academic, 1965.

Jones, Russell A. and Brehm, Jack W. "Attitudinal Effects
of Communicator Attractiveness When One Chooses to
Listen." In Readings in Attitude Change. Edited by
Samuel Himmelfarb and Alice H. Eagly. New York:
Wiley, 1974.

Kanouse, David E. "Language, Labeling, and Attribution."
In Attribution: Perceiving the Causes of Behavior.
Edited by Edward E. Jones et al. Morristown, NJ:
General Learning Press, 1972.

Kassin, Saul M. "Consensus Information, Prediction, and
Causal Attribution: A Review of the Literature and
Issues," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,
1979, 37, 1966-81.

Kelley, Harold H. "Causal Schemata and the Attribution
Process." In Attribution: Perceiving the Causes of
Behavior. Edited by Edward E. Jones et al.
Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press, 1972.

Kelley, Harold H. and Michela, John L. "Attribution Theory
and Research," Annual Review of Psychology, 1980, 31,
457-501.

Kirk, Roger E. Experimental Design: Procedures for the
Behavioral Sciences. Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole, 1968.

Krathwohl, David R.; Bloom, Benjamin S.; and Masic, Bertram
B.; Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: Handbook II
Affective Domain. New York: David McKay, 1964.

Lakoff, Robin R. "Language and Sexual Identity,"
Semiotica, 1977, 19, 119-30.

Langer, Ellen J. "Rethinking the Role of Thought in Social
Interaction." In New Directions in Attribution
Research. Vol. 2. Edited by John J. Harvey, William
Ickes and Robert F. Kidd. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence

Erlbaum, 1978.

Lauffer, Armand. _Social Planning at the Community Level_. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice, 1978.

Lawton, Stephen B. and Lawton, William H. "An Autocatalytic Model for the Diffusion of Educational Innovations," _Educational Administration Quarterly_, 1979, 15, 19-46.

Lomax, Alan. "Culture-Style Factors in Face-to-Face Interaction." In _Organization of Behavior in Face-to-Face Interaction_. Edited by Adam Kendon. Chicago: Mouton, 1975.

McArthur, Leslie and Post, Dennis L. "Figural Emphasis and Person Perception," _Journal of Experimental Social Psychology_, 1977, 13, 520-35.

McArthur, Leslie, "The How and What of Why: Some Determinants and Consequences of Causal Attribution," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology_, 1972, 22, 171-93.

McCroskey, James C. "Scales for the Measurement of Ethos," _Speech Monographs_, 1966, 33, 65-72.

McGinnies, Elliott, "Initial Attitude, Source Credibility, and Involvement as Factors in Persuasion," _Journal of Experimental Social Psychology_, 1973, 9, 285-96.

McGinnies, Elliott and Ward, Charles D. "Persuasibility as a Function of Source Credibility and Locus of Control: Five Cross-Cultural Experiments," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology_, 1974, 42, 360-71.

McGuire, William J. "The Nature of Attitudes and Attitude Change." In _The Handbook of Social Psychology_. Edited by Gardner Lindzey and Elliot Aronson. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1969.

McKillip, J. and Edwards, J. D. "Source Characteristics and Attitude Change," _Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin_, 1975, 1, 135-37.

Markova, I. and Farmer, J. "On Problems of Context and Attribution in Verbal Reasoning," _European Journal of Social Psychology_, 1978, 8, 21-35.

Mehrley, R. Samuel, and McCroskey, James C. "Opinionated Statements and Attitude Intensity as Predictors of Attitude Change and Source Credibility," _Speech_

Monographs, 1970, 37, 47-52.

Melody, Michael E. "Lakota Myth and Government: The Cosmos as the State," American Indian Culture and Research Journal, 1980, 4, 1-22.

Meriam, Lewis. The Problem of Indian Administration. Baltimore: John Hopkins Press, 1928; New York: Johnson Reprint, 1971.

Messick, David M. and Reeder, Glenn D. "Roles, Occupations, Behaviors and Attributions," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1974, 10, 126-32.

Miller, Arthur G. "Constraint and Target Effects in the Attribution of Attitudes," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1976, 12, 325-39.

Miller, Norman; Maruyama, Geoffrey; Beaber, Rex Julian; and Valone, Keith; "Speed of Speech and Persuasion," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1976, 34, 615-24.

Minzey, Jack D. and LeTarte, Clyde. Community Education from Program to Process. Midland, MI: Pendell, 1972.

Mitchell, Jack N. Social Exchange, Dramaturgy, and Ethnomethodology: Toward a Paradigmatic Synthesis. New York: Elsevier, 1978.

Newcombe, Nora and Arnkoff, Diane B. "Effects of Speech Style and Sex of Speaker on Person Perception," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1976, 12, 294-300.

Norman, Ross, "When What is Said is Important: A Comparison of Expert and Attractive Sources," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1976, 12, 294-300.

Oliver, Donald W. Education and Community. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1976.

Peeters, Guido, "Language, Meaning, and Cognition: A Social Psychological Approach," Communication and Cognition, 1977, 10, 63-88.

Perloff, Richard M. and Brock, Timothy C. "And Thinking Makes It So: Cognitive Responses to Persuasion," In Persuasion: New Directions in Theory and Research. Edited by Michael E. Roloff and Gerald R. Miller. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1980.

Petrinovich, Lewis, "Probabilistic Functionalism: A Conception of Research Method," American psychologist, 1979, 34, 373-90.

Petty, Richard E. and Cacioppo, John T. "Issue Involvement Can Increase or Decrease Persuasion by Enhancing Message-Relevant Cognitive Responses," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, 1915-26.

Philipsen, Gerry, "Navajo World View and Culture Patterns of Speech: A Case Study of Ethnorhetoric," Speech Monographs, 1972, 39, 132-39.

Piaget, Jean. The Construction of Reality in the Child. New York: Basic, 1954.

Communication Effectiveness," Speech Monographs, 1974, 41, 179-84.

Pryor, John B. and Kriss, Mitchell. "The Cognitive Dynamics of Salience in the Attribution Process," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1977, 35, 49-55.

Regan, Dennis T.; Straus, Ellen; and Fazio, Russell; "Liking the Attribution Process," Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 1974, 10, 385-97.

Reeder, Glenn D. and Brewer, Marilynn B. "A Schematic Model of Dispositional Attribution in Interpersonal Perception," Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 86, 61-79.

Ringers, Joseph. Community Schools and Interagency Programs: A Guide. Midland, MI: Pendell, 1976.

Ritt, Leonard G. "Some Social and Political Views of American Indians," Ethnicity, 1979, 6, 45-72.

Robinson, W. P. "Dialogue of Deficit and Difference in Language Proficiency," Linguistics, 1975, 151, 27.

Rodin, M. J. "Liking and Disliking: Sketch of an Alternative View," Personality and Social Psychology, 1978, 4, 473-78.

Rogers, Everett M. with Floyd Shoemaker. Communication of Innovations: A Cross-Cultural Approach. New York: Free Press, 1971.

Rogers, Ronald W. "A Protection Motivation Theory of Fear

Appeals and Attitude Change," Journal of Psychology, 1975, 91, 93-114.

Rokeach, Milton, "Long-range Experimental Modification of Attitudes and Behavior," American Psychologist, 1971, 26, 453-59.

Roloff, Michael E. "Self-awareness and the Persuasion Process: Do We Really Know What We're Doing? In Persuasion: New Directions in Theory and Research. Edited by Michael E. Roloff and Gerald R. Miller, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1980.

Rothman, Jack, "Practitioner Roles: Variables Affecting Role Performance." Planning and Organizing for Social Change. New York: Columbia University Press, 1974.

Ruble, Diane N. and Feldman, Nina S. "Order of Consensus, Distinctiveness, and Consistency Information and Causal Attributions," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1976, 34, 930-37.

Saltzstein, Herbert D. and Sandberg, Louis. "The Relative Effectiveness of Direct and Indirect persuasion," Journal of Psychology, 1975, 91, 39-48.

Sapir, Edward. "The Status of Linguistics as a Science," Language, 1929, 5, 207-14.

Schneider, David J.; Hastorf, Albert J.; and Ellsworth, P. C. Person Perception. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1979.

Seay, Maurice Ferris. Community Education: A Developing Concept. Midland, MI: Pendell, 1974.

Smith, Edwin H. and Culyer, Richard C. "Preparing and Evaluating Adult Literacy Materials," Teaching Reading to Adults. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1975.

Smith, Bruce L.; Brown, Bruce L.; Strong, William J.; and Rencher, Alvin C. "Effects of Pitch and Speech Rate on Personality Perception," Language and Speech 1975, 18, 145-52.

Smith, Eliot R. and Miller, Fredrick D. "Salience and the Cognitive Mediation of Attribution," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1979, 37, 2240-54.

Snyder, Melvin L. "Egotism and Attribution," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1976, 33, 435-41.

Steele, Claude M. and Ostrom, Thomas M. "Perspective-mediated Attitude Change: When Is Indirect Persuasion More Effective than Direct Persuasion?" *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1974, *29*, 737-41.

Sternthal, Brian; Dholakia, Ruby; and Leavitt, Clark; "The Persuasive Effect of Source Credibility: Tests of Cognitive Response," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 1978, *4*, 252-60.

Szasz, Margaret. *education and the American Indian: The Road to Self-Determination, 1928-1973.* Albuquerque: University of New Mexico Press, 1974.

Taylor, Shelley E. and Fiske, Susan T. "Salience, Attention, and Attribution: Top of the Head Phenomena." In *Advances in Experimental Social Psycholgoy*. Vol. 11. Edited by Leonard Berkowitz. New York: Academic, 1978.

Trager, George L. "The Systematization of the Whorf Hypothesis," *Anthropological Linguistics*, 1959, *1*, 31-35.

Triandis, Harry C. *The Analysis of Subjective Culture*. New York: Wiley, 1972.

Tulving, Endel. "Episodic and Semantic Memory." In *Organization of Memory*. Edited by Endel Tulving and Wayne Donaldson. New York: Academic, 1972.

U.S. Government Printing. Special Subcommittee on Indian Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, U.S. Senate. *Indian Education: A National Tragedy--A National Challenge.* Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1969.

Weeks, Thelma E. *Discourse, Culture and Instruction*. Bethesda: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 128-144, 1976.

Wells, Gary L. and Harvey, John H. "Do People Use Consensus Information in Making Causal Attributions?" *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 1977, *35*, 279-93.

Winer, B. J. *Statistical Principles in Experimental Design*, 2nd ed. new York: Mcgraw-Hill, 1971.

Wood, Wendy; Eagly, Alice H.; and Chaiken, Shelly; "Causal Inferences About Communication and Their Effect on

Opinion Change," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology_, 1978, _36_, 424-35.

Worth, Sol and Adair, John, "Navajo Filmmakers," _American Anthropologist_, 1970, _72_, 9-34.

Wyer, Robert S., Jr. _Cognitive Organization and Change: An Information Processing Approach_. Potomac, MD: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1974.

Wyer, Robert S., Jr. "Some Implications of the 'Socratic Effect' for Alternative Models of Cognitive Consistency," _Journal of Personality_, 1974, _42_, 399-419.

Wyer, Robert S. and Carlston, Donal E. _Social Cognition, Inference and Attribution_. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1979.

Zaltman, Gerald. _Processes and Phenomena of Social Change_. New York: Free Press, 1973.

Zuckerman, Miron. "Actions and occurrences in Kelley's Cube," _Journal of Personality and Social Psychology_, 1978, _36_, 647-58.

Zuckerman, Miron. "Attribution of Success and Failure Revisited, or: The Motivation Bias Is Alive and Well in Attribution Theory," _Journal of Personality_, 1979, _47_, 245-87.

Zurcher, Louis A. "The Leader and the Lost: A Case of Indigenous Leadership in a Poverty Program Community Action Committee," _Genetic Psychology Monographs_, 1967, _76_, 23-93.