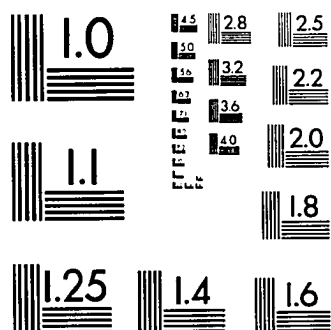


UMI University Microfilms International



MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART
NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS
STANDARD REFERENCE MATERIAL 1010a
(ANSI and ISO TEST CHART No. 2)

University Microfilms Inc.

300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106

INFORMATION TO USERS

This reproduction was made from a copy of a manuscript sent to us for publication and microfilming. While the most advanced technology has been used to photograph and reproduce this manuscript, the quality of the reproduction is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted. Pages in any manuscript may have indistinct print. In all cases the best available copy has been filmed.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help clarify notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. Manuscripts may not always be complete. When it is not possible to obtain missing pages, a note appears to indicate this.
2. When copyrighted materials are removed from the manuscript, a note appears to indicate this.
3. Oversize materials (maps, drawings, and charts) are photographed by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each oversize page is also filmed as one exposure and is available, for an additional charge, as a standard 35mm slide or in black and white paper format.*
4. Most photographs reproduce acceptably on positive microfilm or microfiche but lack clarity on xerographic copies made from the microfilm. For an additional charge, all photographs are available in black and white standard 35mm slide format.*

*For more information about black and white slides or enlarged paper reproductions, please contact the Dissertations Customer Services Department.

UMI University
Microfilms
International

8602713

Broyles, Pamela Human

THE INFLUENCE OF VIDEOTAPE FEEDBACK ON STUDENT AND TEACHER
PERCEPTIONS OF A PUBLIC SPEAKING PERFORMANCE

The University of Oklahoma

Ph.D. 1985

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

PLEASE NOTE:

In all cases this material has been filmed in the best possible way from the available copy. Problems encountered with this document have been identified here with a check mark ✓.

1. Glossy photographs or pages _____
2. Colored illustrations, paper or print _____
3. Photographs with dark background _____
4. Illustrations are poor copy _____
5. Pages with black marks, not original copy _____
6. Print shows through as there is text on both sides of page _____
7. Indistinct, broken or small print on several pages ✓
8. Print exceeds margin requirements _____
9. Tightly bound copy with print lost in spine _____
10. Computer printout pages with indistinct print _____
11. Page(s) _____ lacking when material received, and not available from school or author.
12. Page(s) _____ seem to be missing in numbering only as text follows.
13. Two pages numbered _____. Text follows.
14. Curling and wrinkled pages _____
15. Dissertation contains pages with print at a slant, filmed as received _____
16. Other _____

University
Microfilms
International

THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA
GRADUATE COLLEGE

THE INFLUENCE OF VIDEOTAPE FEEDBACK
ON STUDENT AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS
OF A PUBLIC SPEAKING PERFORMANCE

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
Ph.D. in EDUCATION

By
Pamela Human Broyles
Norman, Oklahoma
1985

THE INFLUENCE OF VIDEOTAPE FEEDBACK
ON STUDENT AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS
OF A PUBLIC SPEAKING PERFORMANCE
A DISSERTATION
APPROVED FOR THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

By

Jay C. Smith
Maed O. Laid
Herbert M. Stegert
Roger M. Bolwer
R. W. F. Smith

Copyright © 1985 by Pamela Human Broyles
All rights reserved

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The successful completion of a project such as this couldn't have been achieved without the assistance and encouragement of friends and family. Special thanks go to my doctoral chairman, Dr. Jay Smith, whose calm, easy-going manner was so important during a very hectic period of my life. I'd also like to thank my other four committee members, Dr. Roger Babich, Dr. Gus Friedrich, Dr. Herbert Hengst, and Dr. Gerald Kidd, for their cooperation and guidance.

Two other faculty members who played important roles in my studies were Dr. Tim Ragan and Dr. Patricia Smith. First, my appreciation goes to Dr. Ragan for encouraging me to pursue a doctoral degree after I completed my M.Ed. Then, my appreciation goes to Dr. Pat for the inspiration and challenge she provided me during the latter part of my program.

Another group of people who assisted me in several different ways were my BNC and NNC colleagues. Thank you to Carolyn Waterman and Dennis Waller for allowing me to use their classes in the study. Thank you to Martha Banz and Gary Lance for their statistical wizardry. Thank you to Gary Mills for his computer tutoring, and to Gwen Ladd Hackler for her proofreading. Finally, thank you to ALL of my BNC colleagues for the encouragement they've provided over the past few years.

Finally, I'd like to express my love and appreciation to my family, especially my husband and my parents, for their understanding and patience while I've completed my program at OU. R.B. has always been my strongest supporter, and then Jason came along to add to the excitement at the end of my dissertation.

I'd like to close with the verse that has meant so much to me: "I can do all things through Christ who strengthens me." (Phil. 4:13)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	lv
ABSTRACT	v
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
II. REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE	14
III. METHODOLOGY	26
IV. RESULTS	35
V. DISCUSSION	45
REFERENCES	52
APPENDIX A	57
APPENDIX B	58

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
1. Instructor Differences in Total Scoring for Control Groups	36
2. Instructor Differences in Total Scoring for Treatment Groups	36
3. Order Effects in First and Second Speech Rounds	38
4. Student vs. Teacher Perceptions-- Total Discrepancy	38
5. Student vs. Teacher Perceptions-- Item Discrepancy	39
6. Timing of Feedback in Treatment Groups--Total Discrepancy	39
7. Pearson r Summary Table-- Total Discrepancy	41
8. Pearson r Summary Table-- Item Discrepancy	41
9. Category Analysis Mean Table-- Control Groups	43
10. Category Analysis Mean Table-- Treatment Groups	43
11. <u>t</u> Test Summary Table	44

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine whether videotape feedback, provided after a student's public speaking performance, increased the amount of congruency between student self-evaluation and teacher evaluation of that speaking performance. Congruency was determined by comparing student and teacher scores on an adapted version of the Speech Rating Scale developed by Becker (1962). The Speech Rating Scale focused on six aspects of a public speaking performance: organization, language, material, delivery, analysis, and voice.

The subjects for the study included students enrolled in four sections of an introductory college speech communication course. The experiment also involved three communication instructors and was conducted in a natural classroom setting. Two groups of subjects received immediate videotape feedback following their performances while the other two groups received delayed videotape feedback.

The analysis of the data gathered in this study relied on the discrepancy scores occurring between student and instructor evaluations of public speaking performances. Discrepancy scores were calculated two ways (total discrepancy and item discrepancy) to determine whether methodology itself made a difference in the results. The researcher found that item discrepancy was more sensitive to variance in scores.

To test the first two hypotheses of this investigation, repeated analysis of variance measures were used. A set of Pearson product-moment correlations was calculated to test the third hypothesis. Finally, category analysis was conducted to determine where the least and most congruency

occurred between teachers' and students' perceptions on the six areas of the Speech Rating Scale.

The results of this study indicated that videotape feedback increased congruency between student and teacher perceptions on some aspects of a public speaking performance. Organization and language were the two areas that reflected increased congruency in all treatment groups. In addition, no differences were found in using immediate and delayed videotape feedback to increase congruency.

**THE INFLUENCE OF VIDEOTAPE FEEDBACK
ON STUDENT AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS
OF A PUBLIC SPEAKING PERFORMANCE**

CHAPTER I

Introduction

Background of the Study

Long before the principles of learning theory and educational psychology formally emerged, teachers provided feedback to their students in an effort to change or to maintain certain aspects of students' performances.

Whether students presented a dance routine, a piano solo, or a dramatic reading, teachers used feedback to inform students about their performances. Thus, feedback confirmed correct responses that students made, or indicated weaknesses for students to improve upon the next time.

Some researchers assert that feedback is the strongest, most important variable controlling performance and learning (Bilodeau & Bilodeau, 1961). Feedback provides information about the accuracy or inaccuracy of a response and guides the learner in selecting corrective or alternative behaviors. Generally, researchers believe in the power of feedback in the learning process because feedback indicates the direction in which performance is to be changed. Learning occurs when there is a change in behavior that brings the student's performance closer to an established

criterion (Deese & Hulse, 1967). Because of its role in learning, feedback is a vital component in the systematic approach to the design of instruction.

Feedback is a rather simple concept, although there are various interpretations of the term. The classic definition written by Deese and Hulse (1967) is that "feedback refers to any consequences or results of performance that are perceived by the learner" (p. 454). Adams (1976) interprets feedback as any type of information that is fed back to learners about their actions. Others (Skinner, 1953) make no distinction between feedback and reinforcement, either positive or negative, and use the two terms synonymously. Sometimes feedback is referred to as knowledge of results, both correct and incorrect (Bilodeau & Bilodeau, 1961). Tustin (1966) explains feedback as information about the amount of discrepancy between the actual and the desired performance. Brophy (1981) prefers the terms praise and criticism because they include "teacher reactions that go beyond simple feedback about appropriateness or correctness of behavior" (p. 6).

The definition of feedback proposed by Deese and Hulse (1967) has been adopted throughout this study. They view feedback as the learner's perception of the performance outcome or end product. This definition was selected from among the others because it centers on two of the attributes of videotape replay: providing complete (visual and aural) images of what the audience sees and hears, and allowing students to identify the strengths and weaknesses of their performances. A further reason it was chosen was because it stresses the learner's perception of the performance.

Feedback, no matter how one defines it, has been investigated along at least three different dimensions. One dimension of feedback research deals with the timing of feedback, or when feedback occurs in the learning process.

Three variations in timing include simultaneous, immediate, and delayed feedback. Simultaneous feedback occurs at the same time as the ongoing performance, and is either verbal or nonverbal. The advantage of simultaneous feedback is that it allows the learner to modify a certain behavior instantaneously; however, it is not always possible for teachers to supply simultaneous feedback about every student behavior. Immediate feedback follows a student's performance, allowing as little time to elapse between performance and feedback as possible. Research (Skinner, 1953) indicates that immediate feedback is preferable to delayed feedback when students are trying to develop a skill or set of skills. Despite the effectiveness of immediate feedback, teachers often use delayed feedback, primarily because of the time restrictions placed on them. Delayed feedback may not be given for several hours, days, or even weeks after a student's performance.

Another dimension of feedback research focuses on the person(s) who provide(s) the feedback for the learner. These sources of feedback may be external, such as experts and peers, or they may be internal, such as the learners themselves. Feedback from an expert, like the class instructor, is commonly provided for learners and may take the form of praise and/or criticism, according to Brophy (1981). An instructor's feedback is a vital part of the learning process because the instructor has the knowledge and experience needed to identify the strengths and weaknesses of a student's performance. Feedback from one's peers often takes place in a classroom context. When one's classmates understand the performance criteria and have observed performances repeatedly, they can often make meaningful comments and/or criticisms about their peers' performances (Hirschfeld, 1968). Finally, learners provide their own internal feedback because human

beings tend to evaluate their own behaviors or performances. However, a major drawback of self-evaluation can be the learner's lack of objectivity about the actual performance (Darnell, 1978).

A third dimension of feedback research looks at the form in which feedback is given. Three common forms of feedback are oral, written, and mediated. Oral feedback may be provided for the learner either publicly or privately. It is often convenient for teachers to comment on a student's performance in front of the class, but the experience can be threatening to the student. Because of this, teachers frequently opt to supply feedback to students in private conferences. Written feedback tends to be more formal than oral feedback, for example, when grades are assigned or an evaluation checklist is used. Sometimes written feedback is more helpful to the learner than oral feedback because learners can refer back to written comments over and over again in their efforts to improve themselves. Mediated feedback involves the use of an electronic device, like an audiotape or videotape recorder, to provide feedback to students about their performances. With the widespread availability of videotape equipment in educational institutions over the past fifteen years, videotape feedback has been used in many different academic areas. According to a study by Gross in 1969, the most popular use of this type of feedback has occurred in performance activities, including dancing, voice, acting, golf, wrestling, speech, and counseling.

Videotape feedback has become an instructional tool in many performance courses because of its unique capabilities. For example, Dowrick and Briggs (1983) indicate that "videotape is unsurpassed in ability to provide accurate, objective self-feedback" (p. 135). Their point may be well-taken, but are there other qualities that may influence teachers' decisions to use

videotape feedback rather than another type of feedback medium? The following list outlines most of the reasons why videotape feedback may be effective in educational settings.

1. Videotape feedback produces immediate and direct feedback to students about their performances.
2. Videotape feedback makes a permanent record of a transient performance that can be analyzed and critiqued during playback.
3. Videotape feedback provides students with images of themselves that are closely related to what the audience sees and hears.
4. Videotape feedback allows students to judge their behaviors and apply the criteria or principles they have learned.
5. Videotape feedback gives students a chance to validate criticisms from others by observing themselves.
6. Videotape feedback places the responsibility for learning on the students since they must identify areas for improvement to present a better image to themselves and to others.
7. Videotape feedback increases the motivation for students to improve their performances.

Public Speaking teachers recognize the value of videotape feedback in their courses (Caton & Feather, 1965; Deihl, Breen & Larson, 1970; Mulac, 1974; Nelson, 1968), and experience shows that most students are not overly apprehensive about the use of videotape recordings. The data in several studies (Bush, Bittner & Brooks, 1972; Hirschfeld, 1968; Lake & Adams, 1984) designed to check videotape effects indicate that the presence of videotape equipment in a classroom speaking situation does not create additional communication anxiety in student speakers. However, there is no clear evidence regarding a superior method for using videotape feedback in the

classroom. Teachers combine videotape feedback with the timing and source dimensions, discussed earlier, in a number of different ways.

Concerning the timing dimension, one approach (Venitsky, 1982) replays students' speeches on videotape immediately following their individual performances. Another method (Bradley, 1970; Gross, 1969) spends the first half of each class period videotaping speeches and the last half viewing replays. A third technique (Dieker, Crane & Brown, 1971; Goldhaber & Kline, 1972) involves videotaping speeches one entire class period and delaying playbacks until the following class period. Another way (Bradley, 1970) is to postpone video feedback until a private viewing can be scheduled outside of regular class time. A final procedure (Gross, 1969; Hirschfeld, 1968; Ochs, 1968; Reynolds, 1968) requires several days of videotaping all of the students' performances and then several days of viewing the entire group of video replays.

In regard to the source dimension of feedback, one method (Miles, 1981; Ochs, 1968) calls for written self-evaluations. A second approach (Hirschfeld, 1968) includes oral peer evaluations of student performances. Another technique (Gross, 1969) requires an exchange of written peer evaluations among class members. A fourth procedure (Diehl, Breen & Larson, 1970; Elliott & Markham, 1970) employs both oral self-evaluation and oral teacher evaluation, while another procedure (Bradley, 1970; McCroskey & Lashbrook, 1970; Reynolds, 1968) employs both oral peer evaluation and oral teacher evaluation. The last way (Goldhaber & Kline, 1972) appears to be very thorough because it uses oral and written peer evaluations, plus oral and written teacher evaluations.

From the previous discussion one can see that questions remain about how to incorporate videotape feedback into the public speaking classroom as

effectively as possible. This study is designed to examine the role that videotape feedback may play in linking internal (student) and external (teacher) performance evaluations in the public speaking classroom. The study is based on the premise that the process of learning is greatly affected by the congruence or incongruence between the student's self-evaluation and the teacher's evaluation of a specific performance. By providing videotape feedback to students about their performances, it may be possible to increase the congruence between internal and external evaluations. The rationale for the premise of this study will be developed in the following paragraphs.

For many years public speaking teachers have assigned students to deliver prepared speeches which are then critiqued by the instructor and/or the students' classmates. This pedagogical method provides an avenue through which students may improve their oral communication skills by learning what they do successfully, as well as what they do unsuccessfully. Teachers assume that if students are made aware of their strengths and weaknesses, via instructor and/or peer critiques, they can make the necessary improvements in their performances. A number of teachers have expanded upon the method by using videotape replays so that students can see their actual performances. Videotape feedback provides students additional insights into their strengths and weaknesses and, as a result, their amount of improvement may be increased (McCroskey & Lashbrook, 1970).

Two types of evaluation typically occur in the public speaking classroom: external, including the instructor and/or peers, and internal, involving the students' perceptions of their individual performances. External feedback provided by the instructor is necessary for student improvement because

I

the instructor has the expertise needed to identify the positive and negative aspects of a student's performance. In the classroom, the public speaking teacher determines the criteria that are used to evaluate the communication performance and is, in turn, responsible for informing students about the criteria that have been established. According to Deese and Hulse (1967), learning occurs when there is a change in behavior that brings the student's performance closer to an established criterion.

Students provide themselves feedback about their performances almost automatically. This internal feedback is a natural occurrence because human beings tend to evaluate or criticize their own behaviors or performances. However, individuals' awareness of their own behaviors in situations can be distorted by self-interest and ego-involvement. A lack of objectivity often results because students know how much work they put into developing their speeches and it is difficult to detach themselves from the process involved in order to evaluate only the finished product--the performance (Darnell, 1978). Nevertheless, self-evaluations should not be disregarded only because of a lack of objectivity. Drawing from the work of Carl Rogers, Ochs (1968) states that "Of the three loci of classroom criticism--i.e., the instructor, a classmate, or the speaker--self-generated criticism is most effective in producing desired behaviors" (p. 111). Thus, there seems to be some support for student self-evaluation in a public speaking situation.

Videotape replay of speaking assignments complements both the teachers' external evaluations and the students' internal evaluations. Replay can assist instructors' attempts to help students recognize weaknesses. Deihl, Breen, and Larson (1970) recommend videotape as a corrective device in public speaking courses. Miles (1981) reports that video replay assists students in identifying problem areas in language and

delivery. Videotape replay can also facilitate a greater degree of objectivity in self-evaluation. Zuber-Skerritt (1984) states that students' actions can be analyzed during replay and "misconceptions can be straightened out" (p. 52). Hirschfeld (1968) includes one student's summation of the videotape experience:

Most people have certain ideas on how they wish to appear to others. When I found out that the "image" was definately [sic] not getting across my first thought was, "What am I doing wrong?" When this question is answered, and when a conscious effort is made to overcome particular problems, then a videotape replay becomes an instrument of learning. (p. 118)

Research on the implementation of video replay in public speaking classes has indicated that videotape feedback is more effective when it is used in conjunction with another feedback source (Book, 1983; Delhl, Breen & Larson, 1970; McCroskey & Lashbrook, 1970). Fuller and Manning (1973) emphasize the need for focus in their review of video playback in teacher education. The purpose of focus is to indicate discrepancies between a student's perceived performance and actual performance. Focus may be provided by a teacher, a peer, or a checklist of criteria that the student can follow. In one study examining the use of videotape replay with teacher-trainees, Salomon and McDonald (1970) conclude that two conditions are essential: (a) students must know what behaviors are expected of them and look for deviations in their performances from what is expected, and (b) students must adopt the expectations for the desirable behaviors and be ready to modify their behaviors to make them match the expectations. "When both conditions are met, the videotape information provided serves as feedback for the receiver. That is, the information which is selected by

the receiver 'tells' him how far his behavior deviates from the desirable and accepted standards" (p. 281).

What happens when videotape feedback is combined with internal and external evaluation in a public speaking course? One answer to this question can be found in a 1971 study by Dieker, Crane, and Brown in which they analyzed four self-concept and personality traits: wisdom, forcefulness, pleasantness, and authoritativeness. They used both internal and external evaluations and reported that "comparisons of the ratings by the self and by the instructor revealed significant differences" (p. 136) on three of the four factors. In their discussion they pointed out that self-ratings were completed two days after the speeches were given by both the control and treatment groups. The researchers speculated that the control group may have forgotten some of their weaknesses during the two-day delay, while the treatment group (videotape replays) was reminded of their experience.

According to the study outlined above, internal and external evaluations are not necessarily congruent, even though the same speech is being evaluated. Yet it seems that greater congruency between self-evaluation and teacher evaluation would indicate that the learner is becoming more adept at identifying personal strengths and weaknesses. Certainly this is a worthwhile outcome of public speaking instruction. Darnell (1978) states, "Congruent evaluations are, to a large extent, redundant. They may, however, serve to reassure the individual of the accuracy of his/her internal evaluations and lead to adjustments in performance by contributing to internal motivation" (p. 283).

In concluding this section on the rationale for this study, congruency needs to be linked with the three dimensions of feedback that have been

discussed previously. Regarding congruency and the timing of feedback, it is probable that the shorter the time lapse between performance and feedback, the greater the degree of congruency. Immediate feedback quickly informs students about their performances before they have a chance to forget the details of the experience. Although immediate feedback has its advantages, some studies (Dieker, Crane & Brown, 1971; Ochs, 1968; Reynolds, 1968) stress delayed feedback because of the speaker's heightened emotional level following the speaking experience. The latter indicate that greater objectivity may occur during the self-viewing process if there is a delay between performance and playback. Thus, this study addresses the issue of immediate versus delayed videotape feedback and the effect these timing variables have on congruency.

When linking congruency and the source of feedback, two key figures are included in this study. The teacher is one key figure because this person has the knowledge and expertise to evaluate performances. The student is the other key figure because this is the person who must recognize how close the actual performance comes to the desired performance. It is probable that congruency between student and teacher evaluations indicates that the student is learning the criteria necessary for an acceptable performance and knows what areas require improvement.

Relating congruency and the form of feedback, it is probable that the more realistic and complete feedback can be, the greater the degree of congruency. Videotape feedback is the best tool students can use to understand how they come across to an audience because it provides audio and visual replicas of their performances. Written feedback also provides more specific comments about a performance without the threat of oral critiques.

Statement of the Problem

The research problem investigated by this study is as follows: what effect does videotape replay have on the congruence between student self-evaluation and teacher evaluation of a given speech?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine whether videotape feedback, provided after a student's public speaking performance, increases the amount of congruency between student self-evaluation and teacher evaluation of that speaking performance.

Definition of Terms

1. Feedback - "any consequences or results of performance that are perceived by the learner" (Deese & Hulse, 1967, p. 454); the deliberate comments made by a feedback source about a speech after the speech is presented.
2. Videotape feedback - a specific type of feedback that provides the replay of a videotaped image of a student's performance.
3. Performance course - a course that focuses on developing a student's skill or set of skills, according to a predetermined standard.
4. Timing of feedback - the point at which videotape feedback occurs in the learning process; this may be simultaneous, immediate, or delayed.
5. Source of feedback - the person, including the instructor, classmates, or oneself, who critiques a public speaking performance.
6. Form of feedback - the mode in which feedback is presented to the learner, involving oral critiques, written evaluations, or mediated playbacks (audiotape/videotape).

7. Congruency - the degree of correspondence or agreement between internal (student) and external (teacher) evaluations of a given speech, indicated by discrepancy scores on a public speaking evaluation instrument.

Educational Significance of the Study

Since videotape feedback has been widely adopted for all types of performance situations, users need to know how to capitalize on its capabilities. The results of this study will provide practical information for the teacher or instructional designer who is trying to determine the most effective way to use videotape feedback, in conjunction with self-evaluation and teacher evaluation, in public speaking classes. In addition, the results may be generalized to other related performance courses. This study is designed to build upon the existing feedback research, which will be reviewed in the next chapter, because feedback is such an important part of the learning process.

CHAPTER II

Review of Selected Literature

Introduction

The following literature review is divided into four major sections. The first section presents a variety of definitions of feedback in an attempt to explain the concept. The next section discusses the role of feedback in the learning process and indicates why feedback is an essential component in that process. The third section looks at ways that feedback is used in public speaking classes by considering factors such as teacher evaluation, student self-evaluation, timing of feedback, and videotape replay. The last section addresses the issue of congruence between student and teacher evaluation.

Definition of Feedback

The term feedback, as it is referred to in the learning process, has been defined many diverse ways. Adams (1976) regards feedback as any type of information that is fed back to learners about their actions. In a review of feedback in written instruction in 1977, Kulhavy describes feedback as any number of procedures used to indicate to a learner if an instructional response is right or wrong. Gagne (1976) says that feedback lets a learner know if one's performance has met certain expectations, while Tustin (1966) says that feedback lets a learner know the amount of discrepancy between

the actual and desired performance. The definition stated by Deese and Hulse in 1967, used throughout this study, is "feedback refers to any consequences or results of performance that are perceived by the learner" (p. 454). Brophy (1981) prefers to use the terms praise and criticism because they include "teacher reactions that go beyond simple feedback about appropriateness or correctness of behavior" (p. 6). Seiler, Schuelke, and Lieb-Brilhart (1984) take the concept a step further and propose that "feedback consists of receptivity as well as responsiveness--the willingness to do something about it, to take action" (p. 193).

In reinforcement theory, feedback is the knowledge of results provided for the learners about their performances (Bilodeau & Bilodeau, 1961). Hence, when knowledge of results is considered to be reinforcing, the terms feedback and reinforcement (whether it be positive or negative) are used synonymously. Although Skinner (1953) includes knowledge of results under the umbrella of reinforcement, Annet (1964) argues that knowledge of results is not necessarily reinforcing in itself; rather, knowledge of results is linked to informational and motivational aspects of the learning process.

Role of Feedback in Learning

Studies of feedback show it to be one of the strongest, most important variables in the learning process (Bilodeau & Bilodeau, 1961). In a 1959 study conducted by Bilodeau, Bilodeau, and Schumsky, the results illustrate the powerful relationship between student performance and the presence or absence of feedback. In The Psychology of Learning, Deese and Hulse (1967) report that "There seems to be universal agreement among those who study the learning of skills that the most fundamental condition determining performance during learning is feedback" (p. 454). Therefore, what is the

role of feedback in the learning process? Why does feedback make a significant impact on learning?

Kulhavy (1977) approaches the task of determining how feedback facilitates learning by placing feedback in the context of a servocontrol system in the study of cybernetics (comparative study of electronic computers and the human nervous system). Within this context, feedback functions as a means for determining how accurately a system is working and for identifying and correcting error messages. Kulhavy goes on to draw an analogy between servocontrol system feedback and instructional feedback. He proposes that feedback has two possible effects on students' performances: to let them know when they are right, and to correct them (or let them correct themselves) when they are wrong. His argument is that this continuous confirmation and correction process, or feedback, is responsible for the changes that result in students' behaviors.

Deese and Hulse (1967) outline two primary functions of feedback in learning, including informing learners about their responses, particularly in areas where adjustments are necessary, and providing reinforcement. These two researchers conclude that

Feedback can in theory affect either learning or performance or both.

In one sense feedback is essential for learning, since it defines the direction in which performance is to be changed in the future.

Learning is not simply a change in behavior; it is a change in some particular direction or a change which brings performance closer to some (perhaps arbitrary) criterion. (p.454)

In an experimental study on knowledge of results, or feedback, Locke, Cartledge, and Koeppel (1968) recognize that feedback may facilitate performance primarily in two ways. First, feedback cues students as to the

type, extent, and direction of errors, thereby allowing them to correct errors or to improve their methods of performing the tasks. Second, feedback motivates students to put their best efforts into a task or to persist longer at a particular task.

Use of Feedback in Public Speaking Classes

From the beginning of recorded history of public speaking instruction, students have received feedback about their individual performances in an effort to confirm or correct their demonstrated speech skills. Book (1983) writes that the purpose of feedback is threefold: to inform the student about the audience's reaction to a speech, to make suggestions for improvement in future speaking attempts, and to motivate the student to speak again or to enjoy the speaking assignment. Book believes that "in a structured speech class in which feedback is given, students should be motivated to receive the feedback and use it for their benefit" (p. 5).

Feedback provided for students in a public speaking class is commonly labeled "speech criticism." Although the word criticism may carry a negative connotation for some people, it must be remembered that criticism consists of both favorable and unfavorable comments. Book and Simmons (1980) cite Cathcart (1966) on the subject of criticism:

It is well established in educational theory that learning cannot take place without criticism. A person who wishes to learn a new task or to improve upon his performance of an old one will not progress without some criticism. Simply doing something over and over will not necessarily result in improvement, unless the performance is analyzed and compared with a more ideal performance. If one does not know why he is failing to attain the results he desires, he is not likely to improve. He must look at the task he is performing and be able to

determine what is happening. Even knowing what is happening will not automatically lead to improvement, unless he has some awareness of the ideal performance. In each of these steps, criticism is involved. . . Without it, no matter the source, there will be little learning. (p. 135)

Various methods of feedback, or criticism, are used in the public speaking classroom. Oral or written feedback may be generated by the teacher, other students (peers), the speakers themselves, or combinations of these. The feedback provided by the instructor or peer group is considered to be external, or extrinsic, whereas the feedback provided by the speakers themselves is considered to be internal, or intrinsic. Teacher evaluation (external feedback) and student self-evaluation (internal feedback) are discussed in the following two sections.

Teacher Evaluation. One of the major functions of the public speaking teacher is to provide written and oral criticism of students' speech performances. It is easy to understand the primacy of this function when one considers how much time is devoted to student performance and criticism in class. For example, in a survey of the basic communication course at Purdue University, Vogel (1975) reports that the agenda for twenty of the forty-five semester class meetings is student speeches, with the teacher's major role being speech critic. When teachers assume this important role, Holtzman (1960) encourages them to ask themselves one key question: "What can I say (or write or do) that will result in this student's improving his communication ability?" (p. 1).

Much of the literature on how to provide effective feedback in the public speaking classroom is a result of successful, and sometimes unsuccessful, experiences of speech teachers (Book, 1983; Dedmon, 1967; Holtzman, 1960). Articles like these consider both oral and written feedback, and enumerate

practical guidelines for criticism, including: focusing criticism on a few aspects of the performance; giving a positive comment first, followed by possibilities for improvement, concluding with a note of praise; and providing information about speech content as well as speech delivery.

Sprague (1971) has developed and Young (1974) has operationalized four dichotomous classifications for comments about a public speaking performance. The four categories are content-delivery, atomistic-holistic, personal-impersonal, and positive-negative. When Young (1974) conducted his experimental study to determine students' perceived helpfulness of feedback, the results revealed that students perceive atomistic comments more helpful than holistic, impersonal comments more helpful than personal, positive comments more helpful than negative, and no preferences were indicated about comments regarding content or delivery. Book and Simmons conducted a research study in 1980 that was similar to Young's in design and yielded similar results. The only difference appearing in the 1980 study was that negative comments about content and delivery were perceived as helpful.

Students demonstrate more improvement in their public speaking performances if they are assisted in identifying their strengths and weaknesses than if they are given no guidelines for critiquing their performances. As Peck and Tucker (1973) conclude in their investigation of performance feedback in teacher programs, "solitary self-confrontation with feedback information is ineffectual, or much less effectual than when a second person participates in the feedback process" (p. 946). From this study and others (Book & Simmons, 1980; Diehl, Breen & Larson, 1970; McCroskey & Lashbrook, 1970), it is evident that an external source of feedback is critical for the improvement of public speaking skills. Here the

implication is that students benefit from their teachers' comments about the effectiveness of their performances.

Student Self-Evaluation. A student delivering a speech in public speaking class automatically evaluates this performance, and usually by the end of the speech, experiences a feeling of general satisfaction or dissatisfaction about the performance. From where does perception of a good, fair, or poor public speaking performance come? Obviously, the student evaluates the performance internally, based on how far the performance deviates from the desirable and acceptable standards. It is true that the student's perception of the performance may not be realistic or accurate, since self-evaluation is subjective, yet self-evaluation can be a valuable feedback source.

The feedback that students provide for themselves internally is often capitalized upon in performance courses. Miles (1981) required students to critique their videotaped public speaking performances and to record their evaluations on a standard rating form. Ochs (1968) also required written self-analyses of speech performances, except that he let students write brief essays instead of using a standard form. A pair of studies (Diehl, Breen & Larson, 1970; Elliott & Markham, 1970) employed oral self-analyses of public speaking performances. The self-analyses consisted of students indicating positive and negative aspects of the presentations while they watched videotape replays of their speeches. In all of these studies, researchers found that students were able to identify some of the positive and negative aspects of their performances.

In Fuller and Manning's (1973) review of the use of video playback in teacher education programs, they recommend that some kind of focus should

be provided for students, i.e., a checklist of observable behaviors, usable when they watch their videotape playbacks. Fuller and Manning explain:

When there is no focus, when the person sees his videotape alone, for example, dissonance is probably low. It is possible that low dissonance feedback rewards existing behavior so that behavior does not change. . . . Focus may also provide information to the human subject. It specifies what is wanted, what will be rewarded, and the direction he should take to get the reward. . . . When focus is present, it calls attention to the discrepancy, and change is more likely than when the discrepancy is simply overlooked. (p. 496)

Timing of Feedback. Researchers have investigated the timing of feedback in the learning process, including simultaneous, immediate, and delayed. Simultaneous feedback can be either verbal or nonverbal. Often a teacher "coaches" students aloud who are performing a certain task. For example, it is common for a piano teacher to tell a student, while the student is playing a selection, that a segment of the piece needs to be louder. The simultaneous feedback occurs at the place where the student needs to increase the volume in order for the student to modify the behavior instantaneously. Similarly, Phelps and Hempen (1960) report that they interrupt student speakers when necessary to identify weaknesses in delivery and to offer suggestions for the remainder of the speech. Nyquist and Wulff (1982) use a "bug-in-the-ear" technique to give simultaneous verbal feedback during a speech. They attempt to improve graduate assistants' communication skills by giving them verbal prompting via a small transistorized ear plug. Nyquist and Wulff direct the graduate assistants on behaviors like eye contact, vocal variety, and speaking rate while the graduate assistants are presenting a class lecture.

An instructor may give simultaneous feedback nonverbally to a student during a performance via techniques like nodding the head "yes" or "no," smiling, frowning, and using a variety of hand signals that the student can quickly recognize. In a review of methods used in teacher education, Peck and Tucker (1973) write that supervisors provide nonverbal feedback during teaching presentations by raising color-coded cards each time the student teacher exhibits a desirable or undesirable teaching behavior. In sum, the main disadvantage of simultaneous feedback is that it is not always feasible to provide it for every behavior that occurs during every student performance.

Reinforcement theory suggests that immediate feedback, occurring as close to the time of the performance as possible, produces a more lasting change in behavior than delayed feedback. Dedmon (1967) argues in favor of immediate feedback based on the learning principle that "pupils learn best when they have immediate and valid knowledge of success or failure" (p. 283). Immediate feedback generally involves an oral critique or a written critique of a student's performance by the teacher or peers. Based on reinforcement theory, students' speeches should be critiqued via some method immediately following each of their speeches. However, as a number of researchers (Dieker, Crane & Brown, 1971; Ochs, 1968; Reynolds, 1968) point out, students may not be receptive to criticism immediately following their speeches because they are still emotionally involved in the speaking event and may feel threatened by criticism.

Videotape Replay. Studies have been done to reinforce the value of videotape feedback in public speaking classes. Caton and Feather (1965) surveyed Air Force Academy cadets who received videotape feedback in their public speaking classes. Seventy-two percent of the cadets responded

that videotape playbacks were of great assistance in improving their speaking skills, while twenty-eight percent said that they were of moderate assistance. Nelson (1968) reports receiving two common reactions to videotape feedback from his students: their speech faults became more obvious, and they did not believe criticisms until they actually observed themselves. Ingram (1974) concurs with Nelson's students that "unperceived performance errors may be perceived accurately by learners if the error behavior is recorded and played back" (p. 7). In a study by Steinmetz (1982) that focused on developing presentation skills, he found that videotape playback was of significant importance in sharpening those skills.

Videotape feedback is being used widely in public speaking courses, yet it is being handled in the classroom in numerous ways. Several studies (Diehl, Breen & Larson, 1970; Dieker, Crane & Brown, 1971; Mulac, 1974) simply involve videotaping student performances and allowing them to view their playbacks privately outside of class. However, Mulac (1974) indicated that private viewing was not effective without "instructor comment in order to maximize its effect" (p. 188). A second method (Bradley, 1970; Diehl, Breen & Larson, 1970; Elliott & Markham, 1970) that has been effective includes videotaping students and replaying individual performances with only the student and the instructor present to analyze the performance. A third procedure (Venitsky, 1982) is to videotape a small group of students and let them view their playbacks together while the instructor makes comments about their performances.

Another approach to videotape feedback (Bradley, 1970; Gross, 1969) involves videotaping a number of students in the first half of the class period and replaying those performances in the last half of the class period,

with the entire class and instructor discussing the performances.

McCroskey and Lashbrook (1979) assert that

Videotape playback of student communicative acts which focuses on the audience and is accompanied by instructor and student discussion and criticism can make a positive contribution toward increasing students' insight into the communication process and focusing their attention on their audience and the content of their messages. (p. 205)

A fifth feedback technique (Goldhaber & Kline, 1972) is to videotape student performances one class period and to view playbacks the next class period with critiques from the entire class and instructor. The next method (Ochs, 1968; Reynolds, 1968) involves videotaping student performances during a series of class periods, and replaying all of the performances later for the classmates and the instructor to critique. Ochs (1968) believes that "repeated observations and identification of speech criteria in classmates' speeches are sound learning experiences for beginning speech students" (p. 118). Finally, Miles (1981) and Ochs (1968) emphasize self-analysis on the part of the speaker. This type of critiquing may be summarized on a standard form, or it may be summarized in a spontaneous paragraph or two.

Congruence Between Student and Teacher Evaluations

Since student evaluation of a public speaking performance is generated internally and teacher evaluation is generated externally, it seems that the next logical question should be "What is the relationship between internal and external evaluation?" Darnell (1978) argues that "the teacher-learning process is significantly affected by congruity (or incongruity) between internal and external evaluations" (p. 283). Darnell develops his argument by explaining that external evaluation can be either irrelevant, congruent,

or incongruent with internal evaluation. Furthermore, congruency between internal and external evaluations is rewarding, whereas incongruency between the two is not rewarding.

In the context of the public speaking classroom, where the teacher is the external evaluator and the student is the internal evaluator, congruent evaluations confirm the accuracy of the internal evaluation. This is one indication that the student knows what behaviors are expected and how to identify deviations from those expectations. It may further indicate that the student has adopted the expectations and is willing to modify behaviors to match expectations (Salomon & McDonald, 1970).

On the other hand, when internal and external evaluations are incongruent, that is, they deviate significantly from one another, several implications follow. First, the student may not have a realistic perception of the performance, e.g., when the student is completely unaware of nervous mannerisms or distracting vocal qualities. Second, the student may have a tendency to evaluate the performance more favorably or unfavorably because of a lack of objectivity in self-analysis. Learning to critique one's performance fairly and open-mindedly often takes time and practice. Finally, the student may not have a clear understanding of the criteria upon which to base the evaluation, or, more simply, may not know how to identify deviations from the performance expectations.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

This chapter presents a discussion of the methodology for investigating the effect of videotape replay on student and teacher perceptions of a given speech. The chapter outlines the subjects, instrumentation, procedures, and data analyses that were used to conduct the study.

Subjects for the Study

The subjects for the study included students enrolled in four sections of an introductory (1000-level) college speech communication course. Two sections of students were from the Fundamentals of Speech course at Northwest Nazarene College (NNC) and two sections of students were from the Introduction to Public Communication course at Bethany Nazarene College (BNC). Both of the colleges are church-related liberal arts institutions with estimated enrollments of 1,200 students each. NNC is located in southwest Idaho and BNC in central Oklahoma. The researcher assumed that the samples from the two schools were similar.

The subjects ranged in age from 18 to 35 years, with approximately 95% of them in the 18- to 23-year-old age bracket. The original sample consisted of 63 subjects but nine of them did not have complete data available (only gave one speech or did not fill out evaluation sheet) so the

number of subjects was reduced to 54. The sample studied was comprised of 25 females (46%) and 29 males (54%); several were from racial minorities. Because the study was designed for a natural classroom setting, none of the subjects were informed or aware of the experiment being conducted.

Evaluation Instrument Used

The instrument that the students and teachers completed to determine their perceptions of speech performances was developed at the University of Iowa (Becker, 1962). This instrument, called the Speech Rating Scale, was designed to evaluate both informative and persuasive speeches in a freshman public speaking course. The instrument originally consisted of eleven categories, but has undergone several revisions over the past twenty years. The form of the Speech Rating Scale used in this study consisted of six categories: organization, language, material, delivery, analysis, and voice. The Speech Rating Scale has been validated and is a reliable measure for examining these six dimensions across different classroom settings (Bock & Bock, 1981).

In the original form of the Speech Rating Scale, the categories contained two to four subquestions that served as criteria for making judgments about the categories and providing guidance for the evaluators. Based on the subquestion criteria, evaluators assigned a single rating between seven (superior) and one (inadequate) to each category. In this study, three subquestion criteria were listed below each of the six categories requiring three numeric ratings for each category. The instrument's eighteen items were rated on a seven to one scale with each number representing the following: (a) 7 = Superior, among the best in the class; (b) 6 = Excellent, well above average; (c) 5 = Good, could stand some improvement; (d) 4 = Average, the norm for the assignment; (e) 3 = Fair, meets minimum quality

standards; (f) 2 = Needs work, should be reworked before presentation; and (g) 1 = Inadequate, does not meet the assignment. Both students and teachers completed the same form of the Speech Rating Scale (see Appendices A and B) for each speech.

Procedures

Three teachers were involved in the study including the researcher, one colleague from Bethany Nazarene College, and one from Northwest Nazarene College. The three varied from two to eight years of experience in teaching introductory speech communication courses at the college level. Before collecting any data, the researcher talked to the other two teachers personally to be sure they understood the research project. They were told that the purpose of the study was to examine the influence videotape feedback had on student and teacher perceptions of public speaking performances. They were asked to videotape each of their students giving a speech once during the semester. They willingly agreed since both of them had been using videotape in their classes in previous semesters.

All three teachers required their students to prepare and present four original speeches that would comprise approximately half of their course grade. The experiment conducted at BNC used the second and third rounds of speeches presented by the subjects during the 1985 spring semester while the experiment at NNC used the third and fourth rounds of speeches presented during the same semester. The difference in rounds of speeches used at each college was due to the availability and scheduling of the video equipment. Although the actual first round of semester speeches was not used at either school, the speeches discussed in this study will be referred to as first and second rounds for clarity's sake.

The four sections of subjects (two from BNC and two from NNC) were randomly split in half before the first round of speeches because, by using this procedure, one half of the subjects in each class functioned as the control group (without video feedback), while the other half functioned as the treatment group (with video feedback). The students were told that half of them would be videotaped during the first round and half of them during the second round in order to use class time as efficiently as possible. They were all assured that they would be videotaped only once, and that they would view their playbacks privately. The subjects were further told that videotape feedback had been a beneficial experience for public speaking students in the past. None of the subjects in the study refused to have their performances videotaped.

Also prior to the first round of speeches, the teachers passed out a copy of the Speech Rating Scale to all of the subjects so that they would be familiar with the instrument. Each teacher explained that self-evaluations were part of their learning experiences and that the Speech Rating Scale would guide them in the self-evaluation process. The teachers asked the students to read the form and then went over the directions for completing the form. The teachers discussed the seven-point ratings, highlighted the six categories with their subquestion criteria, and answered any questions regarding the interpretation of the eighteen items.

The procedure for the control groups at both schools included three steps: (a) one subject gave a speech without being videotaped, (b) the subject completed the Speech Rating Scale following the performance, and (c) the teacher completed the Speech Rating Scale following the subject's performance. The procedure for the treatment groups involved four steps: (a) one subject gave a speech while being videotaped, (b) the teacher

completed the Speech Rating Scale following the subject's performance, (c) the subject privately viewed the videotape replay following the performance, and (d) the subject completed the Speech Rating Scale following the videotape replay of the performance. The treatment groups at BNC and NNC differed on the third step. Each BNC subject went to a small viewing room adjacent to the classroom and was given an immediate private viewing of the performance. Each NNC subject went to the Media Center outside of class time for a delayed private viewing of the performance. Sixty-two percent of the NNC subjects viewed their playbacks within twenty-four hours of their performances. The remaining thirty-eight percent viewed themselves an average of three days later. These subjects had a longer delay time primarily because their speech class met until 4:15 p.m. Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, and the Media Center closed at 5:30 p.m. The Media Center was closed on weekends, too, so Friday afternoon speakers had at least a two-day playback delay.

The video equipment was placed at the center back of the classroom. The position of the equipment in the classroom was designed to minimize the chance of the equipment and/or its technician being a distraction to the speakers. All subjects were videotaped during their entire speeches by a fixed camera that provided a full shot, from head to toe. The video monitor was also positioned so that subjects could not watch themselves while they were speaking.

After the first round of speeches was finished, the subjects in both the control and treatment groups were given a copy of their Speech Rating Scale that had been completed by the teacher, including any additional comments about specific aspects of the performances. The grades for the speeches were also written on the forms. The two BNC teachers used the same

100-point grading scale, and the NNC teacher used a similar one. At BNC, A = 92-100; B = 84-91; C = 72-83; and D = 60-71, while at NNC, A = 93-100; B = 85-92; C = 77-84; and D = 65-76. It should be noted that the subjects in the treatment groups were given copies of the instructor's evaluation form following the videotape replays.

The same procedures were followed for the second round of speeches during the experiment. The subjects in the control group and treatment group of each class during the first round of speeches switched groups when the second round of speeches began. Those subjects in the control group during the first round of speeches had their second speeches videotaped, thus becoming the treatment group, and vice-versa. Switching the control and treatment groups allowed for "equal treatment" of the students in each class since every attempt was made to conduct the study in as natural a setting as possible.

Data Analysis

The data in the study were originally compiled by the researcher and then cross-checked by a research assistant to insure accuracy. The data were entered on an Apple II Plus microcomputer and analyzed via STATS PLUS from Human Systems Dynamics (Madigan, S. & Lawrence, V., 1982). STATS PLUS is a general statistics software package designed for the Apple II. The program is written in Applesoft and requires 48K of memory, one or two disk drives, and 3.3 DOS. Apple II is a registered trademark of Apple Computer, Inc.

Before entering the data on the microcomputer, the completed Speech Rating Scale forms were individually reviewed for scoring adjustments. Four types of adjustments were necessary to facilitate the use of analysis of variance measures. First, if the student or instructor left one of the

eighteen items blank, the mean score of 4 was entered (17 student occurrences; 4 instructor occurrences). Second, if the student or instructor recorded more than one score, e.g., 5-6, for one of the eighteen items, the lower and higher score were entered alternately every other time (14 student occurrences). Third, if the student or instructor left the grade expected or grade received item blank, the mean score of 3 was entered (21 student occurrences). Letter grades were converted to numeric values of A=1, B=2, C=3, D=4, F=5 for computation purposes. Fourth, if the student or instructor recorded more than one grade, e.g., A-B, for the grade expected or grade received item, the lower and higher score were entered alternately every other time (13 student occurrences). Mean values were inserted during the first and third adjustments rather than zero values because the zero values probably would have enhanced the variance in scores given by the student and instructor. Similarly, alternate values were inserted during the second and fourth adjustments to guard against enhancing the variance in scores.

Two other factors occurring in the study required special consideration and merit discussion at this point. First, two instructors from Bethany Nazarene College and one instructor from Northwest Nazarene College were involved in the experiment; thus, instructor differences became a factor in the design. Instructor differences in scoring were checked during data analysis and are reported as they reflected on the results in the next chapter. Second, a split-half arrangement of treatment and control subjects was used; thus, order effects became a factor in the design. Order effects among subjects videotaped on the first speech and subjects videotaped on the second speech are reported as they reflected on the results in the next chapter.

The analysis of the data gathered in this study relied on the discrepancy scores occurring between student (internal) and instructor (external) evaluations of public speaking performances. Discrepancy scores were calculated two ways to determine whether methodology itself made a difference in the results. The first method was a summation of the eighteen scores that indicated total discrepancy, whereas the second method was a summation of the variance in the eighteen scores that indicated item discrepancy. For example, a student gave ratings of 3,5,6,4 and a teacher gave ratings of 4,5,5,3. According to the former method (total discrepancy), the discrepancy score was 1; but according to the latter method (item discrepancy), the discrepancy score was 3.

To test the first two hypotheses of this investigation, analysis of variance measures were used. The level of confidence for rejection of all hypotheses was set at .05. The first stage of analysis examined the differences between student and teacher perceptions of the speeches given in both the control and treatment groups. This analysis tested the following hypothesis:

H₁: Videotape replay of a student's speech will increase the congruency between the student's perception and the teacher's perception of the student's performance.

The second stage of analysis examined the differences that occurred in the treatment groups due to the timing (immediate versus delayed) of the videotape feedback. This analysis tested the following hypothesis:

H₂: There will be a significant difference between discrepancy scores of students who received immediate videotape feedback and those who received delayed videotape feedback.

The third stage of analysis examined the relationship between student/teacher scoring and student/teaching grading. The researcher assumed that greater congruency between student and teacher on scoring should lead to greater congruency between student and teacher on grading. This analysis required a set of Pearson product-moment correlations to test the following hypothesis:

H₃: There will be a significant relationship between the discrepancy score of the student's and teacher's perception of a given speech and the grade assigned to that speech.

After completing these three global analyses of the data, each of the six categories was examined separately to determine where the least and most congruence occurred between teachers' and students' perceptions on the Speech Rating Scale. The six categories included organization, language, material, delivery, analysis, and voice.

CHAPTER IV

Results

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses used in the study. The first section of the chapter provides the results of two special considerations in the design: instructor differences and order effects. The second section gives the results for the three hypotheses that were tested. The final section includes the results of the analyses conducted on the six categories (organization, language, material, delivery, analysis, and voice) of the Speech Rating Scale.

Instructor Differences and Order Effects

Two one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests were used to check for differences among the three instructors involved in the experiment. The results indicated significant differences on total scoring among the three instructors in both the control and treatment groups. Due to the results of these two ANOVA tests, raw scores were converted to z scores during later analysis of the data. See Tables 1 and 2 for the results of these tests.

A two-way ANOVA test was used to check for order effects that might have occurred among students in the control and treatment groups during the two speech rounds. This test compared the discrepancy scores (treatment minus control) between students who received videotape feedback after the first round of speeches and students who received videotape feedback after the second round. The analysis indicated significant differences; see Table 3 for the results of this test.

Table 1

Instructor Differences in Total Scoring for Control Groups

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Instr. 1,2,3	2	9073.18	4536.59	81.63	<.001
Error	51	2834.25	55.57		
Total	53	11907.43			

Note. Mean scores were 84.06 for Instructor 1, 94.21 for Instructor 2, and 115.96 for Instructor 3.

Table 2

Instructor Differences in Total Scoring for Treatment Groups

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Instr. 1,2,3	2	7918.06	3959.03	60.17	<.001
Error	51	3355.49	65.79		
Total	53	11273.55			

Note. Mean scores were 84.94 for Instructor 1, 92.93 for Instructor 2, and 114.38 for Instructor 3.

Hypothesis Testing

This part of the chapter presents the results of the statistical tests used to test the three hypotheses.

H_1 : Videotape replay of a student's speech will increase the congruency between the student's perception and the teacher's perception of the student's performance.

First, a two-way ANOVA was used to test the hypothesis. It tested for congruency between student and teacher perceptions via the total discrepancy score method. This analysis did not indicate significant differences at the .05 level. Second, three one-way ANOVA tests were used to check for congruency via the item discrepancy score method. This analysis revealed significant differences for Instructor 1, but not for Instructors 2 and 3. See Tables 4 and 5 for the results of these tests.

H_2 : There will be a significant difference between discrepancy scores of students who received immediate videotape feedback and those who received delayed videotape feedback.

Two one-way ANOVA tests were used to test the second hypothesis. The first one tested for differences among students in the two instructors' classes that received immediate videotape feedback. Significant differences were not reflected in the ANOVA results; therefore, those subjects were collapsed into one group ($n=30$). The second ANOVA tested for differences among students in immediate and delayed treatment conditions via the total discrepancy score method. This analysis did not reveal significant differences; see Table 6 for the results of this test.

H_3 : There will be a significant relationship between the discrepancy score of the student's and teacher's perception of a given speech and the

Table 3

Order Effects in First and Second Speech Rounds

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Instr. 1,2,3	2	1.83	.92	1.17	.3179
Order	1	4.50	4.50	5.76	.0192
Instr./Order	2	18.05	9.03	11.57	<.001
Error	48	37.46	.78		
Total	53	61.84			

Note. Subjects receiving treatment first had mean scores of .08 for Instructor 1, -.04 for Instructor 2, and -1.64 for Instructor 3. Subjects receiving treatment second had mean scores of -.40 for Instructor 1, -.04 for Instructor 2, and .65 for Instructor 3.

Table 4

Student vs. Teacher Perceptions--Total Discrepancy

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Instr. 1,2,3	2	1.77	.89	.69	>.05
Condition	1	.57	.57	.45	>.05
Instr./Cond.	2	1.36	.68	.53	>.05
Error	102	131.00	1.28		
Total	107	134.70			

Note. Mean score for Instructor 1 control group was -.04 and -.06 for treatment group. Mean score for Instructor 2 control group was .02 and .00 for treatment group. Mean score for Instructor 3 control group was -.53 and -.05 for treatment group.

Table 5

Student vs. Teacher Perceptions--Item Discrepancy

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Instr. 1	1	52.53	52.53	1.47	.2328
Error	30	1070.69	35.69		
Total	31	1123.22			
Instr. 2	1	.57	.57	.00	>.05
Error	26	1329.86	51.15		
Total	27	1330.43			
Instr. 3	1	60.75	60.75	.33	>.05
Error	46	8430.92	183.28		
Total	47	8491.67			

Note. Mean score for Instructor 1 control group was 16.94 and 14.38 for treatment group. Mean score for Instructor 2 control group was 14.21 and 14.50 for treatment group. Mean score for Instructor 3 control group was 17.96 and 20.21 for treatment group.

Table 6

Timing of Feedback in Treatment Groups--Total Discrepancy

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Imm./Del. Groups	1	.0097	.0097	.00	>.05
Error	52	60.0353	1.1545		
Total	53	60.0450			

Note. Mean scores were -.03 for the immediate feedback group and -.05 for the delayed feedback group.

discrepancy score of the student's and teacher's grade assigned to that speech.

A set of Pearson product-moment correlations was calculated to test the third hypothesis. The correlations were calculated according to the total discrepancy score method and the item discrepancy score method. Both scoring methods indicated a stronger relationship in the control condition for Instructor 1, but a stronger relationship in the treatment condition for Instructors 2 and 3. See Tables 7 and 8 for the results of these correlations.

Category Analysis

Category analysis was conducted to determine where the least and greatest congruency occurred between teachers' and students' perceptions of the six categories included in the Speech Rating Scale. Three subquestion criteria were listed below each of the six categories requiring three numeric ratings for each category. The mean of those three subquestion ratings was used during the category analysis. The analysis consisted of a series of one-way ANOVA tests that used the discrepancy scores between instructors and students for each of the categories. Because of the instructor differences inherent in the study, analyses of categories were conducted for individual instructors.

In the control condition for Instructor 1, the least congruency occurred on organization and analysis while the greatest congruency occurred on language, material, delivery, and voice. The treatment condition indicated that the least congruency occurred on material, delivery, analysis, and voice while the greatest congruency occurred on organization and language.

In the control condition for Instructor 2, the least congruency occurred on organization, language, delivery, and analysis while the greatest

Table 7

Pearson r Summary Table--Total Discrepancy

Instructor	Control r	Treatment r
1	+.302	-.063
2	+.030	+.461
3	+.352	+.391

Note. No response was given to "grade expected" by 11 out of 32 subjects for Instructor 1, 8 out of 28 subjects for Instructor 2, and 2 out of 48 subjects for Instructor 3.

Table 8

Pearson r Summary Table--Item Discrepancy

Instructor	Control r	Treatment r
1	+.248	-.399
2	+.085	+.415
3	+.297	+.446

Note. No response was given to "grade expected" by 11 out of 32 subjects for Instructor 1, 8 out of 28 subjects for Instructor 2, and 2 out of 48 subjects for Instructor 3.

congruency occurred on material and voice. The treatment condition indicated that the least congruency occurred on material while the greatest congruency occurred on organization, language, delivery, analysis, and voice.

In the control condition for Instructor 3, the least congruency occurred on voice while the greatest congruency occurred on organization, language, material, delivery, and analysis. The treatment condition indicated that the least congruency occurred on delivery, analysis, and voice while the greatest congruency occurred on organization, language, and material.

Category analysis revealed three common areas among the instructors. The control groups for the three instructors indicated that the greatest congruency occurred on material. The treatment groups indicated that the greatest congruency occurred on organization and language. See Tables 9 and 10 for a summary of the category analysis.

The last step in the category analysis was to run a series of two-correlated-sample t tests. The t tests were used to check for changes in student perceptions from control to treatment conditions. A positive increase indicated greater congruency in the treatment condition. The t test results for Instructors 2 and 3 indicated a positive direction on all categories. The t test results for Instructor 1 indicated a positive direction on each category with the exceptions of language and voice. See Table 11 for a summary of these tests.

Table 9

Category Analysis Mean Table--Control Groups

	Org.	Lang.	Mat.	Del.	Anal.	Voice
Instr. 1	.938	.688	.750	.688	.875	.750
Instr. 2	.857	.857	.571	.857	.714	.500
Instr. 3	.917	.792	.833	.917	.833	1.083

Note. The lesser the mean value the greater the degree of congruency. Mean range value was .813 for Instructor 1, .679 for Instructor 2, and .937 for Instructor 3. Scores below mean range value indicated greater congruency and scores equal to or above mean range value indicated lesser congruency.

Table 10

Category Analysis Mean Table--Treatment Groups

	Org.	Lang.	Mat.	Del.	Anal.	Voice
Instr. 1	.500	.563	.625	.688	.688	.750
Instr. 2	.571	.714	.929	.571	.714	.643
Instr. 3	.875	.792	.917	1.083	1.000	1.167

Note. The lesser the mean value the greater the degree of congruency. Mean range value was .625 for Instructor 1, .750 for Instructor 2, and .980 for Instructor 3. Scores below mean range value indicated greater congruency and scores equal to or above mean range value indicated lesser congruency.

Table 11

t Test Summary Table

	df	<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>
Organization			
Instr. 1	15	.960	>.05
Instr. 2	13	1.235	.2373
Instr. 3	23	.499	>.05
Language			
Instr. 1	15	-1.145	.2697
Instr. 2	13	.249	>.05
Instr. 3	23	1.238	.2263
Material			
Instr. 1	15	.764	>.05
Instr. 2	13	.234	>.05
Instr. 3	23	.840	>.05
Delivery			
Instr. 1	15	.324	>.05
Instr. 2	13	.366	>.05
Instr. 3	23	1.848	.0745
Analysis			
Instr. 1	15	1.232	.2355
Instr. 2	13	.611	>.05
Instr. 3	23	1.127	.2707
Voice			
Instr. 1	15	-.333	>.05
Instr. 2	13	1.472	.1623
Instr. 3	23	.866	>.05

Note. Critical t value was 1.75 for Instructor 1, 1.77 for Instructor 2, and 1.71 for Instructor 3.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

The discussion to follow is based on the results reported in Chapter IV and is meant to provide further insight into the study. This discussion presents observations of the researcher, explores the strengths and weaknesses of the study, and includes suggestions for future research.

Instructor differences was one of the special considerations in the design of the study. It was hoped that the three instructors involved in the experiment would not differ significantly on scoring; however, the results indicated that they did. The greatest difference appeared between the instructors from Bethany Nazarene College (Instructors 1 and 2) and the instructor from Northwest Nazarene College (Instructor 3). This difference may have been due to the fact that the two BNC instructors worked together on the course and tried to maintain uniformity in the various public communication sections offered in their department. The BNC instructors also had more experience in teaching communication (Instructor 1, 5 years and Instructor 2, 7 years), so the BNC instructors may have had more consistent evaluative skills simply because of more practice.

Although the instructors differed on scoring among themselves, they remained consistent in their individual scoring during both rounds of speeches for both control and treatment groups. The mean control and treatment scores for the two rounds were: Instructor 1, 84 and 85;

Instructor 2, 94 and 93; and Instructor 3, 116 and 114. Instructor consistency in scoring was a strength of the study.

Order effects was another special consideration in the design of the study. With a split-half arrangement of subjects in each classroom (one-half control and one-half treatment) during both rounds of speeches, the data analysis indicated that order effects occurred in the classes of Instructor 1 and Instructor 3. For Instructor 1, subjects in the treatment group first had a mean score of .08 whereas subjects in the treatment group second had a mean score of -.40. This difference may have been due to the fact that Instructor 1 graded harder on the second speechh because students were expected to improve upon their performances during each speaking round throughout the semester. For Instructor 3, subjects in the treatment group first had a mean score of -1.64 whereas subjects in the treatment group second had a mean score of .65. This difference may be attributed to the fact that these were the last two speeches of the semester and students had improved upon their performances in previous rounds. A practice effect also might have influenced the subjects who received treatment second because they had been through the evaluation process before and were famillar with the system, including the way the instructor had evaluated them in the previous round.

Two different scoring techniques were used in the study: total discrepancy scoring and item discrepancy scoring. The purpose for using the two techniques was to determine whether methodology itself made a difference in the results. When testing the first hypothesis (student vs. teacher perceptions) the total discrepancy scoring method did not indicate significant differences at the .05 level; however, the item discrepancy method revealed significant differences for Instructor 1. Based on this

hypothesis testing experience, the researcher recommends using the item discrepancy method because it is more sensitive to subtle differences in scores--it does not allow differences to "wash out."

At this point it seems necessary to address the question, "Why didn't videotape feedback increase the congruency between the student's perception and the teacher's perception of the student's performance in all three instructor groups?" Several possible answers may be given to that question. First, videotape feedback may not be the appropriate vehicle for providing feedback about all of the instrument categories, especially the more abstract ones like analysis and material. For example, one of the subquestion criteria for material is "adapted to audience." In this case, a student watching a videotape playback of a performance may not be able to make the transfer to the actual speaking situation and evaluate whether or not the material was adapted to the audience. Second, the evaluation settings were not the same for both students and instructors. The students in the treatment groups evaluated themselves after watching videotape replays, but the instructors never watched videotaped replays during their evaluations. Instructors might evaluate students differently if they, too, evaluated performances after video playbacks. Further research may explore the difference between an instructor evaluating a live performance and a videotaped performance. Third, both student and instructor evaluations were subjective, and yet, it was assumed that videotape feedback would make student evaluations more objective. However, it may be that videotape feedback assists a student toward making a more objective evaluation, yet, if the instructor's evaluation is influenced by more than the performance, e.g., whether or not the instructor likes the student's overall personality, it is unlikely that their two perceptions will ever be congruent.

Another major part of this research was to determine whether immediate or delayed videotape feedback had an impact on increasing congruency. From the results of the study, no preference was indicated for the timing of the feedback. This outcome showed that immediate feedback was not as essential as some researchers propose for developing a set of skills. Furthermore, it provided evidence that students did not forget so much of their performances before delayed video feedback occurred that they could not evaluate themselves accurately.

Category analysis was the final section of Chapter IV. The purpose of category analysis was to determine where the least and greatest congruency occurred between teachers' and students' perceptions on the six categories of the Speech Rating Scale. It was expected that videotape feedback would facilitate greater congruency in all six areas (organization, language, material, delivery, analysis, voice), but it would especially have an impact on language, delivery, and voice. These three areas seemed likely to be influenced more since videotape replay provided an aural and visual replica of a performance. The results reflected greatest congruency in the treatment groups on organization and language for all three instructors. Congruency on the other areas needs further research.

The results of the three hypotheses and the category analysis were influenced by the use of mean values when scoring adjustments were necessary on the Speech Rating Scale. The mean value of four was inserted a total of 21 times in the data when students and instructors left subcategory items blank. The mean value of three was also inserted a total of 21 times in the data when students left the grade expected item blank. Using mean values rather than zero values was a conservative measure for

treating the data that may have suppressed the variance that would have occurred if the items had not been left blank.

Probably the biggest disadvantage of conducting research in a natural classroom setting is that all of the experimental factors cannot be controlled. One of the uncontrolled factors that occurred in this study was the return rate on Speech Rating Scale forms for the delayed feedback treatment groups. The students in the delayed feedback condition were videotaped during class, but had to view their playbacks after class at the campus Media Center. This arrangement of facilities required extra effort by the students so, naturally, some of them did not follow through by viewing the playbacks. The return rate for the second round of speeches was slightly less than for the first round of speeches probably because those speeches were the last ones of the semester and the students may have lacked the motivation to view themselves since they no longer had to be concerned about improving their classroom performances.

Another uncontrolled factor that occurred in the study was the response to the "grade expected" blank on the student form of the Speech Rating Scale. The response from subjects was 66% for Instructor 1, 71% for Instructor 2, and 96% for Instructor 3. One reason for the students' lack of response may have been that they were afraid of grading themselves too high or too low. Another reason may have been that they did not feel it was necessary to assign themselves a grade since it was the instructor's grade that really counted. Or, students may not have known the criteria for grading and did not feel qualified to grade themselves. Also, the student's goals and the teacher's criteria may not have been congruent. Whatever the reason, future researchers should be aware that students may be reluctant to assign their own grades to performances.

In summary, the results of this study indicated that videotape feedback increased congruency between student and teacher perceptions on some aspects of a public speaking performance. In addition, no differences were found in using immediate and delayed videotape feedback to increase congruency. These two major findings provide practical information for teachers and instructional designers who want to capitalize on the effectiveness of videotape feedback in public speaking classes. However, the ending of this research marks the beginning of future research in videotape feedback. Several possibilities for other studies will be discussed in the concluding paragraphs of this chapter.

The primary focus of this study was the informing function of videotape feedback in public speaking classes. The Speech Rating Scale was used in conjunction with videotape replay to assist students in identifying the strengths and weaknesses of their performances. It was assumed that if students could identify these qualities that they would improve their performances during the next round of speeches. Although this was an underlying assumption, the motivating function of videotape feedback was not a part of this study. Further research needs to be conducted to explore the motivational aspects of videotape feedback. It would be helpful to know what the impact of videotape feedback is on subsequent trials. Perhaps a study that examines the effects of videotape feedback throughout a semester (or comparable school term) would reflect those motivational aspects.

This study was based on the notion that the video replay of a performance, in itself, was feedback for the learner. Future researchers could take issue with that notion and conduct a more in-depth study of videotape replay as feedback. One might argue that the videotape replay

becomes feedback only when the student goes through the process of viewing the performance and completing the evaluation instrument. Or, videotape replay becomes feedback when the student views the playback and receives the instructor's evaluation form.

REFERENCES

- Adams, J. A. (1976). Learning and memory: An introduction. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press.
- Annet, J. (1964). The role of knowledge of results in learning: A survey. In J. P. DeCecco (Ed.), Educational technology. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Becker, S. L. (1962). The rating of speeches: Scale independence. Speech Monographs, 29, 38-44.
- Bilodeau, E., & Bilodeau, I. (1961). Motor skills learning. Annual Review of Psychology, 12, 250.
- Bilodeau, E., Bilodeau, I., & Schumsky, D. (1959). Some effects of introducing and withdrawing knowledge of results early and late in practice. Journal of Experimental Psychology, 58 (2), 142-144.
- Bock, D. G. & Bock, E. H. (1981). Evaluating classroom speaking. Published by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills and the Speech Communication Association.
- Book, C. L. (1983). Providing feedback: The research on effective oral and written feedback strategies. Paper presented at the Speech Communication Association Convention, Washington, D. C.
- Book, C. L., & Simmons, K. W. (1980). Dimensions and perceived helpfulness of student speech criticism. Communication Education, 29, 135-145.
- Brophy, J. (1981). Teacher praise: A functional analysis. Review of Educational Research, 51, 5-32.

- Bradley, B. (1970). An experimental study of the effectiveness of the video-recorder in teaching a basic speech course. Speech Teacher, 19, 161-167.
- Bush, J., Bittner, J., & Brooks, W. (1972). The effect of the videotape recorder on levels of anxiety, exhibitionism, and reticence. Speech Teacher, 21, 127-130.
- Cathcart, R. (1966). Post communication: Critical analysis and evaluation. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.
- Caton, C. F., & Feather, G. K. (1965). Teaching speech with television. NAEB Journal, 24, 26.
- Darnell, D. K. (1978). Some "basics" to get back to: A transactional perspective on teaching-learning. Communication Education, 27, 277-285.
- Dedmon, D. N. (1967). Criticizing student speeches: Philosophy and principles. Central States Speech Journal, 18, 276-284.
- Deese, J. & Hulse, S. (1967). The psychology of learning (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Delhl, E., Breen, M., & Larson, C. (1970). The effects of teacher comment and television video tape playback on the frequency of nonfluency in beginning speech students. Speech Teacher, 19, 185-189.
- Dieker, R., Crane, L., & Brown, C. (1971). Repeated self-viewings on closed-circuit television as it affects changes in the self-concept and personality needs of student speakers. Speech Teacher, 20, 131-142.
- Dowrick, P. W., & Biggs, S. J. (Eds.). (1983). Using video: Psychological and social applications. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Ellio tt, R., & Markham, D. (1970). Portable video recorders in higher education. Audiovisual Instruction, 15, 46-48.

- Fuller, F., & Manning, B. (1973). Self-confrontation reviewed: A conceptualization for video playback in teacher education. Review of Educational Research, 43 (4), 469-528.
- Gagne, R. (1976). The learning basis of teaching methods. In NSSE's The psychology of teaching methods. Chicago: NSSE.
- Goldhaber, G., & Kline, J. (1972). Effects of videotape on attendance and attitude in the fundamentals of speech communication course. Speech Teacher, 21, 93-98.
- Gross, L. (1969). Utilizing ITV for performance classes. Audiovisual Instruction, 14, 54-59.
- Hirschfeld, A. (1968). Videotape recordings for self-analysis in the speech classroom. Speech Teacher, 17, 116-118.
- Holtzman, P. D. (1960). A symposium on evaluation, criticism, and grading.
1. Speech criticism and evaluation as communication. Speech Teacher, 9, 1-7.
- Ingram, D. B. (1974). Videotape self-confrontation in teaching communication skills. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, State University of New York at Buffalo.
- Kulhavy, R. W. (1977). Feedback in written instruction. Review of Educational Research, 47 (1), 211-232.
- Lake, R. L., & Adams, W. C. (1984). Effects of the videotape recorder on levels of anxiety, exhibitionism, and reticence in high school speech students. Communication Education, 33, 333-336.
- Locke, E., Cartledge, N., & Koeppe, J. (1968). Motivational effects of knowledge of results: A goal-setting phenomenon. Psychological Bulletin, 70 (6), 474-485.

- Madigan, S., & Lawrence, V. (1982). STATS PLUS: A general statistics package for the Apple II [Computer program]. Northridge, CA, Human Systems Dynamics, 9010 Reseda Boulevard, Suite 222.
- McCroskey, J., & Lashbrook, W. (1970). The effect of various methods of employing video-taped television playback in a course in public speaking. Speech Teacher, 19, 199-205.
- Miles, P. (1981). Student video self-critiques. Communication Education, 30, 280-283.
- Mulac, A. (1974). Effects of three feedback conditions employing videotape on acquired speech skill. Speech Monographs, 41, 205-214.
- Nelson, H. (1968). Videotaping the speech course. Speech Teacher, 17, 101-103.
- Nyquist, J. L., & Wulff, D. H. (1982). The use of simultaneous feedback to alter teaching behaviors of university instructors. Journal of Classroom Interaction, 18, 11-18.
- Ochs, D. (1968). Videotape in teaching advanced public speaking. Speech Teacher, 17, 110-112.
- Peck, R. F., & Tucker, J. A. (1973). Research on teacher education. In R. M. Travers (3rd ed.), Second handbook of research on teaching. Chicago: Rand-McNally.
- Phelps, W., & Hempen, C. (1960). Beginning speakers and closed circuit television. Western Speech, 24, 33-36.
- Reynolds, R. (1968). Videotape in teaching speech in a small college. Speech Teacher, 17, 113-115.
- Salomon, G., & McDonald, F. (1970). Pretest and posttest reactions to self-viewing one's teaching performance on video tape. Journal of Educational Psychology, 61, 280-286.

- Seiler, W., Schuelke, L., & Lieb-Brilhart, B. (1984). Communication for the contemporary classroom. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Skinner, B. F. (1953). Science and human behavior. New York: Macmillan.
- Sprague, J. A. (1971). An investigation of the written critique behavior of college communication instructors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, IN.
- Steinmetz, C. W. (1982). The effect of videotape feedback on the development of presentation skills. Dissertation Abstracts International, 43, 2256-A. (University Microfilms No. DA8228616)
- Tustin, A. (1966). Feedback. In A. G. Smith (Ed.), Communication and culture. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Venitsky, J. (1982, October). Using videotape for self-improvement. Paper presented at the Annual California Great Teachers Seminar, Santa Barbara, CA.
- Vogel, R. A. (1975). Speech criticism effectiveness: A classification and suggestions for future research. Today's Speech, (Winter 1975), 39-46.
- Young, S. L. (1974). Student perceptions of helpfulness in classroom speech criticism. Speech Teacher, 23, 222-234.
- Zuber-Skerritt, O. (Ed.). (1984). Video in higher education. New York: Nichols Publishing Company.

APPENDIX A

Speech Rating Scale

Student Form

Name _____ Date _____
 I.D.# _____ Instructor _____

Directions: Evaluate each of the items listed below on a scale of 7 to 1. Each number represents the following

- 7 = Superior, among the best in the class
- 6 = Excellent, well above average
- 5 = Good, could stand some improvement
- 4 = Average, the norm for the assignment
- 3 = Fair, meets minimum quality standards
- 2 = Needs work, should be reworked before presentation
- 1 = Inadequate, does not meet the assignment

ITEM	SCORE	COMMENT
Organization:		
Introduction?	_____	
Body?	_____	
Conclusion?	_____	
Language:		
Clear, accurate, vivid?	_____	
Appropriate standard of usage?	_____	
Conversational mode?	_____	
Material:		
Specific, valid, relevant?	_____	
Properly distributed?	_____	
Adapted to audience?	_____	
Delivery:		
Natural, at ease, direct?	_____	
Eye contact?	_____	
Gestures?	_____	
Analysis:		
Speech adapted to audience?	_____	
Clear arrangement of ideas?	_____	
Main points supportive of purpose?	_____	
Voice:		
Appropriate volume and rate?	_____	
Varied vocal pitch and intensity?	_____	
Expressive of logical or emotional meanings?	_____	

Grade Expected _____

APPENDIX B

Speech Rating Scale

Instructor Form

Name _____ Date _____

I.D.# _____ Instructor _____

Directions: Evaluate each of the items listed below on a scale of 7 to 1. Each number represents the following:

- 7 = Superior, among the best in the class
- 6 = Excellent, well above average
- 5 = Good, could stand some improvement
- 4 = Average, the norm for the assignment
- 3 = Fair, meets minimum quality standards
- 2 = Needs work, should be reworked before presentation
- 1 = Inadequate, does not meet the assignment

ITEM	SCORE	COMMENT
Organization:		
Introduction?	_____	
Body?	_____	
Conclusion?	_____	
Language:		
Clear, accurate, vivid?	_____	
Appropriate standard of usage?	_____	
Conversational mode?	_____	
Material:		
Specific, valid, relevant?	_____	
Properly distributed?	_____	
Adapted to audience?	_____	
Delivery:		
Natural, at ease, direct?	_____	
Eye contact?	_____	
Gestures?	_____	
Analysis:		
Speech adapted to audience?	_____	
Clear arrangement of ideas?	_____	
Main points supportive of purpose?	_____	
Voice:		
Appropriate volume and rate?	_____	
Varied vocal pitch and intensity?	_____	
Expressive of logical or emotional meanings?	_____	
Grade Received _____		